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Contents

ESL Teachers as Theory Makers: A Discourse Analysis of Student Assignments in a Second Language Acquisition Course

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Abstract—**Second Language Acquisition (SLA) knowledge is necessary in order to increase the likelihood that teachers will engage in sound practices. The purpose of this study was to discursively examine the evolving SLA knowledge as part of living educational theories in course assignments of 29 teachers in an SLA theory class. This study offers several valuable additional insights about teachers living educational theories of SLA. Specifically, preservice teachers exhibited more willingness to change their practice in the future than inservice teachers, yet preservice teachers still expressed both a confirmation of original beliefs and personal validation for extant beliefs.**

Index Terms—**education, research, English language learners, second language acquisition, discourse analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION

Embedded in the call for higher quality education for English Language Learners (ELLs) in K12 settings is a presumed need for teachers to have working knowledge of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Zepeda, Castro, & Cronin, 2011). This alignment between SLA knowledge and practice is the premise under which arguments are made for creating contexts where experienced teachers are empowered to plan meaningful language learning for students (Basturkmen, 2012).

Teachers' ability to leverage knowledge of SLA in behalf of their English learning students can be conceptualized as living educational theories (Whitehead, 1989). According to Argyris & Schön (1974):

Theories are theories regardless of their origin: there are practical, common sense theories as well as academic or scientific theories. A theory is not necessarily accepted, good, or true; it is only a set of interconnected propositions that have the same referent— the subject of the theory. Their interconnectedness is reflected in the logic of relationships among propositions: change in propositions at one point in the theory entails changes in propositions elsewhere in it. Theories are vehicles for explanation, prediction; explanatory theory explains events by setting forth propositions from which these events may be inferred (p. 41).

According to Horowitz (1986) SLA knowledge (as part of a living educational theory) is necessary in order to increase the likelihood that teachers will engage in sound practices. In fact, Fillmore and Snow (2000) and Faltis, Arias, and Ramírez-Marín (2010) have all attempted to outline what schoolteachers of English Language Learners should know about language pedagogy. Among these competences is knowledge of formal SLA theory. In addition to improving practice, researchers have suggested that learning about SLA theories positions teachers to design effective bilingual/ESL programs (Calderon, Slavin, & Sánchez, 2011) as well as advocate for social change (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). In addition, practicing teachers themselves cite SLA knowledge as integral to their success working with English learners (Nassaji, 2012).

Since knowledge of SLA theory as it operates in living educational theories of teachers is so important, it is noteworthy that little research has inquired into how teachers reveal and position understandings about ideas such as language learning in their living educational theories. The purpose of this study was to discursively examine the evolving SLA knowledge as part of living educational theories in course assignments of 29 teachers in an SLA theory class. The major research questions are listed below.

(1) What are these teachers' initial living educational theories in regards to formal SLA theory?

(2) What do the teachers' course assignments reveal about their living educational theories in relationship to the public theories they have been presented in class?

(3) How do various groups of teachers discursively assert modifications to their theories and/or intended changes to

their practice?

We hoped that these assignments would indeed offer insights into their living educational theories with reference to their knowledge of SLA and revealed spaces of potential willingness to reconsider practice.

Merging SLA Theory and Language Pedagogy in Course Design

As a response to the apparent need for ESL teachers to learn about SLA theories, coursework is often included as part of teacher preparation and/or professional development (Lucas, 2011). This is necessary in light of recent studies suggesting that teachers continue to harbor beliefs about bilingualism in classrooms that are incompatible with current SLA knowledge. An example of this is Vaish's (2012) study that found many teachers still thought parents' use of first language in the home was detrimental to students' learning at school.

Studies like Vaish's (2012) highlight Ellis' (2011) review of research on course design for ESL teachers about SLA. He proposed that rather than focusing on what ESL teachers should know for student learning, designers of courses should think about how SLA could inform teacher learning. To build his argument about the qualities of effective SLA theory courses, he cited Cook's (1999) requirements for the use of SLA research in teaching, namely that the research should be (1) valid (i.e., sound methodology, adequate data, reasoned conclusions); (2) ethical (e.g., not exploiting learners by placing them in contexts where they are unlikely to be successful); (3) sufficient to allow for generality and extrapolation to different contexts; (4) matched between the language(s) investigated in the research and the language being taught; (5) matched between the profiles of the learners being investigated and the profiles of the students being taught; and (6) accorded with the instructional goals of the class (for example, Cook argued against a narrow research focus on morphosyntax, saying that it limits the usefulness of SLA for language teaching).

While sound course design featuring sound research should improve teachers' knowledge of SLA and influence their beliefs about their teaching, there is evidence that ESL teachers' beliefs about SLA are not always based on the theories they have "learned" as part of their preparation to work with ESL students (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004). Extensive efforts to alter beliefs and enhance theoretical understandings in teachers have questionable rates of success (Ellis, 2010; Peacock, 2001), although the preponderance of evidence suggests that teacher educators can have some positive effect on teachers (Busch, 2010; Erlam, 2008; McDonald, Badger, & White, 2001).

Teachers' Uptake of SLA Knowledge

One reason for the tentative approach teachers take with respect to SLA theory may be due to the relationship between living educational theories and identity. According to Walkington (2005) teacher identity rests on a foundation of personal theories about teaching and being a teacher. A living educational theory is then formed and reformed through experience (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1991). Thus, teachers who come to SLA classes with personal experiences with language learners already or with personal experiences of learning other language already have working theories that are part of their identities as ESL teachers, no matter how much experience (or lack of experience) they actually have teaching English learners in K12 settings.

Since teachers enter coursework through with ideas about SLA, it is difficult to map how, when and if changes in practice occur. For example, Peter, Markham, and Frey (2012) examined teacher attitudes and practices using multiple methods including an analysis of comments on course evaluations, written class assignments, formal observations post-coursework instruction, and a questionnaire administered after the completion of an18-credit hour ESOL endorsement program. These experienced teachers reported ambivalent feelings towards whether the ESOL endorsement program improved their attitudes and actual teaching practices.

A particularized study on this topic had similar findings to Peter and her colleagues (2012) while shedding light on the process that teachers use as they look at theory in coursework. Kamiya and Loewen (2014) conducted a case study typifying the way in which belief and SLA theory interact in the context of identity. These researchers profiled the learning of a teacher as he read original research articles on the topic of corrective feedback. The researchers found that this teacher was much more interested in the articles from class that validated the parts of his living educational theory that corrective feedback was a highly effective method and ignored evidence in other articles that questioned the legitimacy of corrective feedback practices. Even so, the researchers agued, reading the articles helped him name his practices with precision and reflect on them. To us, this also seemed like an opportunity for this teacher to articulate and advocate his living educational theories in class and to researchers. We wanted to explore the expression of living education theories about SLA on a greater scale.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

We undertook this study with the understanding that teacher identities are expressed through living educational theories (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). These theories are not formed in practice alone, but also in discourse as linguistically-based social interactions with others (Hymes, 1972). In these interactions, people display a variety of personas that collectively constitute a conception of the self. As people displace their conceptions of self, they also reveal their duties, obligations, and living educational theories around phenomena like SLA theory. In other words, we use responses during interactions that reveal who we think we are and who we think others think we are. Those responses are referred to as positioning (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999).

We also considered Bakhtin's (2010) notion of dialogue as a way to think about the development of living educational theory of SLA. For Bakhtin, dialogue is the inevitable result of interaction. In particular, we focused on his

ideas about ventriloquism as part of a dialogical encounter where an interlocutor derives his own language by borrowing and imitating with slight, moderate, or even substantial variations on the language used by others. Thus, analyzing responses in a dialogical form does not focus on finding original or new statements. Instead, it looks at how language is expressed as utterances are ventriloquized and given new life through dialogue. Those ventriloquized utterances merge into a more complicated discourse that has been bounded in some way. It is in ventriloquism during dialogue that SLA theories are taken up and expressed in living educational theories.

We drew on Fairclough's (2003) method of discourse analysis to understand the positions the teachers used within the discourse context of the SLA class. Fairclough's work focused the commitments that we make in conversation as markers of identity. These linguistic commitments are displayed through several types. Some of these commitments are to truth, obligation, and necessity. Other commitments are more evaluative in nature; they are grounded in what is believed to be desirable or undesirable. Evaluative commitments are expressed through the use of terms such as good/bad and useful/important. Evaluative orientations are also used to establish category membership (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), which implies that people in the same category have shared ways of thinking or of expressing thought. The claims of belonging in certain categories are made both implicitly and explicitly.

Another key principle to consider in the discursive construction of position is the identity relationships that we assert (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). There are several types of identity relations: *differentiation*, *relationality, authorization,* and *legitimation.* Differentiation establishes relations of social difference. *Relationality* deals with the social networks that provide *authorization* (an imposing or affirming of an identity through institutionalized power and ideology) and *legitimation* (an invocation of the utility or practicality of particular actions). Relationality that is asserted through legitimation can be derived from moral or value sources, or through narratives of experience (Fairclough, 2003). We used these understandings about differentiation and relationality as a starting point for examining what the students (as past, present, or future teachers) were saying about SLA theories in relationship to their living educational theories. From there, we were able to develop understandings about how these teachers with varying experience levels position their knowledge of SLA within the context of the course.

III. METHODS

This section will offer more information about the participants. It will also detail aspects of data collection and analysis. Finally, it will address the ways in which the researchers attempted to address issues of reliability and trustworthiness in the study.

A. Participants

The participants of the study were twenty-nine international and domestic bachelor's, master's, and doctoral students from two semesters of an SLA class. Some of these students had prior experience teaching in the United States or in international contexts and some did not. This experience was with children, adolescents, or adults and often (especially for international students) involved working with English learners to some degree. Whether they had extensive experiences working with English learners or not, they were taking this class as part of an ESL endorsement or they were planning to pursue research on SLA issues. Table 1 highlights the experience level and nationality status of the participants. Due to concerns for confidentiality, no other personal data will be provided. The participants were invited to participate in the study at the beginning of each semester and provided a consent form approved by the university ethics board.

TABLE 1.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

In-service Experienced American (IEA)	In-service Experienced International (IEI)	Pre-service American (PA)	Pre-service International (PI)
15	8	4	2

Total 29

It was possible for us to determine which of these participants taught which subjects and grades in which countries and for how long. However, the high amount of variability of these teaching experiences does not allow for meaningful statistical comparisons of any kind to be made. As demonstrated in the above table, the demographic information that is provided suggests that only two substantially sized groups can be compared at all—that of experienced/inexperienced teachers and that of national/international students. This is a limitation of this dataset. More data from more participants across more semesters will be needed to look at groups based on elementary/secondary levels, types of schools, content areas, and characteristics such as country of origin. For this reason, the data collection for this study is ongoing. Eventually there might be enough participants to look at the data in more nuanced categories. Even with this limitation in place, however, patterns emerged within the groups for which we did have enough assignments within the current data collection period.

B. Course Description

As in Kamiya and Loewen's (2014) study, the course from which the data were drawn for the current study was designed to elicit and interrogate beliefs about SLA. This course has been designed as an upper-level course in SLA theory. It is cross-listed, meaning that advanced undergraduates who are also pre-service teachers, master's students who are usually in-service teachers who work in local school districts, and doctoral students who have taught in schools or who are international students interested in SLA research all take this class. In order to meet the requirements of the program in terms of topic coverage the course is divided into 14 lessons. The weekly lesson topics for the class are listed in Table 2. The course has been influenced by current research trends in SLA and the national accreditation plan implemented by the department, along with other university requirements for seat time, work load for credit hours, and professor interest and expertise.

Several other important assumptions also underlie the selection of topics. In particular, there is a heavy emphasis on quantitative techniques for examining learner language and testing theories of SLA. This emphasis reflects many of the forces mentioned above but also supports the current educational milieu, which focuses on data-driven instruction and measurable observable behavior as the basis for pedagogical decision-making. Hence, the coursework emphasizes learning outcomes that are more geared toward outcomes for individual learners rather than socially produced language and there is an assumption that competencies are based on the standard of some idealized native speaker, rather than interrogation of socially constructed standards or language competence. In schools in the United States, accountability for content knowledge is demonstrated in English; therefore the idealized speaker takes precedence in most of the contexts that many teachers have come from or will be entering.

TABLE 2.
WEEKLY LESSON TOPICS

Week	Lesson Topic
1	What is a theory? How do we evaluate it?
2	What is language? First language acquisition
3	Relating first and second language processes to the critical theory hypothesis
4	History and research on bilingual education
5	Research on learning versus acquisition
6	Psychological foundations of language learning: Cognitive styles, strategies, and affective factors
7	Psychological foundations of language learning: Information processing—parallel and distributed processing
8	Linguistics and language learning: Universal grammar?
9	Sociolinguistics, pidginization and creoles
10	Contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interlanguage study
11	Communicative competence
12	Applying the previous lessons: The case of computer assisted language learning
13	English for Specific Purposes
14	Future trends/Final exam review

Since the course is taught both online and in a face-to-face setting simultaneously, students who are enrolled online listen to live lectures via the Internet while other students attend the lecture in person. Students are invited to attend class either way and many move back and forth between going to the class, watching it live, and watching after the fact. These attendance variations propose another set of differences in student responses that might emerge, but for which no controls were built into the study.

Original research articles are the primary texts for the class. These articles are selected for their quality according to Cook's (1999) criteria and also in the interest of presenting opposing or diverse stances on the topic. Students complete a response to each week's readings for the professor. The responses ask the students to evaluate the various stances on the topic and then declare an alignment with one of the stances, decry all of them, and/or propose a new stance. Also, for each lesson in the course, the students are asked to attend to the question "What have you learned from this week's readings that helps you be a better teacher?" This question comes at the end of each assignment. Although the structure of the course suggests that the teachers can take what they want and leave what they want to some degree, this question suggests that teachers must take something to their practice.

In addition to their weekly evaluation of the arguments presented in the original research articles, students are asked to articulate an informal theory of second language acquisition once at the beginning and once at the end of the semester. They share information about their current living educational theories with regards to SLA. When they articulate their initial theories they are encouraged to cite experiences as language learners, experiences with language learners in a variety of settings, or talk about other courses they have taken in order to frame their present thinking about SLA. In addition, the students in the course are asked to evaluate the ways in which their living educational theories of SLA have shifted or changed during the course. They are also asked to set some goals for their teaching practice. Thus, many opportunities are available for them to discuss their knowledge of theories of SLA and how they fit within their living educational theories that guide their teaching. However, since the question that the students were asked suggests that they must carry something into their theory, there is the potential that the participants would indicate that they planned to incorporate SLA theories into their practice that they actually had no intention of incorporating. Further, although teachers have complex living educational theories that are also tested in the classroom as practice evolves, no teacher can adhere to their living educational theory entirely. This fact creates "living contradictions" (Whitehead, 1989) that were not the focus of this study. Because the only data we had were the teachers' assignments, all we can say about

them is what the teachers told us, when we prompted them, that they might incorporate into their living educational theory or what they believed should be there, even if they never fully inject it into their practice.

C. Data Collection

The dataset for this study consists of assignments from the 29 participants. These assignments were submitted electronically and were retained. The participants received their regular feedback from the professor and/or his graduate teaching assistant. After the study began, they were not reminded of their participation in the study so that their responses would be as authentic as possible, and thus, minimize Hawthorne effects (Adair, 1984). The total dataset of assignments from 15 weeks, plus a final exam was 420. Some assignments were not turned in, as is typical during the course of a semester. Assignments collected for use as data during the course of the semester were placed in a secure electronic folder in a password protected storage cloud until the semester was over, grades were given, and teacher evaluations had been completed.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analyzed in an iterative coding process, which followed several cycles. To accomplish the coding, the data were divided into three random groups. Each of the groups was assigned to a member of the research team. The team then generated a list of possible positionings of SLA theory within their living educational theories and in response to the prompt and the expected discursive signals that might accompany these positions. Figure 1 lists the initial anticipated discursive signal words. These words were not intended to function as the positioning itself, but rather to give us as raters some common ground to begin our critical reading for positioning. Then we read through their assigned data set and looked for the expected linguistic patterns as well as other positionings and signals of positionings that were not anticipated. From this list, the formal coding manual was developed (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013).

```
Now
I used to think/believe …
Now I think/believe
Before
After
Previously
In the past
Before this class
After reading the articles
After doing this lesson
Initially
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Figure 3. List of initial positioning words

After the first review of the data, the team came together to review what they had found and update the coding manual with additional signal words and to reflect the nuances that had appeared in the data which might not be reflected in tidy phrases. Then the team analyzed data once more looking for new linguistic patterns. We came together again, checked each other's findings, made notes and updated the coding manual and started the third round of coding. This process ensured immersion in the data (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013) and prepared the research team to uncover the richness of the data, rather than merely represent essentialized patterns.

When the coding process of the data that we were able to gather was completed, the findings were compiled and tabulated according to the positionings represented in the coding manual. Researchers grouped the finding by the citizenship status (American or international) and experience level (in-service/experienced or pre-service/inexperienced). The findings revealed interesting patterns for the dataset as a whole as well as for the two groupings designed to answer the research questions. Table 3 represents a sample of commonly found phrases and the discursive positionings assigned to them during the first round of coding.

TABLE 3.
SAMPLE WORDS AND DISCURSIVE POSITIONING

Sample phrase	Discursive positioning coded
In my own classroom, I al**ways**	Self-legitimation (present)
It felt good to learn that	Self-authorization
I disagree that	Rejection of authorization
In the future, I plan to	Self-authorization (future)
I did not understand that	Request for legitimation
Just like … says, I ag**ree that**	Ventriloquization
In the future teachers **(I) can**	Authorization (future)

A. Reliability

Reliability was developed through inter-rater techniques. Since the major data source were course assignments that solicited extended responses and not formal objective tests, forms of reliability such as test-retest, parallel forms, and

internal consistency were not practical or even possible. We established procedures to code the data and then check each other's codes and reanalyze data.

We performed a simple calculation of inter-rater reliability (Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, & Marteau, 1997). The inter-rater reliability among us was about 70 percent, which is quite low. When we looked at the discrepancies, we found that the disagreements we had over phrases like *Teachers should ...* were read more conservatively by one of the raters than the other two. When these phrases were eliminated from the calculation, the inter-rater reliability climbed to 95 percent. We calculated percentages for agreement rather than running a statistical test of agreement. This agreement was generally high, but there was a set of responses from the participants upon which we never reached full agreement. That set of data was the responses that used third person obligatory language (e.g. *Teachers should...*) rather than the less ambiguous *I will ...* as an indicator of an intent or willingness to incorporate an aspect of SLA theory into one's living educational theory.

Determining what to do with the *Teachers should ...* and similar phrases are an on-going point of negotiation and deliberation as the analysis proceeds. If the participants could be interviewed they might be able to shed some light on why they would say *Teachers should ...* instead of something more personal like *I should ...* or *I could ...* or even something like *I wish that I were able to ...* One assumption that we have been making is that students were using these constructions to make personal statements. In one study by Freedman and Ball (2004) they found that international teachers often used "we" rather than "I" because they thought it sounded more official when they were talking about their practice. They had an orientation towards referring to themselves as part of a profession rather than individual practitioners on public documents and they considered class assignments to be public.

B. Trustworthiness

Several steps were taken to increase trustworthiness of the findings for this study. The specific techniques used were referred to as *validity* in the sources from which we drew, and therefore we have maintained that terminology here even though the term is generally associated with quantitate work more than qualitative. In thinking about content validity for the course itself, as mentioned previously, the course was developed in part as a response to research stating what teachers should know about SLA theory (Faltis, Arias, & Ramíez-Marń, 2010; Fillmore & Snow, 2000). To increase face validity, we showed the curriculum and the assignments to an SLA professor at another university who would not have a stake in whether the course was considered successful. She said that these assignments would likely solicit living educational theories about the course topics and that they also had the potential to demonstrate change.

As an additional measure to increase face validity we could have sent the materials to additional experts. Because this was not an intervention study where a formal testing instrument was used, we did not develop techniques for establishing predictive, concurrent, convergent, or discriminant validity. If our research purpose had been to test SLA knowledge in a formal way, we would have developed an objective test and piloted it in order to establish these types of validity for the entire exam and for individual items.

V. FINDINGS

After collecting the data, the three researchers merged and analyzed the data sets as described above. The descriptive data are summarized in Table 4. The results are organized and presented in conjunction with each of the research questions.

A. Initial Living Educational Theories in Regards to Formal SLA Theory

Preservice/Inexperienced teachers come to the course having fairly vague personal/informal theories of SLA that are only tangentially related to formal SLA theory. There were only few firm beliefs stated. This is represented in the data as Table 4. Conversely, inservice/experienced American teachers come to the course with better-articulated personal theories that are more obviously related to formal SLA theory that made far more statements of personal beliefs that were directly tied to personal experiences.

Inservice/Experienced International teachers also come to the course with more developed personal theories that are somewhat clearly related to formal SLA theory (See Table 4). The following is an example of a well-articulated living educational theory of how to teach language to students given by an inservice international female student.

From my own experience teaching English as a foreign language to university level students, I found two main components to be very effective in students' grasping new language items when focused on thoroughly. Those two components are presentation and practice. The presentation of the language material or target language should be as clear and natural as possible, as well as repeated (orally and written) multiple times throughout the lesson in order for the students to get an accurate model of the target language. The next step I go to after the specific language point has been modeled and repeated is for the students to start practicing. I usually divide practice into two parts; controlled and free. The students start with controlled practice in which they get to practice the new language points in objective type questions (multiple choice, true/false, fill in the blank, matching.., etc.).

After they have got a little practice with the language, we start freer communicative practice; for example, open conversations, role plays, expressing themselves using the new language, all without the teacher's correction to focus on building some fluency and comfort using the new language. If peers correct each other in the final free practice and

production stage, it's ok as long as they feel comfortable. I also usually like to give the students homework containing writing practice using the same language points they exercised in class (International, Inservice teacher, Lesson 1 assignment).

This student stated the source of her knowledge about SLA—through teaching adults in a university setting. On the first day of class, he was already able to use terms like *communicative practice* and discuss language production with some sophistication. When he talks of *presentation* and *practice* he is articulating models mainly grounded in explicit and direct instruction and he does not attend to the fact that what he calls *free practice* really is not free and that for what is probably genuine concern about communicative competence and a nurturing orientation toward student correction of errors, he has a highly developed notions of accuracy—that there is a right way to communicate and idea.

B. Living Educational Theories in Relation to Public Theories

All of the groups frequently reported ways to apply insights gained from the formal theories presented in the course to their future teaching practice regardless of their initial level of commitment to their personal/informal theories. However, this outcome was likely affected by the question presented in each lesson that directed the students to report what they had learned in from the class materials that might help them become better teachers (see Table 4). The inservice/experienced American (IEA) teachers were especially adamant about their own authority in their classrooms. Two assignments from a female inservice/experienced American (IEA) teacher illustrate the ways in which students insisted on their autonomous identities as teachers in relationship to coursework.

The readings for this week, while informative, will not be incredibly helpful in my future teaching, as I do not anticipate teaching students who use a PC language. However, these readings comment on the idea of UG, and especially with Bickerton's view on children using a bio-program for language learning, it will be interesting to see what future research shows about these concepts as related to adult language learning (Inservice/Experienced American, Lesson 9).

From these readings I have a better understanding of CLT. We addressed CLT in C&T 820, but having more background on what exactly communicative competence is helps my understanding of how the pedagogical model functions. As a language learner, communicative classroom activities were most helpful in gaining fluency, and merely being presented grammatical rules or lists of vocabulary was not as helpful as interacting with classmates for practice or playing games. In my own classroom, I hope to implement a variety of CLT activities when I have the opportunity (Inservice/Experienced American, Lesson 11).

C. Discursively Assertions of Modifications to Theories and Intended Changes to Practice

Preservice teachers asserted changes to their initial, vaguely described, personal/informal theories and also reported changes in their vaguely articulated future teaching practices (Table 4). However, these findings must be viewed somewhat cautiously as there were only two preservice American (PA) teachers and one Preservice International teacher.

American inservice/experienced (IEA) teachers mostly reasserted their initial personal theories. However, they also somewhat frequently described some changes in their future teaching despite their rearticulated personal theories. Here is one example of an Inservice/Experienced American (IEA) student's response to readings about universal grammar.

UG [Universal Grammar] can be quite relevant in teaching language learners. What I take away from this week's readings is, knowing basic grammar parameters of my ELLs' first language can enlighten my instruction. It would help in understanding the roots of possible writing and reading "errors," and offer a foundation for ways to build on this background knowledge of grammar. Beyond this, simply providing opportunities for using language, in any way, will be beneficial for ELLs to experience the language (Inservice/Experienced American, Lesson 8).

This student immediately legitimized principles from universal grammar for language learners in general in her initial statement. She then connected this to her own teaching. She translated this understanding as a need to understand basic grammar in a learner's first language, presumably to help students start to understand how to transfer their understanding of grammar from their first language to their second. This understanding is based on the students' living educational theory more than it is based on understanding of universal grammar as a concept. Embedded in this response is also the understanding that if grammar is universal there must be a right and a wrong way to perform language, but the quotation marks around "errors" also suggests that the student is open to considering more liberal views on standardization in language use. Although she does not seem to convey a sense that a truly universal approach to grammar would preclude most instruction, she indicates openness to ideas about *experiencing language* (her words) in order to learn it.

Inservice/Experienced international (IEI) students also remained somewhat solidly committed to their personal/informal theories, but indicated a greater willingness to adjust their future teaching (see Table 4). The following response from a female teacher demonstrates this stated willingness to take up new SLA practice.

Reading the articles based on different perspectives of bilingual education helps broaden my own perspectives on bilingual education as well. As a graduate student in the field that finds quite mostly the advantages of bilingual education, I have not had many chances to look for there are pros and cons of bilingual education, and not known that there are certain people opposing to bilingual education with reliable supporting evidence. Although I learned a lot more about this area and found more in-depth knowledge regarding bilingual education, I still prefer the pros of B.E. to

the cons, because I believe the current world is not possible to exist without harmony and balance of individuals all over around. Only monolingual education cannot make it happen for sure (International, Inservice/Experienced, Lesson 4).

This students' response fails to offer any particular evidence of understanding of the issues around bilingual education, yet offers a positive opinion of it and a willingness to try the approach. Her acceptance of the concept seems to stem more from her existing interest or belief in pluralism as part of her living educational theory rather than a critical look at the material presented in class.

VI. DISCUSSION

The results of this study tend to reaffirm some outcomes of prior studies, but there are valuable additional insights associated with the present investigation. Specifically, the preservice teachers, though few in number, exhibited more willingness to change their practice in the future, but still expressed both a confirmation of original beliefs and personal validation sporadically. The Inservice/Experienced American (IEA) students were quite consistently committed to a confirmation of their original beliefs while at the same time frequently expressed a commitment to new practice. They also confirmed their original beliefs to a greater extent than any other group. The Inservice/Experienced International (IEI) students expressed a greater willingness to commit to new practices.

Perhaps a reason for the students in all categories to demonstrate the tendency to confirm their original beliefs while at the same time expressing openness to try out new practices is that the students did not feel that experimenting with new practices necessarily negated their commitment to their original beliefs. However, it would be fascinating to observe if students would change their original beliefs if they were able to implement practices around their new understanding that worked better for students. It would be reasonable to expect students to alter their original beliefs to a certain extent in order to conform to their new reality. If their new practices were perceived as being successful, it would seem logical to expect their theoretical orientation to expand in order to explain and justify their new practices.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

These data were drawn from classes during three semesters taught by the same instructor at one university. Yet, we were able to demonstrate discernible interesting patterns in responses that add to the literature about second language acquisition theory knowledge development in teacher education. We also recognize that in a discourse analysis investigation, the researchers use the students' written language as the basis for interpretation of the data. However, the researcher can never determine for certain what any particular teacher meant with a given written statement without asking the teacher directly.

Interviewing the teachers and perhaps observing them teach would provide further insights into their living educational theories, but it would not necessarily solve all of the issues of data analysis as an act of interpretation filtered through a researcher as the primary instrument. Nevertheless, the main finding of this work—that students in this class used language that suggested that they were actively considering and/or dismissing theory, as well as ventriloquizing it as their own suggests that teachers deserve credit for wanting to teach second language learners in theoretically based ways. In the future, further investigations should look more carefully at why and how processes like ventriloquization and rejection of SLA theory occur for individual and groups of teachers.

TABLE 4.
CHANGES TO LIVING EDUCATIONAL THEORIES OF SLA FROM INITIAL ASSIGNMENT TO FINAL ASSIGNMENT

	N=10 IEA	N=7 IEI	N=2 PA	PI
Confirmation of original beliefs	56	31	9	1
Personal validation	17	10	5	2
Commitment to new practice	50	19	10	8
Expression of confusion	5	1	0	0

IEA—Inservice/experienced American
IEI—Inservice/experienced international
PA—Preservice American
PI—Preservice International

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The Didactic Treatment of English as a Medium of Instruction in Ivorian Universities: A Case Study

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Abstract—In Côte-d'Ivoire French is used as the language of instruction at all levels of education except the foreign language departments in our universities. Today, the idea is to use EMI[1] in higher education. This requires full year training in intensive English. As the current conditions are not appropriate, the situation calls for reflection on an alternative solution: Training our students without necessarily resorting to a full academic year of intensive English. Considering the difficulties relating to the mobilization of human and material resources indispensable for a successful implementation of intensive English learning and taking account of the current teaching practices in our different departments, what didactic choices can allow the much needed training in our context? In order to answer this question I investigated the situation at the UFR-SEG[2] using a questionnaire and an interview guide. The conclusions of this study carried out in a constructivist and socio-constructivist perspective indicate that the majority of our trained students are unable to use English for instruction. My suggestions are threefold: Triangulation of didactic situations (didactic, a-didactic and non didactic situations), use of a multi-dimensional differentiated approach to instruction, and instruction based on learning strategies.

Index Terms—didactics, constructivism, socio-constructivism, English language of instruction, strategy, differentiation

I. INTRODUCTION

In Côte-d'Ivoire French is used as the language of instruction at all levels of education except the foreign language departments in our universities. Today, because of its undeniable role as the language for international communication and development, our educational authorities advocate the idea of using EMI[3] in higher education. In this perspective, they think that all the students enrolled in our universities must have full year training in intensive English before beginning their studies in their respective faculties or departments. The aim is to provide them with the training which might allow them to use English not only for oral communication and writing but also to attend classes, listen and take notes, participate in debates and discussions, intervene during colloquia and seminars, read and understand written texts, produce texts, and do research. Unfortunately, the requirements of such an endeavor (sufficient and qualified human resources for the training of the large number of students, enough language laboratories for all tutorial groups, specialized rooms, language libraries, etc.) contrast with the realities in our universities. This situation calls for reflection on an alternative solution: Training our students to use EMI despite the inappropriateness of the current conditions. Elsewhere, such authors as Hengsadeekul (2010), Harrop (2012), Dearden (2014), Bollevan (2014), and Pozo (2015) carried out some researches on the implementation of EMI in diverse contexts, with a stress, in some cases, on the use of the CLIL[4] approach. Unfortunately, as far as I know, no scientific reflection has addressed the issue in our context. This study which has a constructivist and socio-constructivist perspective is an innovation in this field. The theory of constructivism was born in the middle of the twentieth century. The forerunner of this theory, in its developmental approach, is Jean Piaget. Piaget believes that the learner constructs his knowledge through his personal actions. He considers intellectual development as an internal and autonomous process which is not influenced by external effects. He goes further as to add that the learner cannot assimilate knew knowledge unless he possesses the mental structures which allow it. In its interactional approach constructivism, according to Jerome Bruner, sustains that knowledge construction is a dynamic process in which the learner resorts to his previous knowledge in order to construct new knowledge while developing new representations of the world. Socio-constructivism, advocated by Lev Vygotski, derives partly from constructivism. It emphasizes the relational dimension of learning (Co-construction of knowledge by confronting one's representations to others) which occurs in a social framework. Vygotski introduces the parameter of mediation ignored by Piaget (influence of the external world on the development of abilities). He uses the

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[1] English as a medium of instruction
[2] Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences
[3] English as a medium of instruction
[4] Le CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is born in Europe in 1995. This approach is based on constructivist principles which integrate the learning of the language of instruction into the content to be taught.

notion of ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development) which represents the gap between what the individual is capable of achieving intellectually at a given moment of the learning process and what he could achieve with the mediation of another person. Socio-constructivism is a teaching and learning approach in which the following three didactic elements cannot be separated: reference to the subject who learns (constructivist dimension), reference to the other students (socio-constructivist dimension), and reference to the learning environment. My work is concerned with the didactic treatment of EMI. According to Meirieu (1991), didactics aims at "… reaching the intelligence of the material conditions and the mental mechanisms which allow a given individual to construct some specific knowledge" (p.87)[5]. The relevance of the constructivist and socio-constructivist perspective for this study is therefore justified. Such an approach might allow me to show how, in our context, one can help the learners construct and organize their knowledge through their personal actions and co-construct their knowledge with the help of others while being actively involved in the completion of the tasks suggested by the learning situations. My main preoccupation is as follows: Given the difficulties relating to the mobilization of human and material resources for a successful implementation of the idea of a full academic year of intensive training in English and taking account of the current practices in our universities in terms of TEFL[6], what didactic choices can allow the much needed training in our context? Two subsidiary questions derive from this main preoccupation: What makes the training conditions in our classrooms inadequate for a successful implementation of EMI? How can EMI be effectively implemented in our classrooms despite these inappropriate conditions? In order to answer these questions, I will investigate the current situation in the classrooms of UFR-SEG[7]focusing on the teaching practices in use and their limitations before making some suggestions essentially rooted in the theoretical framework of this study and my own experience as a teacher of English as a foreign language.

II. Context of the Study and Methodological Framework

A. Context of the Study

This study was carried out at the Université Félix Houphouët-Boigny[8] where I am currently working as a teacher and researcher at the department of English. The faculty involved in the investigation was the faculty of Economic and Management Sciences[9] with a particular interest in third year level[10]. The classes in this faculty take place in tutorial rooms which shelter sixty (60) students. No language laboratories and specialized rooms are available for the intensive training of the students in English. Moreover, the fact that English is considered as a subsidiary subject in the faculty and the poor human resources (04 teachers of English for the whole faculty) add to the inappropriateness of the training conditions.

My choice of UFR-SEG was justified by the fact that like in the other faculties of our university English is taught from Licence 1 to Licence 3. Licence 3 students I chose to investigate have been learning English for three years at university. At this stage, they should be able not only to use English for oral communication and writing but also to attend classes, listen and take notes, participate in debates and discussions, intervene in colloquia and seminars, read and understand written texts, produce texts, and do research. Unfortunately, the inadequate working conditions mentioned earlier in this paper makes the implementation of intensive training in English particularly challenging. I therefore felt the necessity to carry out this study in order to help overcome this challenge.

B. Methodological Framework

My intention in this study was to reflect on the didactic choices which can help train our students to use EMI. Prior to this endeavor was the necessity to investigate the UFR-SEG in order to provide evidence that the teaching practices in the faculty did not allow the appropriate training of our students. Therefore, this study was carried out within the paradigm of action research. This type of research consists in diagnosing a specific problem in a specific context and trying to solve it. The target population in this investigation is the students in Licence 3 and their teachers.

For the sake of consistency of the information I adopted the technique of triangulation for data collection. This technique allows data collection from different perspectives: data from the teachers and data from the students. A questionnaire and an interview guide were used respectively to collect data from the students and the teachers. The questionnaire (see appendix A) consisted of qualitative variables. For the interview I used a semi-structured interview guide consisting of three (03) questions: What activities do you involve your students in during the training sessions? Do you think this training allows your students to use EMI? (Attend economics and management classes in English; participate in seminars and colloquia in English, etc.). What do you suggest for the improvement of the situation? The responses to these three questions called for some secondary questions which helped me collect the information needed.

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[5] «…parvenir à l'intelligence des conditions matérielles et des mécanismes mentaux grâce auxquels un sujet donné construit des connaissances déterminées ».
[6] Teaching English as a Foreign Language
[7] Faculty of Economics and Management
[8] Located in Cocody-Abidjan, it is the biggest and oldest university in Côte-d'Ivoire.
[9] This faculty, in our context, is known as UFR-SEG.
[10] In our university the following labels are given to the different levels: LICENCE 1 for first year level, LICENCE 2 for second year level, LICENCE 3 for third year level, Master 1 for fourth year level, and Master 2 for fifth year level.

With this flexible approach the teachers interviewed had the opportunity to express themselves as freely as possible while providing extra information which helped best perceive the reality.

For this study I adopted stage sampling technique with random choices. This consisted in selecting the sample in stages and taking samples from samples. As the size of the sample is without importance for a target population which is more or less homogeneous (same initial training, same interests, etc.), I worked on a relatively small sample which consisted of one (01) faculty (UFR-SEG), one (01) level of UFR-SEG (Licence 3), two (02) teachers of English out of the four (04) teachers of the faculty, and one hundred (100) students out of the one thousand seven hundred and fifty students (1750) of licence 3.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The analysis of the frequency of occurrence of the responses to the questionnaire gave the results presented in the frequency tables I and II. In these tables the letters A to P represent respectively questions from 2a to 2p. The letters from Q to Y represent respectively questions from 3a to 3i. For each choice the respondent had to select the number (1, 2, 3, or 4) corresponding to his choice (1= Totally disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Agree, 4= Totally agree). During the analysis I admitted that the choices 1 and 2 mean that the respondent does not agree, while the choices 3 and 4 mean that the respondent agrees. (1 and 2= Disagree, 3 and 4= Agree, 5= Non response)

TABLE I
RESULTS OF FREQUENCY ANALYSIS FOR QUESTIONS A TO P.

Questions Choices	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
1	00	50	01	24	35	55	18	21	24	32	39	12	27	18	24	16
2	02	28	06	24	18	28	19	24	20	31	30	12	26	20	31	40
3	51	11	41	33	31	08	39	36	30	21	20	31	31	37	21	20
4	42	07	48	15	14	05	21	17	22	12	05	43	14	23	20	20
5	05	04	04	04	02	04	03	02	04	04	06	02	02	02	04	04
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLEAU II
RESULTS OF FREQUENCY ANALYSIS FOR QUESTIONS Q TO Y.

Questions Choices	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y
1	26	13	16	18	32	36	14	31	20
2	42	18	24	22	37	38	12	34	22
3	19	45	32	34	20	15	40	23	36
4	06	19	21	20	06	05	28	06	16
5	07	05	07	06	05	06	06	06	06
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table I shows that 93% of the respondents recognize that the activities used in their classroom are suggested by their teacher, 89% sustain the use of activities suggested in their imposed text-books while 78% assert that they do not work on activities based on materials provided by the students. This indicates that the students are not involved in the choice of the materials used for classroom activities. 48% of the respondents share the view that they are not involved in research activities outside the classroom while 48% sustain the contrary. There is a balance between the two views. 53% of the respondents affirm that they do not participate in debates and discussions based on themes suggested by their teacher while 45% think the contrary. 83% of the respondents agree that they do not participate in debates and discussions based on themes suggested by the students while 13% sustain the contrary. The remark is that a significant percentage of the students complain about their participation in debates and discussions in general, and particularly the ones based on themes suggested by the students. 60% of the respondents recognize that they participate in activities which allow their personal involvement while 37% sustain the contrary. This indicates that a significant percentage of the students are not satisfied with their personal involvement in the activities. 53% of the respondents say that the activities suggested require collaboration between the students while 45% assert the contrary. This indicates that an important number of the students would like to have more opportunities to collaborate with the other students. 52% of the respondents share the view that the needs of their class in English are taken into account during classroom activities while 63% complain that their personal needs are ignored. This seems to suggest that the students expect classroom activities to take account of their needs in English. 69% of the respondents complain about the lack of opportunities for the students to provide feedback in plenary. This indicates that the students are not trained to stand before an audience in order to present, explain and sustain their ideas. 74%, 45%, 60% and 41% of the respondents declare respectively that they do activities in Reading, Listening, Writing and Speaking. One can see that none of the four main language skills is ignored even though there is more stress on Reading and writing to the detriment of Listening and Speaking. Moreover, the fact that 56% of the respondents indicate that they do not work on activities which integrate the four main language skills is some evidence that the language skills are often addressed in an isolated way.

Table II indicates that 68% of the respondents think that the training provided does not allow them to communicate orally in English. 69% recognize that they cannot participate in debates and discussions in English. 74% of the

respondents sustain that they cannot use English to intervene during seminars and colloquia. 63% assert that they are not able to produce texts in English. These results corroborate the ones from table I concerning questions E, F, K, M, N, O and P. 64% of the respondents affirm that they cannot communicate in English through writing. This is in harmony with the result in tableau I concerning question N. 53% sustain that they are not able to attend classes in English while 39% recognize the contrary. 54% of the respondents affirm that they are able to listen and take notes in English while 40% sustain the contrary. These last two results show that though a significant percentage of the students express their satisfaction, there is still something left to be done. 68% of the respondents assert that they are able to read and understand written texts in English. This corroborates the result in table I concerning question L. 52% sustain that they can use English to do research. The former result explains the latter. 65% of the respondents recognize that they are not able to produce texts in English. This result is a bit surprising for 60% declare that they do writing activities during classroom sessions.

The results of the qualitative analysis of the content of the section of the questionnaire devoted to the students' suggestions come under three different categories. The first concerns the didactic practices. At this stage, the students suggest intensive learning of English, feedback in plenary, more listening and speaking activities, the organization of debates and discussions, the use of a variety of teaching aids (CD, OHP, etc.), the organization of presentation sessions in plenary, constant evaluation and self-evaluation, the use of a variety of activities together with the ones in the imposed text-book, the organization of activities which involve them in doing research outside the classroom, and the opportunity to do a lot of practice exercises. The second category is concerned with pedagogical relation. At this level, the students suggest pedagogical innovations through the organization of workshops and group activities, making choices corresponding to their needs in English so that every student will have a chance to participate actively in classroom activities while collaborating with the others. The third category of suggestions relates to the creation of English clubs and English libraries in the faculty, linguistic immersion, the organization of cultural activities in English, e-learning in English, and an increase of the amount of time allotted to English.

The content analysis of the data from the teachers' interview calls for the following remarks. The stress in Licence 1 is on speaking and listening even though there is no adequate material for the latter. The students are invited to do vocabulary (definition and explanation of words) and grammar (construction of sentences) activities and language function exercises (e.g. introductions, telephoning, arrangements, etc.) in their text-book, which includes topics relating to economics and management. In Licence 2 the emphasis is on listening, reading and writing. Classroom activities are essentially concerned with "Correspondence writing (Business letters, Memorandum)", "Visits and Travels" and "Computer". In Licence 3 the reading techniques (skimming and scanning) are implemented with some relatively short texts. The students have to do research activities on vocabulary before reacting to some questions relating to the text. Moreover, they are sometimes involved in debates and discussions in their different groups. For the teachers interviewed, this training does not allow their students to use EMI. They think that their students enter university with serious limitations in the four main language skills (Speaking, writing, listening, and reading) and the micro-skills (Vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and pronunciation). Their suggestions for the improvement of the situation stand in three main points: Updating the syllabus in use, increasing the amount of time allotted to English, and improving the material conditions.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The investigation involving the students reveals two facts. On the one hand, the majority of the students are unable to use English for oral communication, to participate in debates and discussions, intervene during colloquia and seminars, and produce written texts. Most of them complain about the lack of collaboration between the students themselves during classroom activities, the ignorance of their needs, the absence of debates and discussions and feedback (in plenary) sessions, added to the fact that very often the activities do not take account of their needs in English. It is then clear that the weaknesses mentioned earlier are caused by the limitations of the training provided. On the other hand, one can see that even though they do represent the majority, a significant number of the students recognize that they are unable to use English to communicate through writing, attend classes, listen and take notes, read and understand written texts, and do research in English. This corroborates the fact that a significant number of the students complain about the activities in listening, writing, speaking, and the lack of activities which integrate the four main language skills. Moreover, the majority of the students indicates that the activities used are either suggested by their teacher or imposed in the text-books while an important number recognize that they do not work on activities which involve them in doing research outside the classroom. This might explain their complaint concerning their personal involvement in classroom activities. The results of the qualitative analysis of the suggestions made by the students provide evidence about the relevance of the realities revealed and show the extent to which the students expect the improvement of their training in English.

The results from the interview with the teachers lead to the following conclusions. First, the students are essentially involved in activities done in class. There is no effort to draw from their social environment. Second, the teachers seem to be satisfied with the imposed text-books. This does not allow them to take account of their students' personal needs and offer them a chance to work on materials provided by them. Third, the teachers express their pessimism concerning their students' ability to use EMI and insist on the necessity to provide innovations to the training of their students.

These conclusions indicate that the teaching practices in use in the faculty have some limitations as regard the current idea of training the students to use EMI. This situation calls for reflection on innovative practices which might allow the students to acquire the language skills indispensable for such an endeavor. In this perspective, I draw from the conclusions of this research, my theoretical knowledge in language didactics and my personal experience as a teacher of English as a foreign language to make some suggestions.

V. ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION: DIDACTIC TREATMENT

A. Triangulation of Situations

A didactic situation is a situation which allows the teaching of some given knowledge to another person. It consists in guiding learners in their act of appropriation of knowledge. Didactic situation provides them with the methodological means to construct their own knowledge (Valenzuela, 2010, p.73). Therefore, the success of learning largely depends on the way the learner is placed in a situation which allows him to exercise his responsibility on learning. However, the problem is to know how to place learners in a suitable situation and if, in our case, didactic situation is sufficient.

Didactic situation suggests the existence of a didactic triangle whose summits represent respectively content, teacher, and learner. Each side of the triangle represents a relation. Pedagogical relation corresponds to the side teacher-learner, curricular relation corresponds to the side teacher-content, and didactic relation corresponds to the side learner-content. The stress in modern approaches to teaching and learning is on the last relation. Didactic relation suggests involving learners in acting on content in order to first construct knowledge before appropriating it. This entails appropriate working conditions (suitable teaching materials and learning activities, appropriate equipment, more opportunities to use the language, etc.); the ones which offer them more chance to operate. Unfortunately, the practical conditions in our context contrast with these requirements. What does one do to improve didactic relation in our classrooms despite this uncomfortable situation? The best approach is, in my view, triangulation of situations. This consists of a complementary use of situations (didactic, a-didactic and non didactic) during which the last two (a-didactic and non didactic situations) will add to the didactic situations implemented in the classroom. The stress in a-didactic situations is on the relation between learner and his environment. The intention of teaching is not explicit as regard learners; it is hidden to them. They have to take a certain number of decisions concerning learning. Carrying out projects in the framework of experiential learning, for example, is a context of implementation of a-didactic situations. At this level, the act of learning occurs in the learners' environment and involves their responsibility. In his explanation of teacher's role in a-didactic situations Brousseau[11] refers to devolution which corresponds to the act through which the teacher has his learners accept responsibility of a learning situation. In non didactic situations there is no intention of learning. Nevertheless, the learners might be led to take advantage of this type of situation to train. Encouraging the learners to listen to English in a variety of situations outside the classroom, for example, is an additional source of instruction which adds to didactic situations. It is a voluntary activity which allows them to share their experiences with the others in terms of linguistic and cultural appropriation.

Triangulation of situations is a powerful tool for intensive learning of English. It involves the learners in autonomous activities and interaction with the others for more or less important periods of time in an environment which allows the development and reinforcement of the different language skills (Listening, reading, speaking and writing). One way of implementing triangulation of situations in our context is to first encourage our students to collect personal data (Listening passages, written texts, etc.) and then exploit it personally (autonomous learning) before sharing its content with the members of their group (Intra-group exchange). This first phase allows the students to learn outside the classroom while listening and reading in English, and using English for oral expression and writing. The second phase which takes place in the classroom involves each group in sharing what they have done with the other groups (Inter-group exchange) before presentation in plenary (exchange in plenary). The learners have another opportunity to use English to express themselves orally (debates and discussions in plenary) and in writing (texts production on an important aspect of the debates).

B. Survival Strategic Skills

With the advent of learner-centeredness and learning-centeredness, more attention is given to strategic training. The aim is to allow learners' familiarity with different learning strategies so that they will be able to assume more responsibility in learning. Learning strategies, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), come under three main categories: Cognitive strategies (coping with language in conscious ways), meta-cognitive strategies (thinking of one's own learning and taking control of learning process), and social strategies (learning through interaction with others). For strategic training, Wenden (1991) suggests the use of classroom activities which involve knowledge on the use of strategies and learning process and autonomous use of strategies and knowledge (p.163). The idea is that learners, even motivated, cannot achieve unless they use appropriate strategies. Therefore, the relevance of strategic training clearly stands out. Strategic training can be either explicit or through an integration of strategies to learning activities. It is implemented according to three different approaches: explicit or direct training, integrated approach, and a combination of the first two.

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[11] Guy Brousseau, Researcher at the Institut de Recherches en Mathématiques, Bordeaux, France.

Strategic training might be an asset in our context where the working conditions call for more self-reliance on the part of the students. Training them to appropriate survival strategic skills might allow them to make more use of their potentialities in the learning process. Survival strategic training includes three complementary aspects: Strategy awareness, strategy generating, and strategy integrating. Strategy awareness consists in involving our students in activities whose contents and internal organizations might cause their awareness of the strategies that have helped them achieve. By the end of such activities, individual learners are expected to share these strategies with the whole class. It is true that some students might fail to find the right words to describe them. Equally true is the fact that others might not have a clear-cut idea of the strategies they have used. The teacher's task is to help them externalize their strategies through the use of some adapted strategic questions. Strategy generating will involve the teacher in exposing the learners to activities which might allow them to generate some strategies that will then be labeled and categorized. Strategy integrating consists in having the students complete some tasks which require the use of some identified strategies so that by the end of the tasks he/she will receive feedback on their successful integration.

C. Multi-dimensional Differentiated Approach to Instruction

Individual differences are a reality in all classrooms and particularly in large classes. The presence of learners with different characteristics (cognitive styles, knowledge, learning styles, etc.) requires an identification and knowledge of those differences so that didactic choices will be made accordingly. Unfortunately, the number of learners in most classrooms makes any intention of individualized instruction (choosing material and designing course for individual learner in the classroom) unrealistic. The question then is to know how to take account of individual differences while all learners in a classroom have to work on the same content. Reflections made by such authors as Gregory and Kuzmich (2004), and Boyd-Batstone (2006) suggest differentiated instruction, an approach which consists in adjusting teaching and learning through a variety of materials and learning modes so that all learners with heterogeneous needs and common goals can be reached. The use of diverse activities, they think, increases the chances of integration of preferences, interests and needs. This approach draws from Vygotski's socio-constructivist theory which posits that the promotion of interaction and mediation cannot be effective unless the material used integrates individual learner's needs and interests.

At the UFR-SEG every tutorial group consists of about 60 students. It is clear that the approach of differentiated instruction is a didactic tool which can facilitate the learning process. Such a socio-constructivist perspective might allow more involvement on the part of our students who would work in an environment of collaboration, exchange and reciprocal learning (among the members of the classroom). The conclusions of the investigation concerning the students showed some weaknesses relating to their involvement in classroom activities, the choice of materials, the integration of their needs and interests, and that of the main language skills. The use of differentiated instruction might help compensate for such deficiencies and be a source of motivation for the students who might take advantage of this environment to improve the quality of their training. However, for more involvement of our students in learning I suggest a multi-dimensional approach to differentiation. This approach might include democratic pedagogical, individualized pedagogical and critical curricular relations. Democratic pedagogical relations refer to setting the field for all individual students to feel indispensable to the whole class and eager to contribute to all classroom activities. Individualized pedagogical relations relate to the teacher's personal knowledge of all individual students and his/her effort to integrate their expectations into learning activities. Though this sounds unrealistic in our large classes, I feel that the students' responses to some questionnaires might allow the teacher to have some instructive information concerning individual students. Critical curricular relations might involve the teacher in constantly questioning the content his/her students have to work on so that the chances of integration of the individual needs, preferences and interests of his/her students might be increased.

D. Implications of the Conclusions and Suggestions for Training in Ivorian Universities

Before entering university all our students had at least seven (07) years of training in English in secondary schools. At university they receive some training in English in their different faculties and departments. The practical conditions and the resources (human and materials) are more or less the same. The sole differences reside in the students' specializations which vary according to the faculties and the departments they belong to. Though this specialization requires training the students in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), this does not fundamentally influence the set objectives in terms of training for the use of EMI. Each student's domain of specialization is integrated to the global training in English.

Taken separately my three suggestions might provide an undeniable contribution to a successful training the students in our universities. Nevertheless, for more effective training an integrated use of these suggestions might add to the achievement. No matter the approach used for implementation the following threefold consideration deserves attention: Teachers' adhesion to the suggested innovative didactic treatment, their willingness to effectively use the new treatment, and their effort to fully integrate it as a positive response to their ambition to train their students to use EMI.

Given the fact that all our universities and all their faculties and departments are concerned with the EMI issue, the need to generalize the conclusions and suggestions of this study to the whole country clearly stands out. One might only need to make the necessary adaptations according to the specificities of each group of students and create the conditions for their full adhesion to the innovative practices.

The situation in our local universities is not fundamentally different from that of most Sub-Saharan African universities. I therefore think that the higher education institutions in this region of the continent where EMI is applicable might draw from the conclusions of this study and the suggestions made for more effective training of their students.

E. The Gap between Ambition and Reality: The Task before Us

By the end of this reflection I do not pretend to have filled the gap between my ambitious suggestions and the realities in our context mentioned earlier in this paper. This gap, I feel, still remains the task before us. However, my suggestions might help reduce it provided that one draw from the worries deriving from their implementation to make the necessary adjustments.

The current appraisal of EMI worldwide and the needs of many educational institutions including ours make EMI a fertile soil that researchers in the field of applied linguistics and language didactics are invited to till. The uncomfortable conditions in the different contexts including ours should not be a pretext to encourage pessimistic views but rather a catalyst for the mobilization of the 'intellectual energy' which might help all the stakeholders (researchers and practitioners) in their quest for better ideas for a successful implementation of EMI.

VI. CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to show how in our current context the students of the UFR-SEG can be trained to use English not only for oral communication and writing but also to attend classes, listen and take notes, participate in debates and discussions, intervene in colloquia and seminars, read and understand written texts, produce texts, and do research. The main question was as follows: Given the difficulties relating to the mobilization of human and material resources for a successful implementation of the idea of full year intensive training in English and taking account of the teaching practices in use in all our faculties in terms of English as a foreign language, what didactic choices can allow the much needed training in our current context? The study which had a constructivist and socio-constructivist perspective was based on an investigation involving the teachers and the students of the UFR-SEG. The results obtained from the analysis of the data collected through a questionnaire and an interview guide allowed me to conclude that the majority of the students are unable to use EMI. My suggestions to improve the situation stand in three main points: triangulation of learning situations (didactic, a-didactic and non didactic situations), use of a multi-dimensional differentiated approach, and instruction based on learning strategies. Other studies might focus on the implementation of my suggestions. This might on the one hand allow more insight into the contribution of these suggestions to the improvement of the students' training, and help provide innovative ideas in light of the limitations revealed, on the other hand.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDENTS

The aim of this questionnaire is to collect data on the teaching practices and the learning activities in your faculty. I would be grateful to you for your sincere responses which will only be used for a study.

1. Teaching material(s) in use. (Please, circle the letter corresponding to your choice)

a. Text-book(s).

b. Other materials and teaching aids in use. (Please, list them in the space provided).

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(For questions 2 and 3, circle the letter corresponding to your choice)

1 corresponds to 'Totally disagree'   2 corresponds to 'Disagree'

3 corresponds to 'Agree'   4 corresponds to 'Totally agree'

2. During our training in English in Licence 1, Licence 2 and Licence 3 our teacher had us do the following activities:

a. activities based on materials (texts, documents, etc.) suggested by himself.   1 2 3 4

b. activities based on materials (texts, documents, etc.) suggested by the students. 1 2 3 4

c. activities suggested in the text-books in use.   1 2 3 4

d. activities which involve the students in doing research outside the classroom.   1 2 3 4

e. debates and discussions based on themes suggested by himself.   1 2 3 4

f. debates and discussions based on themes suggested by the students.   1 2 3 4

g. activities which allow our personal involvement.   1 2 3 4

h. activities which require collaboration among the students.   1 2 3 4

i. activities which take account of our needs in English.   1 2 3 4

j. activities which take account of my personal needs in English.   1 2 3 4

k. feedback in plenary.   1 2 3 4

l. activities based on text comprehension (Reading).   1 2 3 4

m. activities based on listening for comprehension (Listening).   1 2 3 4
n. activities based on text production (Writing).   1 2 3 4
o. activities based on oral practice (Speaking).   1 2 3 4
p. activities which integrate the four main language skills
(Reading, Listening, Writing, Speaking).   1 2 3 4
q. Others (Please, list them in the space provided)
……………………………………………………………………………….......1 2 3 4
……………………………………………………………………………….............1 2 3 4

3. My training in English allows me to:
a. communicate orally.   1 2 3 4
b. write texts.   1 2 3 4
c. follow classes in English.   1 2 3 4
d. listen and take notes.   1 2 3 4
e. participate in debates and discussions.   1 2 3 4
f. intervene in colloquia and seminars.   1 2 3 4
g. read and understand written texts.   1 2 3 4
h. produce texts.   1 2 3 4
i. do research.   1 2 3 4
j. Others (Please, list them in the space provided)   1 2 3 4
…………………………………………………………………….................. 1 2 3 4
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…………………………………………………………………….................. 1 2 3 4

4. What kind of activities would you like your teacher to use for your training so that you will be able to use English as a medium of communication and instruction? (Please, write your suggestions in the space provided)

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Reading the Book versus 'Reading' the Film: Cinematic Adaptations of Literature as Catalyst for EFL Students' Critical Thinking Dispositions

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Abstract—This true experimental study investigates the effect of combining the reading of literature with the 'reading' of film on nurturing EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students' critical thinking dispositions in areas of truth-seeking, open-mindedness, inquisitiveness, analyticity, systematicity, confidence in reasoning, and maturity of judgment. It was conducted with 50 third year students enrolled at the department of English in Chadli Bendjedid University in Algeria. The contrast group (*n=26*) took two semesters of a regular literature course whereas the treatment group (*n=24*) took one semester of typical literature instruction and a second of a reading and viewing course. The California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) was used as both a pretest and posttest to assess participants' overall critical thinking dispositions and scale results. Data were analyzed quantitatively using inferential statistics that included Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient, means, standard deviations, t-statistics and Cohen's d effect size. Empirical findings revealed that the difference in the progress both groups manifested proved non-significant in all seven dispositions to think critically. Results' interpretation, pedagogical implications, limitations and future research directions are examined.

Index Terms—literature reading, film viewing, critical thinking dispositions, EFL students

I. INTRODUCTION

This study sprang from a number of observations. A bird's-eye view of the scholarship pertaining to the relationship between literary studies, film and critical thinking suggests that literature instruction boosts critical thinking skills and so does film study (Bluestone, 2000; Heitin, 2013; Lazere, 1987). Despite the sharp affinities between the two media and their systemic connection that is as old as the early civilizations that arose in the world (Corrigan, 1999, p.8), the striking majority of the research body in the area of critical thinking, with scant exceptions, including Renzi's work (n.d.), looked at the effects of each artifact separately and failed to consider a combination of both. The dialogue between these two art forms has so adamantly existed throughout history in that literature and film never ceased to immensely influence each other (Corrigan, 1999, p.21). The practice of film as a "handmaiden" of literature dates back to the 1930s (Bruder, 1994, p.2) and its proliferation as an academic discipline claimed heavily by the literature departments since the fifties is but a testimony of its strong appeal and immediate relevance to the literature classroom (Bruder, 1994, p.3; Corrigan, 1999, p.62). Amid this reality, empirical research overlooked merging both media in one crucible under the critical thinking umbrella.

The existing theoretical and empirical literature has concentrated on either the cognitive dimension of critical thinking or the affective dispositions and the interaction of each with either film or literature apart. If critical thinking is a composite bi-dimensional concept, then previous research has suffered from a limited scope of investigation. If each cognitive skill is intrinsically intertwined with an affective disposition to execute it, the impact of coupling the teaching of literature with film has to be assessed with regard to both coin faces of critical thinking if we are to yield research that is more comprehensive. This realizes congeniality with Facione's statement that "educating good critical thinkers […] combines developing CT skills with nurturing those dispositions which consistently yield useful insights and which are the basis of a rational and democratic society" (1990, p. 2).

Aside from these observations, critical thinking, however the cornerstone of higher education worldwide nowadays, seems lost in the shuffle in Algeria, particularly in the EFL classroom. Thus far, only a single study (Djamàa, Unpublished) drew attention to it despite the growing international urge to zero in on it as a key set of skills and amid advocacy to foster it in students. One of its overarching contributions was the amalgamation of film and literature to hone EFL students' higher order thinking, an approach that experimentally proved to dramatically improve the analytical, inferential, evaluative, inductive and, most notably, the deductive skills of learners. While this very same study simultaneously examined the effect of adopting cinematic adaptations in the literature classroom on firing-up EFL students' critical thinking dispositions, it was not possible to bind the results together in one manuscript due to space limitations. This paper works towards introducing this second part of the research. It therefore takes into account the flaws of previous studies and makes up for their limitations mainly by widening the scope of investigation to encompass

the affective components of critical thinking. Further, it adds one more brick to research on critical thinking in the context of the Algerian university as an attempt to whet other researchers' appetite to sink their teeth into this area of investigation.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Critical Thinking: Spotlight on the Affective Dimension

Besides the cognitive aspect of critical thinking "which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which […] judgment is based" (Facione, 1990, p.2), the second coin face of it lies in its dispositional dimension. Experts agree that each cognitive skill is interwoven with a cognitive disposition. However, unveiling the correlation between the two rests a matter of empirical research (Facione, 1990, p. 4 & 11; Facione, 2000, Facione, 2013, personal correspondence). An individual who demonstrates proficiency in a particular cognitive skill is not necessarily equipped with the disposition to perform it. "A person can be disposed but not skilled, skilled but not disposed, both skilled and disposed, neither skilled nor disposed" (Facione, 2013, personal correspondence). It therefore is imperative to assess critical thinking skills and dispositions separately. These dispositions have been defined by Facione (2000, p.64) as "consistent internal motivations to act toward or respond to persons, events, or circumstances in habitual, yet potentially malleable ways." The ones that have been agreed upon by experts as mentioned in *The Delphi Report* (Facione, 1990, p. 13; Facione & Facione, 2013, p.11, "Insight Assessment," 2013) encompass the following summative personal attributes: (1) *inquisitiveness*, the eagerness to unearth information about a myriad of topics and satisfy one's curiosity; (2) *truth-seeking*, the keenness on being constantly apprised of a variety of issues and on thoroughly understanding them; (3) *open-mindedness*, the habit of accepting exposure to diverse views one doesn't necessarily agree with and the willingness to understand them, take them into account, and draw on them to amend one's injudicious decisions if needed; (4) *analyticity*, the habit of predicting both the positive and negative effects a given situation might possibly engender; (5) *systematicity*, the desire of methodically and systematically tackling issues; (6) *confidence in reasoning*, the habit of trusting sound reasoning and judicious thinking processes and their effectiveness in leading to careful decision-making and sound problem solving; and (7) *maturity of judgment*, the tendency to be aware of the availability of divergent judgments and to consider them all while being prudent in discarding some and picking up the most appropriate ones in a wisely timed manner. Based on these constituents,

The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit (Facione, 1990, p. 2; Facione & Facione, 2014, p. 12).

B. Film, Literature and Critical Thinking Dispositions

The abundance of scholarship that brags the might of literature and film to boost critical thinking skills is met with the severe scarcity of empirical studies that place the affective dimension in relation to any of these artifacts under the microscope. Our search for works that shed light on this area of investigation yielded a single empirical study tied to the much younger medium, film.

Tanriverdi (2013) conducted a quasi-experimental study for 14 weeks with 49 pre-service teachers enrolled in their fourth year of an English teaching program at a university in northern Turkey. Their ages ranged from 19 to 26 ($M=22.7, SD = 1.28$). All Participants took the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) as a pretest to assess their attitudes to critical thinking before assigning them to a treatment group that pursued filmic analysis and a contrast group that took a regular teacher education course scheduled in their curriculum. Both groups were gender-balanced. To teach film as text, Tanriverdi used a framework adapted from Teasley and Wilder (1997) and Eken (2003), which draws on literary, dramatic, cinematic and linguistic analysis of the medium and injected a cultural and pedagogical component into it. The latter involved participants in preparing mini film-based activities for use in their future career as teachers. At the end of the program, both groups took the CCTDI as a posttest that targeted the evaluation of six critical thinking dispositions, namely truth-seeking, analyticity, open-mindedness, self-confidence, systematicity, and curiosity. Tanriverdi (2013) reports that there was no significant difference in the CCTDI overall and scale scores between both groups in the pretest. In the posttest, however, the film-group exhibited results that were substantially higher than those of the contrast group in open-mindedness, curiosity, truth-seeking and CCTDI overall scores. These results empirically testify that film cultivates positive dispositions. However, more studies are needed to enrich this area of investigation; especially amid the limitations this single study had, which stood in the way of generalizing the findings.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study seeks answers to the following pair of questions:

Q1: *Does the amalgamation of film adaptations with their source literature nurture EFL students' critical thinking dispositions?*

Q2: *Are there differences in critical thinking dispositions of students exposed to the film-enhanced literature course compared with those taking the reading-based course?*

IV. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Empirical evidence is sought to support the presumptions that:

H1: *Coupling the study of film adaptations with their source literature would cultivate students' critical thinking dispositions.*

H2: *Students who study both the print and film versions of literary achievements would exhibit better critical thinking dispositions than students who study merely the source literature. The former would outperform the latter in all dispositional dimensions of critical thinking.*

V. METHOD

A. Participants

Participants in this study (*N=50*) were in their graduation year in 2012-2013 with a major in didactics. They consisted of five (10%) males and 45 (90%) females with a minimum age of 21 and a maximum of 45 *(M=22.24, SD= 3.75)*. They all studied English as a foreign language for at least six years prior to joining Chadli Bendjedid University in Algeria, where they received the same education at the department of English during their freshman and second year of undergraduate studies.

The non-probability sampling method was executed following the judgmental or purposive sampling technique. Two main principles made the selected sample the only one with the needed knowledge and skills to participate in this study:

Having taken two semesters of *Intro to Literary Studies* and *Literary theory* and two other semesters of *Stylistics*, third year students are well equipped with the basics of literary analysis and critique. They, to a certain extent, have a thorough understanding of the elements of the narrative and are ready to handle a relatively intensive reading agenda and couple it with the exploration of a new narrative text: Film. Freshmen and second year students are new to literary studies; hence lack the expertise to be part of this study.

1. Out of 110 third year students, only 50 were majoring in didactics with the literature course being a requirement for their B.A. degree. The remaining 60 students were majoring in English for tourism, which does not entitle them to take a literature class.

B. Measures

The California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) is the instrument used in this study. It is the exclusive property of *Insight Assessment*, the unique company that produces and distributes it throughout the globe. It is the premier instrument worldwide that measures dispositions toward thinking and reasoning (Facione & Facione, 2013, p.11). The tool proved effective with a myriad of individuals and groups from high school up to graduate level across the United States and in more than 40 other countries. No specific content knowledge is required of the CCTDI test-takers (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.16).

The mindset attributes and dispositional attitudes expected of good critical thinkers constitute the constructs measurable by scales through the CCTDI. They are seven and are universally identified as *truth seeking, open-mindedness, inquisitiveness, analyticity, systematicity, confidence in reasoning*, and *maturity of judgment*. Each of these scales comprises nine to 12 items amounting to an overall total of 75 Likert scale items presented in a six point continuum from A=strongly agree to F=strongly disagree. Through the CCTDI items, respondents express their values as well as their perception of and viewpoints about particular ideas. No neutral option is offered in the six possible answers. Each item stands either for or against a particular disposition with varying degrees and does not include any technical vocabulary or jargon pertaining to critical thinking. The CCTDI can be allotted up to 30 minutes. Completing it in a short time is not an indicator of poor critical thinking dispositions (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.16).

The CCTDI overall score, which is a composite of the seven dispositions weighed equally, is not an accurate indicator of the test-taker's critical thinking mindset in that an individual exhibiting a good total might, for instance, manifest weak results in some dispositional scale measures and vice versa. For this reason, the CCTDI enables the individual and independent examination of each of the seven aforementioned dispositional constructs by yielding scale scores that allow spotting test-takers' areas of strengths and weaknesses (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.28). Scale scores range from 10 to 60 and are qualitatively interpreted as follows: (1) *strong positive*, for scores in the 50 to 60 range, which indicate that "the attribute or attitude is a positive habit of mind and likely to factor into the individual's approach to all higher order thinking … particularly when the situation is of high consequence;" (2) *Positive*, for scores in the 40 to 50 range, which reflect a "consistent endorsement and valuation of the attitude or attribute being measured;" (3) *Inconsistent/Ambivalent*, for scores in the 30 to 40 range, which indicate an "ambivalent or inconsistent endorsement of the attitude or attribute being measured;" (4) *Negative*, for scores in the 20 to 29 range, which reflect a "poor valuation or aversion toward the attribute being measured;" and (5) *Strong negative*, for scores in the 10 to 19 range, which

indicate a "strong negativity or hostility toward the attribute being measured." Inconsistent strengths across scales indicate "poor efforts at defining and resolving high stakes problems" (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.29).

The CCTDI is of strong content and construct validity (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.52). As to criterion validity, the instrument is able to provide predictive value and meaningful measure, which demonstrate that the learning objectives and goals are met (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.54). This tool is of strong internal reliability with a minimum Alpha of .80 for attribute measures and a minimum KR-20 of .72 for skills measures (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.55). The instrument can be administered electronically as well as in paper-and-pencil format. Since the research locale is not endowed with internet access, the paper-and-pencil test was elected in this study.

VI. PROCEDURE

This true experimental study opted for a pretest/posttest control group design to evaluate the aforementioned hypotheses. It was conducted over two research phases, with the first held in fall 2012 and the second in spring 2013. Each phase was 13 weeks long with 36 sessions of one and a half hours scheduled for every semester. Participants were randomly assigned to a treatment group *(n=24)* and a contrast group *(n=26)* using computerized random numbers generation. In fall 2012, both groups took a typical literature course with an intensive reading agenda. Teacher-student and student-student discussions, debates, brainstorming, questioning and reading circles elicited participation in class. Literary analysis drew mainly on the narrative, socio-cultural and rhetorical aspects of the assigned works.

The narrative analysis involved students in scrutinizing the theme and sub-themes of each work and unearthing the extent to which they reflect the zeitgeist typical of the period of their production. Reflecting on characters entailed classifying them into types or categories: protagonists versus antagonists, major versus minor, round versus flat, dynamic versus static, stereotypical, foils, etc. The class practiced identifying the patterns different protagonists follow: anti-hero, tragic hero, romantic hero, modern hero, or the Hemingway Hero. Their categorization needed to be supported by solid argumentation. Foci of character analysis also included a look at the different perspectives the author chose to depict characters from: physical appearance, intellectual abilities, emotional being, social standing, ethics and moral character, etc. The analysis further encompassed a consideration of the characters' motivation, their contribution to the themes and meanings of the work, and what the author thinks of them. Shedding light on point of view entailed specifying its type, including first person, second person, third person and the omniscient or all- knowing point of view. Participants also considered how works are plotted from the beginning, through complications and climax up to the denouement. They looked at the plot structure (dramatic or progressive, episodic, parallel, or flashback), the sub-plots, the relationship between the plot and the theme; whether the plot in the literary piece supports the theme and sub-themes; and how the conflicts unfold and culminate (Corrigan, 1999, pp. 83-84; "How to analyse plot in literature," 2011; "Mhs Composition Guide: Literary analysis guide," no date; "Guide to Literary terms," no date; Chen, no date). Analysis of the setting invited students to unveil the 'when' and whereabouts of the story through authorial clues. Queries pertinent to this narrative element included, among others, a thoughtful look at (1) the rationale behind an author's selection of a particular setting; (2) the setting type: Integral or backdrop; (3) how the choice of a particular time and place reveals authorial intent; (4) how the author linguistically conveys the description of a setting; (5) what diction is employed; (6) what mood the description of the setting creates and how it affects students' responses to the story; (7) how the setting relates to, illuminates, and reinforces thematic foci of the narrative, how it mirrors, supports, influences, or drifts away from the plot, and how it determines characterization, events, and conflicts in the narrative; (8) whether the setting stands as an incentive for characters' decisions and actions; and (9) whether there are setting conflicts in the story that trigger conflicts among characters. Besides the broadest anatomy of literature into prose, poetry, and drama, the discussion of literary genres was conducted following the primary universal generic taxonomy suggested by the literary critic Northrop Frye (1957). This encompassed comedy, with sentimental comedy as one subgenre; tragedy, with melodrama as a subgenre; romance; and satire; in addition to autobiography, myths, lyric fragments, or tragicomedies that were suggested as genres by other literary critics (Corrigan, 1999). Some of the queries the generic analysis took care of are: What genre the work belongs to? What knowledge do you have about works within this genre? How did your knowledge of the genre help you construct meaning out of the texts? How did it affect the way you read and interpreted them? What expectations, attitudes, judgments, and assumptions you have about works within the generic framework you are confronted with? Does the work you are studying meet the codes, conventions, and ideology of the genre it belongs to or drifts away from them? (Chandler, 1997, pp.10-11).

The Socio-cultural analysis placed emphasis on the values literary works stress. Duplicating Fehlman's (1996) approach, classes were sometimes split into small groups based on particular socio-cultural criteria, including age, gender, and marital status. They were required to critically examine how socio-cultural differences affect the lives of characters and the conflicts they undergo. Once each group came up with its own critical analysis, members of a particular team brainstormed on their findings with the whole class and answered questions, comments, or criticism stemming from their peers. The result of this activity is a synthesis of how the literary text in question addressed socio-cultural issues. Adopting another practice by Fehlman (1996) led to having students read the book through the lens of their own culture and sort out what they deemed "odd" or "funny." After listening to their responses, the teacher-researcher explained how what might be regarded weird, awkward, or funny in one culture is common, appropriate or

obnoxious in another. The distance between students' culture and the target one as presented in literature helped engender critical analysis.

The focal elements of rhetorical analysis entailed a look at the structural components and stylistic choices, strategies, and characteristics of the texts under study (Corrigan, 1999). In this respect, students were invited to examine (1) the writers' choice of diction by looking at whether the vocabulary is simple or complex, common or unusual, cerebral or emotional, serious and direct or panning, decorous or straight, transparent or opaque in meaning, mainly denotative or connotative in use; (2) whether the author employs oxymoron, paradoxical words, technical terms, vernacular language, period language, or regional dialect; (3) the effects of the author's choice of words on the overall meaning and style of the literary work; and (4) whether the author places emphasis on the sounds of words through the use of alliteration, assonance, dissonance, cacophony, euphony, pun, onomatopoeia, or any other techniques ("Checklist: Elements of Literary Style," no date; "Elements of Style: Literary Techniques," 2014; "Literary Analysis Guide," no date). The study of diction was followed by an analysis of the major characteristics of phrases and sentences, including their length and complexity, the degree of conventionality of word order, the use of chiasmus and its literal effect, words' rhythmic pace and its significance to the meaning of the text, types of sentences (declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative) and authorial attitudes they convey. The structure of paragraphs and chapters came next. The class looked at their length and number, their arrangement into a cohesive whole, the prevailing paragraph types (descriptive, argumentative, narrative, and expository), and the frequency and degree of contrivance or spontaneity of dialogues and soliloquies in the text. Students also examined whether the writer resorts to aposiopesis in dialogues to communicate a particular emotion. Following were the rhetorical figures and their significance and effects in the work, including imagery, simile, metaphor, irony, allegory, allusion, cliché, conceit, epithet, euphemism, hyperbole, meiosis, litotes, metonymy, pathetic fallacy, paralipsis, periphrasis, apostrophe, sarcasm, synesthesia, synecdoche, trope, zeugma, and others ("Elements of style: Literary techniques," 2014; "Literary Analysis Guide," no date; Silverblatt, 2001, p.133).

At the end of the first research phase, participants took the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) and the pretest CapScore™ response forms were shipped to *Insight Assessment* for scoring.

In spring 2013, the second phase of the research started. The contrast group continued to take a regular literature class. The treatment group, however, took a film-based literature course and executed a comparative narrative, socio-cultural, and rhetorical analysis of both media, in addition to cinematic analysis of films. The latter analytical aspect entailed a look at the powerfully expressive cinematic devices and techniques, including color, lighting, angles, distance, composition, camera movements, editing and montage, music, sound track, acting, cine-structuralism and the auteur theory. The teaching methods and strategies used in fall semester were maintained for both groups throughout the second phase of the research. Literary pieces were assigned as readings to be done at home whereas their cinematic adaptations were screened at school outside the regular class time. When spring semester wrapped up, both the contrast and the treatment groups took the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) as a posttest and their answer sheets were sent to *Insight assessment* for scoring.

VII. FINDINGS

To evaluate the difference in the CCTDI overall and subscale scores between the treatment group and the contrast one before the beginning of the experimental phase, we conducted an independent t-test of the pretest scores for unequal sample sizes. Alpha was set at *.05* to determine significance. Findings revealed that the difference between subjects was statistically non-significant for the CCTDI overall scores, *t (47) = .54, p= .59, d= .15,* 95% CI [- 11.53, 19.94]*; and* likewise for truth-seeking, *t (47) = 1.83, p= .07, d= .52,* 95% CI [- .35, 7.54]; open-mindedness, *t (48) = .19, p= .85, d= .05,* 95% CI [- 3.48, 2.89]; inquisitiveness, *t (47) = - 1.09, p= .28, d= .31,* 95% CI [- 4.87, 1.44]; analyticity, *t (45)= - .06, p= .95, d= .02,* 95% CI [- 3.04, 2.85]; systematicity, *t (47)= .39, p= .70, d= .11,* 95% CI [- 3.43, 5.06]; confidence in reasoning, *t (46)= - .86, p= .39, d= .24,* 95% CI [- 6.15, 2.46]; and maturity of judgment, *t (48)= 1.90, p= .06, d=.54,* 95% CI [- .20, 7.25]. Cohen's d values for truth-seeking (*d=.52*) and maturity of judgment (*d=.54*) suggest a moderate practical significance. For confidence in reasoning (*d=.24*) and inquisitiveness (*d=.31*), Cohen's d values indicate a low to moderate practical significance. The CCTDI overall scores (*d=.15*), systematicity (*d=.11*), open-mindedness (*d=.05*), and analyticity (*d=.02*) all exhibited a small effect size. These statistics indicate that both groups had comparable levels of all dispositional dimensions of critical thinking before the start of the second phase of the research.

To assess pretest and posttest critical thinking dispositions of the treatment group and the contrast one, we calculated the means and standard deviations for all eight constructs imbedded in the CCTDI, including the overall scores. We then conducted a paired sample t-test within subjects of each group to find out whether film helped cultivate critical thinking dispositions of students assigned to the treatment group. As to the contrast group, the t-statistics aimed to track participants' performance after one semester of literary studies compared with one academic year. The direction of the paired sample t-test was from posttest scores to pretest ones. Alpha was set at *.05* to determine significance.

A. CCTDI Pretest versus Posttest Mean Scores for the Treatment Group

Table I displays the statistical results of the treatment group and figure 1 presents them graphically. The CCTDI Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the eight items of the inventory was .75 for the pretest scores, .78 for the posttest results.

Since the CCTDI overall scores should not be the basis for results interpretation, as instructed by the *CCTDI User Manual* (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.28), emphasis was placed on each of the seven dispositions, first separately to unearth respondents' areas of strength and weakness, then together to come up with a composite assessment.

TABLE I:
CCTDI PRETEST VERSUS POSTTEST MEAN SCORES FOR GROUP 1

Skill/Attribute Name	Pretest (n=24)		Posttest (n=24)				95% CI		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(23)*	*P*	*LL*	*UL*	*Cohen's d*
Overall	277.63	28.72	303.63	37.43	4.58	.00	14.27	37.73	.78
Truth-seeking	30.75	7.07	37.88	9.20	5.18	.00	4.28	9.97	.87
Open-mindedness	33.17	5.31	38.96	5.61	5.03	.00	3.41	8.17	1.06
Inquisitiveness	46.25	5.76	48.46	6.08	2.74	.01	.54	3.87	.37
Analyticity	46.29	5.67	48.75	6.34	2.75	.01	.61	4.31	.41
Systematicity	41.13	7.57	43.25	7.22	3.74	.00	.95	3.30	.29
Confidence in Reasoning	44.54	7.98	46.13	7.89	1.60	.12	-.46	3.63	.20
Maturity of Judgment	35.83	6.35	40.50	7.45	4.49	.00	2.52	6.82	.67

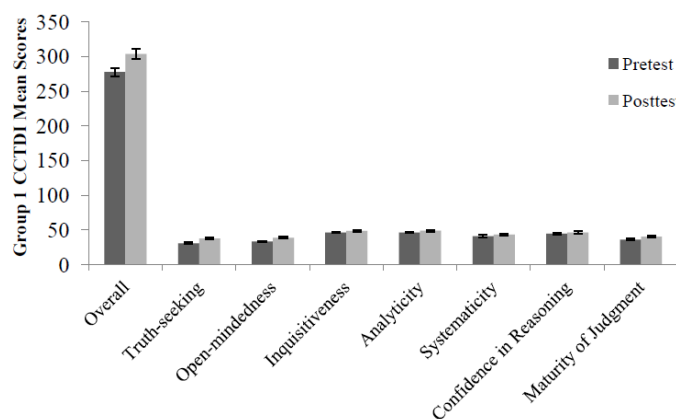Note. CI= confidence interval; LL= lower limit; UL= upper limit.

Figure 1. California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) Pretest versus Posttest Mean Scores for the Treatment Group (Group 1). Error bars denote one standard error around the mean.

The treatment group exhibited an *Inconsistent/Ambivalent* endorsement of the truth-seeking (*M=30.75, SD=7.07*) and open-mindedness (*M=33.17, SD=5.31*) attributes in the pretest. Although the mean scores increased for truth-seeking (*M=37.88, SD=9.20*) and open-mindedness (*M=38.96, SD=5.61*) in the posttest, results still fell within the *Inconsistent/Ambivalent* range. T-test yielded *t (23) = 5.18, p=.00, d= .87*, 95% CI [4.28, 9.97] and *t (23) = 5.03, p=.00, d=1.06,* 95% CI [3.41, 8.17] for both dispositions respectively. The effect size for both truth-seeking (*d=.87)* and open-mindedness (*d=1.06*) exceeded Cohen's (1988) convention for a large effect *(d= .80).* These statistics indicate that there was an important improvement in the performance of students as reflected through the significant difference within subjects in the pretest and posttest mean scores of both dispositions. However, the group as a whole upgraded to a higher score but not to a higher score range. It rather maintained an *Inconsistent/Ambivalent* attitude towards truth-seeking and open-mindedness over the two research phases.

In the pretest, the group fell within the *Inconsistent/Ambivalent* range for the maturity of judgment attribute *(M=35.83, SD=6.35).* After a semester of a film-based course, its performance upgraded to the *Positive* range *(M=40.50, SD=7.45),* *t (23) = 4.49, p=.00, d=.67,* 95% CI [2.52, 6.82]. Cohen's d for this analysis (*d=.67*) is considered to be a medium effect size. The p-value being way lower than *.05* is an indication that films significantly improved the group's attitude towards the habit of striving to make prudent and nuanced decisions amid the complexity of situations and the myriad of possible solutions all along having the willingness to reconsider one's thoughts and ideas if evidence is against a given belief ("Insight Assessment," 2013).

The treatment group scored within the *Positive* range in the pretest in analyticity (*M=46.29, SD=5.67*), inquisitiveness (*M=46.25, SD=5.76*), confidence in reasoning (*M=44.54, SD=7.98*), and systematicity (*M=41.13, SD=7.57*). In the posttest, it maintained the same *Positive* endorsement of analyticity (*M=48.75, SD=6.34*), inquisitiveness (*M=48.46, SD=6.08*), confidence in reasoning (*M=46.13, SD=7.89*), and systematicity (*M=43.25, SD=7.22*). T-test yielded *t (23) = 2.75, p= .01, d=.41,* 95% CI [0.61, 4.31]; *t (23) = 2.74, p= .01, d=.37,* 95% CI [0.54, 3.87]; *t (23) = 1.60, p= .12, d=.20,* 95% CI [- 0.46, 3.63] ; and *t (23) = 3.74, p= .00, d= .29,* 95% CI [0.95, 3.30] for the four dispositions respectively. Cohen's d values for analyticity (*d=.41*) and inquisitiveness (*d=.37*) indicate a low to moderate practical significance whereas they reflect a small effect size for confidence in reasoning (*d=.20*) and systematicity (*d=.29*). These results show that film significantly boosted the group's endorsement of the analyticity,

inquisitiveness, and systematicity attributes while the impact on confidence in reasoning was non-significant given that the p-value for this disposition (*p=.12*) was higher than *.05*, leading to the acceptance of the null hypothesis.

In a nutshell, the findings reveal that film significantly fostered students' endorsement of the maturity of judgment attribute in that the group shifted from the *Inconsistent/Ambivalent* range to the *Positive* one. Further, film had an eminent impact on students' truth-seeking and open-mindedness attributes in that their performance considerably improved within *the Inconsistent/Ambivalent* range, yet without upgrading to a higher score range. Likewise, the group maintained a *Positive* attitude towards analyticity, inquisitiveness and systematicity with a significant increase in scores within the same range. As to confidence in reasoning, scores fell within the *Positive* range in both research phases with a trivial change in the group's attitudes.

B. CCTDI Pretest versus Posttest Mean Scores for the Contrast Group

Table II sums up the results of the contrast group and figure 2 presents them graphically. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal reliability and consistency was .74 for the CCTDI pretest scores and .75 for the posttest results. These values pertain to all eight items imbedded in the inventory.

TABLE II:
CCTDI PRETEST VERSUS POSTTEST MEAN SCORES FOR GROUP 2

| Skill/Attribute Name	Pretest (n=26)		Posttest (n=26)				95% CI		
	M	SD	M	SD	t(25)	P	LL	UL	Cohen's d
Overall	273.42	26.39	299.85	27.50	3.48	.00	10.78	42.06	.98
Truth-seeking	27.15	6.78	33.77	7.47	3.24	.00	2.40	10.83	.93
Open-mindedness	33.46	5.84	35.35	6.72	1.02	.32	-1.91	5.68	.30
Inquisitiveness	47.96	5.32	52.58	4.21	3.48	.00	1.88	7.35	.96
Analyticity	46.38	4.67	49.08	4.96	2.02	.05	-.05	5.44	.56
Systematicity	40.31	7.36	41.92	6.60	.82	.42	-2.46	5.69	.23
Confidence in Reasoning	46.38	7.07	49.12	6.53	1.40	.17	-1.28	6.74	.40
Maturity of Judgment	32.31	6.75	38.50	6.89	3.30	.00	2.32	10.06	.91
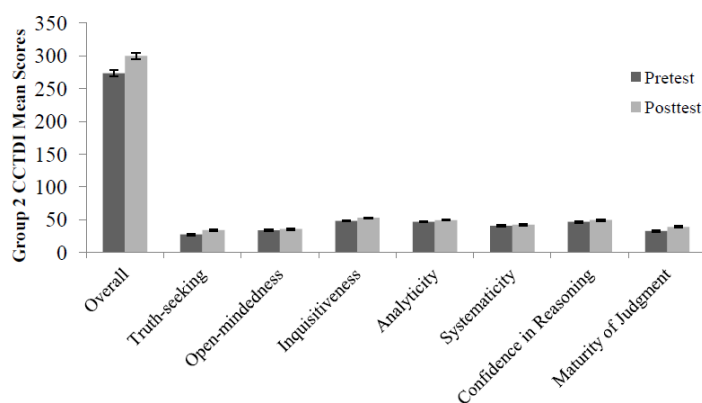
Figure 2. California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) Pretest versus Posttest Mean Scores for the Contrast Group (Group 2). Error bars denote one standard error around the mean.

The contrast group manifested a pretest "poor valuation or aversion" towards the truth-seeking attribute by obtaining a recommended performance assessment of *Negative (M=27.15, SD= 6.78)* (Facione & Facione, 2014, p.29). In the posttest, however, respondents upgraded to the *Inconsistent/Ambivalent* range *(M=33.77, SD=7.47)*, *t (25) = 3.24, p= .00, d= .93,* 95% CI [2.40, 10.83]. Cohen's d effect size for this disposition *(d=.93)* exceeded the value for strong practical significance *(d=.80)*. Results indicate a significant improvement in students' attitude towards truth-seeking.

Both pretest *(M=33.46, SD=5.84)* and posttest *(M=35.35, SD=6.72)* open-mindedness scores fell within the *Inconsistent/Ambivalent* range, *t (25) = 1.02, p=.32, d= .30,* 95% CI [-1.91, 5.68]. Cohen's d effect size for this analysis *(d=.30)* reflects a low to moderate practical significance. The p-value, being superior to *.05*, suggests that lengthy exposure to literature did not affect students' attitude towards open-mindedness. When it comes to the maturity of judgment scale, both pretest *(M=32.31, SD=6.75)* and posttest scores *(M=38.50, SD=6.89)* indicate *Ambivalent* or *Inconsistent* endorsement of the attitude, yet participants manifested a significant improvement, *t (25) = 3.30, p=.00, d= .91,* 95% CI [2.32, 10.06]. Cohen's d *(d=.91)* exceeded the convention for a large effect size *(d=.80)*. In other words, while they kept a performance within the same recommended assessment level, they attained significantly higher scores. One can deduce that lengthy exposure to literary studies had improved students' attitude towards maturity of judgment.

The contrast group showed a *Positive* endorsement of the remaining four dispositions in the pretest: Inquisitiveness *(M=47.96, SD=5.32)*, analyticity *(M=46.38, SD=4.67)*, confidence in reasoning *(M=46.38, SD=7.07)*, and systematicity *(M=40.31, SD=7.36)*. In the posttest, the group upgraded to a recommended performance assessment of *Strong Positive* in the scale of inquisitiveness *(M=52.58, SD=4.21)*, *t (25) = 3.48, p= .00, d= .96,* 95% CI [1.88, 7.35]. The effect size for this scale *(d=.96)* exceeded Cohen's (1988) convention for strong practical significance *(d=.80)*. These statistics indicate that the literature course had fostered the attribute of inquisitiveness in students. For analyticity,

participants maintained a posttest performance at the *Positive* level *(M=49.08, SD=4.96), t (25) = 2.02, p=.05, d= .56,* 95% CI [-0.05, 5.44]. Cohen's d value for this analysis *(d=.56)* suggests a medium effect size. Being at the cutoff value, *p=.05* is interpreted as reflecting a significant improvement in students' attitude within the same recommended performance level as the pretest. Thus, the reading-only course had boosted the analyticity attribute. As to confidence in reasoning *(M=49.12, SD=6.53)* and systematicity *(M=41.92, SD=6.60)*, posttest sores were close to the pretest's. T-test yielded *t (25) = 1.40, p=.17, d= .40,* 95% CI [-1.28, 6.74] for the former; *t (25) = .82, p=.42, d= .23,* 95% CI [-2.46, 5.69] for the latter. Cohen's d value for confidence in reasoning *(d=.40)* reflects a small to medium effect size and for systematicity *(d=.23)* a low practical significance. These statistics indicate that there was no significant difference in students' attitudes towards these two dispositions over the research period.

To sum up the findings, conducting literary studies for a long period had drastically improved students' attitudes towards truth-seeking and inquisitiveness that witnessed an upgrade to higher performance levels. For the maturity of judgment and analyticity attributes, the progress proved significant, yet the group preserved the same recommended performance assessment level in the pretest and posttest. The open-mindedness, confidence in reasoning and systematicity scales manifested a non-significant difference between both research phases.

C. Comparison of the CCTDI Mean Difference Scores for the Treatment Group and the Contrast Group

Pretest and posttest mean difference scores and standard deviations for the treatment group *(n=24)* and the contrast group *(n=26)* were computed towards comparing the effect of viewing film adaptations and that of pure literature reading on students' critical thinking dispositions. To track the difference in the significance of the progress attained by each group over both research phases, we conducted an independent t-test of the mean difference scores for unequal sample sizes between subjects of both groups. The direction of the independent sample t-test was from the results of the treatment group to those of the contrast group. An alpha of *.05* was used to determine significance. Table III reports the findings and figure 3 presents them graphically. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated for the CCTDI mean difference scores of the treatment group and the contrast one and proved to be .80 for the former, .74 for the latter. Thus, the instrument was found to be reliable. These values cover all eight items imbedded in the inventory.

TABLE III:
CCTDI MEAN DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR THE TREATMENT GROUP AND THE CONTRAST GROUP

Skill/Attribute Name	Treatment Group (n=24)		Contrast Group (n=26)				95% CI		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(48)*	*P*	*LL*	*UL*	*Cohen's d*
Overall	26.00	27.79	26.42	38.72	.04	.97	-19.51	18.66	.01
Truth-seeking	7.13	6.74	6.62	10.43	.21	.84	-4.46	5.48	.06
Open-mindedness	5.79	5.64	1.88	9.39	1.80	.08	-.48	8.29	.51
Inquisitiveness	2.21	3.95	4.62	6.77	-1.55	.13	-5.54	.73	.44
Analyticity	2.46	4.37	2.69	6.79	-.14	.89	-3.51	3.05	.39
Systematicity	2.13	2.79	1.62	10.09	.25	.81	-3.70	4.72	.07
Confidence in Reasoning	1.58	4.84	2.73	9.93	-.53	.61	-5.57	3.28	.15
Maturity of Judgment	4.67	5.09	6.19	9.58	-.71	.49	-5.87	2.82	.20
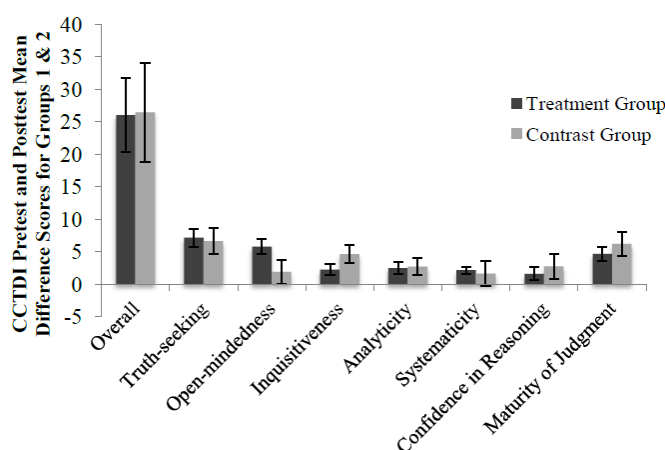
Figure 3. California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) Pretest versus Posttest Mean Difference Scores for the Treatment Group (Group 1) and the Contrast Group (Group 2). Error bars denote one standard error around the mean.

Truth-seeking pretest and posttest mean difference score for the treatment group *(M=7.13, SD=6.74)* proved slightly higher than the contrast group's *(M=6.62, SD=10.43), t (48) = .21, p=.84, d= .06,* 95% CI [- 4.46, 5.48]. Cohen's d value *(d=.06)* suggests a trivial effect size. For the scale of open-mindedness, mean difference scores for the treatment group *(M=5.79, SD=5.64)* and the contrast group *(M=1.88, SD=9.39)* yielded *t (48) = 1.80, p=.08, d= .51,* 95% CI [- 0.48, 8.29]. Cohen's d effect size for this analysis *(d=.51)* indicates a moderate practical significance. The inquisitiveness mean difference score for the film group *(M= 2.21, SD=3.95)* proved lower than the reading-only

group's *(M= 4.62, SD=6.77)*, *t (48) = - 1.55, p=.13, d= .44*, 95% CI [- 5.54, 0.73]. Cohen's effect size for this disposition *(d=.44)* reflects a moderate practical significance. The mean difference scores pertaining to the treatment group *(M=2.46, SD=4.37)* and the contrast group *(M=2.69, SD=6.79)* with regard to analyticity proved that the latter group outperformed the former in this disposition. However, the gap between them was non-significant, *t (48) = - .14, p=.89, d= .39*, 95% CI [- 3.51, 3.05]. Cohen's d value *(d=.39)* stands for a small to medium effect size. There also was a non-significant difference between the progress achieved by the treatment group *(M=2.13, SD=2.79)* and the contrast one *(M= 1.62, SD=10.09)* in the area of systematicity, *t (48) = .25, p = .81, d= .07*, 95% CI [- 3.70, 4.72]. Statistics further revealed a non-significant gap between the improvement of the film group *(M=1.58, SD=4.84)* and the reading-only group *(M=2.73, SD=9.93)* as to confidence in reasoning, *t (48) = - .53, p = .60, d= .15*, 95% CI [- 5.57, 3.28]. The difference between sample means for this scale was negative *(MD= -1.15)* suggesting that the reading group, slightly and non-significantly, outperformed the viewing group. Likewise, the difference between the mean scores of the film group *(M=4.67, SD=5.09)* and the reading-only group *(M=6.19, SD=9.58)* for the maturity of judgment scale was negative *(MD= -1.53)* and non-significant, *t (48) = - .71, p = .48, d= .20*, 95% CI [- 5.87, 2.82]. Cohen's d values for systematicity *(d=.07)*, confidence in reasoning *(d=.15)* and maturity of judgment *(d=.20)* all suggest a small effect size. These statistics stand as strong evidence in support of the null hypothesis. They indicate that viewing films cultivated students' critical thinking dispositions in each of the CCTDI seven constructs as much as the reading of the source literature did.

VIII. DISCUSSION

This study aimed at investigating whether the amalgamation of literature and film bolsters EFL students' critical thinking dispositions and whether the potential boost would be greater than that resulting from the mere study of literature. Findings indicated that teaching cinematic adaptations of literature hand in hand with the source texts nurtured critical thinking dispositions, thereby validating hypothesis 1 of this paper. However, the study further revealed that there were no significant differences between critical thinking dispositions of the film group and the reading-only group, thereby leading to the rejection of hypothesis 2, which predicted the treatment group to outperform the contrast one in all measured attitudes. One concludes that studying literature with or without films yielded the same level of progress in all dispositional constituents of critical thinking.

For the film group, the most flexible disposition that germinated drastically in students' minds proved to be maturity of judgment. Conversely, the most salient improvement exhibited by the reading-only group covered the truth-seeking and inquisitiveness attributes. Film study then has the potential of invigorating cognitive maturity, prudent thinking, timely decision-making, and voluntary views amendment. This might be attributed to the medium's "complex language systems of codes and conventions, signifiers and signified, formulae and genres which … both "cue" and "constrain" a viewer's response" (Fehlman, 1994, p.39b). Throughout the viewing experience, students keep alert making predictions, putting them to test, and altering their expectations, processes that train them in being constantly prudent and in revising their opinions. They perpetually bring their own personal schemata —prior knowledge, experience, values, and cultural background— to the viewing process. They explore them, expand them, and most importantly, combine them with their deconstruction of film cues, codes, and conventions to construct their own personal meaning of the screened text. They later on compare their own understanding to other types of personal understandings and interpretations; looking at how it resembles or differs from them (Fehlman, 1994, p.43). One benefit of these processes is certainly the education and cultivation of mature judgment.

The pure literature course strikingly whetted students' appetite to grasp a thorough understanding of texts and to constantly ask daring bias-free questions informed by logic and reason in view of unveiling the truth. It further nudged them towards intellectual curiosity and knowledge acquisition regardless of the immediacy of its use or usefulness. These benefits might have been the result of drifting the instruction away from the traditional routine practice of lecturing that assigns to students the mere role of receiving knowledge and expects them to learn by rote. In the Algerian EFL literature classroom, students are usually denied opportunities to overtly question, evaluate or infer meanings or information on their own. Lengthy exposure to the teaching approach adopted in this study, which mingles lecturing with questioning, discussion, debates, and reading circles proved a relief for them from a pedagogical stance that sabotages the growth of the mental processes and affective dispositions essential for the core enterprise of critical thinking.

While the progress manifested by the film group in the truth-seeking, inquisitiveness, open-mindedness, analyticity, and systematicity attributes proved within the same recommended performance assessment range in the pretest and posttest, it was quite significant. By contrast, the reading-only group exhibited a significant improvement within the same recommended assessment level in maturity of judgment and analyticity. Because the screen appeals to different types of learners, it causes an incline of attention and engenders more involvement and engagement from the part of the viewer, which is likely to result in "informed, discriminating, and creative" responses, solid and sophisticated argumentation, hence, better critical thinking, including the affective dimension of it (Stern, 1968, p.646). The appeal of the medium feeds learners' truth-seeking and inquisitiveness attributes. Coupled with this virtue of film is its status as a "familiar territory" for students, which encourages them to "speak" their "minds" more freely than they do when exposed merely to print literature (Brooks, 1998, p.24a). Students quite often make of films their focal discussion topic

at home, in school buses, dining and residence halls, and even in classes. Thus, the medium trained them in lending ears and attention to others as they express their views about it and in tolerating their ideas regardless of whether or not they agree with them. Further, film viewing offers students a more direct and swift training in anticipating, inter alia, upcoming events, incentives, and outcomes informed by logic. While the reading of literature has this benefit, it is more time-consuming than film. Analyticity improves when tackling both media in that students have to keep constantly alert not only with regard to each medium separately but also when coupling them together. They, for instance, anticipate directorial choices based on authorial intent and scrutinize the degree of faithfulness of the cinematic adaptation to the source literature. Tracking the author and filmmaker's approaches to organizing the flow of ideas, plot and subplots; to tackling themes and sub-themes; to introducing events; to building the story up to the climax and unfolding it; and to setting the mise-en-scene provides ample opportunities for students to probe into and assess the authors/filmmakers' sense of systematicity, hence trains them to acquire this mind habit themselves. The discrepancies that might arise between the author and filmmaker's approaches to the story in terms of organizing its components feeds students' systematicity in that they are more challenged to orderly arrange information themselves in a disciplined manner to tackle different inputs and prompts. A work by William Faulkner, for instance, which falls within the modernist trend, employs "discontinuous fragments, "moment time," a-chronological leaps in time, contrapuntal multiple plots, open unresolved endings" when weaving the plot and follows ""stream of consciousness"--tracing non-linear thought processes, moving by the "logic of association" or the "logic of the unconscious"; imagistic rather than logical connections" style-wise (Some Characteristics of Modernism in Literature, n.d.). If its adaptation to the cinema screen jettisons the modernist approach to elect a different order or alignment, then students have to cogitate about the way that is most disciplined and systematic to respond to prompts that address both media.

Film study seems to have cultivated students' maturity of judgment better than literature did in that the treatment group significantly upgraded to a higher recommended performance range after exposure to print and visual texts whereas the mere study of the source literature drastically boosted this mind habit in the contrast group in the posttest yet within the same recommended performance range as the pretest.

The least flexible mind habit in the film course proved to be confidence in reasoning whereas the most resistant attitudes in the regular literature class were open-mindedness, confidence in reasoning and systematicity. These affective dispositions need a longitudinal research. A key conclusion to draw from this observation is that film succeeded in cultivating all dispositional constituents of critical thinking with the exception of confidence in reasoning whereas the mere reading of literature served as catalyst for four attitudes out of seven. That being said, film proved more fruitful in nurturing critical thinking dispositions than literature, a conclusion deemed consistent with Tanriverdi's (2013).

IX. LIMITATIONS

We acknowledge the small population size as a limitation of this study. While we could have included level 3 students from other schools, the cost of the tests was prohibitive —8.17 USD per single-copy. We had to pay 1222.00 USD, including the preview pack and the set up individualized orientation, which is a huge amount of money, from our own pocket to enable the use of the CCTDI with such a limited sample size amid the absence of funding sources.

X. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This research testifies that the affective dimension of critical thinking can be successfully cultivated if students receive sound instruction and intensive practice in nurturing their mind habits. This ruins the mistaken belief that dispositions to think critically are either innate or ingrained in individuals at the earliest stages of their life learning, as early as childhood, but are not subject to development and/or change after, in adulthood. This study empirically proved that progress is not limited to young learners, but is applicable to adults too. Film is a very successful tool to teach good habits of mind if treated as a text that has its own discourse along with literature. The teaching of positive dispositions through literature is also beneficial, yet not as much as its combination with film.

Since this research belongs to a broader study part of which already looked at the effect of film and literature instruction on honing EFL students' cognitive skills (Djamàa, Unpublished) and given that each cognitive skill is closely tied to an affective disposition, future research should delve into unveiling the correlation between both dimensions within the context of adopting film adaptations of literature in the EFL classroom.

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The Impact of Mobile Phones on English Language Learning: Perceptions of EFL Undergraduates

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Abstract—**Researchers across the world are examining the educational value and effectiveness of integrating the latest electronic gadgets with teaching-learning activities in the classroom. In spite of the availability of latest electronic gadgets like iPods, tablets, and smartwatches, researchers are more interested in the educational value of the mobile phones for the teaching-learning of English. In a technologically advanced country like Saudi Arabia, the third and fourth generation (3G, 4G) mobile devices are available at affordable prices, and people of all streams find it necessary to own a mobile phone for connecting with their friends and relatives. Moreover, it has become a common trend among undergraduates to carry a mobile phone to the classroom as well. The present study examines the impact of mobile phones on students' English language learning. A field study was conducted on fifty-two undergraduate male students majoring in English language and literature at Aljouf University, Saudi Arabia. The methodology of data collection included a self-report for students and a teacher questionnaire. Findings of the study are significant for EFL teachers and researchers for introducing innovative methods and resourceful materials for the English classroom.**

Index Terms—**English, learning, undergraduates, mobile phones**

I. RATIONALE

Technological advancements in Saudi Arabia have paved the way for its citizens and expatriates to easily and quickly connect with their family and friends inside and outside the country. This quick and easy way of communication has accelerated the demand for the latest electronic gadgets multiple purposes uses like voice calls, messaging, chatting, web browsing, multimedia, and translation. These latest communication systems are easy to operate and available at affordable prices. The demand for touch screen electronic gadgets with advanced features like electronic dictionaries, translating and language-learning software has increased due to its educational value. Electronic dictionaries have made it easier for students to search for the meaning of difficult words quickly and with less effort. Due to their educational value, students at the college level find it essential to carry mobile phones to the classroom. In the regular classroom sessions, there are language teachers who allow students to use mobile phones to refer to electronic dictionaries or to access information for the completion of assignments.

Mobile phones with internet connectivity can search thousands of web pages and provide details of a high degree of accuracy to the reader. They almost replace reference books and avoid the physical labor of visiting the university library. In spite of their effectiveness in gathering information for classroom assignments, there are also teachers and parents who may not encourage their children or students, respectively, to use mobile phones in the classroom. There are also many educational institutions across the world which have imposed a ban on using mobile phones during regular college and class hours. An over-dependence on mobile devices may hinder students from activating cognitive skills like brainstorming and recalling that are necessary for creativity. Since students can have quick access to information on their mobile devices, they may not find it necessary to store the information in their minds. There are some researchers who are of the opinion that the information which would actually have to be stored in the students' minds is rather stored in the memory cards of their mobile phones. Shudong and Higgins (2006) points out that in order to view images and text, mobile phone makers have made their screens larger, but these screens cannot be made too larger because mobile phones would not be portable or convenient. A disadvantage of mobile technology is that students often spend long hours for chatting with their friends on social networking sites and browsing non-academic websites, which, in turn affects their classroom performance. Kuznekoff, J., and Titsworth, S. (2013) are of the opinion that the potential distraction caused by students using their mobile phones to play games, text messages, check Facebook or engage in other activities has become a concern to many classroom instructors. However, the availability of free language learning software programs, portability, speed, audio output and visual features in the latest mobile phones makes it an important tool for EFL students to learn English.

The impact of mobile phones on academic life of the university students is enormous, and so the present research examines the impact of mobile phones on English language learning at the undergraduate level. The researchers administered self-report inventory to elicit students' and English teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of mobile phones in the teaching-learning process of English. This study also seeks to find out the relevance and usefulness of mobile phones in imparting English language education in the students' academic and non-academic environments.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this section, theoretical background to the present research provides a short description of different studies carried on the effectiveness of mobile phones in classroom instruction. This section also presents the views of different researchers about the impact of mobile phones in teaching-learning contexts.

A. Relevance of Electronic Gadgets in Teaching-learning Contexts

The power of portable computing in the form of mobile devices is accessible to everyone, and it is the time to consider using mobile devices for education (Goundar 2011). A study was conducted by Hashemi and Abbasi (2013) on 180 third-grade high school students to investigate whether using mobile phones had an effect on the learners' vocabulary retention. The results of the study proved that using mobile phones was helpful to EFL learners in terms of vocabulary retention. The findings of the study also reveal that a greater attention to the features of a new word and its text environment will facilitate its memorization. In a study carried out by Warschauer (2011) on the use of iPads in K-12 schools in the United States, it was observed that students of a private school had regular access to iPads and laptops. The researchers compared the use of iPads and laptops in a science class and findings suggests that students prefer using iPads to laptops due to the tablet's attractive features like touch screen, mobility, and light weight. The study concluded that iPads are more helpful for practical laboratory work as students carry the devices around to enter data on the go. A project was initiated by Ison et. al. (2004) to motivate the disengaged youth aged between 15-19 in learning programs by using mobile learning strategies and mobile phone technology in order to guide them to lifelong learning skills. These students were not successful in the traditional classroom-based learning and so the researchers used the option of mobile learning. They focused on improving students' language skills through collaborative and networked learning environments. The project documented that the youth were motivated to learn through messaging and that they successfully participated in communicating in the target language through mobile phones. The findings of the study suggest that mobile learning enhances students' participation and encourages them to meet deadlines for assessment and also contributes to learning. An important function that makes the mobile phone reliable is its ability to transmit learning modules electronically and enable learners to communicate with their instructors and peers (Brown 2003).

B. The Impact of Mobile Technology on Classroom Instruction

Vota (2011) points out that regardless of the educational features of mobile-device technology, it may fail if teachers are not trained to use the technology to improve their teaching activities. English language teachers have to be educated on the effectiveness of mobile technology in teaching activities. In addition to training the teachers on mobile device technology, they should also be encouraged to examine and envisage innovative ways through which technology can be used to create new prospects for classroom instruction. Universities and teacher training institutions across the world should recognize the relevance of mobile technology in creating effective language lessons. Weinberger, (2011) states that in educational technology, the failure of almost all initiatives is due to the additional burden placed on the teacher. He thinks that teachers' work can be facilitated by using technology.

A skilled teacher is aware of the ways to utilize technology that helps students to progress in their educational paths (Goundar 2011). Educational software companies, teachers, and researchers have to coordinate and develop digital content for successful learning outcomes for making teaching-learning process effective and resourceful (Gliksman 2011). Ally (2009) is of the opinion that people across the world wish to access learning materials on their mobile phones rather than acquiring another technology to receive learning materials. The number of mobile devices across the world have already surpassed the number of computers and other electronic gadgets, and it is indeed an opportunity for English language teachers to innovate methods and materials for interactive and enjoyable sessions to motivate the students in their classroom. In a regular classroom, EFL students often complain that they learn vocabulary but find it difficult to remember. Hedge (2008) states that there has been a greater awareness concerning vocabulary learning in recent years, and it is the responsibility of researchers, materials designers and teachers to increase the pace, using the latest technology in the classroom. In this era of technological advancements, the majority of the undergraduate student population possess latest mobile phones and use it for a wide variety of purposes. Considering the education value, most of the EFL undergraduates depend too much on these devices for electronic dictionaries and rarely use hard copies of Standard English dictionaries. Also, most of the undergraduates find it convenient to read from portable mobile screens and decipher the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary. However, the mobile phones have the potential to attract students towards non-academic information which can have serious consequences in students' academic career. In spite of the disadvantages with the uses of mobile devices, many studies in the field have uncovered the motivation of the young students towards mobile integrated classroom instruction.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study will be guided by the following research questions:
1) What is the impact of electronic gadgets on English language learning of Saudi undergraduates?
2) To what extent do undergraduates depend on mobile phones for communicating in English?
3) How do students and teachers perceive the effectiveness of mobile phones in improving English language skills?
4) Does the use of mobile phones accelerate or hinder English language learning abilities of undergraduates?

In order to elicit factual information for the above-mentioned research questions, a field study was conducted at Aljouf University, Saudi Arabia. The details of the field study are presented in the section that follows.

A. Field Study

The present study examines the impact of mobile phones on English language learning skills of university undergraduates. Further, a preliminary study of this kind at the micro level would give possible insight into pursuing a similar type of research at the macro level in the future.

B. Participants

Fifty-two male undergraduate students studying in the sixth, seventh and eight level, respectively, with English as their major subject voluntarily participated in this research. All the students are natives of Saudi Arabia, and their mother tongue is Arabic. The researchers took the permission of the concerned officials in the university administration and the teachers before conducting the field study. The undergraduates who participated in the study were informed that their responses are meant for research purposes only.

C. Self-report Inventory for Students

A *self-report inventory* is a questionnaire which gives a description of personality traits. The self-report inventory consisted of two yes-no questions (Q.3 and Q.4) and twenty-eight self-report statements (Q.10 – Q.37). Four scales (Agree - Strongly Agree – Disagree - Strongly Disagree) were given below each of the statements. Students had to read each of given statement and circle the scale that reflected their opinion most appropriately. Students were instructed to express their views objectively.

D. Questionnaire for English Teachers

A questionnaire was used to elicit English teachers' opinions about the effectiveness of mobile phones in improving undergraduates English language skills. The teacher questionnaire consisted of four open-ended questions. Teachers were requested to express their views in writing. Since teachers have an important role in the teaching-learning process, their perceptions would be useful for classroom research. Five English teachers responded to the given open-ended questions.

E. Limitations of the Study

The present study is limited in the following ways.
• The focus of the research was limited to the impact of mobile phones on English language learning.
• The study was confined to the students majoring in English language and literature, and the faculty of English department, Aljouf University.
• The data was collected from 52 male students majoring in English Language and Literature at the undergraduate level.
• The findings were based on the students' response to the above-mentioned self-reports and the answers given by teachers (qualitative teacher questionnaire).

In the following section, the data analysis of the self-report inventory and teacher questionnaire will be presented.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The quantitative data analysis, described in this section, is based on students' responses to the self-report, while the qualitative analysis is based on students' and teachers' responses to the open-ended questions.

A. Analysis of the Self-report Inventory

It was noted that the majority of the students who responded to the self-report inventory are currently pursuing English language and literature courses in their seventh semester. The self-report inventory had four scales:

A - *Strongly Agree*
B – *Agree*
C – *Disagree*
D - *Strongly Disagree*

The number of responses for each item is given in percentages.

Scales added up for clarity

The percentages of *Agree* and *Strongly Agree* (number of responses given for the scale *Agree* + the number of the responses given for the scale *Strongly Agree* = Total percentage) have been added up and are presented as the overall percentage. Similarly, the percentage of *Disagree* and *Strongly Disagree* (the number of responses given for the scale *Disagree* + the number of responses given for the scale *Strongly Disagree* = Total percentage) have been added up and are presented as the overall percentage.

Thus, for clarity, the data analysis was based on two major factors; students who circled *Agree* and *Strongly Agree* are considered to support the given statements while those students who circled *Disagree* and *Strongly Disagree* are considered to be of a different opinion than the one given in the statement. In Question No.1, it is observed that all the undergraduates mentioned that they belong to English department while in Question No.2, as stated earlier, the majority of the undergraduates mentioned that they belong to the seventh semester.

The table below gives an overview as to whether students purchase a mobile phone to communicate in English.

TABLE1:
ENGLISH ON MOBILE PHONE

Q.No.	Statement	Yes	N0
3	I use a mobile phone which has features like an English dictionary and the internet access.	87%	13%
4	I purchased a mobile phone because I can use it to learn English	67%	33%

An analysis of the data presented in the above table indicates that 87% of the students use mobile phones that have features like an English dictionary and web connectivity. 67% of the students agree that they have purchased a mobile phone because they can use it to learn English while 33% of students possibly had other reasons for purchasing a mobile phone.

TABLE2:
POSSESSION OF A MOBILE PHONE FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

Q. No.	Statement	Smart Phone %	iPod %	Tab %	Smartwatch %
5	I possess the following Gadgets	75	15	8	2
6	Which of the following Gadgets do you use you to learn English?	75	15	8	2

The above data indicate that 75% of the students possess smartphones, and the same percentage of students rely on them to learn English while only 15% of the students use iPods, 8% Tablets, and 2% smartwatches to learn English.

TABLE 3:
MEDIUM OF COMMUNICATION

Q.No	Statement	English	Arabic	Both
7	Which software do you use on your mobile?	23%	40%	37%
8	Which language do you use more often for chatting on the mobile phone?	15%	85%	-

The above data indicate that 40% of the students use Arabic software, and 85% of the students use only Arabic as a medium of communication for chatting on the mobile phone. The data indicate that 37% of the students use Arabic and English software on their mobile phones. It is also observed that only 15% of the students use English as a medium of communication while chatting on the mobile.

TABLE4:
DURATION OF TIME SPENT ON MOBILE PHONE

Q.9	In 24 hours a day, I spend _____ hours of my time on mobile phones			4 hours – 18 hours	
	Statement	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
Q.10	I spend a lot of time, chatting with my friends on my mobile phone.	33	29	25	13

The data presented in the above table indicate that there are students who spend 18 hours in a day on their mobile phone while the majority of students spend almost 4 hours every day on their mobile phones. Of these students, 62% (33+29 =62) agree that they spend time chatting with their friends while (25+13 = 38) 38% of students say that they do not spend a lot of time chatting with their friends on the mobile phone.

TABLE5:
USING A MOBILE PHONE FOR THE PURPOSE OF COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC

Q.No	Statement	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
11	I need a mobile phone to understand English words and sentences	48	38	10	4
12	I use English as a medium of communication while chatting on WhatsApp Messenger.	27	25	29	19
13	I use Arabic as a medium of communication while chatting on WhatsApp messenger.	67	21	6	6
14	I use English as a medium of communication while chatting on Facebook.	17	15	31	37
15	I use Arabic as a medium of communication while writing an email to my friends	27	37	15	21
16	I use English as a medium of communication while writing an email to my friends	38	24	25	13

The data presented in the above table indicate that 86% of the students depend on mobile phones to understand English words and sentences. These data reveal that 52% of the students use English as a medium of communication for chatting on Whatsapp messenger, 32% on Facebook, and 62% for the purpose of writing an email.

The data in above table also reveal that 88% of the students use Arabic as a medium of communication for chatting on Whatsapp messenger, 68% on Facebook and 36% for the purpose of writing an email.

TABLE6:
USING MOBILE PHONES FOR THE PURPOSE OF IMPROVING ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS

Q, No	Statement	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree%
17	During free time, I watch English videos on my smartphones.	44	33	10	13
18	During free time, I watch Arabic videos on my smartphones.	42	25	17	16
19	Mobile phones can help me to improve my English speaking skills.	54	23	15	8
20	Mobile phones can help me to improve my English writing skills.	54	19	17	10
21	Mobile phones help me to learn new words of English.	42	50	8	0

The data presented in the above table indicate that 77% of the students watch English videos on mobile phones. 77% of the students believe that mobile phones can help in enhancing their English speaking skills, 73% believe that mobile phones can contribute to improving their English writing skills while 92% of the students believe that mobile phones can help them to learn new English words.

TABLE7:
DEPENDENCE ON MOBILE PHONES FOR TRANSLATION

Q, No	Statement	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
22	Mobile phones are necessary for me to translate English words into Arabic.	56	32	6	6
23	I use mobile phones to translate Arabic words into English.	48	35	13	4
24	I can understand English words without using a mobile phone.	33	35	17	15
25	The software I use on my mobile phone can translate English words correctly into Arabic.	37	31	25	8
26	The software I use on my mobile phone can translate Arabic words correctly into English	35	40	19	6

The data presented in the above table indicate that 88% of the students find mobile phones useful for translating English words to Arabic while 83% of the students use mobile phones to translate Arabic words into English. The statistics show that 68% of the students believe that the software used on the mobile phones can translate English words into Arabic while 75% of the students are confident that the software used in their mobile phones can translate Arabic words into English accurately.

The data presented in the above table also specifies that 68% of the students are confident in understanding English words without using a mobile phone while 32% of the students possibly feel that mobile phones are necessary for understanding English words.

TABLE8:
MOBILE PHONES FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES

Q, No	Statement	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
27	I scan and save the study-related reading materials to my mobile phone.	33	27	29	11
28	My mobile phone helps me to improve my English language skills.	44	38	13	5
29	My teachers of English allow me to use a mobile phone to learn English words in the classroom.	21	25	29	25

The above data indicate that 60% of the students scan their academic reading materials on their mobile phones while 82% of them believe that mobile phones help them to improve their English language skills. 46% of the students indicate that their English teachers allow them to use mobile phones in the classroom for the purpose of learning English words. 54% of the students, however, say that their English teachers do not permit them to use mobile phones to learn English words in the classroom.

TABLE9:
READING ON THE MOBILE PHONES

Q, No	Statement	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
30	During the exams, I read notes from my mobile phone.	21	25	27	27
31	I can remember everything if I read from my mobile phones.	21	27	40	12

The data presented in the above table indicate that 54% of the students do not use their mobiles during exams during exams while 46% of them read notes from their mobile phones during exams. 52% of the students are of the opinion that they cannot remember everything that they read on their mobile phone while 48% of the students say that they can remember everything that they read on the mobile phone.

TABLE10:
INFLUENCE OF MOBILE PHONES ON TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Q, No	Statement	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
32	My English teacher allows me to take notes on my mobile phone.	16	42	21	21
33	Because of the mobile phones, I stopped writing notes on paper.	16	31	33	20
34	I can improve my English spelling by using a mobile phone.	30	37	23	10
35	I do not need to learn English spelling because I can always use a mobile phone.	19	23	29	29
36	I do not need not to learn English language because I can always use a mobile phone.	17	29	40	14
37	Mobile phones are the main cause of my poor performance in the exams.	29	23	27	21

The above data indicate that English teachers allow students to take notes on their mobile phones, and also, a majority of the students are of the opinion that they can improve English spelling through mobile phones. 52% of the students, however, believe that mobile phones are the main cause for their poor performance in exams.

B. Analysis of Students' and Teachers' Written Responses

The qualitative analysis is based on an open-ended question (Q.38) given in the students' questionnaire and four open-ended questions given in the teachers' questionnaire. Students and teachers responded to the open-ended questions related to the effectiveness of electronic gadgets on English language learning. Only 19% of the students (*Q.38 Please write your opinion about using a mobile phone / iPad / Smart watch / Tablet for learning English*), and five English teachers responded to the open-ended questions. An overview of the students' and teachers' perceptions is presented in the table below.

TABLE11:
STUDENTS' WRITTEN STATEMENTS ABOUT USING ELECTRONIC GADGETS FOR THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH

Sl.No	Students' Statements on Question 38:	Relative Share
1	Using Google translation to know a new word, watch youtube, using social applications.	6%
2	A good way to learn English.	19%
3	In this century, we can't imagine our lives without a mobile.	2%
4	In general, technology is helpful to improve your knowledge.	2%
5	The mobile phone is always easy to carry and so during our free time we can learn.	2%
6	Inside the classroom, I sometimes use it for translation and outside the classroom, I use it to chat in English.	12%
7	Smartphones are good for communication, but not for learning. Not all people use smartphones to learn.	2%
8	Smartphones are helpful, but, as a student, you always need real books to learn.	2%
9	I think using a mobile phone in the classroom is very bad.	2%
10	If you need to search for a word from a book (hard copy), sometimes you need to turn many pages, but in the mobile phone, it is easy to search and find a word.	2%
11	My mobile phone helps me to take online English.	2%
12	My mobile phone helps to improve my spelling.	4%
13	It is good to use mobile phones to communicate with people in English or any other language.	2%
14	Mobile phones are bad for people who use them most of the time for things that are useless, and who do not care about their studies.	2%

The above data indicate that most of the students are of the opinion that electronic gadgets can help them to improve their English language skills. There are many students who depend on mobile phones for the purpose of translation. However, there are also a few students who think that using the mobile phones in the classroom is not appropriate. The statements presented below is an overview of the English teachers' opinion on the impact of mobile phones.

TABLE12:
OPINIONS OF ENGLISH TEACHERS ON IMPACT OF MOBILE PHONES ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING

Sl.No	Statements by Teachers of English (Qualitative Approach)
1	Mobile phones help learners to learn independently.
2	Mobile phones enable learners to use varied sources.
3	Students can learn at their own pace.
4	Mobile phones can be used for a variety of purposes
5	Mobile phones can store useful information, such as dictionaries, and can access websites on the internet.
6	Care should be taken on the security of the device and personal data.
7	Mobile phones will certainly improve students' language skills.
8	Mobile phones are within our reach at any time, and we can use them without any time limit.
9	Mobile phones are helpful for checking pronunciation.
10	Mobile phones are helpful to verify the usage of English words.
11	Via mobile phones, materials related to grammar can be accessed.
12	Mobile phones help students to record and memorize lists of words.
13	Applications like *WhatsApp* help students to form groups and contribute to improving their writing, reading, and speaking skills.
14	Smartphones provide easy, fast and efficient access to thousands of useful sources.
15	The use of mobile phones for language learning can contribute positively to students' learning processes.

All the five teachers who participated in this questionnaire are of the opinion that electronic gadgets are necessary for improving students' English language skills. Thus, the English teachers are aware of the effectiveness of electronic devices in the teaching-learning process.

V. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study are based on the quantitative and qualitative data obtained from students' response to the self-report inventory and teachers' response to the qualitative questionnaire. In this section, the major findings from the self-report inventory and the teachers' questionnaire will be presented in relation to the research questions mentioned in Section 3.0.

A. The Impact of Electronic Gadgets on English Language Learning of Saudi Undergraduates

Findings of the present study indicate that 75% of the students possess smartphones while the remaining 25% of them possess other electronic gadgets like iPods, Tablets and smartwatch. An analysis of the findings suggests that the impact of mobile phones in students' everyday lives is more dominant than that of other electronic gadgets. It is observed that 60% of the students scan study-related reading materials on their mobile phones while 46% of the students read notes from their mobile phones during exams. These students spend between four hours and 18 hours per day on their mobile phones for chatting with their friends. The findings of the study suggest that many students use mobile phones that come with English software like English electronic dictionaries so as to look up unfamiliar words.

English teachers can introduce tasks related to writing skills through which students can use the mobile keyboard to compose and edit short written messages for the purpose of communication. Most of the students who use mobile phones have only limited knowledge about the features of mobile technology. During the undergraduate education, students at all levels and branches should take the imitative to learn the basics of mobile technology. English teachers' and undergraduates' awareness of navigational issues, file formats, the size of files, types of files, memory cards and the effectiveness of operating systems can lead to successful outcomes.

B. The Extent to Which Undergraduates Depend on Mobile Phones for Communicating in English

The findings of the study suggest that 87% of the students use Arabic while only 15% of the students use English when communicating via their mobile phones. The findings also reveal that 86% of the students use translating software, available on the mobile phones, to understand English words and sentences. However, the inability of the various available language translating software to give accurate meaning to different English sentences can hinder students' understanding of the exact meaning. It is becoming habitual among students to make use of their mobile phones to translate the meanings of English words into their mother tongue. On the positive side, mobile phones can be helpful to connect and communicate with people living in other countries. A disadvantage of mobile phones is that the students' language learning abilities may be hindered when machine translation displays inaccurate meanings of a given English word. Lack of guidance while using these translation software programmes can lead to students comprehending inaccurate meanings and thus leading to the breakdown in the communication process.

In EFL classrooms, students are often frustrated with the traditional teaching methodologies, and it is time for English teachers to try and test mobile technology integrated activities to help students develop a positive attitude towards language learning. English teachers should encourage students to work productively and cooperatively on language learning activities, using mobile phone technology in the classroom. Introducing classroom activities that guide students to have control over their own learning while using a mobile phone can increase the amount of students' participation and create positive language learning environment in the classroom.

C. Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of the Positive Influence of Mobile Phones on Improving English Language Skills

The findings of the study suggest that 67% of the students think that mobile phones can improve their English spelling skills, and 45% of the students believe that they need not learn English spelling because they can always use a mobile phone. The belief that they can carry their mobile phones around at all times and that therefore, it is not necessary to learn English spelling may hinder them from reaching higher proficiency levels. It is observed that students often depend on their mobile phones when they are not sure of English spellings. Undergraduates may not feel it necessary to memorize or practice the spelling of unfamiliar English words because of the overall availability of portable mobile phones at all times. Students believe that electronic English dictionaries are effective in displaying the accurate spelling of words. Moreover, students can access electronic versions of standard English dictionaries like Oxford and Cambridge whenever they find it difficult to understand the meaning of unfamiliar English words. Only 2% of the students consider that using mobile phones in the classroom is inappropriate.

The findings of the study suggest that the teachers of English interviewed are aware of the effectiveness of mobile phones for improving the English language skills of undergraduates. The English teachers who participated in this study are of the opinion that mobile phones can certainly enhance students' communication skills and also make them independent of the teacher. Moreover, they think that students can develop independent learning habits and access resources repeatedly from different sources available on the internet. The English teachers believe that mobile devices are useful for students to record their pronunciation and, thus, improve their pronunciation skills. However, before introducing mobile technology to the classroom, issues like classroom management, variations in the mobile phone software programmes and an effective methodology have to be addressed systematically.

D. Mobile Phones as a Tool to Improve or Hinder Students' English Language Learning Abilities?

The findings of the present study reveal that English teachers - and most of the undergraduates - who participated in the survey are of the opinion that mobile phones can accelerate students' English language learning abilities. One of the teachers pointed out mobile phones "are in our reach any time, and we can use them without any time-limit" and another teacher stated, "helps to verify the usage of English words." A student expressed his view by stating that "inside the classroom, I sometimes use it for translation and outside the classroom, I use it to chat in English." Though the teachers of English interviewed are aware of the advantages of using mobile phones in the teaching-learning process, they strictly abide with the traditional course materials prescribed for the classroom use. 42^ of the students say that teachers do not allow them to take notes on mobile phones while 52% of the students are of the opinion that they cannot remember everything they read from their mobile phones.

In this context, English teachers need to find creative ways to integrate the mobile technology with the course materials for enhancing their students' English language learning skills. It is also important to note that using a mobile phone for unlimited hours in a day can cause health hazards and increases the potential for stress and insomnia. If these problems are not addressed at early stages in a students' academic life, the use of mobile phones can lead to poor performance in academic exams. The findings of the study reveal that 52% of the students believe that mobiles phones are the main cause for poor performance in their university exams.

VI. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present study was limited to 52 undergraduate students majoring English at Aljouf University, Saudi Arabia. As mentioned in section 3.5, the research findings were limited to the analysis of students' self-reports and a teacher questionnaire. Only five English teachers participated in the questionnaire and so, the results of this part of the survey cannot but indicate some vague tendencies. It will, therefore, be necessary to conduct another study with a bigger number of English teachers so as to verify – or falsify – the results presented in this paper. Such further research can be supplemented by designing and testing the effectiveness of integrating English language learning activities with mobile technology in EFL classrooms. However, the findings outlined in the present study give some basic insight into the improvement of English at the undergraduate level. Although these findings are related to the local context, they may, at least in part, be transferrable to the learning environments in other regions as the use of smartphone is becoming more and more prevalent worldwide.

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The Effect of a Suggested Program Based on Interactional Metadiscourse Markers on Developing EFL Majors' Reading Comprehension and the Reader-friendliness of Their Writing

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Abstract—This study attempted to investigate the effect of using a suggested program of interactional metadiscourse markers on EFL majors' reading comprehension and on their reader-friendly writing. The study used a pre-test/post-test experimental and control group design. An experimental group and a control group were exposed to pre-post means of getting data (a pre-post reading comprehension test and pre-post writing test). Thirty four EFL majors at the College of Education and Arts, Northern Borders University, participated in this study. A 10-week program of interactional metadiscourse markers was developed and given to experimental group students. Results revealed a significant improvement in the reading comprehension of the experimental group students and in their reader-friendly writing. Based on these findings, it was recommended that explicit teaching of metadiscourse markers should be integrated into EFL majors' curricula.

Index Terms—metadiscourse markers, reader-friendly writing, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Recently, linguists, as well as language teachers, have come to an agreement that neither writing is just a communication of ideas and presentation of ideational meaning, nor reading is merely understanding a collection of words on a page (Amiryousefi & Rasekh (2010; Blagojević, 2009; Tavakoli, 2010; Aguilera, 2014; among others). Instead, reading and writing are considered as social acts which involve both writers and readers to interact with each other. In an EFL reading comprehension class, teachers' main concern is to make sure that their students understand what they read. However, reading in no longer seen as a simple process of understanding a host of words on a page. In the past, "reading was considered a relatively static activity. Meaning was embedded in the text, and the reader's job was to understand what was being transmitted via the words on the page" (Tavakoli, 2010, p. 92). Recently, second foreign/language research views reading comprehension as a more active process in which the reader uses the information in a given text to construct the meaning himself. In both first and second language instructional frameworks, reading is seen as an interactive process. In addition to "decoding meaning from print with bottom-up skills, successful readers implement top-down skills to activate their prior knowledge of content and use textual cues to help them cope with new information" (Camiciottoli, 2003, p. 28).

Along with this interactive process taking place between the reader, on the one hand, and the content, on the other, there is also another parallel and essential type of interaction. It is the interaction between the reader and the writer. This mutual dialogue between the author of the text and its reader is known as metadiscourse (Camiciottoli, 2003; Jalilifar, Shooshtari & Mutaqid, 2011). In this respect, William (1981) points out that whenever an author writes, "he usually has to write on two levels: level of direction and the level of information" (Cited in Tavakoli, 2010, p. 92). That is, items such as '*of course*', '*but*', '*for example*', and '*also*', when used by authors, they are intended to function as directives to the text reader because they serve more to direct than to inform.

Similarly, writing is no longer viewed as simply a means for retelling or recounting information, or as a "mere account of scientific facts expressed through a piece of writing" (Blagojević, 2009, p. 63). It is neither seen as a solitary job where the author endeavors to complete his work all by himself, nor it is seen as a "simple one-way transferal of information from one person to others" (Ward, 1994, p. 53). It is no more looked at as a "solipsist cognitive process that begins and ends with the individual" (Aguilera, 2014, p. 160), or as "just creating and imitating written texts" (Mok, 1993, p. 152). It is not a "generic skill to be taught as a set of static rules, but rather as shaped by complex interactions of social, institutional, and historical forces in contexts of unequal power" (Starfield, 2007, p. 875). Currently, writing is viewed from a "social-constructionist" perspective "as part of dialogue in which authors and readers produce and

maintain knowledge" (Ward, 1994, pp. 53-54). It is no longer seen as a "neutral individual process but as an interaction between writers and readers within specific discourse communities" (Colpin & Van Gorp, 2007, p.198).

Nowadays, there is a widespread interest in the interactive and rhetorical character of academic writing (Blagojević, 2009; Pérez-Llantada, 2010). This supports the idea that "scientific writing has to be viewed from a new, social perspective which emphasizes the relationship between the producers of a scientific writing and its recipients, i.e. to be looked at from a writer-reader perspective" (Blagojević, 2009, p. 63). This viewpoint expands the focus of our emphasis to encompass, not only the ideational dimension of a piece of writing, but also the way it functions at the interpersonal level. According to this viewpoint, "academic writers do not simply produce texts that plausibly represent an external reality, but use language to acknowledge, construct and negotiate social relations" (Hyland, 2004a, p. 5). This, again, affirms the idea that scientific discourse, functions on two levels; the first level is the primary discourse, which encompasses facts that add up to the truth. The second is the linguistic material, which is developed to help readers to understand what is said and what is intended by the author in the primary discourse. This level of discourse is generally referred to as a secondary discourse, and commonly called metadiscourse. It serves to "direct readers in how to take the author–that is, how to understand the author's perspective or stance toward the content or structure of the primary discourse and the readers" (Blagojević, 2009, p. 64). In this context, Hyland, (2004b) assures that "the ability of writers to control the level of personality in their texts, claiming solidarity with readers, evaluating their material, and acknowledging alternative views, is now recognized as a key feature of successful academic writing" (pp. 133-134).

A text without metadiscourse, as seen by Hyland (2010), appears "much less personal, less interesting, and less easy to follow" (p. 127). Supporting this, Crismore and Abdollehzadeh (2010) put it very clear that "metadiscourse elements are rhetorical tools that make a text reader-friendly and as such enable the writer to reach the audience" (p. 196). Metadiscourse markers help organize the text and signal the presence of the writer through conveying the writer's attitudes towards his text or towards the readers themselves, and through establishing relationships between the writer and the reader as well (Noble, 2010). According to Hyland (2005), "with the judicious addition of metadiscourse, a writer is able not only to transform what might otherwise be a dry or difficult text into coherent, reader-friendly prose, but also to relate it to a given context and convey his or her personality, credibility, audience-sensitivity and relationship to the message" (p. 4).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Due to the acknowledged importance of metadiscourse to reading and writing in general, and to EFL/ESL reading and writing in particular, several researchers attempted to examine the effect of teaching metadiscourse markers on students' awareness and use of these markers, and on their abilities to recognize and incorporate them.

Steffensen and Cheng (1996) investigated the effect of instruction in metadiscourse on students' composition writing skills. A pretest and a posttest experimental and control group design was used. Students in two college composition classes participated in this study. The experimental class received direct instruction in metadiscourse while the control one received no such instruction. Experimental class students' posttest essays were significantly better than those of the control class. In an exploratory classroom study with a group of Italian university students, Camiciottoli (2003) explored the effect of metadiscourse on ESP reading comprehension. Participants were divided into two equal groups. Students of both groups were asked to read selected extracts from two versions of the same text differing according to quantity and type of metadiscourse. After that, students in both groups were administered a reading comprehension test. Comparison of students' mean scores suggested that a more evident use of metadiscourse markers may be associated with improved comprehension. In a similar study, Parvaresh and Nemati (2008) examined the effects of metadiscourse markers on the reading comprehension of both English and Persian texts. Two types of texts (metadiscourse enriched versus metadiscourse removed) were developed and used for data collection. Both types were translated into Persian and used for a Persian reading comprehension test. Results indicated that all participants performed significantly better on the texts with full metadiscourse markers than on those without.

Tavakoli, Dabaghi and Khorvash (2010) investigated the effect of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on students' achievement in EFL reading comprehension. Eighty intermediate level students participated in the experiment. They were randomly divided into four equal groups (three experimental and one control). Participants of the first experimental group received instruction in both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse, participants of the second group received instruction only in textual metadiscourse and those of the third one received instruction only in interpersonal metadiscourse markers. Participants of the control group, on the other hand, received no specific instruction in metadiscourse. Results revealed significant improvement in the reading comprehension of the participants of the three experimental groups as a result of the direct teaching of metadiscourse. Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010) studied the impact of explicit instruction of metadiscourse on EFL students' writing performance. Participants were 94 students majoring in English Literature at the University of Isfahan. A pretest and a posttest experimental and control group design was used. Experimental group students were exposed to explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers for six successive sessions. Posttest results revealed that explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers significantly improved EFL students' writing ability. Jalilifar, Shooshtari, and Mutaqid (2011) examined the effect of explicit instruction of hedging on EFL university students' reading comprehension. One hundred students were selected and randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. After attending 10 sessions of awareness-raising on hedging,

and on the functions of hedging devices, participants were administered a reading comprehension test as a posttest. Results of data analysis revealed that explicit instruction had a facilitative effect on experimental group students' recognition of hedging devices and therefore on their improved reading comprehension.

In their quasi-experimental study, Allami and Serajfard (2012) explored the effect of direct instruction in engagement markers on the writing of university level IELTS student. Sixty students, equally divided into experimental and control group, participated in this study. Experimental group students received instruction on the use of engagement markers, whereas those of the control group received no such instruction. Results revealed significant improvement in the quality and effectiveness of experimental group students' writing. The study of Yaghoubi and Ardestani (2014) investigated the effect of using both explicit and implicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on the writing skills of ninety female Iranian students at Kish Institute of Science and Technology. A pretest and a posttest experimental and control group design was used. Findings revealed significant improvement in the participants' posttest writing scores. Metadiscourse instruction, both implicit and explicit, had a positive effect on the learners' writing skills. Zarrati, Knambiar and Maasum (2014) investigated the effect of metadiscourse on EFL learners' reading comprehension. Two reading comprehension tests with two text types (metadiscourse enriched versus metadiscourse removed) were developed for the purpose of data collection. Results showed that EFL students performed better on the metadiscourse enriched test booklet than their counterparts who took the metadiscourse removed text booklet.

Obviously, if the findings of these studies do not provide a clear-cut evidence that metadiscourse awareness improves writing, as well as reading comprehension, they indicate that it has, at least, a facilitating role. It is also clear that all the above reviewed studies, to the best knowledge of this researcher, were conducted with participants other than Arab EFL students. Therefore, instruction in metadiscourse is a topic that deserves further study in order that we can make more valid generalizations.

III. CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

During teaching and marking students' oral and written works, it has been observed by this researcher that most EFL students lack strategies for dealing with metadiscourse. To them, metadiscourse may appear as something redundant or even as noise. In reading, they do not use metadiscourse elements appropriately to interpret the writer's message and in writing they do not use them to guide the reader or to engage him/her as a text participant. In addition, they tend to give the same weight to hedged statements or interpretations as to accredited facts.

Statement of the Problem

EFL majors at the College of Education and Arts, Northern Borders University, have always shown low levels in reading comprehension. In addition, their writing is much less reader-friendly and difficult to follow. This might be due to their inability to recognize and use metadiscourse markers of which most students seem to be unaware. Based on this, the current study attempted to explore the effectiveness of using a suggested program of interactional metadiscourse markers on EFL majors' reading comprehension and on the reader-friendliness of their writings.

Hypotheses of the Study

The researcher hypothesized the following:

(1) There would be statistically significant differences, favoring the experimental group, between the mean scores obtained by students of the experimental group and those of the control group in the post-test of reading comprehension.

(2) There would be statistically significant differences, favoring the experimental group, between the mean scores obtained by students of the experimental group and those of the control group in the post-test of reader-friendly writing.

Objectives of the Study

The current study attempted to achieve the following objectives:

(1) Integrating metadiscourse in EFL/ESL language teaching and learning.

(2) Drawing the attention of EFL/ESL learners to the importance of the so long neglected role of metadiscourse.

(3) Exploring the effect of direct teaching of metadiscourse on EFL majors' reading comprehension and on the reader-friendliness of their writing.

Significance of the Study

The current study derives its significance from the following:

(1) The study is considered a pioneering one that attempted to examine the effectiveness of direct teaching of metadiscourse to Arab EFL majors.

(2) It develops a program of interactional metadiscourse markers that can be used by EFL/ESL teachers for developing their students' reading and writing skills.

(3) The findings of this study may direct the attention of teachers and curriculum developers to the importance of incorporating explicit teaching of metadiscourse into EFL/ESL curricula.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited to:

(1) EFL male students only due to gender segregation imposed in Saudi Arabia.

(2) Some interactional metadiscourse markers (mentioned in Hyland (2005)'s Classification) namely *hedging devices, attitude markers* and *engagement markers*. These three sub-categories only because they are the most neglected in EFL curricula.

IV. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse represents how the writer uses language in an attempt to guide the perception of his reader. Ädel, (2010) defines metadiscourse as "reflexive linguistic expressions referring to the evolving discourse itself or its linguistic form" (p. 75). It is "an author's discoursing about the discourse; it is the author's intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly, to direct rather than inform the readers" (Crismore, 1984, p. 4). Metadiscourse refers to the type of discourse that has a job beyond the general norm of communication. It is through this type of discourse, the writer or the speaker can cast light on the aspects he use while introducing herself to signal his attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text or the speech (Blagojević, 2009). Metadiscourse or, as Mauranen (2010) call it, 'discourse reflexivity' is generally an essential property of human communication. She explains this by pointing out that whenever speakers cannot depend on much shared linguistic or cultural knowledge with their interlocutors, they need to secure shared understanding by using this level of discourse as a strategy for explicitness. Thus, in spoken language, discourse reflexivity or metadiscourse is a feature that speakers cannot dispense with. For Toumi (2009), metadiscourse is "essentially 'text about the text' or 'talk about talk'… metadiscourse is the linguistic material of text that does not add propositional content, but rather signals the presence of the author" (p. 64). It "embodies the idea that communication is more than just the exchange of information, goods or services, but also involves the personalities, attitudes and assumptions of those who are communicating" (Hyland, 2005, p. 3). For VandeKopple (2012), metadiscourse refers to "elements of texts that convey meanings other than those that are primarily referential" (p. 37). Ädel (2006) states that metadiscourse is seen as "the means whereby the writer's presence in the discourse is made explicit, whether by displaying attitude towards or commenting on the text or by showing how the text is organized" (Cited in Abdelmoneim, 2009, p. 18).

Metadiscourse Function

Generally speaking, the human language used in communication, whether oral or written, service to achieve three metafunctions; ideational, interpersonal, and textual (Crismore, 1983; Crismore, 1984; Hyland, 2005; Noorian & Biria, 2010). According to Hyland (2005)'s explanation of the three metafunctions of language, the ideational or referential function refers to the use of language to express or represent the physical experiences of the external world, as well as ideas, feelings and all mental processes. The interpersonal function, on the other hand, refers to the use of language items to encode interaction and to engage the addressee with the addresser in a discourse situation in order to take on roles, to express feelings and to show evaluations of propositional information. Finally, the textual function refers to the use of language to organize the text and to establish links with the situation and the recipients in order to create a cohesive as well as coherent text. In this respect, VandeKopple (2012) claims that while the ideational function is realized through the primary discourse, interpersonal and textual functions of language are the main responsibility of metadiscourse. It is worth mentioning that, while the three metafunctions constitute "the bases upon which metadiscourse rests" (Hyland, 2005, p. 26), the last two functions are the roots of metadiscourse, upon which, Hyland sets up his famous classification of metadiscourse into textual and interpersonal.

Classifications of Metadiscourse types

There are many classifications of metadiscourse types. In this section, three of the most commonly known are presented. The first one is that of Crismore (1983) which divides metadiscourse into two main categories; informational and attitudinal. The second is that of VandeKopple (2002) and it divides metadiscourse markers into six main categories including; text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, epistemology markers, attitude markers and commentary. The third classification is that of Hyland (2005) which comprises two main categories of metadiscourse; interactive and interactional.

(1) Crismore (1983)'s Classification

Crismore (1983, pp. 11-15)'s typology of metadiscourse markers includes two main categories; **informational** and **attitudinal** metadiscourse, with subtypes for each main category. Crismore (1983)'s typology is based on his assumption that metadiscourse is used on two levels; referential and expressive. Metadiscourse functions on a referential informational level "when it serves to direct readers how to understand the primary message by referring to its content and structure, and the author's purposes or goals" (Crismore, 1983, p. 11). On the other hand, metadiscourse functions on an expressive, attitudinal and symbolic level "when it serves to direct readers how to take the author, that is, how to understand the author's perspective or stance toward the content or structure of the primary discourse" (Ibid., 12).

Via **informational metadiscourse**, the author can offer his readers numerous types of information about the primary discourse in order to help them for better understanding of the text. Among the subtypes of the informational metadiscourse markers mentioned by Crismore (1983, p. 12), and used by authors for this purpose are: 1) *global goal statements or goals*, as called by Crismore (1983); 2) *global preliminary statements about content and structure or preplans*, as he calls them; 3) *global review statements about content and structure or post plans*, as he calls them; and 4) *local shifts of topic which he calls topicalizers*.

In another vein, an author can show his attitude towards the content of the primary discourse and towards his reader via **attitudinal metadiscourse**. An author can give directives about the importance of certain points or parts of his primary discourse from his viewpoint. He can also signal the degree of certainty he has for his statements and his beliefs

or how he feels about the content of the message he is conveying to readers. His commentary here is all evaluative and expressive rather than referential and informational.

Among the subtypes of the attitudinal metadiscourse markers mentioned by Crismore (1983, p. 14), and used by authors for the above mentioned purpose are: 1) *importance of idea*, which Crismore (1983) calls *saliency*; 2) *degree of certainty of assertion*, which he calls *emphatics*; 3) *degree of uncertainty*, which he calls *hedges*; and 4) *attitude toward a fact or idea*, which he calls *evaluative*.

(2) VandeKopple (2002)'s Classification

The taxonomy offered by VandeKopple (2002, as cited in VandeKopple, 2012, pp. 38-40) included six main categories. The first category is Text Connectives which are used by authors to show the readers how the different parts of a text are connected to one another, and how different texts are organized. Typical examples of Text Connectives include: 1) *elements that show sequence such as, first, next,* and *in the third place*; 2) *elements that show logical or chronological relationships* such as, *at the same time,* and *consequently*; 3) *reminders about material presented earlier in texts* such as, *as we saw in part one,* and *as we mentioned in the first chapter*; 4) *statements about forthcoming material* such as *as we shall see in the next chapter,* and *as will be shown in the next paragraph*; and 5) *topicalizers* (see Williams' classifications).

The second category is **Code Glosses** which are used by authors to help readers understand the proper meanings of elements in a text. Examples of Code Glosses are: 1) *when the author defines a word or phrase for his readers or when he signals that there is a problem with the common interpretation of a word, he uses expressions* such as *so-called* or *what some people call*; 2) *when the author indicates how strictly or loosely he wishes his readers to receive his words, he uses expressions* such as, *strictly speaking* or *roughly speaking*; and 3) *when the author anticipates that his readers might be having difficulty in understanding passages, and he indicates that he will rephrase by using expressions* such as, *I'll put it this way* or *what I mean to say is*.

The third category is **Illocution Markers** which are used by authors to make clear to their readers the type of speech or discourse act they are performing at certain points in texts. Common examples of Illocution Markers are: 1) elements such as *we claim that, I hypothesize that, I promise to, to sum up,* and *for example*; 2) when authors use *mitigators* to attenuate the force of speech acts as, for instance, when adding a modal verb to a direct request, e.g. *I must ask that you*, or when they, to the contrary, use *boosters* to increase the force of certain speech acts such as *enthusiastically* and *most sincerely*.

The fourth category is **Epistemology Markers** which are used by authors to indicate some stance on their part toward the epistemological status of the ideational material they convey. In other words, they mark the degree of certainty with which the author makes a claim about the truth of a proposition or how committed he is to the truth of ideational material. Sometimes the author is cautious, and he signals that caution with what VandeKopple (2012) calls *shields* such as, *it is possible that* and *perhaps*. Sometimes he emphasizes what he really believes, or would like his readers to think he believes, by using what are called *emphatics* such as, *without a doubt* and *most certainly*.

The fifth category of metadiscourse is **Attitude Markers** which are used by an author to help him reveal what attitude he has toward ideational material. Examples of these markers that express attitudes are: 1) *using adverbs* such as *fortunately*; 2) *parenthetical expressions* such as *I regret* and *I rejoice*; and 3) *clauses* such as *I am grateful that*.

The sixth and last category of metadiscourse, according to VandeKopple (2002, as cited in VandeKopple, 2012, pp. 38-40), is **Commentary** with which the author addresses his readers directly. Common examples of commentary are: 1) *when the author comments on his readers' probable moods, views, or reactions to his ideational material as in saying*; *some of you will be amazed that* or 2) *when he even recommends a mode of reading as in saying you might wish to skip to the next chapter*.

(3) Hyland (2005)'s Classification

Hyland (2005, pp. 48-54)'s model divides metadiscourse markers into two main categories of **interactive** and **interactional**. Interactive metadiscourse markers help to guide the reader through the text. It includes stance and engagement markers. They concern the author's awareness of his readers, and his efforts to accommodate their interests and needs, and to make his argument reasonable for them (Hyland, 2005).

Interactive metadiscourse markers are divided into five categories including: 1) **Transitions** which express relations between main clauses. Examples of **transitions** include: *in addition, but,* and *thus;* and 2) **Frame markers** refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages. Examples of frame markers are: *finally, to conclude,* and *my purpose is*; 3) **Endophoric markers** refer to information in other parts of the text. Examples of endophoric markers are: *noted above, see fig* and *in section two*; 4) **Evidentials** refer to information from other texts. Examples of evidentials are: *according to x,* and *z states*; 5) **Code glosses** indicate the restatement of ideational information or propositional meanings. Examples of code glosses are: *namely, e.g., such as* and *in other words*.

The interactional markers, on the other hand, involve the reader in the text. They concern the author's efforts to make clear his viewpoints, and to have his readers engaged in what he says or writes by anticipating their objections and responses to the text (Hyland, 2005).

Interactional metadiscourse markers are also divided into five categories including: 1) **Hedges** which withhold commitment and open dialogue. Examples of hedges are *might, perhaps, possible* and *about*; 2) **Boosters** which emphasize certainty or close dialogue. Examples of boosters are *in fact, definitely* and *it is clear that*; 3) **Attitude**

markers express the writer's attitude to or evaluation of propositional information, i.e. expressing agreement, surprise, obligation and so on. Examples of attitude markers are *unfortunately, surprisingly,* and *I agree*; 4) **Self-mentions** express reference to author(s) in terms of first person pronouns and possessives. Examples of self-mentions are *I, we, my, me,* and *our*; 5) **Engagement markers** which explicitly build relationship with the reader either by selectively focusing his attention or by including him as a participant in the text through question forms, second person pronouns, or imperatives. Examples of engagement markers are *consider, note,* and *you can see that*.

V. Methodology and Materials

Participants

All students registering in reading 2 (code: 1606115) and writing 2 (code: 1606111)courses at the College of Education and Arts, Northern Borders University, Saudi Arabia, volunteered to participate in this study. They were randomly assigned either to experimental or control group. Participants shared some common characteristics as they are all of average ages ranging from 19 to 21 years old, from the same Saudi culture, and with homogeneous English learning backgrounds. After excluding drop outs the number of the students who successfully completed the experiment was 34 students equally divided between the two groups of the study.

Experimental Design

The study used a pre-test/post-test experimental and control group design. An experimental group and a control group were exposed to pre-post means of getting data (a pre-post reading comprehension test and a pre-post writing test). In addition to attending their usual reading and writing classes by using the prescribed books; *Interactions 2 Writing by Cheryl Pavlik & Margaret keenan Segal. ME, Gold Edition. MacGraw Hill: New York. (2007)*; and *Interactions 2 Reading, by Kirn, Elaine & Pamela Hartmann ME, Gold Edition. MacGraw Hill. (2009)*, the experimental group participants received direct instruction in interactional metadiscourse via the suggested program, while those of the control group received no such instruction. They attended the usual reading and writing classes only.

Research Instruments

To answer the study questions, a pre-post reading comprehension test and a writing test, together with a reader-friendly writing scoring scale, were developed and used by this researcher. In addition, a suggested program of interactional metadiscourse was also designed and built by this researcher (See Appendices).

(1) Pre-post Reading Comprehension Test.

A pre-post reading comprehension test was developed for assessing EFL majors' reading comprehension. In order to construct this test, a reading comprehension passages was adapted from the free reading comprehension passages by MrNussbaum.com, available online at: http://mrnussbaum.com/tornado-reading-comprehension/. Before using it in the current test, the passage was enriched with appropriate interactional metadiscourse markers. Thus, the present test included one reading comprehension passage followed by ten questions. Questions were formed in a multiple choice format. Each item included a stem followed by four alternatives. This way, the test included 10 items. In items no. 1 to 8, where only one of the alternatives is the correct option, students were asked to select only one answer, whereas in items no. 9 to 10, students were asked to select all true alternatives.

Validity and Reliability Measures of the Test

Construct validity of this test was determined by a panel of TEFL experts. Procedures of test reliability and its duration, were calculated through piloting it with a group of 15 level-three EFL majors by using the test re-test method. The stability coefficient was (r=.86) and the optimum time for finishing this test was forty (40) minutes.

Scoring

A student's score is simply the number of correct answers he gives; there is no added penalty for wrong answers. Four marks were given to each correct test item. Thus the test maximum score is 40 marks.

(2) Pre-post Writing Test.

In order to assess EFL majors' reader-friendly writing, a pre-post writing test, together with a scoring scale, were developed. The test was of the essay type. It consisted of two writing prompts; one for the pre-test and the other for the posttest. For each prompt, students were asked to write at least a five-paragraph essay.

Validity and Reliability Measures of the Test

Construct validity of this test was also determined by the same panel of TEFL experts who judged the reading comprehension test. Procedures of test reliability and its duration, were calculated through piloting it with the same group of 15 level-three EFL majors by using the test re-test method. Then, a coefficient of stability was decided on by calculating the correlation between the scores on the two administrations using Pearson product moment correlation formula. The reliability of the test was found (r =.76) which is considered a reasonable value for such tests and the optimum time for finishing this test was forty (60) minutes.

Inter-rater reliability was also estimated by administering it to the same piloting group. This researcher and another trained rater of his colleagues rated the writings of the pilot group students on the test scoring scale. Correlation between scores of the researcher and those of his colleague was calculated. Reliability coefficient was found (r=81). This value indicates that the writing test is reasonably reliable.

Scoring the Test

For scoring this test, a 5-point reader-friendly writing scale was also developed by this researcher. The scoring scale was based on the criterion of metadiscourse as one of the major factors hypothesized to contribute to writing friendliness. Three main domains were specified to be measured via this scale. Each domain is represented by some features of friendly or considerate writing; the first domain was about *Using Hedged Language,* represented by 3 features (1-3); the second was about *Using Evaluative/Attitudinal Language,* represented by 2 features (4-5); and the third was about *Using Interactive/Engaging Language,* represented by 3 features (6-8). Each student's paper was scored by two raters, who independently rated his writing on the features of the three domains. These features should be present in the student's writing. Thus, a student's final score on this test was the mean score given by the two raters. The values given to this scale were: 4 for point (A) *Strongly agree*; 3 for point (B) *Agree*; 2 for point (C) *Uncertain*; 1 for point (D) Disagree; and zero for point (E) Strongly Disagree. This way, each item of the eight feature of reader-friendly writing was rated from zero to 4, and the total score on the scale ranged from zero to 32.

(3) The Suggested Interactional Metadiscourse Program

In order to develop EFL majors' reading comprehension and their reader-friendly writing, a program of interactional metadiscourse markers was proposed. Three main categories of interactional metadiscourse markers were included in the training of the EFL majors who participated in this study. These categories constituted the general objectives stated for the program.

Content of the program

The content of the proposed program was designed in the light of the stated objectives it was intended to achieve. It consisted of a teacher's guidebook and a student's book. It included three units that were to cover its objectives. Each unit dealt with a different area of interactional metadiscourse and was divided into some lessons that were to cover the objectives of that unit:

Unit One: Hedging Devices
Lesson One   Lexical Verbs with Epistemic Meanings
Lesson Two   Epistemic Modal Verbs
Lesson Three   Epistemic Modal Adverbs and Downtoners
Lesson Four   Epistemic Modal Adjectives
Unit Two: Attitude Markers
Lesson One   Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases Functioning as Sentence Adverbials
Lesson Two   Verb-modifying Adverbs
Lesson Three   Adjectives Functioning as Subjective Complement in Sentences with Expletive 'it'
Unit Three: Engagement Markers
Lesson One   Reader Pronouns
Lesson Two   Directives
Lesson Three   Appeals to Shared Knowledge

Thus, The program in its final form consisted of three units; unit one was about *Hedging Devices* and it was divided into four lessons; unit two was about *Attitude Markers* and it was divided into three lessons; and unit three was about *Engagement Markers* and it was also divided into three lessons. Hence, the program included ten lessons. Each lesson had its own behavioral objectives which were derived from the unit objectives.

Teaching Methodology

A three-phase instructional sequence that was situated in the task-based approach to language teaching was followed in teaching this program:

The Pre-task phase

In the pre-task phase, students were introduced to the topic of the lesson at hand. Through whole-class interaction, they were presented with a definition of the linguistic technique used to realize the respective category of interactional metadiscourse and how it is used effectively.

The Actual Task or the Task Cycle

In this stage, the teacher took a step back and let the students do their work independently, whether individually or in groups. Students in this stage were, first, asked to make groups of five and to work together either to decide the words that express signs of caution, vagueness or playing down of claims in the given sentences, or to decide the words that express the author's evaluation of the propositional content or his attitude towards the semantic content of some given sentences. They were also asked to decide the words used for interacting with the readers and engaging them or drawing their support in the given sentences.

After that, students were asked to work individually either to identify hedged versus unhedged utterances or to identify the words that reflect the author's attitude towards the propositional content in a given list of utterances. They were also asked to identify interactive versus non-interactive utterances. Having completed the given tasks, whether individually or in groups, students were asked to report to the whole class on the outcome of their work, and the teacher was always ready to comment, advise and to facilitate learning during that stage.

The Post-Task or the Language Focus

In the post-task stage or the language focus, students were given the opportunity to work on the language technique learned. They were asked to work in groups or in pairs to produce as much hedged sentences using the learned linguistic techniques and as much utterances using evaluative attitudinal language as possible. They were also asked to produce as

much interactive and engaging utterances as possible using the learned engagement techniques. At the end of the task cycle, awareness of the target linguistic technique was assessed via having students finish a two-part written quiz.

Pre-test

On September 6[th.]2015, a day before beginning the intervention, the reading comprehension test and the writing test were administered to the participants of the study as pre-tests. This step was intended to ascertain the equivalence of the two groups of the study. An Independent Samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the participants of the two groups. Results of comparisons revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between the mean scores obtained by students of the control and experimental groups, neither in the reading comprehension pre-test (t=.90, p<0.05) nor in the reader-friendly writing pre-test (t=.39, p<0.05). This result indicated that the two groups of the study were equivalent both in reading comprehension and in the reader-friendliness of writing.

Intervention

On September 7[th.]2015, teaching the suggested program to the experimental group students began. The teaching lasted for about 10 weeks with almost one lesson per week. Each Linguistic technique was taught in three hours. Thus, the total time of teaching the suggested program was 30 hours.

Post-test

On 23[th.]November, 2015, after finishing teaching the suggested program to the experimental group students, the reading comprehension test and the writing test were re-administered to the study participants as post-tests.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results obtained from this study are presented in terms of the study hypotheses in this section.

Testing the First Hypothesis

Independent Sample t-tests were used to test the first hypothesis of the study. Findings are presented in table 1 below:

TABLE 1:
"T" VALUE OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN THE READING COMPREHENSION POST-TEST

Group	N	M	SD	"T" value	Sig.
Control	17	21.5294	1.807	-8.28**	0.001
Experimental	17	27.2941	2.229		

The results presented in Table 1 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores obtained by participants of the control and experimental groups in the post-test of reading comprehension in favour of the experimental group. The experimental group got a higher mean (27.2941) than that obtained by the control group (21.5294). The result of the t-test shows that the t-value = (-8.28) and the difference is significant at (0.001) level. Thus, the first hypothesis is affirmed.

Testing the Second Hypothesis

Independent t-tests were also used to test the second hypothesis. To obtain specific information on particular aspects of the reader-friendliness of writing, participants' scores on the three individual domains of metadiscourse as a major factor hypothesized to contribute to writing friendliness were also compared. The findings are presented in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2:
"T" VALUE OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN THE POST-TEST OF READER-FRIENDLY WRITING

Metadiscourse Domain	N	Mean Score		SD		"T" value
		Control	Experimental	Control	Experimental	
Hedged Language	17	3.4706	5.2353	1.419	1.715	-3.27**
Evaluative/Attitudinal Language	17	2.7059	5.4706	1.213	1.281	-6.46**
Interactive/Engaging Language	17	3.3529	6.0588	1.169	1.983	-4.85**
Total	17	9.5294	17.0588	2.896	3.132	-7.28**

The results in Table 2 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores obtained by participants of the control and experimental groups in the post-test of reader-friendly writing, in favour of the experimental group. The experimental group got higher mean scores than those obtained by control group. They obtained a mean score of (5.2353) in using hedged language in writing; (5.4706) in using evaluative/attitudinal language; (6.0588) in using interactive/engaging language; and they obtained an overall mean score of (17.0588) in reader-friendly writing. Conversely, control group students obtained lower mean scores for each evaluated metadiscourse domain. The overall result of the t-test shows that the t-value = (-7.28) and the difference is significant at (0.001) level. Thus, the second hypothesis is affirmed.

Although it is extremely difficult to prove "cause and effect" in educational intervention studies, the findings of this study indicate that an interactional metadiscourse program is promising in developing reading comprehension and the reader-friendliness of writing in an EFL context. According to the post-test scores, explicit teaching of interactional metadiscourse markers is capable of improving EFL majors' reading comprehension and the reader-friendliness of their

writing. Experimental group students outperformed those of the control group in reading comprehension and in reader-friendly writing. These high gains shown by the students of the experimental group on a pre-test post-test comparison could be attributed to the effect of the systematic instruction and training those students had in interactional metadiscourse markers, and to their exposure to the especially prepared and appropriately tuned authentic materials used in the suggested program.

EFL majors' mean scores on the post-test of reading comprehension displayed an enhanced reading comprehension ability among experimental group students. Being aware of interactional metadiscourse markers, as a result of their exposure to direct instruction in them, via the suggested program, experimental group students were able to pick up and identify different kinds of such markers and cues, interpret their textual, physical and cognitive functions, and predict the subsequent events from the preceding propositions in the text. Thus, instead of recalling factual information that has been explicitly stated or wasting their time seeking for direct statements from the text to answer the test questions, experimental group students seemed to apply their awareness of interactional metadiscourse markers in understanding what they read, and they went beyond what was said and read for deeper meanings via recognizing the writer's style of writing.

In another vein, direct teaching of interactional metadiscourse markers proved to be effective in improving, not only EFL majors' reading comprehension, but also their reader-friendly writing. According to the results on the reader-friendly writing scale, experimental group students appeared better able to produce reader-friendly writing than those of the control group. These remarkably high gains shown by students of the experimental group on a pre-post comparison could also be attributed to the effect of the systematic instruction and training EFL majors had in the suggested program.

Experimental group students' mean scores on the post-assessment revealed a better ability to produce a more cautious or hedged language. Their propositions sounded more tentative and less forceful, and they displayed politeness and indirectness as a result of being attenuated by the use of hedging devices. In addition, Experimental group students seemed better able to produce more considerate writing via expressing their attitudes, whether affect, judgment or appreciation, towards the semantic content of their utterances. Moreover, experimental group students showed a better ability to build a kind of writer-reader interaction, engage their readers more explicitly, and invite them to see themselves as participants in the discourse. Via using appropriate engagement markers, experimental group students expressed their recognition of their potential readers, pulling them along with their arguments, focusing their attention and leading them to the right interpretations.

These results are compatible with the proposition, made by Hyland (2004b) that "consciousness raising is crucial in L2 writing instruction" (p. 148). In the same vein, these results are also in accord with the claim made by VandeKopple (2012) that "metadiscourse deserves a prominent place in second-language instruction" (p. 42). These results are also in line with those of Steffensen and Cheng (1996), Jalilifar and Alipour (2007), Tavakoli, Dabaghi and Khorvash (2010), Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010), Jalilifar, Shooshtari, and Mutaqid (2011), Allami and Serajfard (2012), Yaghoubi and Ardestani (2014), and of many others which reported positive impacts of direct teaching of metadiscourse markers on EFL/ESL majors' reading and writing skills. As indicated by the results of these studies, together with the present one, metadiscoursal awareness can actually be systematically developed through well-planned classroom activities. Moreover, these studies, together with the present one, affirm that metadiscoursal awareness raising is crucially important for both effective reading and considerate writing skills.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study indicate that metadiscoursal awareness raising could be successful in suitable EFL contexts such as those of this study. That is, direct instruction in metadiscourse markers could be integrated with great success in EFL majors' curricula. What is direly needed is a radical change is in EFL students' views of metadiscourse markers who mistakenly view these markers as redundant elements that have no function or even as noise.

Further research is needed to investigate the effectiveness of explicit teaching of other types of metadiscourse markers on EFL majors' reading and writing skills. More contrastive studies are needed to assess how far functional similarity is possible between Arabic and English metadiscourse features.

In conclusion, one needs to re-iterate the limitations of the study reported on here. This remains a small scale study that does not enable generalizing results beyond this population. Furthermore, it remains difficult to claim "cause and effect" in the case of any educational intervention. However, the equivalence of the two groups of the study on the pre-test measures reported on before the intervention, and the differences in scores after the intervention, provides some indication that it is possible that the intervention contributed to the improved reading comprehension and the reader-friendly writing of the experimental group students. These empirical findings in the EFL teaching setting at least indicate that instruction in metadiscourse could be potentially useful in this context.

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Foreign Words in Jordanian Arabic among Jordanians Living in Irbid City: The Impact of Foreign Languages on Jordanian Arabic

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Abstract—The paper investigates the foreign words used in spoken Jordanian Arabic in Irbid city. It also examines the causes behind using them. The data are collected by means of direct interviews and observations. The sample of the study was chosen from fifty participants living in Irbid city. They were thirty males and twenty females who cover different ages, genders and different educational background. The results show that Jordanians use different borrowed words in their daily conversations. English and Turkish are the main source of borrowing these words.

Index Terms—lexical borrowing, Jordanian Arabic, loanwords, language contact and cultural contact

I. INTRODUCTION

Borrowing lexical items is defined by Crystal (1992) as "a term used in comparative and historical linguistics to refer to linguistic form being taken over by one language or dialect from another; such borrowings are usually known as loanwords" (P.41). Borrowing foreign words comes as a result of contact and link between two different languages or cultures. Hashemi et al (2014) assert that "Borrowing words is a common and unavoidable phenomenon that is closely related with relation of different linguistic communities" (P.225). Arab grammarians reject most of the borrowed words to be part of standard Arabic because standard and classical Arabic are very rich in their vocabulary. Arabic academies were established to arabize borrowed words and to find alternatives for the words which do not have equivalents in Arabic.

Most borrowed words are inflected by number and gender and subjected to Jordanian Arabic grammatical system. Arabic has two types of plurals: sound plurals and broken plurals. Sound plurals are mostly formed by adding the inflectional suffix /**- uun**/ or /**- aat**/ to the nouns. The glottal stop (**-ʔ**) in final position is mostly replaced by /**w**/ This process is called sound because if the inflectional suffix is omitted, the root is not changed as the following examples show:

/muʕalim/ male teacher (singular)
muʕalim**uun** male teachers (plural)
/mudarisa/ female teacher (singular)
/mudaris**aat**/ female teachers (plural).
/hasnaʔ/ beautiful girl (singular)
/hasna**waat**/beautiful girls (plural)

Broken plurals are formed by: geminating, inserting a vowel or a semi- vowel or changing vowels as the following examples show:

/tuħfa/ a present (singular)
/tuħaf/ presents (plural)
/kitab/ a book (singular)
/kutub/ books (plural)

Arabic also has two types of feminine gender. The first type contains feminine morphological marker which is the **–t** of feminine gender as you see in the following example:

/muʕalim/ male teacher.
/muʕalim**atun**/ female teacher.

The other type is feminine in signification which has no feminine marker. In this case, we can differentiate between feminine and masculine by using /haðˤ a/ for masculine and /haðˤ ihi/ for feminine:

/haðˤ a qamar/ this is a moon (masculine)
/ haðˤ ihi ʃams/ this is a sun (feminine)

Accordingly, the borrowed words used in Jordanian Arabic are inflected by number and gender following the same processes stated above:

/televizjon/ television (English word).
/televizjon**aat**/ televisions (inflectional Arabic plural suffix / **- aat**/ added. (Sound plural))

/kundara/ one shoes (Turkish word)

/kanadir/ a pair of shoes (Broken Plural).

/subermarket/ supermarket (masculine) /haðˤ a subermarket/.

/kamira/ camera (feminine)/haðˤ ihi kamira/.

Many studies have been made on lexical borrowing .However, what distinguishes the current study is its sample, design and results. The sample covers different ages, genders and educational background .The borrowed words are categorized into eight semantic groupings and the results of the study are validated by group of experts who are proficient in this field (see appendix 1). The study also bridges its results with language learning and teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Jordanian Arabic includes many borrowed words which have foreign origins as follows:

A- Words borrowed from English.

/radjo/ radio;/panʃar/puncture ;/televizjon/ television ;/filim/film, etc.

B- Words borrowed fromTurkish:

/kundara/ shoes; /darabzin/ banister; /xazuq/ pole; /boza/ ice- cream, etc.

Abdul-Sahib (1986) remarks that Arab grammarians stress on the process of /ʔataʕrib/ Arabicization or Arabization. This process according to Abdul- Sahib refers to the complete incorporation of foreign words into the Arabic language and to create alternatives in place of the borrowed words if they are not available in Arabic language. Zoghoul (1978) focuses on lexical interference of English in Eastern provinces of Saudi Arabia. English borrowings to Saudis in Eastern provinces of Arabia are due to cultural contact between Saudis and the employees who speak English. Borrowing words is classified under different domains; one of which according to Zoghoul's study is professions and works.

Al-Saidat (2011) differentiates between loanwords, borrowing and code- switching. In code-switching, the bilinguals alternate between two languages or more based on the topic of discussion. Loanwords are used regularly and integrated into the native language. They are usually used by monolinguals who use them without knowing their origins or they do not care about their origins. English and Turkish loanwords used in Jordanian Arabic are considered as borrowed items rather than code-switching because most of them are inflected by gender and number.

Demoz (1963) investigates the European loanwords in the Amharic daily newspapers. He classifies the loanwords in Amharic newspaper into different categories. First, the category which covers the government issues like offices, officials and official titles. Second, the category which covers law and economics like transport and business. Last, words which express the political concepts like communism, democracy and federation. Iribemwangi (2013) investigates the lexical items borrowed into Kiswahili from foreign languages. He categorizes the borrowed words into different types: travel technology like bus and aero-plane; education like chalk and alphabet; titles and careers like inspector and police; counting and numbers like one and million; and games and sports like soccer and golf. In order to unify standard Arabic and to find alternatives in place of the loanwords, different academies were established to achieve this purpose: Damascus (1919); Cairo (1932), Iraq (1970) and in Jordan (1976). The main aim of these academies is to standardize the language and the technical scientific terms and to coin native terminology.

They follow different methods to standardize Arabic language: process of Arabization, translating, reviving of old classical vocabulary or converting foreign terminology. Araj (1993) states different methods to create vocabulary in Arabic:

1- Lexical innovation: This method consists of semantic extension of old Arabic words, e.g. the word "train" was introduced into Arabic as /qitar/ that derived from a classical word which means "a group of camels".

2- Verbs from nouns. This method is used to adapt loanwords to Arabic morphological patterns. The consonants (t- L- f- z) are extracted from the English word "television" and to form the verb "talfaza".

3- Compounds: This method is restricted to compound scientific and technical words. An example is the word "lasilki" which consists the Arabic prefix "la -" which has the meaning "without" and "silki" which means "wire".

Jordanians are mostly not fully used the new arabized words in their daily life. They use borrowed terms instead. For example, /telefon/ telephone is used in place of the arabized word /hatif/.

III. METHODOLOGY

The objective of the current study is to examine the foreign words used in spoken Jordanian Arabic in Irbid city and to investigate the reasons for borrowing them. The sample of the study includes fifty Jordanian participants living in Irbid city in the North of Jordan, thirty males and twenty females. The instrument used to gather the data is a direct interview and personal observation. The type of interview is considered as a decisive method for getting the required data, following several studies used the same method like Eze; 1998, Mustafawi; 2002, Alsadeqi; 2010 and Altibi; 2014. The researcher asks the participants questions in Arabic about several topics like careers, personal life, political issues, social life, educational system in Jordan, scientific issue, etc. Data are collected, recorded, transcribed and categorized into eight semantic groupings: political, consumer, technical, household, recreational, educational (sciences), religious and miscellaneous terms. A panel of experts in the field of Arabic and English is asked to validate the results (see Appendix A). The sample covers different ages , genders and educational background and divided into four age groups,

following the works done in different areas by Dweik (2000), Al- Khatib and Al-Ali (2010) and Abushihab and Alsheikh (2015) as the following tables show:

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY AGE AND GENDER

Age	No.	Sex	
		Male	Female
14 – 29	10	5	5
30 – 45	15	10	5
46 – 59	15	10	5
60 - above	10	5	5
Total	**50**	**30**	**20**

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Level of Education	No.	Sex	
		Male	Female
Basic Stage	11	8	6
High School	10	10	3
BA	19	10	9
MA and PhD	10	2	2
Total	**50**	**30**	**20**

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

There are several methods for studying loanwords from foreign languages. The first generally used in different studies is synchronic. It focuses on linguistic aspects and investigates the structure of loanwords. It also finds the differences between the borrowed words from the native ones. The other method is diachronic which focuses on the analysis of the loanwords taken into consideration the historical dimension. The diachronic method is more difficult than the other one because the researcher has to study the historical contact of two languages or more. The researcher of the current study uses the synchronic approach which is more effective and useful, following the studies done by Araj; 1993, Al - Qinai; 2000, Al -Saidat; 2011, Arshad and Shah; 2014, Hijjo and Fannouna; 2014, Khrisat and Mohamad; 2014 and Al-Btoush; 2014.

The borrowed words used in Jordanian Arabic in Irbid city are categorized into a number of semantic groupings; political, consumer, technical, household, recreational, educational (sciences), religious (social) and miscellaneous terms as the following table shows:

TABLE 3
BORROWED WORDS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Category	Example	Source Language	Frequency	Percent
1.	Political Term	/kungress/ congress	English	40	8.5%
2.	Consumer Terms	/bitza/ pizza	English	54	11.5%
3.	Technical Terms	/radjo/ radio	English	60	12.8%
4.	Houshold Terms	/dʒoket/ jacket	English	76	16.2%
5.	Recreational Terms	/mosiqa/ music	English	40	8.5%
6.	Educational (scientific) Terms	/bakalorjus/ bachelor	English	80	17%
7.	Religious and Social Terms	/priːst/ priest	English	36	7.6%
8.	Miscellaneous	/efendi/ gentleman	Turkish	84	17.9%
Total	-	-	-	470	100%

In this study, the researcher does not investigate the origins of the lexical items. Some lexical items have French or Italian origins and are transferred to English. Jordanian Arabic borrowed them from English not Italian or French as the following example shows: /bantˁalon/ pantaloon is an English word, but it is from Italian origin "pantaloni". Jordanians borrowed it from English. Another example is "zindan" (prison cell) which is Turkish word, but it is Persian origin .Jordanians borrowed it from Turkish as "zinzanah".

A. Political Semantic Terms

Many borrowed words are adapted and used in spoken Jordanian Arabic coming from foreign languages. Most of the political semantic terms used by the participants of the study are borrowed from English which has prestigious status in

this field. Hazaymeh (2004) goes along with this trend. He assures that cultural contact between Jordan and English-speaking countries has led to a great number of borrowed words that are used in Jordanian Arabic. This category includes peace, wars, nuclear activity, political policy, etc. some examples are stated in the following table:

TABLE 4
EXAMPLES OF POLITICAL TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Words	Source Word	Source Language	Frequency
1	ʔimbirjalija	imperialism	English	3
2	Parlaman	parliament	English	3
3	ʔistratidʒija	strategy	English	2
4	brotokol	protocol	English	3
5	dictator	dictator	English	2
6	ʔoroba	Europe	English	4
7	dimoqratˤija	democracy	English	3
8	baʃa	baş (leader)	Turkish	2
9	zinzanah	zindan (prison cell)	Turkish	3
10	ʕaskeri	asker (soldier)	Turkish	3
	Total	-	-	28

The use of the political words borrowed from foreign languages into Jordanian Arabic is closely based on the topic that is interviewed, for instance, the borrowed word "dimoqratˤija" democracy is used when the researcher asks the participants about the Arab spring, but it does not appear when they talk about other topics. The borrowed words used in Jordanian Arabic are changed to be assimilated to Jordanian Arabic as follows:

/baʃa/ leader is Turkish origin and it is assimilated to Arabic plurals by adding Arabic inflectional pluralization suffix –**waat** "baʃaw**aat**" leaders.

Sibawayh (1317 A.H) points out that the Arab grammarians mostly change the condition of borrowed words by assimilating them to Arabic language.

B. Consumer Terms

This category consists of borrowed words about food, medical drugs, materials used in houses, etc as table 4 shows:

TABLE 5
EXAMPLES OF CONSUMER TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Word	Source Word	Source Language	Frequency
1	hamburger	hamburger	English	3
2	bitza	pizza	English	2
3	ʔisbirin	aspirin	English	2
4	batˤatˤa	potato	English	2
5	ɣaz	gas	English	3
6	najlon	nylon	English	3
7	sandwiʃ	sandwich	English	2
8	bojah	boya (paint)	Turkish	2
9	sadʒ	saç or sac (sheet iron for cooking)	Turkish	2
10	zandʒabil	zencefil (ginger)	Turkish	1
	Total	-	-	22

The borrowed words stated in table 4 cover different aspects of life. Under drugs, we have /ʔisbirin/ aspirin, under fuel, we have /ɣaz/ gaz, under food,we have/ sandwiʃ /sandwich , under commodities we have /zandʒabil/ zencefil (ginger).

It is noted that most words relating to fast meals and drugs are from English origin like /hamburger/ hamburger and bitza /pizza/ whereas words relating to parts of house and works are from Turkish origin like /bojah/ boya(paint) and /sadʒ/ sac (sheet iron for cooking). Jordanian Arabic also borrowed many lexical items from Ottoman Turkish. This is due to the direct contact between Jordanians and Turkish people during the reign of the Ottoman Empire. The Turkish suffix (-ci) /-dʒi/ is added to nouns to generate nouns that refer to professions. Such nouns are widely used in Jordanian Arabic as the following examples:

A- araba (cart)

arabacı (driver of a cart) /Turkish

/ʔurabandʒi/ Jordanian Arabic

B- Kundura (shoes)

kunduraci (seller of shoes)/Turkish

/kundardʒi/ Jordanian Arabic

Jordanians subject some Arabic colloquial nouns to the above rule, so they use /mosardʒi/ sanitary worker /kahrabd3i/ electric, /dukand3i/ shop- keeper, etc.

C. Technical Terms

Borrowed words in this field include technical and industrial categories as the following table shows:

TABLE 6
EXAMPLES OF TECHNICAL TERMS INDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Word	Source Word	Source Language	Frequency
1	radjo	radio	English	4
2	sterjo	stereo	English	3
3	kombuter	computer	English	7
4	batˤarija	battery	English	2
5	kamara	camera	English	2
6	kondiʃen	air-conditioner	English	4
7	teleks	Telex	English	2
8	soba	soba (stove)	Turkish	2
9	ʃader	çadır (tent)	Turkish	2
10	darabzin	tirabzan or trabzan (stair rail, banister)	Turkish	3
	Total	-	-	31

The technical borrowed words are colloquialized into Jordanian Arabic during the technical development because these words do not have equivalents in Jordanian Arabic. Al-Btoush (2014) points out that "Arabic is unable to accommodate technical terms" (P.117). He gives some examples of such terms which have no equivalents in Arabic "I phone" and "I pad". The Arab academies which were established to unify standard Arabic tried to arabize most of these technical borrowed words as the following example:

/telefon/ telephone (English word)

/hatif/ arabized word (something which calles)

/radjo/ radio (English word)

/miðjaʕ/ arabized word (something which speaks)

Unfortunately, these Arabized words are rarely used in Jordanian Arabic because the borrowed words become native with the frequency of use in the daily life. Yildiz and Akbarov (2012) state that "borrowed words or statements in the course of time become part of the language and many users are not aware of these borrowed words but these words are used by people in the daily life unconsciously" (P.425).

D. Household Terms

Words in this field include furniture, clothes, food places and fittings as the following table shows:

TABLE 7
EXAMPLES OF HOUSEHOLD TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Words	Source Words	Source Language	Frequency
1	dʒoket	jacket	English	3
2	bantˤalon	pantaloon	English	3
3	balkon	balcony	English	4
4	robe	robe	English	3
5	glas	glass	English	3
6	salon	saloon	English	4
7	mobilja	mobilya (furniture made of wood)	Turkish	3
8	dʒazma	çizme (top boot)	Turkish	3
9	baltˤo	palto (coat)	Turkish	5
10	oðˤa	oda (room)	Turkish	5
	Total	-	-	36

As noted above, some borrowed words are from French or Italian origins and they were transferred to English. Jordanian Arabic borrowed them from English not from their origins. Butros (1973) assures that many words were borrowed into Arabic from Turkish. The term "mobilya"/ mobilja/ (furniture made of wood) was borrowed into Arabic from Italian through Turkish during the Ottoman period. He adds that "butagaz" which is a brand name for butane entered Arabic from English through French in 1948, so gas stove is named "butagaz". Araj (1993) goes side by side with this result. She assures that many borrowed words were transformed into Arabic from other foreign language origins like "orchestra" which was borrowed into Arabic from Italian through Turkish.

Al-Quran (2006) remarks that lexical borrowed terms from Turkish to Jordanian Arabic are subjected to Arab grammaticalization and morphological process. /oðˤa/ oda (room) is borrowed from Turkish. It is pluralized in Turkish by adding the morphological suffix /-lar/ "oda**lar**" (rooms).This word is subjected to Arabic morphological system. It is pluralized as "ʔowad", following the broken plural of Arbic.

E. Recreational Terms

This category includes activities relating to music, celebrations, art, sports, etc as table 7 shows:

TABLE 8
EXAMPLES OF RECREATIONAL TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Word	Source Word	Source Language	Frequency
1	sterjo	stereo	English	2
2	tenis	tennis	English	3
3	barfan	perfume	English	1
4	ʔaflam	films	English	3
5	bjano	piano	English	2
6	ʔobera	opera	English	2
7	karati	karate	English	1
8	kamandʒa	kemençe (violin)	Turkish	2
9	ʃatir	şatir (merry)	Turkish	2
10	alzahar	zar (die used games)	Turkish	2
	Total	-	-	20

Most lexical terms belong to sports are mostly international and are used in most languages, though some of them have different origins. "Yoga" is an Indian origin and it is an international term because it is used in most languages. Khrisat and Mohammad (2014) go along with this trend. They state that "languages borrow from each other for the lack of such terms in the original language" (P.133).

F. Educational (Scientific) Lexical Terms

This category includes scientific and medical terms as the following table shows:

TABLE 9
EXAMPLES OF EDUCATIONAL AND SCIENTIFIC LEXICAL TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Word	Source Word	Source Language	Frequency
1	ʔistratidʒija	strategy	English	5
2	bajolodʒi	biology	English	3
3	doktor	doctor	English	5
4	romatizm	rheumatism	English	2
5	influwanza	influenza	English	4
6	kansar	cancer	English	5
7	kors	course	English	7
8	ʔibrindʒi	birinci (first, highest, priority)	Turkish	2
9	ʔabla	abla (a respectful address for a female teacher)	Turkish	2
10	tambal	tembel (lazy, indolent)	Turkish	2
	Total	-	-	37

As noted in table 9 above that the borrowed words taken from English are used as they are in Jordanian Arabic with little change in pronunciation. The diphthong /ai/ is used in standard Arabic, but it is not used in Jordanian Arabic. For example, /zait/ oil is used in standard Arabic, but the diphthong /ai/ is changed to /ei/ in Jordanian Arabic, so /zait/ in standard Arabic is pronounced /zeit/ in Jordanian Arabic. Accordingly, words like vitamin /vaitamin/ are subjected to Jordanian Arabic and the diphthong /ai/ is changed to the vowel /i/. It is pronounced in Jordanian Arabic as /vitami:n/.The result goes in parallel with Al-Btoush (2014) who remarks that English is the language of science and technology, so the participants of her study use many scientific lexical terms borrowed from English. Kailani (1994) goes side by side with this result. He points out that many loanwords used in Jordanian Arabic are in the field of medicine like microbe, vitamin, plaster, cholesterol, etc.

G. Religious and Social Terms

This category includes social and religious terms as the following table shows:

TABLE 10
EXAMPLES OF RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Word	Source Word	Source Language	Frequency
1	polis	police	English	2
2	brotastant	protestant	English	1
3	kaθolik	catholic	English	2
4	vatikan	vatican	English	3
5	diblom	diploma	English	3
6	VIP	VIP	English	5
7	sekertera	secretary	English	3
8	daʃir (negative sense)	dişarı (outside, out, exterior)	Turkish	1
9	boʃ	boş (empty)	Turkish	3
10	ʔidʒrabat	çorap (sock)	Turkish	2
	Total	-	-	25

Most religious lexical terms are also internationally used in most languages; for example, catholic which has Greek origin and transferred to English is used in many languages. Khrisat and Mohammad (2014) state that Arabic speakers

acquire some lexical terms from foreign languages because such words are not found in the Arabic culture. There is a need to borrow foreign words relating to drugs, internet, computer, etc into their language. Abdel Rahman (1991) goes along with this trend. He states that English words like studio, ice- cream, and academic do not have equivalents in Arabic. The Arab speakers are obliged to use them in their daily conversation.

Araj (1993) goes side by side with the result of the study. She remarks that "westernization has left a large impression on the concrete details of Egypt's everyday life. Western types of food, drink, smoking, housing arrangements, and places of entertainment have all been taken over by Arabs as part of the process of westernization" (P.167).

H. Miscellaneous Terms

This category consists of words that do not fit into any of the preceding categories as the following table shows:

TABLE 11
EXAMPLES OF MISCELLANEOUS TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

No.	Borrowed Word	Source Word	Source Language	Frequency
1	bas	bus	English	5
2	ʔinʃ	inch	English	3
3	jarida	journal	English	4
4	maljon	million	English	2
5	ofis	office	English	3
6	mitir	meter	English	2
7	starlini	sterling	English	2
8	basˤ mah	basma (finger print)	Turkish	4
9	kubri	köprü (bridge)	Turkish	2
10	jufarmal	frenlemek (to brake)	Turkish	4
	Total	-	-	**31**

English is an international language, so it is the main source of borrowing words despite the differences in languages in terms of structure, morphology and phonetics. It is noted that most words borrowed from foreign languages to Jordanian Arabic are nouns. Jordanians derive verbs from the nouns as the following examples:

mitir (meter) is an English word used in Jordanian Arabic as noun.

Jordanians derive the verb "jumattir" to be used in their daily conversation.

basˤ mah (basma) (finger print) is a Turkish noun. Jordanians derive

/jabsˤ um/ (to finger print) as a verb.

Appel and Muysken(1987) list different reasons for borrowing foreign words. Some of which are cultural influence, replacing native words that are rarely used in colloquial language by foreign words and intensive bilingualism. It is difficult to find a language that is free of borrowed words because of the obligatory contact among languages and cultures through their speakers. Abdel Rahman (1991) points out that "it can be assumed that the main cause of borrowing is the need to find lexical items for new objects, concepts and places" (P.34). Alsadeqi (2010) assumes that the cultural contact is the main reason for borrowing. He (ibid) states that. "in Bahrain, the impact of the English language has become more evident than other languages that the population is exposed to, especially among certain groups such as university students, bankers and physicians"(P.115) .

V. CONCLUSION

English is in contact with Jordanian Arabic and as a result, many words in different fields like political, consumer, technical, social terms are borrowed from English and used in Jordanian Arabic. Jordanian speakers subject most of the foreign words to the grammatical and morphological system of Arabic. They may replace the sound /p/ to /b/,/ch/ to /sh/ or pluralize the borrowed nouns following the Arabic pluralization system as follows:

Komputer**aat** (computers) the Arabic morphological suffix /**-aat**/ is added to pluralize the borrowed word /computer/. Beel and Felder (2013) state "native speakers of Turkish cope with the phonological features of borrowed English words through several linguistic processes. They adapt English words through the process of substitution, deletion and epenthesis to ease the pronunciation of borrowed words" (P.1).

The results of the study are in harmony with the findings of other studies like Araj; 1993, Alsadeqi; 2010, Al-Saidat; 2011, and Al-Btoush; 2014. All of them show that borrowing words from foreign languages is inevitable because of the contact between cultures and the speakers of these languages. English is the main source of borrowing words to different languages because it is an international language and used everywhere.

Studying and investigating the foreign words used in spoken Jordanian Arabic is essential and inevitable in learning and teaching English as a foreign language in Jordan.

Jordanian learners may wrongly transfer the pronunciation of borrowed words used in colloquial Jordanian Arabic to modern English that they learn at schools. They may pronounce puncture /pangkchar/ as /banʃar/ as it is pronounced in Jordanian Arabic. Accordingly, teachers of English in Jordan should diagnose the differences between the correct pronunciation of English borrowed words and their pronunciation in Jordanian Arabic to avoid committing errors. The

syllabus designers, text developers and teachers should prepare the instructional materials and methods of teaching taking borrowed words used in Jordanian Arabic into consideration.

APPENDIX. A PANEL OF EXPERTS

Name	Rank	Specialization	Place of Work	Experience
Prof.Tahir Badinjki	Professor	English Literature	Alzaytoonah University of Jordan	30 years
Dr. Sabha Alqam	Associate Professor	Arabic Linguistics	Alzaytoonah University of Jordan	8 years
Dr. Saleh Ramadan	Assistant Professor	Applied Linguistics	Tabouk University of Saudi Arabia	10 years
Dr. Rasha Mbaideen	Assistant Professor	Political Sciences	Alzaytoonah University of Jordan	6 years

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The Impact of Learner's Autonomy on Teaching Oral Skills (Speaking Skills) in an EFL Classroom

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Abstract—This paper describes a study conducted to determine the impact of learner's autonomy on attaining oral skills. The objective of this research is to strengthen the idea that a learner centered classroom is an ideal environment for teaching oral skills and to promote communicative approach of teaching. True learning can only be achieved when the learner is made an equal partner in the learning process instead of a Muppet. This research follows an experimental design. The population of the study were preparatory year students of Jazan University. This research was delimited to ELC prep year students studying at AI Ardah College of Translational study. A random sample of 100 preparatory year students were taken from Al-Ardah college with 50 students in the experimental group were students who were free to practice learners autonomy (learner centered approach) and another 50 formed the controlled group. Results were generated with the help of pre tests and post tests and plotted in the form of graphs. The purpose of this research is to show that the traditional teacher centered approach can no longer encompass the needs of the modem classroom. The educational process needs to be an active blend of modeling, coaching. scaffolding and fading. This research is implacable to ESL learners and teachers alike. It also makes recommendations for future study.

Index Terms—autonomy, student centered classroom, teacher centered approach, motivation, learner based approach, rehearsal, reflection

I. INTRODUCTION

Attaining Oral skills in a second language is an interactive process that involves processing the information received and producing a linguistically understandable utterance. Oral communication is defined as a process transmitting information and ideas verbally from one person to another. Oral communication occurs in formal situations like business presentations or official meetings, classroom lecturers, speeches or informal situation like face to face conversations and discussions, storytelling etc Jeremy Harmer (2001, p. 269-271) mentions these elements as

- Language Features
- Social Processing

By language features he means that the following elements are necessary for effective speaking.

i) Language Features

a) Connected speech: (The ability of the speaker to produce more connect sounds not just separated phonemes. These sounds may be modified, omitted, added, or weakened in the connected speech).

b) Expressive device: (use effectively pitch volume, speech delivery speed and non verbal communication)

c) Lexis and grammar: (to use some language functions and lexical structures).

d) Negotiation language: (to produce well understood utterances)

ii) Mental-Social Processing is dependent on three features.

a) Language processing

b) Interacting with others:

c) Information processing

It refers to the ability of the speakers to put language structures in a coherent order. The speaker is able to process the information given by the other speaker and respond to it appropriately. It should be kept in mind that oral speech is ephemeral (not permanent as it disappears as soon as the speaker finishes talking) and it is contrasted by the endurance of written expression. Also speaking requires orthography that is phonemes, stress, rhythm, intonation; whereas, in writing there are pictures, charts and punctuation marks (graphemes). This makes teaching Oral skills is a mammoth task which is dependent on a number of factors since speech conventions are much different from writing.

In order to train a L2 student to become a good speaker needs skills and knowledge, the speaker is expected to demonstrate proficiency in a number of given Speech Acts, language functions and discourse situations e.g. accepting or declining an invitation or requesting etc. Speaking requires not only linguistic competence, but also sociolinguistic competence. It requires autonomous classroom environment where students can practice speaking the foreign language freely, where all students are involved in healthy discussions and work is done by cooperation and mutual understanding. A traditional teacher centered classroom does not have the environment to create anything else but drills

and mimes. The students who learn the target language in a teacher oriented classroom often carry translation books with them as they soon forget the word or they may encounter a situation for which they have not memorized a dialogue.

A. Background of the Study

The concept of learners autonomy in teaching speaking skills of a foreign language, has been gaining momentum worldwide from the end of twentieth century. It helps language learners to come out from the shyness, anxiety and fear of a new language as here they are in charge of their own learning. When learners use resources for learning on their own, it helps to increase ownership of responsibility for learning English. With progress in education especially in second language learning in the 19th century, some educators influenced by psychologists such as Jean Piaget, John Dewey and Maria Montessori replaced traditional curriculum approaches with "hands-on" activities and group work. It assists language learners in building schemata for communicative competence.

A person is judged by the way he speaks, his tone, his choice of words, his speaking speed etc. However speaking in a second language creates a mental block where the speaker cannot think of the words to express his thoughts in the target language and he is unable to express himself. Autonomous learning helps the speaker overcome the mental block while switching between L1 and L2

It strengthens student motivation .Students are urged to use the target language. It promotes peer communication .Students adopt an active approach which reduces disruptive behavior. Students develop a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language. It bridges student-teacher relationship. It brings out discovery learning. It makes students responsible for their own learning. Hence it allows students to use target language in order to negotiate meaning with others in a group work, project work, while the teacher provides guidance, modeling, and feedback .Teaching students how to be proficient in the target language does not necessarily mean that by the end of the term students would acquire the status of highly articulate native speaker but these recommendations show that the route leading to mutual intelligibility of L2. It gives the students a familiar domain where they can access and use language on their own keeping in mind the cultural aspect. An autonomous classroom enables the student to express his/her point of view and engage in friendly, conversational and collaborative discussions. It allows students to use language with flexibility

B. Statement of the Problem

Effective teaching of oral skills requires the learner to engage with the cognitive and social dimensions of language learning. It is dependent upon selecting the right materials, selecting the right method, procedure of evaluation and especially environment which fosters teacher- student relationship. In KSA still the centuries old method of teacher centered classroom is prevalent in many EFL classrooms. The students are spoon-fed by the teacher on what to speak or the students memorize passages or dialogues and reproduce in the class. The evaluation is based on grammatically correct utterances regarding certain situations like meeting new people or going to the market which students have memorized by heart. The teacher is in complete control and there is no autonomous learning. Such mechanical environment can only show the students about correct use of language like grammar rules but never the correct usage. This teacher centered classroom using contextualized EFL textbooks is very de-motivating for many underachievers who are shun out in place of class favorites who can cram and speak well. Unfortunately these students when faced with real life situations can mostly forget what they have memorized and are unable to speak well despite scoring good grades in English. Students suffer from speech anxiety and lack of confidence. For students to produce independent utterance they require material of their level and a complete student centered classroom where they are doing most of the talking. The researcher believes that if the learners practice autonomy through group discussions, pair works on general topics they would be able to speak much fluently and accurately in situations given outside their books. Also they would be highly motivated by positive reinforcement.

C. Significance of the Study

There is a need for establishing a comfortable and low-threat learning environment for the purpose of second language acquisition. Speaking a foreign language is a source of extreme anxiety as it affects novice speakers' self-esteem and confidence. A relaxed classroom with learner's autonomy helps in the better language acquisition. Taking a student centered approach the teacher makes the student share responsibility for their learning and let the students set task for their learning goals. This research establishes that, a proactive and interactive atmosphere is essential for mastering the full range of discourse needed for spontaneous communication.

Also this study establishes that there is a need to bridge up the gap between teachers and learners to help achieve objectives." Students are involved in self evaluation or assessment" (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989). Since the students develop their own learning paths and evaluate their own progress, teachers and learners tend to have a consensus on contents methodology and principles. Students create their own syllabus and perform the tasks according to how they comprehend them. The teacher appreciates learner guided tasks as a part of a course. This research is significant for teachers to understand their teaching style and student's learning preferences.

D. Research Question

Can learner's autonomy actually facilitate second language learning by improving speaking skills?

E. Delimitation

The research was delimited to preparatory year students studying English at Al -Ardah College of Translational of Jazan University, K.S.A.

II. Literature Review

Educational pedagogy expects the teacher to be an expert, personal model, facilitator and delegator at the same time. An EFL teacher has to follow a teaching style that inculcates in the students 'self-direction' (Candy, 1991). Teaching methods include the general principles and management strategies used for classroom instruction. A teacher's choice of teaching method depends on his/her educational philosophy. There are two main teaching approaches.

A. Teacher-centered Approach (Direct Instruction)

Direct instruction means the traditional teaching method that relies on lecturers and teacher led demonstrations. Direct instruction forms the bases of teacher-centered approach, In this approach teachers are the main authority figure. They are the experts and students are viewed as empty pitchers whose primary role is to passively receive information with an end goal of testing and assessment. Teachers are the main providers of knowledge. In a quiet classroom the teacher provides the speaking topics. Students work alone and each speaks at his turn. The focus of the teacher is on language forms and structures. The instructor monitors and corrects every utterance. Thus the main focus is on getting the learners to perform in tests, exams, etc rather than catering to their needs.

B. Learner Centered Approach (Cooperative and Inquiry Based Learning)

In student centered learning as the name suggests all members have to contribute on the topic and give their opinion. In this method students have a chance to listen to the opinion of other students, hear arguments and negotiations and organize their thoughts into spoken expressions Learner centered approach believes in hands on experience and makes learner a participant in the learning process. It emphasizes on a strong sense of community. This model depends on teaching techniques such as "Think-Pair-Share" and reciprocal teaching. Cooperative learning and inquiry based learning are included in student-centered approach because learners are placed with the responsibility of their own learning and development. This bonding as a team gives them motivation to continue the process of learning even outside the classroom. Crandall (1999) has consistently maintained that "cooperative learning reduces anxiety and increases self-confidence."

In a student-centered classroom, students and instructors share the focus. The level of interaction between students and teacher is equal and students are not bound to listen to the teacher exclusively. Group work is used a major tool to promote student's collaboration and communication. Students complete independent tasks together. Student's progress is measured by formal and informal assessment forms such as group projects, student portfolios, and class participation. The teacher's role is to coach, promote a student learning and overall comprehension of material. Teaching and students are connected and learning is continuously kept in check.

C. Autonomous Learner

Student-Centered Learning represents a teaching environment within an educational institution and is characterized by problem-solving, critical thinking and reflective thinking. Thus the learner develops a particular kind of psychological association with the process and content of his learning. So, all these aspects make learning according to Benson and Voller, (1997) "a spontaneous, purposeful and prolific process and thus learner autonomy gets the place of uniqueness."

Knowledge is something that needs to be up piece by piece. Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple intelligences also supports student-centered classroom because it promotes diverse learning styles. So, materials for teaching speaking skills depend upon a learner's communicative competence in varied situations and also his ability to produce extempore speech. It consists of written texts, sound recordings, conversations by native speakers, suggestopedia, video recordings, films, electronic dictionaries, educational and authentic materials. Some educational practices also incorporate Bloom's Taxonomy and practical life related oral communications. A teacher teaching in a student-centered classroom must be aware of the diverse backgrounds of So, learners should be allowed to set their learning objectives and to opinions. Learner autonomy allows learners to select their learning materials and to employ their own experience as their mentor.

D. The Role of Motivation

Second language acquisition can turn into a complex procedure if the sole purpose of study is to attain good grades in a language proficiency exam. Students may end up extremely discouraged if they do not achieve the expected results which may be a direct consequence of trying to master complex materials not suited for their level. That is why the student centered approach depends heavily on cooperative learning, learner's autonomy, and reflection to make students highly motivated. Masgoret and Gardner, (2003).predict motivation to be "the key to success in learning a foreign or second language" … "Student motivation depends on a variety of factors, among them how they perceive their own achievement" Tasks and materials are motivating factors for these de-motivated performers. According to Dornyei, (2003) "presenting quality activities can make an enormous difference in students attitudes towards learning" (p.14).

"Learner autonomy is a goal seen as linked to motivation" (Garcia & Pintrich, 1996; Brown, 2001). Motivation may be task motivation which fosters intrinsic goal orientation, task value, and self-efficacy. Achievement depends on the learners and their readiness for the task. If a student fails to achieve a task, then he needs to revise, until he/she reaches the desired goal. Thus motivation to learn is a cognitive response which arises when the learner develops the knowledge and mastery of given task and feels positively reinforced in the form of rewards or achievement. It is prerequisite that the students perceive the new learning as part of a wider picture and enjoy the task or the learning experience. We can deduce that optimum motivation Is directly proportional to classroom environment that supports and cultivates it Therefore, motivating students to learn includes not only stimulating them to see the value of what they are learning, but also providing them with guidance from an activity how to go about learning it.

III. METHODOLOGY

This research followed an experimental design. The population of the study consisted of prep year students of Jazan University, KSA. A random sample of 100 prep year students was taken from Ardah college of Translational Studies, Jazan University in order to delimit the study. Fifty students formed the controlled group were a teacher cantered traditional approach was applied. This group was named group A. Another fifty students constituted the experimental group B. These students were free to practice learner's autonomy and a learner centered approach was adopted by the teacher. Both the groups were given pre tests to check their proficiency, accuracy and fluency in the target language speaking skills, at the beginning of a month long experiment. After a lapse of 4 weeks both groups were subjected to a post test to mark their progress. The experimental group was given autonomy to choose their own learning material learner and students worked by group cooperation. The results were then tabulated in the form of graphs to bring out the difference in progress.

IV. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The data obtained from this study was in the form of scores of pre tests and post test conducted on group A and group B. The topics for pre-test from both the groups included Social Interactions and leave taking, Self Introduction related to family, nationality, marital status, occupation, etc. After one month post tests were conducted on teacher centred group A and learner centred group B under observation with student autonomy. The post test required the students to choose from a number of topics to speak on like Buying needed items from a mall or a pharmacy or ordering food from a restaurant, Describing hobbies and job preferences or opinion The use of target language was the focus. Students were scored on the basis of three variables where

N1=Accuracy(10 marks),

N2 =Fluency (10 marks)

N3= Comprehension and use of ideas in the target language. (10 marks)

 An average score of the tests was calculated with the help of the formula

Average is equal to sum of variables $\underline{(accuracy(10) + fluency(10)+ comprehension(10)}$

divided by number of variables

Ave =$\sum \underline{N1(10)+N2(10)+N3(10)}$ = 30÷3 = 10

So the average marks are calculated out of 10 for each test and the results were plotted in the form of graphs.

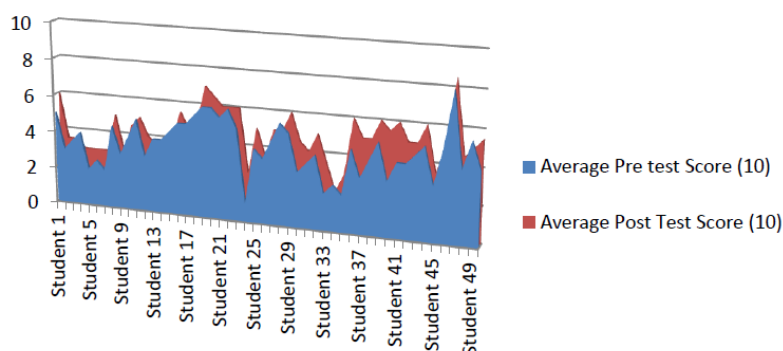Graph 1 (Group A) Difference between pre test and post test score

Fig 1: Group A (Controlled Group) Difference between pre test and post test score
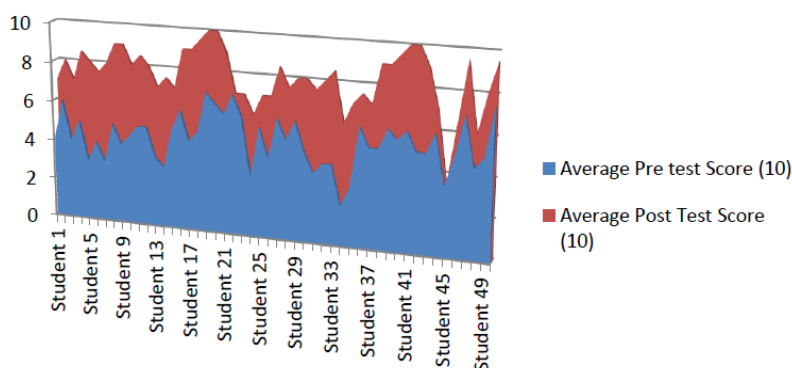
Fig 2: Group B (Experimental Group) Difference between pre test and post test score

Nearly all the students in group A got near or less the same score as pre test in post test as is illustrated by a graph given in figure 1. On the other hand, the students of group B exposed to experimental environment showed a marked difference between their pre test and post test score. The graphic representation of the results clearly depicts a remarkable improvement in the oral skills of the student of group B as can be observed in figure 2. These results establish the fact that speaking is at transactional activity and the best way to acquire second language learning is by adopting learner centered approach where activities like drills, mimes, speeches, storytelling and debates actually facilitate second language learning. Also students benefit a great deal by observational activities like listening to Received Pronunciation from native speakers. Thus learner's autonomy allows student to achieve true learning in the sense that they understand and begin to think in the target language setting. Also activities like guided group discussions are a good way to encounter diversity in class. Since students come from different backgrounds they do not have the same speaking level. Thus the shy ones with less command on target language have an equal chance to listen to discussion in a group and give their opinions to the group leader.

It is clear from the results that as autonomous learners have made significant gains in attaining accent, pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency and accuracy in the target language. With the help of learner centered classroom they developed a more reflective approach towards their English Language speaking skills. They become much more effective learners, than the students placed in teacher centered classroom. The analysis of this data shows that learner's autonomy is a basic element in providing motivation for the L2 learner. By adopting such techniques the EFL teacher can provide an environment in which learners can practice speaking and check their performance to monitor their learning progress.

V. CONCLUSION

The ability to share information in an effective manner concerning verbal, non verbal communication is indeed a skill which needs to be mastered. However the seeds of proficient speaking are best sowed in a learner centered classroom where learners are allowed to assume greater control over their own learning as is depicted by this research. A traditional teacher centered classroom does not foster language learning as efficiently as the classroom where students have access to learner's autonomy since individual learners differ in their learning habits, interests, needs, level of motivation, and develop varying degrees of independence Learner autonomy stresses that each individual will learn at his own pace.

A. Self Assessment

Self Evaluation is an autonomous learning scheme. It tends to create a non-threatening environment in a language classroom which enhances learning and brings out the full potential of students. Since the teacher is a facilitator, she\he provides the learner with necessary equipment, guidance. Autonomous learning requires a learner's real self-evaluation. After students self-assess and revise their work, they can turn it in for a grade. Through this way, when entire learning process will be in the students hand he/she would be able to remove mental blocks and overcome negative barriers like fear, anxiety and lack of confidence. The output will be fruitful because learning is affected by how students feel about themselves. In-class or peer review feedback is also an efficient way of correction since the other students give honest but encouraging comments to their fellow students. By promoting choice, self-confidence and autonomy, learner centered approach tends to reestablish its goal of encouraging students to improve their communication skills. The students feel empowered by their experience. Self-assessment is not a process by which students get to know their own grades. They must also manage discrete elements such as stated by (Burns & Joyce, 1997)"Turn-taking, rephrasing, providing feedback, and redirecting." In order for self-assessment to be effective, students must a criteria or a rubric which would help them achieve learning targets for a given assignment.

B. Revision\ Reflection \ Rehearsal

With the help of self-generated feedback students revise their draft, and try to close the gaps between their work and the targets. Thus Reflective practice is meant as a learning strategy in order to promote self-efficacy and learner's

autonomy. Carl Rogers (1969) stated that "the only learning which significantly influences behavior and education is self discovered". This helps the teachers to revise the course in order to make it better suited for the future. This step is crucial for review of individual work.

VI. Suggestions and Recommendations

Over the turn of the century, there was a major shift in the role of a student and a teacher. Researchers believe that every teacher should identify her teaching strategy at the very beginning of the class. In a speaking skill class, it is evident from this research that a teacher should adopt learners autonomy from the very beginning of her term, to stimulate learners' motivation by channels of socialization.

The EFL teacher should follow these steps in a speaking skill class to make her teaching more effective

• The teacher should model students' attitudes and orientations towards learning.

• The teacher should present the task in an interesting manner

• The teacher should state the purpose of the activity the students are going to do, and highlighting the strategies that maybe useful in achieving the task.

• The teacher should inculcate in students goal orientation by assigning students a group goal. The teacher promotes group cohesion which links the members to one another and to the group itself.

• The teacher is expected to encourages group reward system, that influences students' motivation

• The teacher should attain feedback from the whole class or groups individually and evaluate performance.

• The teacher should guide and coach students by helping them to learn the use of various visual aids

• The teacher should answer student queries in a question and answer session.

• The teacher should play the role of an observer instead of dominating the learning process.

• The teacher adopts the technique of scaffolding and fading in the environment, listening to the murmur of the learners in the classroom as they practice target language. The teacher takes note of the mistakes in speaking but opts for peer correction or self evaluation

This research would serve as an excellent starting point for EFL teachers teaching speaking skills and learners who wish to enhance communicative competence in English to revise their strategies by including learner's autonomy as a necessary element for optimum output in communication, critical thinking, and problem solving. The results clearly point out the interdependence of language and communication

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The Grammar Impairment of Mandarin Chinese SLI Children: Evidence from Topic-comment Structures[*]

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Abstract—**Acquisition of topic structure was studied in 12 Mandarin Chinese-speaking SLI children aged from 3,11-6,1 and in two other groups of children with normal language development (TDA & TDY). The study aimed to find out whether the Chinese SLI children encounter difficulties when comprehending and producing topic structures, and to locate the sources of the deficits if there are. Comprehension and Production was assessed by using one binary sentence-picture matching tasks, one elicitation production task. The findings were that while the Chinese-speaking SLI children comprehend subject topic structures around the age of 4;0, they are still at chance level in object topic structures at that age. The comprehension impairment is interpreted in the approach of Relativized Minimality as underspecification of the feature set of the moved elements. The SLI children avoid producing the target structure, instead utilizing derivationally less complex SVO sentences. The deficit in production can be accounted for by the Derivational Complexity Hypothesis.**

Index Terms— **SLI children, topic structures, relativized minimality, derivational complexity hypothesis**

I. INTRODUCTION

The extensive studies abroad have shown that children with Specific language impairment (SLI) have severe deficits in the comprehension and production of complex structures, which involve the structural embedding and syntactic movement, as in the case of *wh*-questions (Van der Lely & Battell 2003; Deevy & Leonard 2004; Friedmann & Novogrodsky 2011), relative clauses (Håkansson & Hansson 2000; Friedmann & Novogrodsky 2004; Novogrodsky & Friedmann 2006; Jensen De Lòpez K, Sundahl Olsen L & Chondrogianni 2014) and topic structures (Van der Lely & Harris1990). With regards to Chinese SLI children, to date, there are only two studies investigating the acquisition of complex structures. He &Yu (2013) examined the comprehension of Chinese relative clauses by using the picture selection comprehension task. They found that the Chinese SLI children encountered difficulties in the comprehension of subject relative clauses. Zeng et al. (2013) found that SLI children have a deficit in the acquisition of Chinese *BA* -construction. Van der Lely, H., Rosen, S., & McClelland, A. (1998); Van der Lely & Battell (2003); Van der Lely (2004, 2005) attributed the underlying causes of these problems to a deficit in movement operation.

Many linguists assumed that syntactic movement are required in the derivation of Chinese topic structures (Huang 1984, 1987; Shi 1992). The present article seeks to explore the acquisition of topic structures in Mandarin Chinese-speaking SLI children. The study will shed light on the possible problems in Chinese SLI children, which can provide an important window into their underlying deficit.

The significance of the present study are two fold. On the one hand, the study can verify the theories concerning the underlying causes of SLI children proposed by the previous studies. On the other hand, the investigation has significant practicality in making diagnosis and giving treatment of SLI children because Chinese is a topic-prominent language and topic structures in Chinese are productive and varied in form.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Topic Structures in Chinese

Chinese is a topic-prominent language, therefore many elements can be the topics. The present article examines the argument topic structures. The argument topic structures are derived by movement of a noun phrase from the subject or the object position to initial position of the structures and co-indexation of the topic with its trace (Huang 1984, 1987; Shi 1992). In a subject topic structures as in (1a), the noun *the mother* has moved from the subject position to the initial position of the sentence, and is co-indexed with its trace. In a object topic structures as in (1b), the noun *the mother* has moved from the object position to the initial position of the sentence, and is co-indexed with its trace. The thematic role

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of the topic in argument topic structures is assigned at the trace position, therefore one need to recognize the relationship between the trace and the moved topic in order to correctly interpret the sentence.

(1) a. Subject Topic Structures:

    Mama   a,   zai   tui   xiaohai.
    mother   topic marker   Asp push   child
    "The mother is pushing the child"

  b. Object Topic Structures:

    Xiaohai   a,   Mama   zai   tui.
    child   topic marker   Mother Asp push
    "The child, the mother is pushing"

B.   Chinese Topic Structures in Typical Acquisition

The Chinese Topic structure is an underexplored area in the child language acquisition. Chien (1983) examined the sensitivity to the distinction between subject and topic by children at their early stages of language acquisition. The results indicate that children can distinguish the notions of subject and topic.

Erbaugh (1992) conducted a longitudinal study of four Chinese-speaking children and found that these children (from the age of 1;10 through 3;10) stick rigidly to canonical SVO word order. She proposed that the adherence to the canonical word order schema is due to their limited processing capacities and desire for consistency of the word order (Erbaugh, 1992).

In a corpus study, Chen (2009) examined the frequency and types of topic structures produced by young children ranging between ages 2;2 and 6;0 in spontaneous speech. The result shows that the first emergence of topic structures is as early as 2;2 and children reach adult-like level by age 4;0. However, the production of topic structures is infrequent in child speech and he proposed that the fact is partly attributed to children's adherence to canonical word order.

In summary, the previous studies show that at an early stage of syntactic development (before the age 4), Chinese children can master topic structures, while because of the influence of canonical word order and their limited processing capacities, their production of the structure is infrequent.

Leonard (2014) hold that all areas relatively difficult for typically developing children correspond to details of language of special weakness for SLI children. Therefore it is justified to anticipate that Chinese topic structures will impose great difficulties on SLI Children than their typically developing peers. The present study aims to examine the possible problems in producing and comprehending topic structures by Chinese SLI children and to explore the causes of their underlying grammatical deficit.

III.   THE EXPERIMENT

A.   Comprehension of Topic Structures

Participant

Thirty-six monolingual Chinese-speaking children aged from 4;00 to 6;00 participated in the present study. The Twelve SLI children (2 girls and 10 boys) were recruited from normal kindergartens and a special education center. The recruitment has the screening phase and the testing phase.

In the screening phase, the parents and kindergarten teachers filled in *the Specific Language Impairment Checklist for Pre-school Mandarin-speaking Children* (He 2010) to select the suspected subjects. In this stage, those children who do not met the criteria for SLI as described in Leonard (2014) are also excluded. All the subjects had normal hearing ability, no otitis media with effusion, no neurological dysfunction history, no structural anomalies, no oral motor dysfunction or no symptoms of impaired reciprocal social interaction.

In the testing stage, the language ability of all children was tested on two standardized tests. The first test is *Rating Scale for Pre-school Children with Language Disorder–Revised Chinese Version 2008* (RSPLD-R), which is designed to test children's global language ability. The other test is *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test– Revised Chinese Version 1990* (PPVT-R), which aims to test the children's receptive vocabulary. Children's performance IQ was assessed with *McCarthy Scale of Children's Abilities –Revised Chinese Version 1991* (MSCA-R). All the SLI children get standard scores 80 or above in IQ test, and at least two of the five scores in the language tests are below 1.25 SD for their age on the RSPLD-R and PPVT-R.

A control group of twelve children are selected to serve as typically-developing age-matched (TDA) children. Each child in the TDA group was within 15 days of the age of a child in the SLI group and TDA child and his matched SLI child are of the same gender.

The remaining twelve children were typically developing younger (TDY) children matched with the SLI children on their language abilities as determined by mean length of utterance (MLU). The MLU of the each TDY children was 0.3 longer or shorter than that of SLI children.

The TDA and TDY group also receive the two standardized language tests (RSPLD-R and PPVT-R) and their scores are within the normal range. In summary, all the TDA and TDY children are mentally and physically healthy and with normal language proficiency.

Experimental tasks

The task was a binary sentence–picture matching task. Two types of Chinese topic structures were used: subject topic structure and object topic structure. Examples of the sentence types are given in (2a–b).

(2) a. Baba a, zai qin nanhai; Mama ne, zai qin nuhai.

The father, is kissing the boy; whereas the mother, is kissing the girl.

b. Baba a, nanhai zai qin; Mama ne, nuhai zai qin.

The father, the boy is kissing; whereas the mother, the girl is kissing.

All the verbs in the task were all transitive verbs, and all the noun phrases were animate. All the experimental sentences were designed as semantically reversible. For each sentence, there was a pair of two colored pictures (see Fig. 1). One picture matched the sentence, whereas the other showed the reverse action. For each sentence type, there were six items, yielding twelve sentences in total.
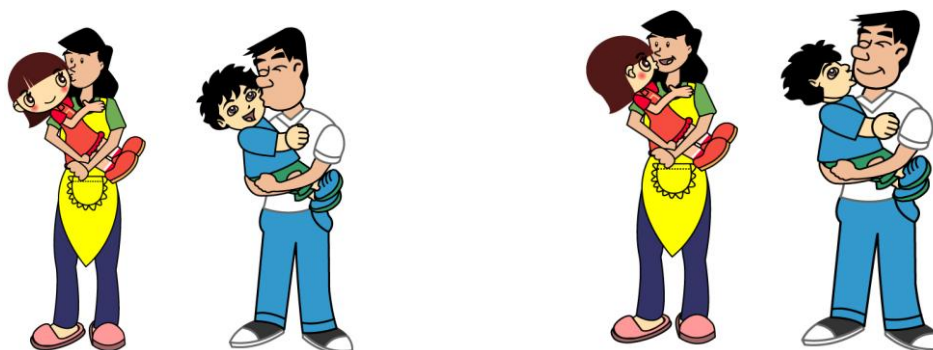

Fig. 1. A picture pair used in the sentence-picture matching task.

Procedure

Firstly the experimenter asked the children to listen carefully and to point to the picture that matched the sentences that they heard. Then the experimenter read each sentence to the participant, at the same time, presented two pictures to him (or her). The child heard the sentence and pointed to the picture that matched the sentence. Prior to the experiment stage, we conducted one training trial, during which if the children made a mistake, the experimenter pointed to the right pictures and gave explanation if necessary to ensure that the participants understood the experimental procedure. Each child heard the twelve sentences in a single session and in a quiet room in the kindergarten or special education center.

Results

As can be seen in Table 1, the performance of TDA and TDY children on both two types of sentences are above chance. Whereas, the performance of SLI group is above chance level on the subject topic structures, but on the object topic structures, the performance is at chance level. The results of one-way ANOVA shows that for the SLI group, the performance of subject topic structures were significantly better than that of object topic structures, $P=0.014<0.05$. For the TDA and TDY group, there is no significant difference between the performance of two sentence types, $P=0.166>0.05$, and $P=0.104>0.05$ respectively.

TABLE 1.
MEAN PERCENTAGE CORRECT BY GROUP AND SENTENCE TYPE

	SLI	TDA	TDY
Age	(3,11-6,1) 4,10	(3,11-6,1) 4,6	(2,11-4,11) 3,6
Subject topic structure	80%	91.6%	83.3%
Object topic structure	50%	80.3%	60%

The performance of the three groups do not have significant difference on the subject topic structures. However, on the object topic difference, there is significant difference ($F=0.841, P=0.440>0.05$). The results of Tukey HSD show that the TDA group performed significantly better than the SLI group ($p=0.011<0.05$).

B.   The Elicitation Production Task on Object Topic Structure

Participant

The participants in this experiment are the same as those in the first experiment.

Materials and procedure

In the elicitation production task, object topic structures were elicited as a description of an action shown in a picture. The first two pictures both depicted an animate entity carrying out a nonreversible transitive action (e.g., Yu, xiaomao yao zhe. "the fish, the cat is taking"; Xiangjiao, houzi yao zhe. "the banana, the monkey is taking"). The third picture depicted a similar scene (e.g., Gutou, xiaogou yao zhe "the bone, the dog is taking"). (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. An example of a picture used in the picture elicitation task.

The experimenter described the first two pictures using simple sentences, and then asked a question about the third pictures, see example (3).

(3) Elicitation procedure: Here are a cat, a monkey and a dog. The cat is taking the fish, the monkey is taking the banana. What about the bone (pointing to the bone in the third picture)? Please start with "The bone …".

The target responses were object topic structures. There were 6 picture pairs that elicited 6 object topic structures.

Results

As can be seen in Figure 3, the performance of TDA and TDY children on object topic structures are near chance level, 44.30% and 37.60% respectively. Whereas, the performance of SLI group is far poorer than that of the control groups, they have severe difficulties in the production of object topic structures. The results of one-way ANOVA shows that the performance of the three groups have significant difference on the object topic structures ($F=4.850, P=0.014 < 0.05$). The results of Tukey HSD show that the TDA group performed significantly better than the SLI group ($p=0.016 < 0.05$).
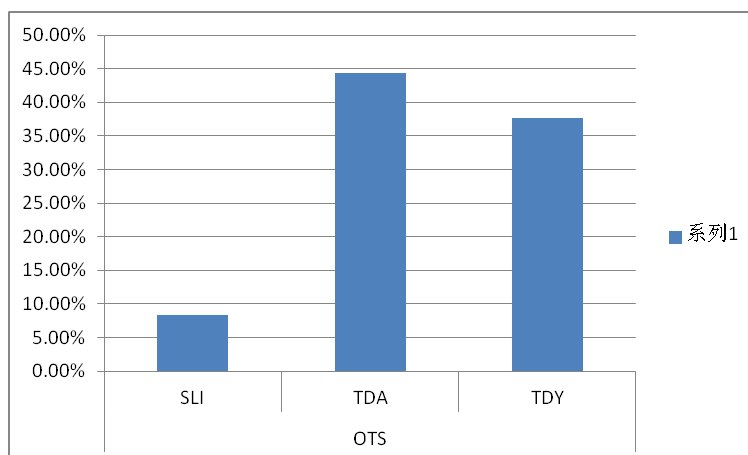

Figure 3. Production of object topic structures (OTS) in the picture description tasks.

The information on the types of errors and preferred responses can shed light on the underlying deficit of the SLI participants. The non-target responses in the tasks include canonical SVO sentences instead of object topic structures (example (4)). This accounted for 47.2% of all responses of the SLI group. The second kind of non-target response (16.6%) in the SLI group is the sentence fragments or ungrammatical sentences (example (5)). Other non-target responses included no response or irrelevant responses (13.8%) (example (6)), *SHI* sentences (11.1%) (example (7)), and passive sentences (2.7%)(example (8)).

(4) SVO sentence
    Meimei   na   le   Xiangjiao
    Younger sister take   Aspect   banana
    "the younger sister takes the banana"
    Target sentences: The banana, the younger sister takes.

(5) Sentence fragments or ungrammatical sentences
    a. Xiaodidi de xiangjiao
       Younger brother   DE Banana
       "Younger brother's banana"
    Target response: The banana, the younger brother takes.
    b. xiao   yazi
       little   duck
       "duckling"
    Target response: The scarf, the duckling wears.
    c. chi gou
       eat dog
       "eat the dog "

Target response: The bone, the dog eats.

(6) ta zhu zai nali.

She live Aspect there.

"He lives there"

Target response: The banana, the younger sister takes.

(7) gutou shi xiaogou chi de.

The bone SHI dog eat DE.

"it is the dog that eats the bone"

Target response: The bone, the dog takes.

(8) gutou rang xiaogou chi.

The bone let dog eat

"the bone is eaten by the dog."

Target response: The bone, the dog eats.

The analysis of the non-target responses indicated that the SLI children used various structures to provide a task-appropriate response, without involving syntactic movement in their production. They refrained from producing the object topic structures by producing the simple sentences.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. The Deficit in Comprehension and Production of Chinese Topic Structures

The main finding of this study is that Chinese SLI children (4;0—6;1) do not understand object topic structures and their performance is at the chance level, whereas the children with normal language development master this structure by around age 3:0. The SLI children's performance on the comprehension of subject topic structure is good, with no significant difference from the TDA and TDY children. The production of object topic structures was difficult to all the three groups. But the SLI children's production is most severely impaired, they can not produce object topic structures. The other two control groups' performance is near the chance level.

B. The Relativized Minimality and the Deficit in Comprehension of Chinese Topic Structures

The Relativized Minimality is postulated as a theory of syntactic locality on constraints governing extraction from syntactic islands (Rizzi 1990, 2004; Cinque 1990; Starke 2001). In the configuration of (9), a local relation between X and Y can not hold if the intervener Z is similar in structure to X.

(9) ... X ... Z ... Y ...

There are many studies concerning the RM effects in the language acquisition (Grillo 2005, 2009; Friedmann, N., Adriana & Rizzi. 2009; Belletti, A. *et al.*2012; Guasti M. T., Stavrakaki & Arosio 2012). Grillo (2005, 2009) and Friedmann et al. (2009) proposed that the aphasics and the younger children are insensitive to the edge feature of strong phase (CP and vP), which resulted in the underspecification of the feature set of the element moved to the specifier position of strong phase. We argue that this approach can be extended to the acquisition of topic structures by children with SLI. We anticipate that Chinese SLI children will encounter the same problem in the comprehension of the object topic structures.

The asymmetry between subject topic structures and object topic structures are caused by the intervention effect. To be more precise, in the case of object topic structures the intervening noun (the subject of the sentence) renders the establishment of the local relation between the target and the origin more difficult for SLI children.

Following Huang (1984, 1987) among others, we assume that topic structures are derived by movement. Precisely, the topic phrase is attracted by the head (topic) bearing the feature [+TOPIC, +NP] to move to the specifier of TopP. The subject and object topic structures is shown in configuration (10).

(10) a. Subject topic structure: [TopP subject Topic [+Topic, +NP] ... ~~<subject>~~...object]

b. Object topic structure: [TopP object Topic [+Topic, +NP] ...subject ...~~<object>~~]

In (10a), there is no intervener between the target (specifier of TopP) and the origin (place of extraction). In (10b), the subject is an intervener between the target and the origin. In the object topic structure example *Baba a, nanhai zai qin*, the lexical NP *Baba* is the target, *nanhai* the intervener, and *qin* the origin. Because the SLI children are insensitive to the [+topic] feature of the moved topic phrase, therefore they will assume that the target and the intervener share a structural similarity. It is the existence of the intervener that makes the local relation cannot hold between the origin and the target for SLI children. However it is unclear how exactly failure to establish the local relation between the target and the origin would manifest itself in comprehension of the object topic structures.

According to Grodzinsky (1990), for individuals with agrammatic aphasia, the deficit in grammar involves inability to assign thematic roles to noun phrases that underwent movement. We propose that this theory can extend to the case of SLI children. The SLI children will fail to assign the thematic role to the topic phrase that moved from the object position of the sentence, if the local relation between the target and the origin can not establish. When an NP lacks a thematic role due to a grammar deficit, the SLI children will adopt a non-syntactic strategy to interpret this NP according to its linear position within the sentence. If the first NP has underwent movement, it is interpreted as the agent. NPs that base-generates retain their thematic roles. Therefore, the SLI children will meet trouble when comprehending

the object topic structures. Because in this structure, the first NP that has moved is a theme. The SLI children will mistakenly assume that the first NP receives an agent role. At the same time, the sentence contains a real agent (the subject of the sentence), that retained its agent role because it has not moved. In this case, The SLI children has to choose which NP bears the agent role, and is forced to guess. This is why the SLI children's performance on the comprehension of object topic structures is the chance level.

However for typically developing children, namely the TDA and TDY children in this study, this intervention effect does not occur. Because they are sensitive to the topic feature of the moved element, therefore they assume that the target and the intervener are different in feature set. This is why the TDA and TDY children's performance on the comprehension of the two types of topic structures are not significantly different.

C.   The Derivational Complexity Hypothesis and the Deficit in Production of Topic Structures

The Derivational Complexity Hypothesis (DCH) (Jakubowicz 2004, 2005) is based on economy consideration. To be more specific, it was considered that children prefer more economical derivations and young children tend to avoid using movement because it is costly. For SLI children, Jakubowicz (2004, 2005) proposed that abnormal language development is sensitive to the computational complexity of the derivation due to the developmental constraints. Furthermore, Jakubowicz suggested that computational complexity can be estimated by a metric whereby complexity is precisely defined.

(11) Derivational Complexity Metric (DCM) (Jakubowicz, 2005)

      a. Merging α_i n times gives rise to a less complex derivation than merging α_i (n+1) times.

      b. Internal Merge of α gives rise to a less complex derivation than Internal Merge of $\alpha+\beta$.

According to the DCM, in deriving a given structure, the child is sensitive to the number of times that a copy of the topic must be merged and to the number of elements that may (or must) undergo movement.

The result of the production of object topic structures by SLI children can be accounted for by DCH. The most frequent avoidance strategy used by these children is simple SVO sentences. In this construction, no syntactic movement is involved, which, by the DCM, is less complex than the object topic structures, which require the movement of the topic phrase to the specifier position of the TopP. Children show evidence of using available means to produce the task-appropriate sentences. This result is consistent with the previous studies on the acquisition of topic structures: young children (1;10-3;10) adhere strictly to canonical SVO word order (Erbaugh 1992). SLI children are in resemblance with the younger children in their syntactic capacities. This study indicates that Chinese SLI children (4;0—6;1) avoid producing topic structures, instead producing the canonical SVO sentences.

Moreover, the SLI children's avoidance strategies include *SHI* sentences (11.1%), and passive sentences (2.7%). Although the sentences involve the syntactic movement, which is as complex as the object topic structures, they occupy very limited percentage. This fact can also lead support to the DCH: SLI children's syntactic capacities are sensitive to the computational complexity of the derivation. On the contrary, the typically developed children's (both the TDA and TDY children) production of the object topic structures are around the 40%. They also utilized more avoiding strategies, which involve syntactic movement. Taken together, this result indicates that the SLI children are more sensitive to computational complexity of the derivation probably because of their limited capacity of working memory.

The DCH can also give explanation to the asymmetry of the comprehension of subject topic structures and object topic structures by SLI children. The simplified derivation of the two structures is given below:

(12) a Subject topic structures: [$_{TopP}$ Subject $_{Top}$[~~Subject~~ $_T$[$_{vP}$[$_{VP}$ Object]]]]

    b Object topic structures: [$_{TopP}$ Object $_{Top}$[Subject $_T$[~~Object~~ $_{vP}$[$_{VP}$ ~~Object~~]]]]

The differences lie in the different extraction sites out of which movement occurs in two structures. In the subject topic structures, the subject moved from the specifier position of TP directly to that of TopP; however in the object topic structures, the topicalization requires two steps. Because of Phase Impenetrability Condition (PIC; Chomsky 2001), the object need to move to the specifier position of the vP, then to the specifier of TopP. By the DCM, the subject topic structure is less complex than the the object topic structures.

V. Conclusion

The main finding presented in this paper is that Chinese SLI children aged 4;0–6;1 years comprehend subject topic structures unproblematically, whereas their comprehension and production of object topic structures may be severly impaired. The assymetry of comprehension of the subject topic structures and object topic structures are consistent with the prediction of RM, as well as with the DCH. Because of the intervention effect, the SLI children can not assign a thematic role to the moved element in the object topic structures. Because of the derivational complexity, The comprehension and production of object topic structures are severely impaired.

Theoretically, the results bear on the claim that the RM and DCH are universal constraints regulating the language build-up. In practice, the study has implications for making diagnosis and giving treatment of SLI children.

Hung & Schumacher (2014) found that the (in) animacy of the topic phrase may play a significant role in the processing the topic structures. Therefore, in the future, a more extensive and direct examination of the relationship between animacy and the processing of topic structures is desirable.

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The Representation of Male and Female Social Actors in the ILI English Series

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Abstract—**Textbooks are important parts of all educational systems nowadays, which can make people ready for globalization and new concepts emerging through it. These individuals need to be given the chance of feeling as successful and important, in a world which is neither blue nor pink. Equality can pave the way to a better world, and the study of the representation of male and female social actors in textbooks can lead to elimination of inequality from textbooks and societies. This study is an attempt to analyze the representation of males and females at the ILI English Series. The dialogues examined critically through Van Leeuwen's framework (1996, 2008), and they proved to be gender-biased. These series depict a men-without-women world in which females are waiting for a chance to 'be', 'be seen' and 'be heard'. (140)**

Index Terms—**critical discourse analysis, hidden curriculum, representation of social actors, EFL textbook**

I. INTRODUCTION

Everything experienced in this world starts by being a thought, then takes an external shape, the language, either in the form of oral or written, which is shared with other language users, to make a change in the world around. The "brave" changing world (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) in which people live takes infinite shapes, and all these shapes tend to interact with each other. The bridge that facilitates the communication among these worlds is discourse analysis which is defined by Widdowson (2007, p.7) as the "complex of communicative purposes", which justifies the production of it, and the meaning which lies within the mind of the producer as well as the receiver. Thus a text needs to be interpreted as well as being read to communicate the purpose successfully, based on "what is conceived," and not "perceived", "as relevant" (ibid, 2007). This way, context, as "a psychological construct" which is built upon "readers' mind" can be a world that everyone experiences individually and perhaps uniquely, and then shares it with others.

Critical discourse analysis is a field of study which has been known as a powerful tool to analyze all sort of power in language. Van dijk (2003) proposes that "CDA is not so much a direction, school, or specialization", and emphasizes on the "explicit awareness" of the role it has in social contexts. CDA makes it possible to study internal and external layers of social relations. This "transdisciplinary" (ibid, 2003) form of analysis links linguistics, policy, sociology, and other fields of study. Thus Critical discourse Analysis discovers and encodes "power" in whatever form, and how it could lead to "social wrongs". This power is always there, sometimes "activated to produce change" or being able to be "responsible" for it (Fairclough, 2010, pp 204-205)   which can then give meaning to ideology.

Discourse and ideology has long been put together to study the effect of ideology on societies as well as on social groups. Ideology, as put by Van dijk (2001), is a set of knowledge that a group of people share, whether in form of action or discourse, which can be labeled as "good" or "bad" depending on what emerges out of it. This "shared knowledge" could be dominant or not, but can change into a power affecting the members of the group, as well as members of other groups, posing inequality upon others, causing "ideological bias".

One obvious, but neglected sort of power nowadays, is the representation of male and female in Educational context. Gender-biased materials are all around us, and the power and the frequency of its being observed could suggest that it is more than just an accident, which can lead to some unconscious pattern in the mind of the teachers and learners. These small groups then become members of a bigger society. Societies come together to shape the world which tends to hold people of whatever gender and race, to make it possible to talk about 'globalization'. When races and nationalities are to disappear from this ideal "globe", it is natural that people seek to have no problem regarding gender. Thus investigating underlying curriculum could pave the way for a better 'unbiased' world.

The study of ideology has long been popular in education. It is related to vast majority of people, most of whom at critical ages. They are on their way to understand the world around, to choose an "ideology" which is going to shape their world, thoughts, expectations, and beliefs. Even for those who have passed this age, education could be still effective in that it can add up to their self-confidence, or affect the way they define their identity in society.

The curriculum designers are well aware of the effect of any kind of ideology, the intricacy of people's mind, and how it can shape the future. The power they exercise can be even more significant while dealing with foreign language learning, among which English has long been popular. It is needed in many developing countries to be able to build

towards being independent, and reach the latest technology. New identity brings new ethnicity with it, and this way learning a foreign language can lead to changes in societies.

The importance of textbooks in all cultures and societies is self-evident. Textbooks are essential parts of all educational settings. They are good resources for both teachers and learners, and lend color to teaching and learning process. After the 1979 revolution in Iran, textbooks content of educational settings were changed completely under the supervision of Ministry of Education, and English textbooks received special attention, for they were the doors opened up to the cultures which were against the Islamic one: "the otherness" (Korstanje, 2010). But it was well understood that next generation is the future of this revolution, and thus needs to learn foreign languages to be able to keep up with the speed of technological development in other countries. Besides, Islam encourages Muslims to learn foreign languages to develop technologically and be able to propagate Islamic beliefs to other countries, and to create independent Islamic identity.

After the school course books, came the time for other textbooks which were related to the governmental organizations and institutes, as well as private ones, and Iran Language Institute was no exception. As ideology in this study could be any form of 'shared knowledge' which leads to action or discourse, a 'balanced' textbook could be the one which represents different ideologies without supporting any of them. Either the textbooks are neutral in terms of the "balanced" ideology presented, or are consciously or unconsciously discriminatory, studying these 'seen' and 'unseen' curricula is for the teachers to be noticed, and be aware of. We need a tool to delve into the hidden 'layers' of textbooks, for it is so optimistic to believe in a neutral material, and that there is no reflection of "social order" and "value system", and thus no culture (Hurst, 2007).

The concern for cultural points presented could be the reason for the emergence of textbooks which show the power through the mirror of locally prepared materials, and thus could be an ideology. As ILI English Series are widely used by students and learners, they can be a good source to study the representation of males and females, as social actors, to see what ideology may be 'taken' unconsciously through the changed content of these book.

Learning a foreign language is an important part of education, and receives specific attention in many Iranian families. It is taught as a foreign language from the first level of Rahnamayi (guidance school), showing that people from all ethnic groups pursuit learning a foreign language.

Besides schools, Language learning, especially English, is so popular in Iran that there are several institutes to keep up with the increasing demand. One of the most popular institutes is Iran Language Institute (the former Iran-America association) which had its first branch in 1304 in Tehran. Its aim was to teach English to merchants and politicians, and Farsi to foreigners. After the revolution, the ILI was to be closed for being related with the kingdom and the former government. While this didn't happen, Ministry of Education kept the same institute under another name, Iran Language Institute, managed by the Intellectual Development of Children and Young Adults (IIDCYA). Now, it's a very organized institute whose books are compiled and published by the research and planning department of the ILI for 18 levels, with 80 branches in Tehran and 58 other cities with about 1800 teachers and over 240,000 learners. The first conference of TEACHING ENGLISH IN ISLAMIC COUNTRIES was held in Iran by this institute, suggesting that Islamic countries pursue foreign language learning.

With all its popularity and fame, ILI can be a very good case to study the hidden curriculum regarding the representation of male and female characters, as a form of power and ideology. The ILI series are taught by thousands of teachers, and are parts of everyday life of many learners who carry them to school to memorize dialogs, make questions about the passages, and work on the grammar points. But what is it that they carry, and is hidden in it? All learners carry their own identity to EFL classrooms, and shape or reshape it there. These social actors need to know more about how they are presented in an EFL textbook, compiled by experts with specific considerations. Despite being famous and addressing so many learners at different ages, it hasn't received enough attention. Time has come to investigate the dialogs, what teachers ask learners to repeat several times to memorize. This study seeks answers to the following research questions:

1-How are social actors represented in ILI English Series?

2-In what way, the gender and social identity of men and women are reflected in the dialogues of these textbooks? (2055)

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The "phenomenon" of Globalization has given a new face to human studies and relations, for the "interdisciplinary treatment" it requires to explain "cultural integration and disintegration" (Featherstone, 1990, pp.1-18), which correspondingly raises "the interrelationship" of "cultural issues" (Yildirim & Okan, 2007). People are eager to ensure the fact that their children are receiving 'enough' education to gain the knowledge and be ready for the future. They also want to be as important as other nations in the world: as successful, as progressed, as capable. The fact is that people as members of societies start big actions from 'small' thoughts, which are not necessarily unimportant. Education is one of them, and starts from families, goes ahead to schools, moves to colleges, and follows an everlasting route in the real word.

The connection between the identity and the specific roles given to people in a society can verify who they are. What gives meaning to this 'who they are' is defined through gender and age as well as class (Van Leeuwen, 2009). Thus,

although individuality is defined and emphasized in all social contexts, people need to define themselves based on what links them to others. Globalization needs equal rights for both genders, and the identity males and females define for themselves can highly affect the roles they accept in a society.

Gender studies have long been popular in education, not as a feminist outlook, but as a form of power in the society. As Sadker and Zittleman (2009) put it, "This is not one or the other gender bias that is the problem; gender bias is the problem." These "micro inequities" which are "brief but powerful" (ibid, 2009) in Critical Discourse Analysis could be distinguished from the studies by feminists in what Sommers (1995) calls the creation "by those who are hypersensitive to every possible offense" and is far away from "an academic phenomenon."

Numerous studies on different subjects at school conducted in different countries show that gender bias against women is the problem which is thought to affect people, causing inequality, and affecting the future. Blumberg (2008) argues that gender studies are so crucial that people and societies need to take an urgent action against it, for the bad effect it can have on people. Research studies show that after all these years of investigation, they show "minimal progress" but are "less offensive". (Sadker & Sadker, 1980; Zhang, 2003; Zittleman & Sadker, 2005) which may be the result of the lack of persistency in pursuing it by political leaders.

Meanwhile there are still some researchers who do not support the fight against gender equity in textbooks. Sommers (1995) believes that "ideological intimidation deeply affects and inhibits creativity." She and other equity feminists pursue fair treatment at workplace and in the society. But textbooks are just textbooks. Words can be nonsexist depending on who and when says what to who (Speer, 2004), but we still need to be aware of the "politics of words". Sadker and Zittleman (2009) imply that Gender bias is taking victims of both sides like a "two-edged sword"; While it can make males to feel over responsible to earn money, it can make passive females who do not see any parts but be dependent on males for their needs.   Both genders need to be protected against biased textbooks.

EFL textbooks at school have been examined carefully during decades. Hamdan and Jalabneh (2009) examined the topics in Action Pack Series to find how gender-biased language is depicted in the conversations. Not surprisingly, males are the main figures and women are not included in the events of everyday life. He calls the result what reflects "reality". The same books were explored by Hamdan (2010) in another study to see what jobs males and females are given. He calls it "surprising" that the material designers nowadays are not aware of the new trends of "modern society". The occupations are given to male characters, leaving women 'jobless'.

Mukundan and Nimechisalem (2008) conducted a study in Malaysia and investigated the books taught at secondary school, namely Forms 1, 2, 3, and 4. They believe the frequency count could lead to some misinterpretations, thus other criteria such as firstness, visibility and the roles and characters males and females are given were applied as well. Male characters outnumber females, but in more 'negative' ways as women did. Males are shown to be the ones who break the rules, and pollute the environment. These aggressive characters started the conversation first, and led it without women. The remedy they suggest is to equip the teachers with the awareness that is needed to guide the students towards an unbiased education, and towards 'national oneness'.

The importance of learners and teachers has been the core of several studies. Shah (2012) addresses teachers in a study regarding textbooks taught at the secondary level in Pakistan. Although the content analysis of these textbooks proves that women have been ignored in the "national steam of progress", the teachers who were surveyed did not hold the same belief. The fact that teachers who are crucial parts of EFL classes are not conscious of gender bias cannot be ignored anymore. This unconscious sexism is what Blumberg (2008) calls "the invisible obstacle on the way" to reach unbiased material. Women have worked hard shoulder to shoulder with men to make the future of societies. They have shown courage to tolerate difficulties, have tried to elevate health, education, and technology, and thus expect to be seen, and to be heard. This "gender blindness" needs to be improved among teachers, material designers, and authors. (Barton & Sakwa, 2012; Ullah & Skelton, 2013)

Maehara (2010) views "gender education" as an urgency in societies. Through using vocabulary test and the surveys, the researcher tried to test junior high school students in Japan to find out what their choice of pronoun would be if the gender is ambiguous. They needed teachers to intervene, and to bring the facts into the learners' attention that their "correct" choices are affected by hidden sexism. For instance most students preferred *chairman* to *chairperson*. This study also conveys that the first word presented to the learners sticks to their mind as the norm and appropriate choice.

In a study by Tao (2008), EFL textbooks were investigated in China to identify sexism. The frequency of applying female and male "historical figures" is considered in the titles, and illustrations and pictures which are depicted. He concludes that in high school EFL books women are viewed as invisible nameless beings who are not mentioned enough to be able to take the role of a model. Tao suggests that time has come for curriculum designers and EFL textbook writers to combat sexism in EFL textbooks to provide individuals "fair and impartial" education "regardless of sex."

"Busy, tall and beautiful" women about whom Renner (1997) talks are still there in the textbooks after all these years, and the invisible characters that are portrayed in less frequency and are dealing with house chores are found in other studies as well (Antiksari, 2011; Barton & Sakwa, 2012; Karimaghaei & Kasmani, 2013; Kobia, 2009). Lee and Collins (2008) maintain that the importance of being 'beautiful' rather than 'able' is the trend even in political issues in Hong Kong, thus they expect to see the same trend in English textbooks. They conclude that in spite of the fact that the

awareness about the fair representation of males and females has found its way in curriculum designing, through "more gender-neutral generic pronouns", women need to be depicted more active in social settings.

Some authors are positive towards the trend of neutral EFL textbooks. The study by Mustedanagic (2010) focused on the gender representation in secondary school EFL textbooks, Wings 8 and Team 8, in Sweden. They were respectively published in 2000 and 1985, are critically analyzed, and are reported to be different, in that the new one has tried to keep away from "gendered language" and addresses women in "non-stereotypical way" which she believes has gone so far, this time, by stereotyping male, to "make up for the past." this could be a positive attitude towards gender studies, but still has a long way to proceed.

These changes in the textbook trends seem to be the result of material designers' raised awareness of the new quality globalization and the modern world brings with it: equality. The quality of this new trend is affecting the world as well. In a study by Sahragard and Davatgarzadeh (2010) women are reported to be foregrounded as being more successful and prominent. Sexism in a new form is emerging. This is what Mustedanagic (2010) refers to as making up for the past, and what some feminists warn against: fighting men not sexism.

Bahman and Rahimi (2010) conducted a study in which they conveyed the representation of gender through frequency pattern of names, nouns and pronouns, as well as adjectives females and males are given. This study suggests that "gender gap" comes from "neglected" "invisible" women and "outnumbered" men who win the topics and the titles of the books.

Amini and Birjandi (2012) came to conclusion that "manly jobs" are there to stay in the textbooks, and women stay far away from being "inventors", for they are still dealing with making tea, and cooking dinner. These "stay-at- home" mothers who rarely watch TV and are always busy with finding things that they have lost can be seen in other studies as well (Alemi & Jafari, 2012; Mardani, Samieenejad, Khajavi & Mardani, 2012; Razmjoo, 2007).

The role of teachers in creating the awareness which is needed to deal with these issues could pave the way to experience unbiased textbooks. Noticeable is the fact that teachers are still 'gender-blind' in that they ignore forms of bias (Kizilaslan, 2010). Thus they need to be trained not to be "over-sensitive" but to "see". "Once the hidden lessons of unconscious bias are made visible, classrooms never look the same again" (Sadker & Zittleman, 2009).

The studies on internationally-used textbooks are moving towards being more 'pleased' regarding the gender-equity characteristics. The fact that authors and material designers are now aware that gender-even textbooks may sell better in the future, considerations have been taken into account to pave the way to put textbook and materials on the right way which moves towards being "gender-even" (Healy, 2009), and 'gender-friendly'! Fathers are taking more responsibilities in the family, though still absent in the kitchen, and women are searching for their lost identity to self-actualize themselves. Workplaces and families are filled with men and women, who take turns in talking, and are of the same prominence in society. Women have found their way out of the kitchen, and into the workplace.

In line with female characters in EFL textbooks who are finding their lost role in society, a study by Amalsaleh, Javid, and Rahimi (2010), reports applying the pronoun 'they' in Spectrum instead of 'she' or 'he', which could be taken as a fact that authors are aware of what needs to be taken more into considerations.

The study of EFL textbook for university students maintains that men are not mentioned to be as important as women are. Nagatomo (2010) examined the text and structure and proved that women are more visible through the frequency of males and females, have the opportunity to speak more than men do. The frequency, however, is not everything! The illustrations are not in accordance with the text. There are only women who go shopping, and men are not depicted as being "capable in the kitchen".

ILI English Series could be a good chance to find out what has been important for curriculum designers, material designers, as well as compilers of Iran. To the best knowledge of the author, these textbooks have never been investigated to find out how men and women are represented in dialogues, applying a CDA framework.

III. METHOD

A. Instrument

For the purpose of this study, the textbooks used at the ILI (Iran Language Institute) will be employed. The Research and Planning Department of the ILI has designed 18 different levels, each of which comes with a student book and a workbook.

The levels at the ILI fall into six proficiency levels: Basic, Elementary, pre-intermediate, Intermediate, high-intermediate, and advanced. Each proficiency level consists of three levels 1, 2, and 3. Student books at Basic, Elementary, pre-intermediate, and inter-mediate consist of both conversations and reading passages.

In this study, dialogues in student's books of basic to intermediate levels are examined, due to the fact that high intermediate and advanced levels do not contain dialogues. Though these books are not written and are literally 'compiled', ILI series could be a good source of gathering data, for they are used by over 200,000 learners nationwide, whose age is 13 above. Most of the learners are at critical age at which their perspective towards the world shapes their beliefs and ideology. Thus this study could help figure out what tends to be told to them through a foreign language. Moreover, the achievements of those whose age is above critical ages could be affected by the way males and females are represented for the reflection of what they see in textbooks can be absorbed as a norm.

B. Procedure

To be able to conduct a systematic CDA study, the framework proposed by Van Leeuwen (1996, 2008) is applied. In this analytical framework, Van Leeuwen broadens the boundaries of the presentation of social actors through a socio-semantic system (Blommaert and Bulcaen, 2000). This framework which holds three underlying metafunctions, namely ideational, interpersonal, and textual perspectives, equip the researchers with such a broad outlook towards the social actors that all the complicity of discourse in social sciences can be met through "a critical lens, sensitive to the dimensions and effects of ideology (Huckin, Andrus & Clary-lemon, 2012). What Van Leeuwen presents in this network to depict the representation of social actors is to apply three types of transformation: deletion, rearrangement, and substitution.

Van Leeuwen's framework is so broad a framework that could be applied to a large corpus of data. To investigate the representation of males and females in ILI English Series only some categories are applied which are presented below. The network and the examples are taken from what Van Leeuwen (1996, 2008) explains and defines in his book (pp. 23-54).

Suppression: The text does not make a reference to social actors while their actions are there.

Backgrounding: Social actors may not be related to the actions just in the same clause, but can be inferred to through reasoning.

Activation: Social actors could be represented to have active, dynamic roles or be the receiver of an activity.

Subjection: It is shown when social actors are the objects in the representations, and are subjected to an action.

Beneficialization: It form a third party which benefits form an action positively or negatively,

Genericization: It allows the representation of social actors as classes or individuals.

Individualization: Social actors are represented as individuals

Aggregation: It deals with social actors as statistics

Collectivization: The representation of social actors happens through classes.

Association: It is a way of referring to social actors as groups which are formed by joining several social actors together, though their labeling is not used in the text. Actually social actors can be joined to serve a specific purpose, and then vanish.

Formalization: It refers to the use of surname with or without honorifics.

Semiformalization: name and surname are used

Informalization: Social actors are represented only through their first names.

Honorification: Social actors are given standard ranks or titles such as 'Dr.' The other **affiliation**: 'titles' which show personal relation are given to social actors.

Functionalization: Social actors are referred to through what they do

Classification: It classifies social actors based on their age, race, gender, wealth and other cultural variables which are open to change through history.

Relational identification: It allows social actors to 'belong together' in a personal, kinship or work relation.

Physical identification: It studies social actors in terms of unique characteristics which can be recognized.

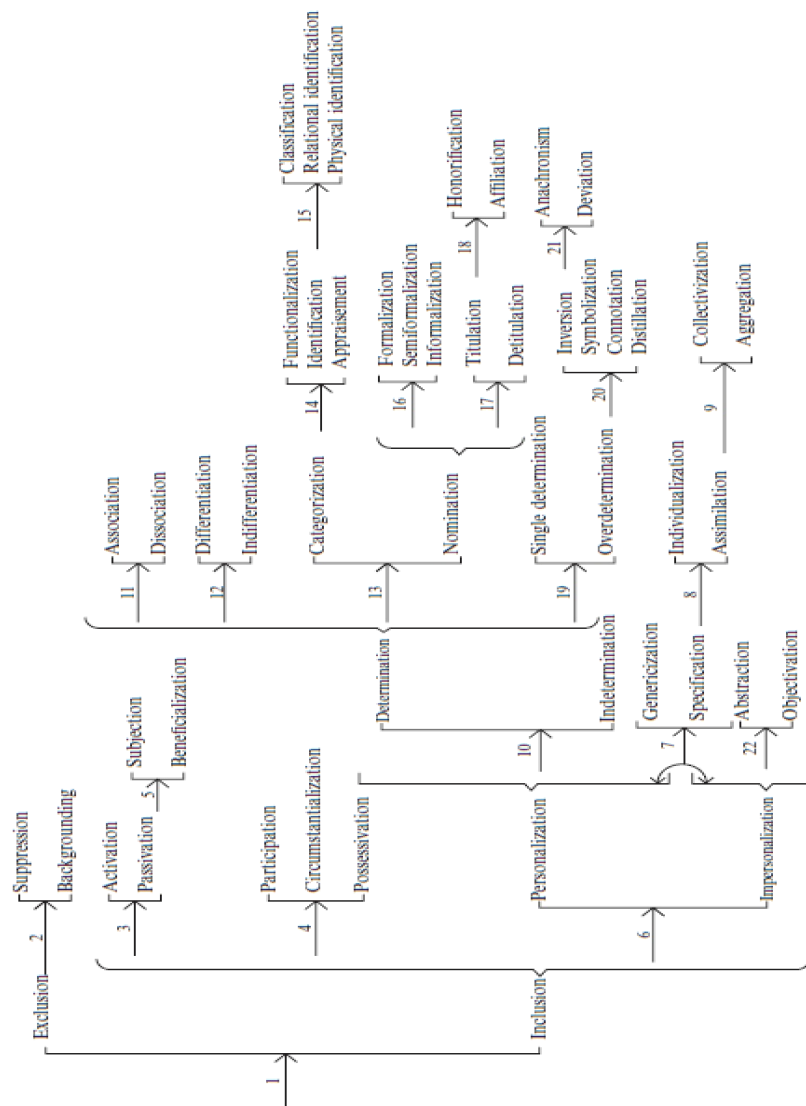The framework is presented in figure 1 below:

Figure 1: The Analytical Framework of the Study: Social Actor Network

To decode the ideological pattern of the dialogues, besides applying the framework, there are also other social actor terms as well. All the dialogues are investigated to see the initiation pattern, which is referred to as *firstness* and refers to who starts the conversation. The dialogues are also examined closely to find out who the dialogues are between: male-male, female-male, male-female, and female-female conversations, and the number of turns which male and female characters take in the conversations. The sentences in the dialogues are also investigated to find out about the kind of professions people are engaged with. To have a better picture of ideological patterns, the titles of the dialogues, which are frequently phrases and are referred to as topics, are studied as well.

The data gathered through the network and other ideological patterns which were described is statistically analyzed applying chi-square test, which is based on expected and observed frequency.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Deletion

Under this category, studying the social actors which are omitted or moved to the background is made possible. There are two terms which taken into account as put by Van Leeuwen (1996, 2008) himself, as "radical exclusion", and "innocent exclusion". These two extremes refer to the fact that the analysis closely related the text, the context, and the content, to the readers and the purpose of the text for these special readers. In 'radical exclusion', both the action and the social actors are omitted, leaving no trace of exclusion. On the other hand, in 'innocent exclusion', no strong clues are available in the text to prove that the social actors are purposefully omitted. Even if the exclusion happens, one cannot draw to deep conclusion that they are not mentioned, for the actor of the special actions are fairly obvious. The table below presents exclusion of male and female social actors:

TABLE 4.3:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR EXCLUSION IN THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES

	Female	Male	X^2	Asymp. Sig.
Exclusion	10	9	0.053	0.819

As shown in table 4.3, the qui-square result is not statistically significant ($X^2 = 0.05$, p<o.o5). We also need to be aware of the fact that the exclusion is 'innocent' in that it can be estimated, though not strongly, who the omitted social actor is. The following example can illustrate the point further:

Example 1: Amy to Carole: Worrying won't help. That's how to become wise. (Pre 1, Unit 4)

Example 2: Mrs. Kidman to the repairman: Looks like there's no need to leave it here.

Repairman: No, you can wait here. (Pre 1, Unit 6)

B. Rearrangement (Role Allocation)

The roles given to social actors could be studied through this section, in which **activation** and **passivation** of social actors can be studies, and are shown in the table below:

TABLE 4.6:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR ROLE ALLOCATION OF THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES

	Female	Male	X^2	Asymp. Sig
Activation (total=562)	164	398	97.431	0.0001
Subjection (Total= 64)	13	51	22.563	0.0001
Beneficialization (Total=28)	14	14	.00	1.00

The chi-square results of **activation** and **passivation** is interpreted as being significant for activation ($X^2=97.43$ p<0.05), meaning that male social actors are presented to be more active and dynamic in the dialogues while nowadays societies are built upon active roles of both males and females, and the terms 'breadwinner' and 'housewife' are becoming old-fashioned.

The category of passivation is studied through **subjection** and **beneficialization**. As presented in the table above, passivation through subjection is statistically significant, ($X^2=22.56$, p<0.05) meaning that males win being the object of the sentence, the one to whom an action is done. However, this is quite interesting that the chi-square result of **beneficialization** show that both males and females benefit from the actions the same! Thus, taking the context into account, this can be interpreted as showing males more determining in the success and dynamic spirit of the society, while this is males and females benefiting from it! The hidden ideology depicts that this is "women" who benefit from what active men do in the society.

C. Substitution

As indicated by the results and the table above, there is no significant difference in the representation of social actors through **Genericization**, ($X^2=2.00$, p<0.05), and they are both referred to generically, but not to a large scale.

TABLE 4.9:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR GENERICIZATION AND SPECIFICATION OF SOCIAL ACTORS IN THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES

Genericization/ specification	Female	Male	x^2	Asymp. Sig.
Genericization	2	6	2.00	0.15
Individualization	7	30	14.29	0.0001
Collectivation	0	1	.00	1.00
Aggregation	0	0	.00	1.00

While collectivization and aggregation are not significant either, **Individualization** proves to be significant in that more males are referred to individually than females. The interpretation of individuality depends heavily on the social context it is studied in. The world around us is filled with specific individuals whose independence is seen as an inseparable right. It is through individuality that the "concrete world" (Van Leeuwen, 1996, 2008) is shaped and shown. This study proves that males are dominantly presented as independent social beings whose decision has the chance of not being the result of what others think, but what they have reached at themselves.

Personalization of social actors comes true by using different categories. They give researchers a better chance to study what is given to social actors through their names. The results are as follow:

4.12:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR NOMINATION OF SOCIAL ACTORS IN THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES

Nomination		female	male	X2	Asymp. Sig
Formalization		19	42	8.672	0.003
Semiformalization		2	5	1.286	0.257
informalization		102	206	35.117	0.0001
Titulation	Honorification	1	2	0.333	0.333
	Affliation	0	0	.00	1.00

The chi-square results of nomination is significant for both **formalization**, (X^2=8.67, p<0.05), and **informalization,** (X^2=35.11 p<0.05). Being referred to formally can be a sign of being more important and holding high status jobs or positions.

While **formalization** is related to the higher position and differences in rank as well as being involved in formal situations, **informalization** reflects the friendly atmosphere through which people are allowed to consider each other out of formal context. Still males win the frequency of being referred to by first name, and thus can be interpreted as being more relaxed in relations with other social members.

Despite the fact that the difference is not significant in **semiformalization**, (X^2=1.28, p<0.05) if the frequency and the percentage of this category are considered, one can easily recognize that this category has not gained the ground in the Iranian context. The use of first and last name together in the ILI English Series as locally-produced series in a theoretical country such as Iran is not really popular.

Titulation, involving **honorification** and **affliation**, is applied but as seen in table 4.12, not to a scale which can be considered statistically significant. Titulation is not just a way to refer to the occupation they hold, but to add color to the social level they belong to. Thus neither males nor females are represented through this category significantly.

Another way to represent social actors personally is to refer to them through categorization which falls into **functionalization**, or what they do, and identification. It's through the second subcategory which studying deeper layer of identification is made possible. The results are presents as below:

4.15:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR CATEGORIZATION OF SOCIAL ACTORS IN THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES

personalization		female	male	X^2	Asymp. Sig
functionalization		9	36	16.200	0.0001
Identification	classification	3	7	1.600	0.206
	Relational identities	20	21	0.024	0.876
	physical identity	4	2	0.667	0.414

The above tables show the fact that **functionalization** is statistically significant (X^2=16.2 p<0.05). It means that more males, and fewer females, are represented through what they do. Although women are now thought to be more determining in the future of the country than before, the material designers and compilers of the ILI English Series still hold the idea that men are essential in the maintenance of development. The world of 'functionalized males' is filled with jobs such as detective, mechanic, police officer, bank teller, lawyer, as well as salesman, desk clerk and waiter. Less varied and expected jobs are reported for women, ranging from doctors and teachers to receptionists. The only examples of jobs which break the glass ceiling are being a reporter and a mathematician which are to be changed for not being suitable for them.

The hidden curriculum of EFL textbook in a recognized institute still holds women to be judged and depicted neither by what they do nor by what they are. The chi-square results for **identification** show that social actors are not presented statistically significant. In spite of this insignificance in the presentation of who social actors are, the qualitative analysis of the study can be taken into account as a proof that female characters define themselves based on who they are related to, and 'how'. Even outnumbering male over female characters cannot take away this fact. Double as the number of males is, they are still almost the same frequency for both genders when considering their **relational identity**.

One subcategory of identification is **classification** which is not statistically significant, as can be seen in table 15, (X^2=1.6 p<0.05). Both males and females are classified but not to a degree which can make a significant difference.

Although **physical identification** is not thought to be significant in what chi-square results show, (X^2=0.66, P<0.05), the number of female frequency is two times bigger than male frequency. Considering the large number of males compared to females, qualitative analysis of this data is what is referred to by Renner (1997). Women are still tall and beautiful.

Social actors can also be referred to by being related to other social actors which are formed in relation to a special activity and are not labeled to be a group in any parts of the book. The frequency of how female or male characters are joined with other social actors can give a way to investigate how they tend to identify themselves as groups.

TABLE 4.17:
ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL ACTORS IN THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES IN PERCENTAGE

	Association
Male/Male	%66.66
Male/ Female	%25
Female/male	%4.17
Female/female	%4.17

The results are also expressive of the different pattern in female and male association. Men define themselves as a group more with men than with women. Male characters go to the movies and coffee shops, go on trips, and are at the parties together. This is while the association between a male and a female is presented as husband and wife, or in family context, or at least activate a family context, and men are named first.

This can be due to what is called "gender blindness" as referred to by Ullah and Skelton (2013). The association pattern based on firstness can be presented as below:

TABLE 4.19:
FIRSTNESS PATTERN OF ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL ACTORS IN THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES IN PERCENTAGE

ASSOCIATION	FEMALE	MALE
Male/female	%8.33	%91.67

For the importance of firstness in gender studies, this pattern will be presented as well in the following sections considering characters of the dialogues.

D. The Analysis of Other Patterns in the Dialogues

The speakers of the dialogues are investigated deeply and the results that are shown below can be expressive of the biased pattern observed in them. The results are presented below.

TABLE 4.22:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS OF SPEAKERS IN THE DIALOGUES OF THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES

	female	male	X^2	Asymp. Sig
Characters (speakers)	66	151	32.29	0.0001

The significant difference (X^2=32.2 p< 0.05) is interpreted as the biased pattern observed in the textbooks. Females are presented much less than males, and this could be interpreted as the power exercised against one gender. From the large number of males in the dialogues, it can be expected that most dialogues are between males, and as shown in the table below, the difference is significant (X^2=54.44, p<0.05):

TABLE 4.25:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS OF GENDER PATTERN OF DIALOGUES IN THE ILI ENGLISH SERIES

	Male/male	male/female	female/male	female/female	X2	Asymp. Sig.
Gender pattern	60	13	16	19	54.44	0.0001

Large number of dialogues happens between two males, and the topics are related to entertainment, socializing, jobs, trip and travel, college, and everyday life. The dialogues between a male and a female concern everyday life, as well as domestic issues relating to family, such as 'a household emergency' or 'priorities in life'. This is while the dialogues happening between two females are much less occurring than the others, and are related to health, sport, and finding things.

The power exercised can also be studied in mixed-gender dialogues. It can be considered as a sign of being more assertive, in starting the conversation, and being more effective in the process of conversation to put it to an end. The results are shown below:

TABLE 4.28:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS OF INITIATORS IN MIXED-GENDER DIALOGUES

Mixed-gender dialogues	female	male	X^2	Asymp. Sig.
initiator	16	13	0.310	0.577
terminator	11	18	1.690	0.194

As the chi-square results in table 2.27 indicate, the difference is not significant in neither of the categories. No power is depicted in conversational patterns to refer to any gender as more assertive or determining.

V. CONCLUSION

Though people have always searched for an equal right in the society, there are still millions of ways through which they stick to what society assigns to them and 'defines' for them in a social context. People are social beings who need to exist individually, and this 'existence' is integrated with other social aspects. 'Who they are' and 'who they think they are' can deeply affect 'what they reach' in the future. What can pave the way to educate next generation as 'globalization-friendly' members of societies is education, and it has long been studied to eliminate what may cause males to be so responsible that they may suffer from the burden. The blue world which is created for males stands against the pink world of females who do not find themselves in the society. They are there not to make changes, but to care for others, create comfort for them to make the future.

The research questions are answered based on the analysis of three linguistic features: deletion, role allocation and substitution. The chi-square results of these three features, with the relating categories and sub-categories which were applied in this study, were used to demonstrate if the differences in presentation of male and female social actors are significant. The results suggest that gender-bias is still there in the ILI English Series. There seems to be an 'unconscious attempt' to give females more chance to be seen, which has not been successful. Males do and receive actions, and the world depicted in the books is the world with males for males, though, quite ironically no gender receives

the benefits. Male characters are formally and informally ever-present, active, and dominant, so that the world seems to be empty without them.

In conclusion, the ILI English Series has tried hard to define female characters in new social context, by assigning them new responsibilities, but still fails to show independent successful characters who don't need to prove they are as successful and as essential as the other gender. The present study supports the fact that material designers are consciously or unconsciously biased, and the representation of female and male social actors do not reflect the real world's needs and standards.

These findings also depict the importance and value of improving the quality of critical thinking among material designers, teachers, and teachers to provide everyone with the opportunity to enjoy a gender-neutral textbook.

This study suggests further research through which reading passages and exercises of the ILI textbooks can be investigated critically. The whole textbook can have the better chance of being uncovered. Van Leeuwen's framework (1996, 2008) can also be used to investigate the textbooks at schools. As both the school EFL textbooks and the ILI English Series are prepared under the supervision of the same ministry, Ministry of Education, they can be compared in a study to see if the age of the learners affect the ideology presented or not.

Perhaps when Shakespeare wrote the drama "The Tempest" in which the world is called brave and new "that has such people in it", and when Aldous Huxley wrote "Brave New World", they were referring to people who are to change what has been called 'normal' for ages.

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Mentoring as a Supportive Way for Novice Teachers in Foreign Language Teacher Development: A Case Study in an Ethnic College in China[*]

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Abstract—**Mentoring has been explored from various perspectives under different theoretical frameworks. The situation-based mentoring brings a lot of possibilities and sustainabilities to the student teachers. Given the overview on the literature of mentoring, it can be found that the research about mentoring mainly is concerned with English-speaking countries such as US and UK and populates in general teacher education. The research in subject-specific field receives scant attention, such as in Foreign Language Teacher Development (hereafter, FLTD). Finding few reports from China, especially about the novices in ethnical colleges, the empirical study running through one year from in an ethnic college shows that mentoring is a supportive way in FLTD for supporting novices. Under the framework of sociocultural theory, we found that, in addition to improving of teaching skills, mentoring can (1) lessen novices' stress and 'reality shock' in teaching and strengthen the sense of belongings; (2) facilitate novice teachers' reflection ability and (3) foster novice teachers' self-efficacy in teaching.**

Index Terms—**mentoring, a supportive way, FLTD in an ethnic college of China**

I. INTRODUCTION

Originating from the Holmer's *Odyssey*, mentoring has its more than 3000 year's history. In the ancient epic, mentors played dyadic roles as '*matriarchal*' and '*patriarchal*' ways. The former entails the relationship based on personal, emotional support; the latter denotes that the mentors guide, instruct, and impart knowledge for novices (Orland-Barak, 2014). With the development of modern society, the contents of mentoring in ancient guild have been widened, varying from transmitting some skills and techniques in work to facilitate the competence of individual career development (Guo, 2009).Current concept of mentoring in education stresses the on-going relationship between mentors and mentees in a particular context, it entails the '*teacher as teacher educator*' into field setting (Orland, 2001). Mentors play multi-roles in promoting the mentees' personal and professional development, they are regarded as *models, acculturators, supporters, sponsors* and *educators* (Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999). With the further research about mentoring and the support of developmental, learning and social theories (Dominguez and Hager, 2013), mentoring has been explored more deeply and widely. The present literature mainly discusses the following aspects: mentoring can supply the help for novice teachers' cognitive and emotional support in their career lives; different kinds of relationship between mentors and mentees create different opportunities for the learning of mentees(Wang, 2001); mentoring activities are influenced by various situation and function in distinguished way(ibid); some other premises such as the training of mentors, critical reflection about the relationship in mentoring had been also explored (Orland, 2001; Wang & Odell,2007). Most research about mentoring appeared in English-speaking countries with matured-supporting systems and national support, although mentoring has been practiced in many other nations. Comparatively, the mentoring in China receives little research especially in FLTD in colleges. We assume that in certain context, mentoring exerts different functions and the process of operation will not be the same as others because of various cultural situations.

II. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The English teaching in China, the practice of mentoring begins to be focused on with the requirements of National English Curriculum Standard (NECS, 2001, 2011)[1] in primary and middle school. Accommodating to this program, the mentoring activities are mainly manipulated in 'one-to-many' form. The experts give lectures to the teachers around China and introduce the main ideas of NECS and the teaching techniques, then; the innovation is carried out gradually

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[*] There are about 20 ethnic colleges or universities in ethnic accumulating areas in China. Most of them are located in the western China.
[1] The National New Curriculum Standards were carried out from 2001, revised in 2011.

in various administrative mode. From the national level, the Ministry of Education (2010) initiated the "primary and secondary school teachers training projects" (also called "National Training Projects") for the teachers from the middle-western China (the remote& ethnic area), in order to improve the quality of teachers from rural areas. With the operation of this plan, many experienced teachers are trained as mentors in the "Modeling Training", after that, these trained mentors perform the district or school-based training for more others; the purpose is to guide the development of more teachers including novice teachers, thousands of teachers benefit from the "National Training Projects". It is estimated that about 3,000,000 teachers from rural areas benefitting from the projects (2010-2013, the data from the webpage of the Ministry of Education).

Comparatively, the teachers in colleges get few opportunities to development themselves, especially during the novice teachers. According to the document from Chinese Education of Ministry (2012), the novice teachers in college should undertake one-year internship; various types of guidance for novices including mentoring are encouraged in favor of the professional development of new teachers. At present, for the foreign language teachers, there are three main kinds of development programs for them in China by *academic institutions* (complementing by many teachers' colleges) of higher learning offering teacher certifications, *non-governmental sectors*(supporting by some key publishers) and *some official effort support* (Zhou,2011). Since 2000s, Chinese government made a lot of efforts in creating the chances of the career development for foreign language teachers in colleges, such as the Visiting Scholar Program abroad and at home, exchanging learning etc.. In 2008, the Bureau of Higher Education started its involvement with the ELT teacher development (ibid). According to the guidance advices of Chinese government, all the novice teachers should accept the pre-service training , the excellent teachers' mentoring, team-working mechanisms are encouraged to help the novice teachers; Colleges and Universities should establish a sound teaching organization to improve new teachers to be involved in teaching teamwork, innovate team-working system; perfect and enhance mentoring new teachers in their teaching philosophy, methods, skills, and career planning; bring together the mentoring mechanism into fully play in leading role model (Ministry of Education, 2012). But although so much devotion to foreign language teachers' development, the problems we are facing today are still in great discrepancies between supply and demand of teachers including their perceived needs and actual needs, reported belief and classroom behavior, pedagogical content knowledge and pedagogical content competence(Zhou, 2011). In practice, the pre-service training for novice teachers from national requirements mainly includes general pedagogical knowledge and regulations, few concerning the subject-specific teaching knowledge. Another factor is that many novices without teaching experience during their college life. When many student teachers move to work in colleges, being short of knowledge for understanding students and teaching context, most of novice teachers are always pressed emotionally and professionally. The*" reality shock"* (Corley, 1998) or *"wash-out effect"* (Smyth, 1995) and *loneliness* are always lingering in new teachers' early professional lives. The *'reality shock'* refers to the helplessness, sometimes collision in teaching because lack of knowledge, ability and inexperienced practice; the *'wash-out effect'* mainly comes from the non-adaptation to the present context (Song, 2012). We should look for practice-based and context-based enter-close for those novices in terms of supporting their professional development. For the new teachers, there are more complexities and uncertainties for the novice teachers come to teach in ethnic colleges due to the diverse teaching context and reality. We try to explore how mentoring supports novice teachers development and to which extent to facilitate their career in the particular context.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The whole study is carried out under the framework of sociocultural theory. The sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986) mainly includes the origin and development of person's psychological mechanism, the internalization, activity theory and the tool of artifacts. The main viewpoint of sociocultural theory is to explain and help to enhance the learner's psychological development from low to high level historically. During the process, the mediation of education and context play important role, education should activate all the aspects of students, teachers and context. While the all active factors are functional, the learning will be stimulated out. The teachers as learners of teaching from sociocultural perspective, we should "recognize the inherent interconnectedness of cognitive and social, and allow us to see the rich details of how teachers' learning emerges out of and is constructed by teachers within the settings and circumstances of their work"(Johnson, 2009,p.3). Because the sociocultural theory tries to provide "comprehensive examination of the quality and character of the meditational means designed to support teacher professional development and the subsequent tracing of that development" (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p.21). The research focuses the contextual factors and strives for the strategic mediation or an appropriate way of internalizing concepts through interactions with expert teachers and colleagues. Personal development often obeys the hierarchical layers by interaction→internalization→knowledge→development. In language teacher education field, the sociocultural theory can be used in cognitive mentoring in the multi-directional system, mentoring is essentially mediating the teachers' learning during the novices.

IV. THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Comparing with the FLTD in other colleges or universities, the FLTD in ethnic colleges is underdeveloped owing to

fewer chances for novices; the different ethnic backgrounds of novice teachers is another vital factor in influencing their development. The discrepancies between supply and demand of teachers are the key problem, and meanwhile, its strong context-specific feature is obvious. Searching for the local and suitable way for improving the new teachers' professional ability, we are operating the mentoring by its diverse performing mechanism. It assumes that the application of mentoring in the particular situation has its characteristics owing to the distinctive experiences of teachers, the requirement of students and the teaching. Under the sociocultural theory, this paper will explore the mentoring performances in an ethnic college from western China, where situation-based mentoring is adopted. Which will answer the two questions: Is mentoring helpful for FLTD in ethnic college? If at all, to which extent, mentoring helps the novices; whether mentoring can help to enhance novices' reflection ability and self-efficacy in teaching in addition to acquiring some skills in teaching.

A.   Research Site

Most of ethnic[2] colleges are located in the ethnic accumulating areas in China. The ethnic college in this study lies in south of Guizhou province (two typical ethnics are Buyi and Miao) in the western China, in which more than 65% students (all of them speak Mandarin in their daily life but ethnic language at home) are ethnics from different parts of China; the teachers in this college include both ethnics and non- ethnics with distinct backgrounds. The college is full of strong ethnical culture and students often are encouraged to show and perform their own different ethnical activities on campus. The ethnic colleges in China hold the important position in protecting and inheriting the colorful ethnical culture. With the limitations of situation, the students in ethnic colleges usually have some difficulties in English learning, at the same time the teachers also meet more challenges in their teaching because of the certain context, their development should be focused.

B.   Participants

There are mainly ten participants (in fact more) in this case study including the author of this research. Five are novice teachers (mentees) with MA degree, who began to take up English teaching in the ethnic college from September 2013; the rest are experienced teachers (corresponding mentors) in the college, who have at least ten years teaching experience. During the first year's mentoring, all the mentees have been burdening the same work as those experienced teachers and taught their own classes by themselves. Although the five novice teachers have diverse ethnics, teaching practice or experience before their teaching in this college, this is their first year in teaching in ethnic college, we regard them as novice teachers in this study. See table1. (N1=novice 1, M1= corresponding mentor1, and so on.)

TABLE-1
THE BACKGROUND OF NOVICE TEACHERS

order	ethnic	experience
N1	Han	three years English teaching in train institution
N2	Han	one year English teaching in middle school
N3	Han	no experience in English teaching
N4	Miao	seven years in middle school
N5	Buyi	two years in primary and middle school respectively

TABLE-2
THE BACKGROUND OF MENTORS

order	ethnic	experience
M1	Buyi	20 years English teaching in the ethnic college
M2	Shui	10 years English teaching in the ethnic college
M3	Han	26 years English teaching in the ethnic college
M4	Buyi	30 years English teaching in the ethnic college
M5	Han	12 years English teaching in the ethnic college

C.   Procedures

The whole process of operation mentoring in this case benefits the two important factors: one is the support from administrative departments in the college in supplying the possible time, fund and condition; the other is the multi-models are used, such as *one-to-one, one-to-many, many-to-one and whole-to-one* forms (But one mentor assigned to a corresponding novice teacher during the whole mentoring) in carrying out the program in order to help the student teachers to improve their development in the particular teaching context. At the beginning of mentoring, all the requirements are illuminated; the mentors and mentees signed the mentoring contract. The contents of mentoring are regulated periodically in detail, all the participants including many other experienced teachers are activated in complementing the whole task. The holistic purpose of the mentoring is to help novice teachers in their personal and professional development in the Ethnic College, to be involved in foreign language teaching smoothly in their first year. All the concerned activities and corresponding tasks are showed in Table-2:

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[2] There are 56 ethnics in China, Buyi and Miao are two of them. Han doesn't belong to minority because of its majority in China.

TABLE-3
THE PARTICIPANTS (AS MENTORS) AND ARRANGEMENTS IN THE MENTORING

Participants	Activities involved	Mentoring type
Administrative department	1. formulate the contract for mentors and novice 2. introduce the college context and regulations 3.guide novices to visit and appreciate the minority cultural exhibition to get some sense about minorities 4. supply time, fund and energy support	Whole-to-one Whole-to-many
All the experienced teachers & Learning community	1. give the chance for novices to participate all the learning activities in the community with corresponding mentor 2. give the chance for novices to observe their class teaching 3. give the opportunity for novices to visit student's activities after class.	Many-to- one One-to-many Many-to-many
The corresponding mentor	1. attend the novice's class no less than 6 times during mentoring 2. novice required to attend the mentor's class no less than10 times 3. accept the interview and visit of corresponding novice 4. check & accomplish all the requirements in contract	One-to-one

The mentoring in this research runs one year with the support from the administrative department to the situation-based practice. First, we assume that the novices in Ethnic College should be used to their working context, especially the vivid ethnic culture, they are given chances to visit and appreciate the exhibition for minority culture, and sometimes they would be given the chance to enjoy the colorful festivals in ethnical area. At the same time the novices should understand the students' needs and condition in learning English. For those English teachers, especially non-ethnic ones, they should have the high awareness for the working context in order to organize their teaching in class. Of course, the delivery of enough time, fund support for the mentoring, the contract for the mentors and novices from the administrative department can regulate the whole program.

Second, to keep the effective mentoring, the novice teachers' professional development should experience from mentoring to learning community (Huan, 2012). The new teacher's autonomy can not be ignored and their development should be constructed in learning community. We emphasize the importance of community of practice (Wenger, 1998). With the corresponding individual mentor, all the novices get the chance to attend the classes of those generous experienced teachers, to experience different classroom teaching. Meanwhile, to close the distance from colleagues and students, the novices will be invited to manage the students' activities after class.

Third, during the operation of mentoring, the corresponding mentors play a vital role not only in charge of the novice's teaching but also their cognitive and emotional needs. They should help the novice teachers learn how to improve his knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing and seeing (Kumaravadivelu, 2012)in teaching, because teaching English in the Ethnic College also entails its particularity, possibility and practicability (ibid). In this research, we mainly try to observe whether the mentoring can enhance the novice's reflection ability and their self-efficacy in teaching, the rest are not concerned.

V. METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

The main qualitative approaches and small-scale quantitative one are used in this study, including structured and semi-structured interview with the novice teachers during pre&post-mentoring, the interview with the mentors is also included; the journal writing, self-report of new teachers will be investigated including their records for visiting those experienced teachers and their own reflective diaries in teaching. The small-scale questionnaire as an auxiliary means is also used to explore the general condition about new teachers. The ethnographic research goes through the whole study, because we strive to describe and interpret the shared and learned patterns of values, behaviors and beliefs of the new English teachers in the Ethnic College. As a process and outcome of research (Agar, 1980), ethnography is an approach of investigating a culture-sharing group (Harris, 1968) and final, written product of the group. The researcher in the study, as one of corresponding mentors is involved with the investigation by '*participant observation*' and in the day-to-day lives of all the participants, interviewing the group participant (Creswell, 2013). As a researcher, the author plays dual roles of "intervening and investigating …of improving and understanding" (Adler et al., 2005) to get more authentic and primitive information for this study. The purpose of this research tries to illustrate, under the specific context, whether mentoring can facilitate the professional development for the English teacher. The data cover the interviews with all the mentors and mentees formally and informally.

The data collection should be congruent to the research questions and the choice of research approach. Because the qualitative study and 'grounded' theory is adopted in the present study, we try to investigate the novice language teachers in the Ethnic College and identify the variables, which influence their professional development. All the variables can not be measured easily and there is no predetermined information from the literature in other study. What we can do is to hear their voice, have them collaborate with us in *flexible style* (Creswell, 2013) during the data collection, the deep observation and interview with the related group; the other important factor –context or settings in which participants in the research will be addressed as a key issue, because we can not separate what the people say from where they say it. So the following data are concerned in this study: a). the regulations and requirements for the

mentoring from administrative department; b). the novice teachers' observation journal writings in attending experienced teachers including their own corresponding mentor's; c). the interview of novice teachers and all mentors; d). the new teachers' self report; e). the evaluation from mentors; f). the records in two sessions during the mentoring; g. a small scale questionnaire. The research tries to uncover the reality of new language teachers' development and their changes under the guidance of mentoring in the Ethnic College, exploring most suitable 'scaffolding' for the novice teachers.

VI. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Focusing on the supposed questions, the data from interviewing with novices and mentors, meanwhile, the records of novices in interacting with other experienced teachers, the mentees' journal writings of observing class and students' activities are also concerned. We code all information focusing on three themes as follows:

A.   The Strong Sense of Belonging

The novices are always suffered with the stress from occupational and emotional exhaustion (Klusmann, Kunter, Voss, & Baumert, 2012;Tynjälä & Heikkinen, 2011). They meet a lot of challenges and tensions from the working context, which is the reason why there is high attrition from the job (Ingersoll, 2001; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). We assume that the emotional support should be critical for the novices, especially for non-ethnics. 'Matriarchal' function in mentoring should be focused. For the N3 (whose ethnic is Han) comes from the northeastern China, she hardly has any experience and practice in teaching English. M3's mentoring for her often conveys not only in class but also after class with both formal and informal way, the excerpt from the interaction between N3 and M3:

Living alone in another place, met a good sister and her friends, enthusiastically accepted me, as if many years of knowing each other like old friends, so I gradually eliminate loneliness, slowly adapt to this strange and familiar working context. I am lucky enough, it is my own personal experience. [N3's message to M3]

Interviewing with the M3, the experienced teacher said, N3 is the only child in her family (China has been carried out one-child family plan for 30 years); N3 almost has no any social experience, let alone the knowledge about ethnical culture. She is far away her hometown and the loneliness is coming into her lives. On many weekends, M3 often invites N3 to go outing, to be guest at her own house, to communicate with other friends, to take part in some activities etc.. M3 tries to give the chance for N3 to attend some learning conferences.

Another excerpt about N4 (whose' ethic is Miao), who has taught English in middle school for seven years but shows strong anxiety in teaching ethnic college students. In her self-report, she said:

Although I have been teaching English for 7 years, I am still scared at the beginning of my teaching in this college when I find many students in my class are always silent. In fact, I am really a new-coming old teacher. [From the self-report of N4]

N4 shows one of her journal writings as follows:

Today, I attend the class Mr. Yang's   (her corresponding mentor)class about Pedagogic theories in English teaching, I learn a lot: a). he can connect the practice in explaining the theory, the whole atmosphere in classroom is active; b). he encourages students to speak out their viewpoints and directs the hot discussions. [November 5th, 2013]

M4 gave a lot to help N4 to recognize the teaching requirements, the needs analysis of student, the features of different courses etc… M4 told N4 the following is critical:

Due to the change of teaching environment and teaching object, new teachers should adjust their teaching strategy according to the needs of students. Especially now, with the help of technological development and media resources we should strengthen students' autonomous learning consciousness, we should believe the students have the ability to learn by themselves with the help of teacher. It is not necessary to control everything for students, they are adults now. [From the interview with M4]

Owning to the different backgrounds for the novices, the mentors strive to solve the critical problem for the newcomers in hope of conforming to the new context. Although N4 is ethnic member, she knows something about the present situation of learning English but with the 'fossilized' teaching strategies used in middle school, trying to explain and interpret every point for the students is not appropriate for the needs of college students in ethnical area. In fact the adult students in ethnic college have the possibility and ability to learn and to find the solution by themselves, so giving encourage and help for them to learn automatically is vital. One year later, M4 said: "N4 has come to change a lot in her teaching strategies, in N4's class, the students get much more opportunities to learn automatically".

According to the sociocultural theory, the cognitive development can be realized with the mediating of mentoring. M1 (the author of this study) tried to supply enough opportunities for N1,such as suggesting N1 to attend more experienced teachers' class, encouraging N1 to hold the open class for the learning group, guiding N1 to manage the students' activities. N1 gives the feedback of mentoring in her interview:

Well, I think "mentoring", this way is very good, let's quickly have a sense of belonging in the heart, under the guidance of all the experienced teachers, quickly into the community, and really get the teacher's guidance, for me, without any experience in colleges and universities, by listening to lectures, participating in all kinds of students' activities. I understand more about them, which is very important for my teaching. [From the expert of interview with N1]

The excerpts come from the novices and their corresponding mentors. We found that not only ethnic but non-ethnic novice teachers, when they take up teaching English in the Ethnic College, they have serious psychological pressure in their beginning professional lives with diverse aspects because of different backgrounds. For the non-ethnics, they are in a particular situation in urgency of emotional support and care from colleagues and avoiding the anxiety of the strange cultural context, adjusting to the ethnic context comes first for them. The mentors' role as acculturator is preliminary. For ethnic new-comers, they need the support of models of educator, because they find that their inexperienced teaching practice in college is the utmost obstacle in their teaching, how to integrate their prior knowledge and present activities in classroom teaching is most important for them. From the novice teachers' voices, after the mentoring, most of them felt the strong sense of belongings and well-being in certain community of practice with the supporting of mentors.

B. The Reflection Ability

Reflection in education generally can be traced to Dewey's (1938) idea of learning in the book *How we think: a re-statement of relation of reflective thinking to the educational process* and to Schon (1983, 1987, 1991). Deway gives the definition of reflection as "*the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of grounds that support it*". Dewey's idea has strong Cartesian basis obviously, the knowing about self or self-knowledge is the important part for the individual development (Akbari, 2007). Comparatively, Schon pays much attention to the practical aspects about reflection. *'Reflection-in-action'* and *'reflection-on- action'* are necessary in the practice by the cycling ways. Kemmis (1986) gives the summary about reflection:

Reflection is not just an individual, psychological process. It is an action- oriented, historically-embedded, social and political frame, to locate oneself in the history of a situation, to participate in a social activity, and to take side on issues.

Kemmis' words about reflection display that the efficient reflection needs the participation in activities, collaboration in practice of community and reconstruction of self in trinity forms. In practice, teachers should not only do 'reflection-in-action', 'reflection-on-action' but also *reflection-for-action* in cycling and repetitive way, because teaching activities are in constantly changeable. Of course, the widespread of teacher's reflection benefits from the disappearance of method giving the possibility and bringing the sense of practice and realism of teaching (Akbari, 2010); under the sociocultrual theoretical framework, the development of novice teachers' cognitive level needs the 'scaffolding' from the mentors or other experienced teachers, the mentoring is to give the mediation for the reflection of the new teachers. To elicit the effective reflection, the factor of context should be concerned. The data analysis from a small-scale questionnaire, novice teachers' journal writing, the record of observation, the interview and the questionnaire can supply the awareness and contents of reflection of novices. We strive to explore the novice teachers' reflective components and aspects comprehensively.

1. The findings from a small-scale questionnaire

It is believed that teachers' reflection is the key point in introspecting and improving professional ability. We still want to assume whether their reflections are effective. Borrowing from Akbari's (2010) *Evaluation Model Inventory* for effective reflection, we did a small-scale questionnaire investigation (29 items in the question list as Akbari's with a little modification) for all the novice teachers in the study. Our purpose is to uncover the new teachers' reflective changing situation during their first -year teaching under the help of mentoring. The questionnaire includes all the six aspects, which Akbari (2010) developed and validated with EFA (exploratory data analysis), CFA (confirmatory data analysis) and the Model Evaluation estimates (Cronbach α=0.7). The six components model of second language teacher reflection encompasses *practical, cognitive, affective meta-cognitive, critical and moral* aspects. All the items in the questionnaire are evaluated by a Likert Scale of five values which range from the option of 'never' (1), to the option of 'always' (5). The level of reflection is divided into three levels: *high, middle* and *low*, with one to two points being regarded as *low* reflection, three to four as *middle,* and four to five as *high*; the data are processed with SSPS 19. The novice language teachers in the Ethnic College show different level of reflection because of diverse background and personal characters. But the data shows that all of the new teachers display positive awareness and behaviors in performing reflective teaching. Table-4 gives the general level of all the novice teachers' reflection condition.

TABLE-4
DESCRIPTION OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF ALL NOVICE TEACHERS' REFLECTION

Novice	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
N1	1.00	5.00	2.90	.939
N2	1.00	5.00	3.38	.903
N3	2.00	4.00	2.76	.739
N4	2.00	5.00	3.66	.814
N5	2.00	5.00	3.76	.872

The mean value for novice teachers' overall reflection situation is between two to three points, which belongs to the *middle* level, the highest value (Mean =3.76) is at an upper-middle level. N4 and N5 show strong sense of reflection, perhaps this is related to their prior experience in middle school. We omit the individual reflective level analysis in individual component because of limited space for this paper. The novice teachers show comparatively concerning about the practical and affective aspects, cognitive and critical reflections also get more foci.

2. The findings from the qualitative analysis

According to the requirements of the mentoring operation, the novices are claimed to record their knowing, thinking and doing periodically. After collecting and sorting out all the hand-in materials, we get some typical information about new teachers' reflection. In N1's self-report about the mentoring, she says:

During the mentoring, I used three words to express my recognition about teaching: *listening, activating* and *searching*. Listening tells me that I should listen to the needs of students, adopting the suggestion from my mentor, then adapting my teaching method in teaching; activating gives me the information that each class has its particularity, I should find it and activate all kinds of active factors to elevate my teaching; searching shows me that I should learn how to development in on-going way depending on the internal and external support, which has no end. [N1's reflective journal]

With three simplified words, N1 shows her active reflection in her teaching during the mentoring. Not only does she reflect teaching techniques but also the way for developing herself in teaching. To observe N1's class, the author realizes N1 can utilize different methods in organizing the teaching activities. On the 20th of May, 2014, M1 encourages N1 to give an open class teaching for all the new teachers. When teaching the unit about *Chinese Festival*, she tries to relate this topic to some ethnic festivals. Many students of Miao and Buyi become active in the class while talking the Eight of April calendar (Miao and Buyi's festival)! Because they are willing to speak out the important day, which they are enjoying, after all, they have one day off (in this ethnical area, the festival is one-day holiday for all people)! In the class, the ethnic students gave the explanations of its original history (commemorating for the OX, which gives a hand to the farmers during the spring farming), the typical activity (bullfighting) and food (enjoying colorful glutinous rice) etc.. The teaching is wonderful that day. This open class shows that N1 can integrate students' background knowledge into her teaching, which creates the opportunities of interaction in classroom. Another passage from N2, she gives different perspective in her reflection:

After observing other experienced teachers' classes including my mentor's, I learn a lot about how to communicate with students. I suddenly I realize how to stimulate my students even though they have difficulty in learning English. Organizing diverse activities for my students majoring in art, they should learn English happily. [The N2's speech on the middle-session of mentoring]

N2's teaching for the student majoring in art. At the beginning of her class, she told us how exhausted because most of students are chatting, eating, playing mobile phone without any attention to her teaching. N2 decides to know them about their wants and needs. She found the poor basic knowledge and the boring class atmosphere are the key reasons. How to stimulate the motivation in class should come first, N2 tells how to organize the topic of *My Dream*

At beginning, I did some warm-up from the Chinese dream (the hot topic in China recently) and then asked "how about yours?" Most of students said "our dream is to cancel the English courses, then we can have a good dream!" at this moment, one student sang a song about the dream. I encourage him to sing in English, it is unbelievable that he did it well. In fact, I found that all the students are so active; they need the stimulation in learning English from the heart. In my subsequent class, trying to respect the advantages of students and did a lot of adjustments, that is wonderful class!

(Interview with N2 informally)

It is evident that N2 reflects her teaching techniques and the modes of interactive activities with students in class in practical and affective aspects, because in N2' class, how to stimulate students' motivation and interest comes first. N3, an introverted newcomer without any experience in teaching, she reports:

With the guidance of my mentor, especially attending many experienced teachers' class, I come to know I should give the chance to my students. I have the deep impression on the videotapes from the modeling teaching in the activities of learning group, both the teachers and the students interact effectively, the atmosphere is so exciting! [From N3's self-report after participating the activities in learning group]

N5 is a novice teacher with two-year teaching experience in middle school, she shows her reflection on her teaching after attending the activities of learning group, and she gives her opinion like this:

Our students are so nice in fact, perhaps their poor basic knowledge and skill in English learning challenge for them. What we do is to set their confidence, build on their belief and improve their cognitive level for language learning.

N5 reflects the affective aspects of students. She believes that the effective learning is influenced by their motivation and belief.

By far, the excerpts show that the novices can reflect their teaching actively with the help of their mentors. They do not intimate their mentor without thinking completely. On the contrary, they can benefit from their observation, experience and investigation, try to adjust their teaching methods to be congruent to the needs of students with the guidance of their mentors, reflect their teaching in practical, cognitive, affective, meta-cognitive, critical and moral aspects in diverse degree.

C.   Teaching Efficacy

Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) is defined as *"people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances"*. It is a kind of expectation concerning individual abilities for future action in particular context. Being used in the teaching domain, self-efficacy depicts teacher's belief about their own capabilities to teaching in face of difficulties (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The present relative research of teacher efficacy associated with teachers' belief (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990), job satisfaction (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003), and burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007) etc.. For the development of teacher

efficacy of novices, Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) delivered that the change of new teachers' self-efficacy appears in wavy way: increasing first declining subsequently. They assumed that mentoring programs may provide the possibility for developing teachers' efficacy during novices; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) found that the positive or negative support of experienced teachers and the colleagues often produce distinct effect on the change of teachers' efficacy. Richter, Kunter and al (2013) reported that the quality and frequency of mentoring influence on the teachers' professional competence, and the constructivist mentoring improves teacher efficacy, enthusiasm and job satisfaction. This research tries to find the change of teachers' efficacy in the mentoring in specific context.

To know the level of self-efficacy about novice teachers in this study, first of all, we refer to Ho and Hau (2004) and Chacón (2005)'s five distinct dimensions of teacher efficacy including *external, instruction, discipline, engagement and guidance efficacy*, giving a quantitative research about the overall self-efficacy of the novice teachers in the present research. A questionnaire with 19 items concerning the upper five components, being evaluated by a Likert Scale of six values which range from the option of 'never' (1), to the option of 'always' (6), the data are processed with SSPS19. The level of self-efficacy is divided into three levels: *high, middle* and *low*, with one to three points being regarded as *low*, three to five as *middle*, and five to six as *high*. We get the result as follows:

TABLE-5
DESCRIPTION OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF ALL NOVICE TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY

Novice	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
N1	3.00	6.00	4.89	.809
N2	3.00	5.00	4.37	.684
N3	2.00	5.00	3.42	.692
N4	3.00	6.00	4.84	.898
N5	4.00	6.00	5.05	.621

Table-5 shows that most of the new teachers' self-efficacy reaches the middle high level. The reason of N3 with lowest level (Mean=3.42) maybe originates from her inexperienced teaching practice and little knowledge about the ethnic culture, which brings some negative influence on her confidence.

From the qualitative perspective, this study depends on the self-report from the mentees and mentors including their journal writing and interview. Our viewpoint is the psychological sense of self-efficacy can be verbalized. In fact, sometimes, the assessment based on the test often deviates from subjective measure of competence. (Richter, Kunter and al, 2013). So the data mainly come from novices' self-report, the observation and comments from mentors. N5 in her final report for the mentoring says:

This year, I experienced from anxiety and worry to quiet and comfort. Remembering the first three month, I began to doubt about me because of a lot of difficulties from teaching, communicating with students and colleagues. Benefiting from the mentoring, I got many opportunities to experience in teaching. The end of this year, one of my students got the third prize in the speech competition, many others are willing to contact with me, l become more confident that before…. [From N5's self report]

M5 gives the comments on N5:

Comparing with the beginning, I found she really changes a lot. My observation to her class, I am surprised to find her class full of miracle! Her classroom become artful, the students are doing the activities actively. She has very effective classroom management skills and helps her students' value learning English.[from M5's comments on N5]

For N5, she has more confidence and ability to deal with the difficulties in classroom. M5's comments prove that. N5's self-efficacy increases obviously in instruction and management aspects.

Interviewing with N1 and N2, both the two novices show strong self-efficacy in guidance and engagement learning for students. During this year, for these two non-ethnic teachers, they say that this is first time to come to the ethnic area but it is unbelievable to be involved in the community so quickly and love here very much. N1 says:

In the past, I worried my lack of knowledge about ethnical culture and students will hinder my teaching. Now, everything is changed. Walking into the wonderful college culture, trying to know my dear students and learning from my mentors, the difficulties in my teaching as if have been gone so quickly!

N1 is the author's mentee. The author has the strong feeling that N1 is optimistic and confident. One day, she is willing to invite many experienced teacher to attend her open class, she wants to get more feedback from more mentors. N2 also gives her feelings like this:

Observing, trying and understanding my students and everything here, now I come to find out the solution to problem. I love my students here!

M2 gives the judgments for N2 of this year:

It seems that N2 was an experienced teacher; she can manipulate the class skillfully. Of course she is very involved and diligent in her work.

N3 is mentioned many times in this study. Maybe her introvert character and inexperience bring some obstacle to her development, she shows inconspicuous in her teaching efficacy. When observing her teaching, we found that she still displays weak ability in disciplinary management and guidance for students' learning, she says in her journal writing:

After observing Mr.Zhou's (M3) classes many times, I know I have many disadvantages to be dealt with in the future. At first, eliciting the teachers' guidance learning for students is very important part for me at this moment; it is always

so hard for me.[from N3' journal writing]

Comparatively, with many years' experience in teaching, N4 exhibit very strong confidence in her teaching. She says:

Now, how to improve my teaching, to improve students' motivation can be manipulated now. My problem is to theorize my teaching, I need to improve my security in teaching practice and try to do some teaching research. This year, with the M5's help, I am successful in applying for a project, I believe it can supply some support in my teaching [interview with N4].

The above analysis show the novice teachers' self-efficacy varies to some degree, but all in all, they improve their self-efficacy in most aspects. For the newcomers to work in Ethnic College, they are facing a lot of challenges. With the guidance of mentors and possible opportunities, the novices obtain much amelioration in their self-efficacy. We assume that the improvement of self-efficacy comes from activities participating. Once the new teachers have the chances to experience in a certain context, they will acquire the knowledge and skill to face the music. Of course, the individual active experience and the support from others are necessary.

VII. Conclusion

The study is based on the viewpoint: learning to teach is a complex social activity, which can be elicited effectively with the support of outsiders and individual active reflection in practice. The related factors in certain context should be considered, because teaching is practical experience in a particular situation. The artifacts give important influence on the learning to teach for the novices. For the novice teachers, besides the sense of belongings to a certain community of practice emotionally and cognitively, they need the active and self-reflection and self- regulation to develop their own ability in teaching by means of the external scaffolding from mentors, the improvement of sense of self-efficacy in teaching also needs the active experience and action. The research of mentoring carried in the Ethnic College in western China shows that the multi-dimensional mentoring can be effective way in improving the novice teachers' professional development in their early career against the particular background. In teacher education, any top-down training still can not satisfy the needs of teachers, especially for the teachers in ethnic areas in China. For the first year of teaching, the novices' chances for personal and professional development are important in their future lives. When they have the strong sense of belonging, the acquirement of reflect ability, self-efficacy improvement, the novices can realize their own learning automatically and easily. In this empirical study, we find that mentoring can be a supportive strategy in carrying out 'teacher as educator', at least in Ethnic College. Of course, many questions about mentoring are still unconcerned, such as the training for mentors, the strategy of mentoring and the critical analysis for mentoring of FLTD etc., so we make sure that the field of mentoring in FLTD is significant and worthy of further research in China, especially in ethnic areas. There is still few research of subject-specific mentoring and the context of language teaching in China is complicated.

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Social Capitals and English Language Learning in an Iranian Language Institute

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Abstract—This study aimed to 1) explore the social capitals of students who had registered in the three branches of Khorasan Language Institute (KLI) to learn English, 2) establish their factorial validity and 3) explore their relationship with English language achievement. To this end the 40-item Social Capital Scale (SCS) developed by Khodadady and Alaee (2012) and validated with grade three senior high school students in Mashhad was modified and administered to 493 female English language learners (ELLs) in the KLI. The application of Principal Axis Factoring and Varimax with Kaiser Normalization to the collected data showed that the SCS consisted of seven factors, i.e., Social Attachment, Parental Supervision, Parental Expectation, Helpful Others, Social Contact, Religious Activities, and Parent Availability. When the SCS was correlated with the ELLs' scores on oral and written examinations, no significant relationship could be found between social capitals and English language achievement. Out of seven factors, only Helpful Others correlated significantly but *negatively* with ELLs' English achievement. The results are discussed from both empirical and theoretical perspectives and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—social capitals, English language achievement, schema theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Social and cultural capitals have been defined differently in the literature. Coleman (1987) and De Graaf, and Kraaykamp (2000), for example, defined them the "norms, the social networks, and the relationships between adults and children that are of value for the child's growing up" (p. 36) and "widely shared high-status cultural signals (behaviors, tastes, and attitudes)", respectively. The differences found in definitions are due to the indicators upon which the definition has been formulated. Dika and Singh (2002) reviewed the literature and provided their readers with the most commonly investigated indicators of social capitals as Laureau and Weininger (2003) did with cultural capitals. Khodadady and Zabihi (2011) chose 35 indicators provided by these scholars and developed their Social and Cultural Capital Questionnaire (SCCQ) to explore their Relationship with the school achievement of Iranian university students.

Khodadady, Alaee, and Natanzi, (2011) administered the SCCQ developed by Khodadady and Zabihi, (2011) to 706 students of five public and private high school students in Mashhad, Iran, in order to explore the relationship between English language achievement and social as well as cultural capitals. They found no significant relationship between the capitals and achievement. Nor could they establish any significant relationship between the English language achievement and the ten factors underlying the SCCQ, i.e., family-school interaction,

facility consciousness, extracurricular and religious activities, parental consultation, literary and artistic appreciation, family support, family-peer relation, reading enjoyment, family encouragement, and self-confidence.

Khodadady and Alaee (2012a) decided to develop a psychological measure which addresses just social capitals. To this end, they reviewed the literature and chose forty indicators to develop their Social Capital Scale (SCS). They administered the scale to 1352 grade three senior high school (G3SHS) students, followed Khodadady and Hashemi's (2010) suggestion regarding the best method of factor analysis and subjected their collected data to Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) and rotated their extracted factors through Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (VKN). Their results showed that the SCS is a reliable measure of social capitals (α = .89) which consists of ten factors, i.e., i.e., Self Volunteering, Receptive Relatives, Maternal Supervision, Parental Monitoring, Teacher Consultation, Parental Expectation, Parental Rapport, Family Religiosity, Helpful Others, and Parent Availability.

Upon validating the SCS, Khodadady and Alaee (2012b) employed the S-Test (Khodadady & Ghergloo, 2013) developed on the textbook *English Book 3* (Birjandi, Nouroozi, & Mahmoodi, 2010) and administered it to the same G3SHS students with whom the SCS had been validated. They found that "the students with parents having secondary and higher education scored significantly higher than those with primary education. However, no significant difference could be found between the S-Test scores of the students whose parents had secondary and higher education" (p. 1811). Unfortunately, however, Khodadady and Alaee have not published their findings regarding the relationship between the social capitals and English language achievement yet.

The present study is designed to explore the factorial validity of SCS when it is administered to students with different levels of language proficiency, i.e., beginners, intermediate and advanced. It also aims to explore the relationship between social capitals and English language achievement of students who study English in three branches of Khorasan Language Institute (KLI) in Mashhad. It is hypothesized that the forty indicators constituting the social capitals measured by the SCS will load on the same factors extracted by Khodadady and Alaee (2012a). It is also postulated that there will be no significant relationship between social capitals and English language achievement.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In total, 493 female learners registered at Tollab (n = 325, 65.9%), Sanabad (n = 100, 20.3%), and Daneshjoo (n = 68, 13.8%) branches of KLI took part in the present study voluntarily. These branches are located in three areas of Mashhad in which mostly people of low, high and middle classes reside, respectively. Their self-reported average family income ranged between less than 200,000 (67 USD) to more than 800,000 tomans (267 USD) in 2013. The participants were studying English at various English language proficiency to be attained at 27 levels established by KLI on the basis of their achievement scores obtained in previous terms. (For new applicants, written placement tests and interviews are held to place them in one of the 27 levels specified.) While nine participants did not specify how old they were, the age of the remaining 484 learners ranged from 9 to 50 (M = 19.12, SD = 7.32). They spoke Persian as their first or second language.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were employed in the study: a Persian Demographic Scale and the Persian Social Capital Scale. The English language achievement scores were also obtained from the registrar's office of KLI to explore the relationship between social capitals and English language achievement.

1. Demographic Scale

The Persian Demographic Scale (DS) developed by Khodadady and Alaee (2012a) was employed in this study. It consisted of a number of open ended questions and multiple choice items dealing with variables such as participants' age, gender, family income and mother language.

2. Social Capital Scale

Social Capital Scale (SCS) developed by Khodadady and Alaee (2012a) [henceforth K&A] was employed in this study. It consists of 40 Persian social capital indicators collected from various sources as well as those reviewed by Dika and Singh (2002). Smith, Beaulieu, and Israel (1992), for example, brought up two indicators dealing with parents being at home as an indicator of social capital. It was changed into two Persian items by K&A, i.e., "MADARAM AGHLAB DAR KHANEH AST" and "PEDARAM AGHLAB DAR KHANEH AST". (The back translation of the first is "My mother is often at home"

Since the SCS was going to be administered to ELLs in the KLI, the content of some of its indicators were changed because K&A had developed them for G3SHS students. Indicator 39 in K&A's study, for example, reads, "As a whole, during my education, I have had excellent schools with high qualities." The schemata "excellent schools" were irrelevant to the participants of this study, the item was, therefore, rewritten as "Generally, I have studied in high quality institutes." These changes will be detailed more in the procedures sections shortly.) The indicators were presented as the stem of a multiple choice item with six alternatives, i.e., never, seldom, sometimes, often, usually and always. The values of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 were assigned to these points, respectively, to run statistical analyses.

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics as well as reliability estimates of the SCS and its ten underlying factors extracted from the responses of G3HS students in K&A's study. As can be seen, the SCS is a highly reliable scale of G3HS students' social capitals because its alpha coefficient is .89. As it can also be seen, the reliability coefficients of the factors range from.40 (factor 10) to .73 (factor four). The ten factors together explain 54.1% and 39.3% of initial and extracted variances in the Persian SCS, respectively.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF TEN FACTORS UNDERLYING THE SCS

Factors	# of item	Mean	SD	A	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
					Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6	27.67	5.598	.70	7.956	19.891	19.891	1.955	4.887	04.887
2	5	18.43	5.470	.65	2.480	6.199	26.090	1.937	4.843	09.730
3	4	17.86	4.728	.70	1.891	4.727	30.816	1.789	4.472	14.202
4	4	14.72	4.907	.73	1.755	4.389	35.205	1.772	4.431	18.633
5	4	13.31	4.397	.63	1.654	4.136	39.341	1.757	4.393	23.026
6	5	20.12	4.416	.60	1.394	3.486	42.827	1.745	4.362	27.388
7	5	21.01	5.439	.72	1.232	3.079	45.906	1.472	3.679	31.067
8	3	12.12	3.594	.66	1.156	2.890	48.796	1.383	3.458	34.525
9	3	9.13	3.686	.64	1.074	2.685	51.481	1.194	2.984	37.510
10	2	7.52	2.115	.40	1.045	2.611	54.092	.710	1.775	39.285
SCS	40	161.89	27.719	.89						

3. English Achievement Scores

The English language instructors at the KLI have to assess their learners' speaking ability on the basis of their participation in class activities and discussions and report a single oral score for each individual learner. They are also required to hold paper-and-pencil quizzes, midterm and final examinations and report their average as a single written score at the end of each academic term. These two scores are added up and averaged to get the total score upon which administrative decisions are made. The oral, written, and total scores of participants at the level at which they had registered in 2013 were obtained from the registrar's office in the institute to explore the relationship between social capitals and English language achievement.

C. Procedures

Since no theory has been employed by the developers of multiple choice item tests in general (Khodadady, 1999) and the designers of psychological measures in particular (Khodadady & Dastgahian, 2013; Khodadady & Yazdi, 2014), there is a lot of confusion as regards the determination and measurement of basic units upon which the tests and scales are developed. The microstructural approach of schema theory was, therefore, followed in this study because it provided the present researchers with a sound rationale to analyze the SCS from both linguistic and cognitive perspectives. Following Khodadady (2008a), the words used in the development of Persian SCS were treated as schemata and assigned into semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic domains. While the semantic domain of language employed in the SCS contains schemata such as adjectives and nous being many in type but few in frequency or tokens, syntactic schemata such as conjunctions are few in type but many in tokens. The schemata belonging to parasyntactic domain such as names can, however, be many in both types and tokens as semantic and syntactic schemata do but have to attach themselves to semantic schemata in order to have a specific meaning as syntactic schemata do (Khodadady, 2013).

Following Khodadady (2008b), Khodadady and Lagzian (2013) and Seif and Khodadady (2003) the microstructural approach of schema theory was also used to translate the Persian SCS into English. The application of the theory to the translation of SCS proved very fruitful because it showed that Alaee (2012) had not translated some of indicators of the scale appropriately. The Persian item three, for example, reads: PEDAR WA MADARAM MARA BEH EDAMEH TAHSIL DAR MAGHATE BALA TASHVIGH MIKONAND (p. 151). In its English version, i.e., my parents encourage me to continue my study (p. 147), no equivalents have been provided for MAGHATEH BALA. The sentence has been translated as "My parents encourage me to continue my studies at *higher levels*" to fill in the missing schemata. The same procedure has been followed for all the indicators comprising the SCS.

Upon checking the translation of the 40 sentences comprising the SCS and revising them by resorting to schema theory, they were parsed into their constituting schema tokens and their linguistic types, species, genera and domains were determined by assigning the codes used by Khodadady and Fard (2014). This procedure not only helped the present researchers describe the language of SCS statistically but also explain its cognitive structure within a hierarchical system in which schemata combine with each other to form broader concepts called species, genera and domain (Khodadady & Bagheri, 2014). (They will be addressed in the discussions sections.)

After ensuring that all the necessary changes had been made in the SCS, the instruments were copied in adequate number and the authorities of KLI were contacted. Realizing the importance of the topic, they allowed the second researcher administer the scales to the learners registered at the three branches of institute. She attended all the classes held in the branches in person and had the learners take the scales in a single session under standard conditions. Although the scales were all in Persian, she walked along the aisles while the learners were filling out the scale and explained the importance of the topic and its relevance to their learning. They were asked to read all the questions carefully and raise whatever queries they had. No questions were, however, raised regarding the content of the scales indicating that they fully grasped their meaning.

The participants were asked to hand in their completed questionnaires one by one so that the second researcher could check and ensure they had answered all the sections. After the instruments were collected, the researcher reported the case to the authorities of the institute. With their endorsement, she attended the registrar's office in person and wrote down the learners oral and written scores as they had been reported by their teachers. A specific code was assigned to each student and their names were removed from all documents to secure their anonymity. The scores were employed to explore the relationship between social capitals and English language achievement.

D. Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics of the items comprising the SCS was run to determine how well they had functioned. For the ease of presentation and discussion, the six points on the scales were reduced to three by combining missing , "never" and "seldom" to one, i.e., rarely, and combining "often", "usually" and "always" to another, i.e., usually, resulting in the three relatively distinct points of "rarely", "sometimes" and "usually". For estimating the reliability level of the SCS and its underlying factors Cronbach's alpha was employed. Based on Khodadady and Hashemi's (2010) suggestion and the fact that the loadings provided by component analysis are inflated (Gorsuch, 1997; Snook & Gorsuch, 1989) PAF method was utilized to determine what factors underlie ELLs' social capitals. The initial eigenvalues of one and higher were adopted as the only criterion to determine the number of factors. The extracted factors were then rotated via VKN to have a clear understanding of their structure. Following Tabachnick and Fidell

(2007), .32 was adopted as the minimum acceptable loading of an item and the loadings less than the minimum were removed. All analyses were conducted via the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 to test the hypotheses below.

H1. The factors extracted from the SCS in this study will be the same as those established by K&A.

H2. The SCS and its underlying factors do not correlate significantly with English achievement scores.

III. RESULTS

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of items comprising the SCS. As can be seen, the highest mean (5.21) belongs to item three, "My parents encourage me to continue my studies at higher levels", showing that 86% of parents who have registered their children in the KLI encourage them to pursue their studies at higher levels. These results emphasize the importance the Iranian families attach to their children's academic studies. The lowest mean score (1.87) was, however, obtained on item 13, "My mother follows my achievements with my English instructor during the semester". This is because 78% of mothers could *rarely* follow their children's English achievement. In K&A's study, however, item 28, "I consult with my teachers when I have a problem" had the lowest mean score (1.47), indicating that 71% of G3SHS students rarely consulted their teacher regarding their problems. Unfortunately, item 28 is ambiguous within the context of G3SHS because it is not obvious whether it refers to English language teachers or the teachers of other courses such as the Persian language and biology.

TABLE 2
PSYCHOMETRICS OF ITEMS COMPRISING THE SCS

Item	No	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Rarely %	Sometimes %	Usually %
1	487	4.25	1.49	-0.825	0.25	14	11	75
2	487	2.71	1.398	0.2	-0.167	45	29	26
3	487	5.21	1.559	-2.076	3.389	9	5	86
4	487	4.27	1.876	-0.805	-0.541	21	12	68
5	487	4.56	1.781	-1.1	0.127	15	10	75
6	487	3.98	2.026	-0.623	-0.94	26	10	64
7	487	2.18	1.642	0.988	-0.086	68	12	21
8	487	5.2	1.652	-2.164	3.568	9	4	86
9	487	5.14	1.43	-2.043	3.934	7	4	89
10	487	5.06	1.582	-1.978	3.169	8	4	87
11	487	5.18	1.547	-2.203	4.218	7	3	89
12	487	4.2	1.799	-0.943	-0.115	18	9	72
13	487	1.87	1.514	1.399	1.205	78	8	14
14	487	4.03	1.904	-0.694	-0.683	24	8	68
15	487	3.48	2.046	-0.246	-1.308	36	10	54
16	487	3.1	2.107	0.121	-1.494	48	7	45
17	487	4.18	1.612	-0.641	-0.374	17	15	68
18	487	4.68	1.456	-1.062	0.656	9	10	80
19	487	2.51	1.567	0.7	-0.284	60	16	24
20	487	3.77	1.675	-0.49	-0.401	22	19	59
21	487	3.99	1.73	-0.685	-0.279	18	17	64
22	487	4.49	1.708	-1.164	0.53	14	10	75
23	487	3.03	1.631	0.071	-0.623	39	25	36
24	487	4.2	1.778	-0.869	-0.122	18	13	70
25	487	3.7	1.926	-0.334	-1.054	30	14	56
26	487	4.39	1.655	-1.115	0.723	12	10	77
27	487	4.63	1.678	-1.374	1.173	11	8	81
28	487	2.6	1.711	0.547	-0.725	56	15	29
29	487	2.27	1.449	0.717	-0.091	62	19	19
30	487	3.01	1.694	0.189	-0.813	41	23	36
31	487	3.61	1.716	-0.317	-0.665	26	20	54
32	487	4.72	1.631	-1.66	2.289	9	5	86
33	487	4.35	1.807	-0.995	0.052	16	12	72
34	487	4.71	1.656	-1.47	1.485	10	8	81
35	487	3.63	1.971	-0.376	-1.107	31	14	55
36	487	4.83	1.794	-1.734	1.957	12	3	85
37	487	4.37	1.689	-1.056	0.428	14	11	75
38	487	4.72	1.647	-1.529	1.783	9	8	83
39	487	4.29	1.726	-0.976	0.188	15	11	74
40	487	4.5	1.685	-1.216	0.801	13	8	79

Upon scrutinizing the functioning of items comprising the SCS, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of Sampling Adequacy was employed to find out whether applying factor analysis to the data collected in this study and extracting its latent variables was appropriate. The results presented in Table 3 showed the KMO statistic obtained in this study was in the .90s, i.e., .92, considered "excellent" by Kaiser (1974 cited in DiLalla & Dollinger, 2006, p. 250). It was superior to .86 reported by K&A and thus the sample upon which it was collected was treated as adequate. The significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, i.e., $X^2 = 8820.040$, df = 780, p < .0001, indicated that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix.

TABLE 3
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

		This Study	K&A's Study
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.919	.86
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	8820.040	12964.176
	df	780	780
	Sig.	.000	.000

Table 4 presents the initial (I) and extraction (E) communalities (C) of the 40 items comprising the SCS. As can be seen, the lowest EC (.26) obtained in this study belongs to item two, "My father is often at home". The results reported by K&A show that the same item has the lowest EC (.12) for G3SHS students as well. These findings challenge MacCallum et al.'s (1999) endorsement of communalities in the magnitude of .80 and above and the order of .40 to .70 suggested by Costello and Osborne (2005) and support Khodadady and Yazdi's (2014) suggestion that communalities "should be analyzed and discussed in terms of item loadings" (p. 168). In spite of having the lowest EC, item two loads acceptably on a single factor.

TABLE 4
INITIAL (I) AND EXTRACTION COMMUNALITIES (EC) OF ITEMS COMPRISING THE SCS

Item	This Study		K&A's Study		Item	This Study		K&A's Study	
	IC	EC	IC	EC		IC	EC	IC	EC
1	.247	.391	.158	.234	21	.511	.547	.375	.434
2	.217	.255	.107	.120	22	.606	.69	.39	.678
3	.522	.607	.173	.186	23	.405	.434	.319	.383
4	.566	.589	.403	.465	24	.501	.48	.333	.467
5	.672	.737	.527	.596	25	.510	.44	.337	.427
6	.481	.493	.454	.564	26	.581	.547	.257	.308
7	.298	.278	.202	.229	27	.536	.528	.274	.341
8	.518	.508	.303	.347	28	.385	.439	.333	.414
9	.440	.442	.351	.402	29	.287	.277	.267	.351
10	.668	.790	.356	.446	30	.553	.684	.307	.460
11	.659	.709	.391	.56	31	.579	.596	.363	.469
12	.368	.384	.23	.252	32	.574	.551	.343	.365
13	.254	.271	.337	.414	33	.427	.374	.286	.365
14	.436	.431	.357	.428	34	.557	.529	.301	.360
15	.371	.380	.359	.498	35	.433	.407	.409	.489
16	.273	.256	.152	.169	36	.552	.559	.316	.362
17	.325	.423	.205	.273	37	.517	.511	.287	.309
18	.414	.515	.393	.540	38	.613	.618	.333	.395
19	.313	.262	.246	.279	39	.560	.508	.309	.370
20	.489	.480	.411	.514	40	.606	.595	.378	.453

Table 5 presents the rotated factor matrix of SCS. As can be seen, the 40 items comprising the SCS load acceptably on eight factors. These results *reject* the first hypothesis that *the factors extracted from the SCS in this study will be the same as those established by K&A*. While eight factors underlie the social capitals of English language learners in KLI, ten factors constitute those of G3SHS students. However important these statistical analyses are, they are incapable of revealing the nature of difference in the two groups sampled. The microstructural approach of schema theory, however, explains it in terms of participants' schemata as they interact with each other within the contexts of species. They will be discussed shortly.

TABLE 5
ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX[A]

Items	Factors							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	-.046	.093	.086	-.056	-.034	.110	.632*	.015
2	.009	.112	.038	.073	.003	-.050	.489*	-.006
3	.072	.637*	.150	-.055	.015	-.018	.003	.426*
4	.137	.692*	.024	-.033	.052	.066	.107	.235
5	.141	.823*	.164	.005	.017	.026	.042	.068
6	.117	.649*	.070	.058	-.019	.015	.169	.087
7	-.030	.486*	.019	.094	.154	.034	.058	.028
8	.170	.521*	.315*	-.034	.116	-.060	.262	-.033
9	.127	.408*	.312	-.105	.227	.044	.231	.127
10	.115	.448*	.728*	-.050	.147	.013	.090	.021
11	.070	.447*	.657*	-.043	.187	.072	.087	.044
12	.054	.326*	.360*	.133	.285	-.019	.124	-.116
13	.062	.418*	.031	.071	.160	.002	-.094	-.175
14	.060	.577*	.112	-.024	.163	.063	.130	-.225
15	.077	.532*	.082	.030	.126	-.010	-.023	-.226
16	.024	.374*	.101	.034	.304	-.009	-.104	-.017
17	.023	.215*	.094	-.047	.584*	.016	-.008	.001
18	.037	.309*	.143	-.027	.614*	.092	.020	-.011
19	.342*	.052	-.011	.129	.181	.303	-.015	.108
20	.542*	.125	.051	.015	.338*	.197	-.100	.071
21	.518*	.031	.057	-.024	.126	.488*	.103	.047
22	.577*	-.008	.014	.095	.048	.579*	.056	-.031
23	.408*	.087	.021	.153	.002	.459*	.026	-.093
24	.586*	.107	.101	.178	.003	.244	-.127	.011
25	.567*	.279	.113	.123	.028	.021	-.052	.107
26	.677*	.020	.105	.270	-.014	.023	-.034	.006
27	.647*	.025	-.003	.189	-.033	.145	-.031	-.186
28	.357*	.113	-.024	.473*	-.134	.168	-.047	-.148
29	.352*	-.046	.017	.352*	-.112	.123	-.061	.011
30	.410*	.043	-.042	.641*	.033	-.024	.095	.044
31	.491*	.070	-.026	.539*	.120	.079	.070	.009
32	.707*	.135	.050	.094	.045	.092	.024	.001
33	.575*	-.078	.025	.037	-.013	.161	-.078	-.035
34	.712*	-.001	.011	.013	-.137	.094	-.007	-.161
35	.510*	.296	-.120	.065	.013	.044	.186	-.129
36	.691*	.244	.021	-.139	.011	-.011	.109	-.001
37	.686*	-.090	.071	.119	.031	.058	.037	.035
38	.754*	.067	.114	.094	.086	-.017	.039	.095
39	.659*	.187	.037	.152	.063	-.022	.019	.068
40	.713*	.178	-.112	.134	.121	.024	.052	.072

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations. * Loadings higher than .32

As can be seen in Table 5 above, all forty items forming the Persian SCS have loaded acceptably on the eight factors extracted and rotated via PAF and VKN and thus shown their relevance to social capitals explored in this study. Among the items, eleven have, however, crossloaded on another factor, i.e., 3, 10, 11, 12, 20, 21, 22, 23, 28, 29, 30 and 31. The highest loadings of each of these items on one factor was taken as the indicator of its contribution to the genus represented by that particular factor and its lower acceptable loadings on the second factor was considered redundant and removed from its structure.

Item three, "My parents encourage me to continue my studies at higher levels", for example, loaded .637 and .426 on factors two and eight, respectively. Since its loading on factor two was higher than that of factor eight, it was considered as a part of the genus represented by factor two and its cross loading on factor eight was removed. Since item three was the only item which had loaded on factor eight, its removal reduced the number of factors from eight to seven. Based on the fact that the purpose of factor analysis is to cluster the most related items under a single genus, the removal of cross loadings not only refines the construct under investigation but also helps reduce the number of factors as it has done in this study.

Table 6 presents the descriptive statistics, reliability estimates and variances explained by factors underlying the SCS. As can be seen, the mean score of SCS (159.6) is slightly lower than that of K&A's (161.9). However, its SD (32.96) is higher than the one reported by K&A (27.72), indicating that the participants of this study were more heterogeneous than those of K&A. The very difference in the value of SD has rendered the SCS a highly reliable measure of English language learners' social capital (α = .92). The first factor underlying the SCS has proved to be as reliable as the scale itself, i.e., α = .92. The reliability coefficients of the remaining factors range from .85 (factor two) to .52 (factor seven).

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF TEN FACTORS UNDERLYING THE SCS (N = 487)

Factors	# of item	Mean	SD	α	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
					Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	16	67.30	18.483	0.92	9.583	23.959	23.959	7.580	18.949	18.949
2	11	43.01	12.450	0.85	4.864	12.161	36.120	4.648	11.620	30.570
3	3	14.44	4.111	0.78	1.123	2.807	38.926	1.505	3.762	34.332
4	4	11.49	4.958	0.75	.960	2.401	41.327	1.421	3.552	37.883
5	2	8.85	2.617	0.62	.836	2.090	43.417	1.370	3.426	41.309
6	2	7.52	2.940	0.71	.742	1.855	45.272	1.143	2.857	44.166
7	2	6.96	2.374	0.52	.608	1.521	46.794	.999	2.496	46.662
SCS	40	159.57	32.968	0.92	.525	1.313				

The seven factors underlying the SCS in this study subsume its 40 items under more representative latent variables than the ten factors extracted and rotated by K&A. While factor one in this study, for example, explains 18.9% of rotation variance in the scale, it drops to 4.9% in K&A's study. Although the difference is due partly to the number of items loadings on the factor in the two studies, 16 versus 6, it reflects the English language learners' ability to relate the items to each other within fewer cognitive categories compared to G3SHS students. This is further revealed in the same latent variable extracted as factor seven and factor ten, i.e., Parent Availability, in this and K&A's studies, respectively. Although the same items constitute Parent Availability in both studies, it explains more variance, i.e., 2.5%, in the present study than it does in K&A's study, i.e., 1.8%. Furthermore, the total percentage of variance explained in this study (46.7%) is noticeably higher than that of K&A (39.3%).

Table 7 presents the correlations between the SCS and the scores the English language learners obtained in their oral and written examinations. As can be seen, no significant relationship could be established. Neither did the learners oral and total scores relate significantly to any of the seven factors underlying the SCS. Nor did six out of seven factors constituting the SCS show any significant relationship with the learners' written scores. Only the fourth factor, i.e., Helpful Others, correlates significantly but negatively with the written scores (r = -.10, *p*<.05). These results largely *reject* the second hypothesis that *the SCS and its underlying factors do not correlate significantly with English achievement scores.*

TABLE 7
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ACHIEVEMENT SCORES AND THE SCS AS WELL AS ITS UNDERLYING FACTORS

Social Capitals	English Language Achievement		
	Oral Score	Written Score	Total Score
SCS	-.025	-.075	-.050
1 Social Attachment	-.030	-.083	-.057
2 Parental Supervision	.003	-.033	-.012
3 Parental Expectation	.026	.005	.015
4 Helpful Others	-.070	-.100[*]	-.088
5 Social Contact	.053	.046	.052
6 Religious Activities	-.066	-.075	-.073
7 Parent Availability	.000	.016	.006

IV. DISCUSSION

Microstructural analysis of the SCS shows that it has a unique language of its own as shown in Table 7. It consists of 202 (49.9%) semantic, 187 (48.2%) syntactic and 16 (4.0%) parasyntactic schema domain tokens combined with each other within 40 "sentences" defined as "the largest unit of grammatical organization" (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992, p. 330). The very domain based analysis of SCS shows that it is linguistically different from other psychological measures such as Reading the Eyes in the Mind Test (RMET) designed by Baron-Cohen el. (2001) and translated into Persian by Khorashad (2013) and employed as a measure of social intelligence by Khodadady and Namaghi (2013) and Khodadady and Hezareh (2016). It consists of only 144 semantic domain schema tokens offered with 36 photos through which the test takers' social intelligence is measured by identifying the appropriate mental states of the people photographed.

TABLE 7
SCHEMATA CONSTITUTING THE LANGUAGE OF SCS

Domains	Genera	Tokens		Types	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Semantic	Adjectives	26	6.4	16	8.5
	Adverbs	6	1.5	3	1.6
	Nouns	97	24.0	62	32.8
	Verbs	73	18.0	53	28.0
	Total	**202**	**49.9**	**134**	**70.9**
Syntactic	Conjunctions	21	5.2	4	2.1
	Determiners	62	15.3	8	4.2
	Prepositions	40	9.9	14	7.4
	Pronouns	59	14.6	17	9.0
	Syntactic verbs	5	1.2	5	2.6
	Total	**187**	**48.2**	**48**	**25.4**
Parasyntactic	Abbreviations	3	.7	1	.5
	Names	5	1.2	3	1.6
	Para-adverbs	3	.7	2	1.1
	Particles	5	1.2	1	.5
	Total	**16**	**4.0**	**7**	**3.7**
	Total	**405**	**100.0**	**189**	**100.0**

The linguistic analysis of SCS at genus level provides more information elucidating the nature of its language. As can be seen in Table 5.1 above, most of schema tokens are nouns (n = 97, 24.0%) followed by verbs (n = 73, 18.0%). The significance of these two schema genera becomes more apparent when their types are taken into consideration. They form 61% (n = 115) of all schema types comprising the SCS. Together with adjective and adverb schema types (n = 16, 8.5% and 3, 1.6%, respectively), they form 71% of schema types used in the SCS (n = 189). These results reveal the schema-based structure of SCS language further when they are compared with other psychological measures.

Khodadady and Tabriz (2012), for example, developed their 117-sentence Persian Emotional Intelligence Scale (EQS) by removing the redundant sentences of Bar-On's (1997) EQ-i and changing its reverse sentences to positive statements. When they administered the EQS to 669 instructors of English in the Iran Language Institute (ILI) in 15 cities in Iran, 112 sentences loaded acceptably on 15 factors, indicating that five of them did not contribute to the language of EQS. A genus-based analysis of these 112 sentences shows that they consist of 48 adjective, 11 adverb, 68 noun and 96 verb genera forming 75% of schema types (n = 223) used in the EQS. A comparative linguistic analysis of the schemata used in the SCS and EQS thus shows that the former is not as rich as the latter simply because the SCS consists of fewer semantic schema types, i.e., 189, than the EQS does, i.e., 223, necessitating the development of a more comprehensive measure for social capitals.

In addition to describing the SCS linguistically, the application of microstructural analysis of schema theory to the results obtained through factor analysis shows that the 405 schema tokens comprising the 40 sentences of SCS contribute to social capitals as a cognitive domain as 112 species do to the domain of English language instructors' emotional intelligence measured by EQS in Khodadady and Tabriz's (2012) study. The English language learners' comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation of the schemata comprising the SCS results in accepting its 40 sentences as cognitive species which relate to each other by loading acceptably on seven factors treated as seven cognitive genera forming the domain of social capitals.

Figure 1 presents the components of social capitals as a cognitive domain having a hierarchical relationship with its constituting genera, species and schemata. As can be seen, 189 concepts represented by schema types such as "friends" and "phone" have been combined with each other within the context of 40 sentences to create the broader cognitive concepts of species. A specific number of these species have clustered together to create the broader cognitive concepts called genera. The two species, "I talk to my friends and acquaintances on phone" and "Our relatives and we visit each other", for example, constitute the Social Contact genus of social capitals. The Social Attachment, Parental Supervision, Parental Expectation, Helpful Others, Social Contact, Religious Activities, and Parent Availability in turn form the domain of social capitals as measured by the SCS.
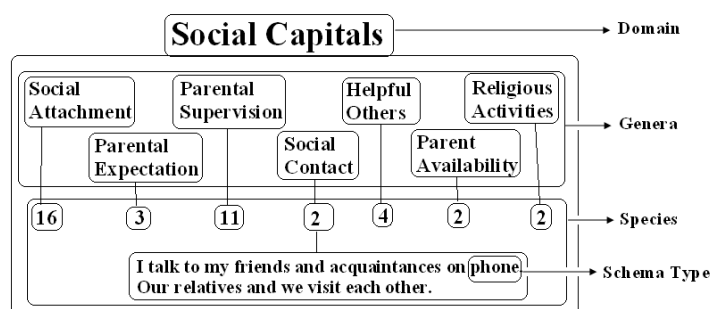

Figure 1. Components Comprising the Cognitive Domain of Social Capitals

As it can also be seen in Figure 1 above, 189 schema types and 40 species created by K&A and adapted to English language learners studying in KLI in this study contribute to the domain of social capitals differently because their number differs in terms of the genera under which they come together to bring concepts which would have stayed unknown otherwise. While the genus of Social Attachment, for example, consists of 121 schema types and 16 species, Parent Availability is formed by two species and seven schema types, indicating that the genera differ from each other in linguistic and cognitive complexity. For this very reason, the genera constituting the domain of social capitals enter into different degrees of relationship with each other.

Table 8 presents the correlations between the SCS and its underlying factors. As can be seen, Social Attachment correlates significantly with the other genera except Parent Availability (r = .02, *ns*). In K&A's study, however, Parent Availability does correlate significantly with their first factor, i.e., Self-Volunteering (r =.17, *p*<.05), indicating that what constitutes the domain of social capitals to G3SHS students is not necessarily the same for English language learners. In other words, while the Parent Availability genus of G3SHS students helps the students become socially active and offer help to others whenever necessary, it does not relate to English language learners' attachment to their society.

TABLE 8
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE SCS AND ITS SEVEN UNDERLYING FACTORS

Factors	SCS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SCS	1	.859**	.697**	.553**	.592**	.386**	.596**	.187**
1 Social Attachment	.859**	1	.289**	.222**	.608**	.142**	.644**	.021
2 Parental Supervision	.697**	.289**	1	.622**	.132**	.434**	.140**	.188**
3 Parental Expectation	.553**	.222**	.622**	1	.076	.419**	.117**	.187**
4 Helpful Others	.592**	.608**	.132**	.076	1	-.002	.458**	.006
5 Social Contact	.386**	.142**	.434**	.419**	-.002	1	.083	.051
6 Religious Activities	.596**	.644**	.140**	.117**	.458**	.083	1	.044
7 Parent Availability	.187**	.021	.188**	.187**	.006	.051	.044	1

The Social Attachment genus of social capitals consists of 16 species and 212 schema tokens. It applies to those English language learners who have strong ties with their friends, are satisfied with their social life, accept and do their responsibilities as citizens and are valued by the people around them. They have a high quality and intimate educational environment which is trusted by their parents. They have many friends and acquaintances whom they contact and run to socialize while shopping. They like their teachers, participate in social and extracurricular activities, and help their townspeople. Their family participates in programs dealing with oblations and offers food to people who fast. They easily talk about their feelings with their parents and visit their neighbors.

The very attendance in the KLI and learning English has affected participants' domain of social capitals because its main genus, Social Attachment, contains some species which contributed to other genera for G3SHS students in K&A's study. Species "My family participates in programs dealing with oblations and offering food to people who fast", for example, is religious because it contains the schemata "oblations" and "fast". According to Onions (1973), the word "oblation" refers to "the action of solemnly offering something (e.g., a sacrifice, thanksgiving, etc.) to God or to a deity" (p. 1427). In K&A' study this species loads acceptably on a genus they call Family Religiosity. Its loading on the first factor of the SCS indicates that some species of religion lose their supernatural nature and become social.

The role of English language learning in rendering religious species social particularly in relation to Social Attachment genus becomes clearer when its correlations with the genus of Religious Activities (r = .64, *p*<.01) is compared with that of K&A's results. In their study, Family Religiosity correlates the highest with their first factor, i.e., Self-Volunteering, too. However, the relationship is relatively weaker (r = .38, *p*<.01). These results show that 41% of English language learners' social attachment is explained by their religious activities whereas only 14% of G3HS students' Self-Volunteering is explained by their family religiosity. In other words, English language learners get involved in religious activities in order to establish social attachment whereas G3HS students employ them to develop themselves.

The second genus of social capitals, i.e., Parental Supervision, consists of 11 species and 98 schema tokens. It entails mothers and fathers' supervision of English language learners' educational progress, their talking with learners regarding their future field of study and job opportunities, encouraging them to continue their studies at higher levels, their mothers' familiarity with the learners' friends, the mothers' supervision of their English language learning more than their fathers and the mothers' being in contact with English instructors to follow the learners' English achievement. The parents also know where the learners are and what they do and help them with their homework within an intimate and stable family environment. The genus also shows that the learners meet their grandparents weekly.

Compared to G3HS students, the Parental Supervision of English language learners is broader in conceptual scope because it contains some of the species which loaded acceptably on five factors in K&A's study, i.e., Maternal Supervision, Parental Expectation, Parental Monitoring, Parental Rapport, and Receptive Relatives. Parental Supervision provides the learners with the strongest genus of social capitals because it correlates significantly with their constituting genera. While Parent Availability, for example, does not relate significantly to Social Attachment, it does to Parental Supervision (r = .19, *p*<.01), indicating that the more available the parents are at home, the better they can supervise their children.

As mentioned before the 11-species Parental Supervision is broad and thus differs from the genera K&A established in their study. The closest genus seems to be their Parental Monitoring factor which consists of five species. In spite of being narrower in species, i.e., consisting of just five species, the Parental Monitoring relates to Parent Availability to the same degree the Parental Supervision genus established in this study does (r = .19, $p<.01$), indicating that genera constituting the G3SHS students' social capitals are more refined in scope, greater in number and enjoy stronger relationships with each other.

As the third genus forming the domain of social capitals, Parental Expectation consists of three species and 32 schema tokens. The genus reveals itself in the parents' expectation of their English language learning children to be among the top students in their class and to succeed with a good score. It also involves the learners' friends who expect them to succeed with a good score, emphasizing their friends' important in enforcing parental expectations among learners.

Parental Expectation forms a genus of G3SHS students' social capitals as well. However, in addition to the three species constituting the same genus in this study it embodies parents' encouragement of these students to continue their studies at higher levels. It also offers an interesting explanation for the differences found in the degree of relationships in the two studies. While Parental Expectation correlates the highest with Parental Supervision in this study (r = .62, $p<.01$), its relationship with Parent Monitoring is relatively weaker in K&A' study (r = .48, $p<.01$), indicating that parents pay more attention to their children's English language learning in KLI than they do to their achievement in schools.

As the fourth genus of social capitals, the genus of Helpful Others consists of four species and thirty schema tokens. It represents the people who help the English language learners in general when they need it and help them in particular when they want to made a decision. It involves consulting teachers at the time of facing a problem and considering most people as trustable. Compared to the same three-species genus established by K&A as their ninth factor, the genus of Helpful Others in this study includes the extra species "I consult with my teachers when I have a problem", revealing the sample-based nature of genera. This particular species in K&A's study loaded acceptably on a factor called Teacher Consultation.

Helpful Others shows the strongest relationship with Social Attachment in this study (r = .61, $p<.01$), indicating that English language learners seek the help of others in order to establish social attachment. G3SHS students, however, confine the genus mostly to their teachers because it correlates the highest with Teacher Consultation in K&A's study (r = .42, $p<.01$). In spite of having a very strong relationship with Social Attachment, Helpful Others does not relate significantly to three genera to be discussed shortly. It does, however, correlate significantly with all the genera constituting G3SHS students' social capitals, revealing the significant role others play in their social life.

The two species, "our relatives and we visit each other" and "I talk to my friends and acquaintances on phone" constitute the fifth genus of English language learners' social capitals, i.e., Social Contact. They are unique to this study because they load acceptably along with three other species on a factor called Receptive Relatives by K&A, i.e., "our neighbors and we visit each other", "We have many friends and acquaintances and keep in touch with them" and "I meet my grandparents weekly". The differences in the two studies provide further evidence to approach genus as a sample-based cognitive concept whose constituting species change based on the participants to whom psychological measures such as the SCS are administered.

As the sixth genus of social capitals, Religious Activities comprises two species, i.e., "my family takes part in religious activities such as eulogizing and mourning for Imam Hussein's death and celebrating Imams' birthdays" and "we go to mosque to pray in congregation". These two species loaded acceptably along with species 21, i.e., "my family participates in programs dealing with oblations and offering food to people who fast" on a factor called "Family Religiosity" by K&A. The findings of this study did, however, show that species 21 form a part of English language learners' Social Attachment.

Similar to Social Contact and Religious Activities, the last genus of social capitals, i.e., Parent Availability, consists of two species, i.e., "my mother is often at home" and "my father is often at home". It correlates significantly with only two genera of social capitals, i.e., Parental Supervision (r = .188, $p<.01$) and Parental Expectation (r = .187, $p<.01$), indicating that parents' supervision and expectations of their children relates positively to their availability. Almost the same degree of relationship exists between Parent Monitoring and Parent Availability for G3SHS students, i.e., r = .19, $p<.01$ (K&A, p. 19). Unlike the findings of this study, Parental Supervision, however, shows lesser degree of significant relationship with Parent Availability (r = .15, $p<.01$) for the G3SHS students. The stronger relationship between English language learners' Parental Supervision and Parent Availability may, nonetheless, be due to the fact that the genus Parental Supervision contains more species for these learners, i.e., 11, than it does for G3SHS students, i.e., four.

Parent Availability does not relate significantly to the genera of Social Contact, Social Attachment, and Helpful Others. Neither does it relate to English language learners' genus of Religious Activities. These findings are in sharp contrast to those reported by K&A for G3SHS students. Family Religiosity, for example, correlates significantly with the remaining nine genera of G3SHS students' social capitals. Among others, it correlates significantly with Helpful Others (r = .11, $p<.01$) and Teacher Consultation (r = .15, $p<.01$), indicating that Religion plays a more significant role in G3SHS students' social capitals than it does for English language learners.

The results of this study do not establish any significant relationship between the domain of social capitals and English language achievement in the KLI. They are in line with Alaee's (2012) findings. She developed a 43-item schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test) on the English textbook *English Book 3* (Birjandi, Nouroozi & Mahmoodi, 2010) and administered it along with the SCS to 477 G3SHS students in the fourth educational district of Mashhad. The correlational analysis of the students' performance on the S-Test and SCS did not yield a significant relationship (r = .020, *ns*), challenging scholars such as Baker (2006) who believed "social capital becomes the modus operandi for sustaining lifelong learning, taking groups and individuals forward in their knowledge and practice" (p.1).

The findings of this study also support those of Khodadady, Alaee and Natanzi (2011). They developed a 35-item Social and Cultural Capital Questionnaire (SCCQ) consisting of a 24-item social capital scale (SCS) and 11-item cultural capital scale (CCS) and administered it to 706 students of five public and private high school students in Mashhad. When they correlated the SCS with the students' self-reported scores in their English course they obtained no significant correlation coefficient between the two. Neither could they establish any significant relationship between the social capitals and English language achievement when they divided the schools into private and state one.

V. CONCLUSION

Social capitals depend on the language in which they are presented within a specific psychological measure, e.g., SCS, and the participants who relate the schemata to their personal life by resorting to their attitudes, feelings and experiences. Since schemata represent personally acquired concepts, they create different broader concepts called cognitive genera when the SCS is administered to G3SHS students and English language learners in the KLI, rendering the domain of social capitals sample-dependent. While the 40 species formed by 405 schemata combine together to form ten genera for the domain of G3SHS students' social capitals, they generate seven genera in the case of female students learning English in the KLI. Future research must show whether the same genera constitute the domain of social capitals for male English language learners in the same institute. It must also show whether the domain and its constituting genera are affected by a specific level of language proficiency when it is confined to a specific sample such as advanced learners of English registered in various language institutes.

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A Psychoanalytic Interpretation of Mother-daughter Relationship in "I Stand Here Ironing"

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Abstract—"I Stand Here Ironing" is recognized as one of Tillie Olsen's most anthologized works. As a biographical short story extracted from the writer's own experience as a single mother, with the first daughter Clara as the prototype for Emily in the story, it relates how a single mother parents her first child Emily in the turmoil of the Great Depression. It has attracted interests of many scholars to explore the feminist themes of motherhood among the working class or Jewish identity in woman literature. However, psychoanalysis is seldom employed to tap the inner being of Emily and her mother so as to examine the dynamics of mother-daughter relationship. This paper aims to analyze the defense mechanisms adopted by Emily and her mother to explore their unconscious, so that we can have a better understanding about the mother-daughter relationship. Both Emily and her mother resort to certain defense mechanisms to protect their tortured ego and escape from the family as well as the real world. Finally, they bravely confront the reality and fulfill a harmonious return.

Index Terms—defense mechanism, "I Stand Here Ironing", mother-daughter relationship, psychoanalysis, Tillie Olsen

I. INTRODUCTION

This section aims to briefly introduce the writer of "I stand Here Ironing" Tillie Olsen and then to examine the previous criticisms on her works.

A. Tillie Olsen as a Female Writer

Born in 1912, Tillie Olsen grew up in a Russian Jewish immigrant family. Both her mother and father had been engaged in the Russian revolution against the czar and had fled to the United States when the uprising failed (as cited in Pearlman & Werlock, 1991). This family background greatly influenced Tillie Olsen. As a child, Tillie Olsen had jobs tending her siblings and shelling peanuts after school even at 10. At 15, she dropped out of high school and officially entered the work force. She possessed rich experience working as a waitress, domestic worker, and meat trimmer. Besides, Olsen was passionate for reading. Influenced by the oratory of politicians such as Byran and Clarence Darrow, she became an enthuasiast for political issues. As a member of American Communist Party, Olsen was once jailed for a short passage of time for organizing a packinghouse workers' union in Kansas City. Her political commitment ineluctably inspired her urgent need to write (Pearlman & Werlock, 1991). All of those particular experiences make her a unique and representative voice in American literature.

Ranking among the first generation of American feminists, Olsen's works are regarded as icon and have obtained great support from American women. Her writings are best known for "their close observation on the pain she herself went through and her detailed scrutiny on the social and political turmoil surrounding her since 1930s when she was just a teenager and thereafter" (Nur Fatin & Ida, 2014, p. 250). Her oeuvre is relatively small, containing a four-short-story collection *Tell Me a Riddle* (1961), one unfinished novel *Yonnondio: From The Thirties* (1974), one nonfiction book *Silences* (1978), two edited collections of photographs by others, and several essays. *Tell Me a Riddle* was awarded the O. Henry Prize for best American short story in 1961. Three stories in *Tell Me a Riddle* are narrated from the mother's perspective, among which "I Stand Here Ironing" is the first and the shortest one. As a female writer, she analyzes in *Silences* the silent periods in literature, including writers' blocks, unpublished work, and the problems that working-class writers, women in particular, have encountered when they attempt to concentrate on art. Despite the limited number of her published works, Olsen's unremitting efforts in speaking out for the working class, especially for the working women have earned her a significant position in American literature. Appearing "at a moment in women's history when we were hungry to find a literature that was not just about growing up females, but also about ourselves as adults, as women connected to the world of children, work, and other women" (Pratt, 1997, p. 130), her works serve to pull from the shadows those who are marginalized, and represent the social and economic circumstances that make

creativity both possible and impossible for such subjects (Deluca, 2012).

B.   Previous Study of "I Stand Here Ironing"

"I Stand Here Ironing" is a biographical story extracted from Olsen's own experience as a single mother, with her first daughter Clara as the prototype for Emily in the story. It is a feminist short story that scrutinizes mother-daughter relationship in a world where women have to work and children are not absorbed in an extended family (Pratt, 1997). In the story the mother must work under heavy financial pressure, and meanwhile she has to suffer from the guilt of abandoning and ignoring her little daughter. In parallel, Emily suffers from being abandoned by her mother and alienated by her counterparts. The story reveals the mother's grieving about Emily's life and about the circumstances that shape her own mothering. Emily's ever-increasing maturity is also vividly presented in the story.

Although most critics agree on the genuine artistic strengths of Olsen's "I Stand Here Ironing" and "Tell Me a Riddle", her name is often absent from the list of writers in contemporary studies. Most critics devote to the study of women image in all of Olsen's short stories and her silences in literature. Few critics study "I Stand Here Ironing" independently. Obviously, Olsen's identity as a Jewish working mother and her involvement in leftist political activities attract critics to interpret "I Stand Here Ironing" from a feminist perspective. Using the feminist concept of feminine mystique, Nur Fatin and Ida (2014) have studied women's position in the second wave feminist period, revealing that the female protagonist's barren emotions for men are due to her sense of obligations on completing the domestic demands, the expectations set by the patriarchal society and the judgmental eyes of the men in the patriarchal society. As a widowed and nameless woman, she is caught in a "moral dilemma" of whether to abandon Emily and pursue pleasure or to tend her daughter (Miles, 2008). Living in such a strictly patriarchal society, she has no other choice but to struggle to make money and bring Emily up.

Additionally, some critics pay attention to the personality of the female character Emily as well as her mother. For example, Li Jie (2007) discusses Emily's dual personality and explores the roles of mutual influences of nature and nurture in cultivating a person's character. He concludes that Emily's indifference and pessimism are attributed to the harsh reality of war, economic depression and immature nursing institute. However, the nature of pursuing truth and goodness motivates her to reconstruct her identity and become optimistic. Colton (2011) discusses the helpless mother image in this story and states that the mother struggles to raise her child much like any other parent in society and feels as though any problem her daughter faces is her fault. Although suffering both physically and spiritually, she attempts to be a good mother as much as she can.

These more or less historical researches intend to interpret the mother's and Emily's image independently by referring to the external factors. Few studies try to investigate the dynamic mother-daughter relationship by exploring the characters' inner world. How can this inexperienced but strong mother stand the pain of being abandoned and the guilt of abandoning her little daughter? How does the young Emily learn to protect her tender heart and grow to be strong and independent in a loveless family? What motivates the mitigation of the mother-daughter relationship? Psychoanalysis will lead us to the depth of the characters' minds and reveal their hidden unconscious, so that we can have a better understanding about the change of relationship between Emily and her mother. As a useful way of understanding human behavior, psychoanalysis can touch our most private being and reveal us to ourselves and to the world (Tyson, 1999). Through a close reading of the text, this paper will draw upon Freudian psychoanalytic theories, the defense mechanisms and tri-partition theory of id, ego and super-ego in particular in an attempt to shed light on the changing mother-daughter relationship.

II.   DEFENSE MECHANISM ADOPTED BY EMILY AND HER MOTHER

Defense mechanisms are the methods by which the rational ego manages to be in harmony with the instinctual id and the moral super-ego. Tyson defines defenses as the processes by which the contents of our unconscious are kept in the unconscious" (1999, p.17), which means to keep the repressed repressed in order to avoid knowing we are incapable of handling some tricky situations. In this sense, defense mechanisms are tools that help people solve problems spiritually. This section will examine the defense mechanisms employed by Emily and her mother to protect themselves.

A.   Defense Mechanisms of Emily's Mother

Emily's mother mainly resorts to two defense mechanisms to protect herself: displacement and denial. By using these defense mechanisms, she has alleviated the pressure of making money, the pain of being abandoned by her husband and the guilt of abandoning her daughter.

According to Tyson, displacement refers to diverting the repressed feelings to someone or something less threatening than the person who causes our fear, hurt, frustration, or anger (Tyson, 1999). In other words, people tend to unconsciously transfer their negative feelings to other person or object so that the repressed can be released. As an inexperienced young single mother, Emily's mother has to assume the responsibility of raising the baby alone when overwhelmed by the pain of being abandoned by her irresponsible husband. "She becomes burdened with emotional and financial issues." (Nur Fatin & Ida 2014, p.250) Unable to accept the wretched fact of being abandoned, the mother is in urgent need of releasing this repressed pain. Unconsciously, she diverts her repressed grief of being abandoned and the financial pressure of supporting her family to the poor Emily who is too young to threaten her. She sends Emily away to

the women downstairs, to her father's family, to the nursery school and to a convalescent home when Emily craves for her care. Although working at night and being free during the day, she insists on sending Emily away. Her husband deserts her and thus she abandons her little girl with the excuse of being busy making money. Unconsciously, she longs for experiencing the pleasure of abandoning others to alleviate her pain. This has successfully reduced her pain of being abandoned. Unfortunately, Emily becomes the victim of her mother's broken marriage.

Another defense mechanism adopted by Emily's mother is denial, which means "believing that the problem doesn't exist or the unpleasant incident never happened" (Tyson, 1999, p.18). Plagued by the guilt of abandoning Emily, the mother attempts to persuade herself to deny the existence of Emily's problem or deny her capability of solving the problem so as to avoid being troubled. When Emily's teacher invites her to talk about Emily's problem, she denies the fact that Emily is in need of her help. She said, "who needs help. Even if I came, what good would it do? You think because I am her mother I have a key, or that in some way you could use me as a key? She has lived for nineteen years. There is all that life that has happened outside of me, beyond me" (Olsen, 1961, p. 292). Obviously, Emily's mother denies Emily's urgent need of her help and her capability of offering help. She also denies her ability of developing Emily's gift of imitating when she is in a poor financial condition. By persuading herself that she plays no role in her daughter's life and that Emily is strong enough to handle life on her own, her conscience feels momentarily settled. The denial of problem comforts her and thus reduces her sense of guilt.

B.   Defense Mechanisms of Emily

Having been abandoned for several times by her mother, Emily mainly adopts two defense mechanisms to protect herself from being hurt: acting out and avoidance.

Acting out as a defense mechanism refers to the direct expression of an unconscious wish or impulse in action, without conscious awareness of the emotion that drives that expressive behavior (Vaillant, 1992). Emily is abandoned by her mother as an eight-month baby with no awareness of herself as an independent being. Significantly, it is just at the critical looking-glass or mirror stage that Emily experiences the sense of lack. She suffers from hunger and also from the anxiety of being separated from her beloved mother. She immaturely turns to acting out to release her negative feeling. For instance, the first time when Emily is deserted at home alone or sent away, she continually begs to stay with her mother at night and pleads for her mother's help during nightmares. When the inexperienced mother refuses to feed Emily, Emily rebels by crying. She naively believes that that crying can persuade her mother to embrace her and stay together with her. She is too small to adopt other defense mechanisms except for crying. Crying rather than repressing her pain into the unconscious is an effective way to let out her negative feeling.

As she grows up, Emily gradually resorts to avoidance as a means of protecting herself, which means to "[stay] away from people or situations that are liable to make us anxious by stirring up some unconscious—i.e., repressed—experience or emotion" (Tyson, 1999, p.18). The defense mechanisms adopted by Emily help her reduce the anxiety of being ignored and frustration of being refused. When her mothe=r relentlessly rejects her demands of not leaving her alone, she learns to be distant from her mother emotionally and physically, repressing her anxiety into the unconscious. When fetched back, she intentionally stays away from her mother and refuses to be touched. When her mother approaches her at the sound of her moan or restless stirring at night, she persuades her away with the words "I'm all right, go back to sleep, Mother" (Olsen, 1961, p. 294). Even in her innocent letter to her mother, she assumes the tone of an adult: "I am fine. How is the baby?" (Olsen, 1961, p. 294) By turning down her mother's offer for help, Emily declares her own confidence and independence (Jiang, 2009). In her tender heart, less expectation means less anxiety. Without expecting being helped, she can avoid the frustration of being refused. With the consuming desire repressed, she becomes less vulnerable to the external world. By staying away from her mother, her conscious has no opportunity to perceive the anxiety or pain, and thus she successfully avoids the torture of abandonment and refusal.

III.   The Dynamic Mother-daughter Relationship

At the beginning, both Emily and her mother attempt to run away from the family with an aim to protect themselves and construct their individual identity. Their relationship becomes gradually distanced. However, with the establishment of the second family, they finally return to the family and the real world, and their relationship becomes harmonious step by step.

A.   Interpretation of the Mother's Escape and Return

With the walking out of Emily's father, the family is shattered, and Emily's mother is caught in an identity crisis. In other words, the identity of a traditional wife in the patriarchal society is blurred and the sense of belonging is endangered. There is a great necessity for her to reconstruct her new identity. With the collapse of the male-centered family, she is exposed to a new opportunity of being an independent woman to pursue personal pleasure and success. However, with the patriarchal morality suffocating her, she cannot act as her husband does, but is obliged to carry out her household chores and responsibilities, removed from any romantic feelings (Nur Fatin & Ida, 2014). She has to assume the new role of a father and a mother at once to Emily. Her life is fragmentized by the trivial housework and her life has lost the center. Marginalized as woman, single mother, and working person, she is confused about her identity just as the readers are confused about the mother's name. Suffering the shifting of the three roles and failing to strike a

balance, she attempts to free herself from the constraints of her role as a mother. Consequently, she abandons Emily and works day and night. After escaping from the mother-daughter lock, she somehow enjoys being an independent working mother. Scrutinized by a society that upholds patriarchal values, however, Emily's mother occasionally feels guilty for her deeds (Nur Fatin & Ida, 2014). She fails to transcend the social conventions and her escape is doomed to failure.

Guilty of shaking off the traditional mother-daughter relationship, the mother strives to compensate for her indifference. It should be noted that the re-established family plays a decisive role in the turn of the relationship. When the mother gets remarried, the identity of wife resumes her sense of security and belonging. The husband naturally becomes the center of her life and thus she easily reassumes the responsibility of a mother and a wife. As a result, she fetches Emily back and attempts to reestablish intimacy. She sometimes tolerates Emily's bad habits to make up for her previous coldness and strictness. When Emily is reluctant to go to school, she "lets her be absent, though sometimes the illness was imaginary" (Olsen, 1961, p. 295). When Emily catches asthma and her breathing becomes more serious, the mother spares no efforts to make her happy and feel loved. It distinctively differs from her strictness about attendance with other children. The role of mother and wife makes her a qualified woman in the patriarchal society and the confusion about her identity is removed. However, shackled by the stereotyping of male society, Emily's mother, like any other woman, fails to construct an independent female identity and submissively devotes herself to the trivial household chores. Although she complains about the fragmentizing family life and about the failure to concentrate on her own things, she feels satisfied with her family life with several children and a husband surrounding her. Family pleasure compensates for the loss of her identity as an independent woman.

B. Interpretation of Emily's Escape and Return

Emily is abandoned by her mother as an eight-month-old baby. According to Lacan, she is exactly at the looking-glass or mirror stage, during which people come to recognize certain objects as being separate images from themselves (as cited in Bressler, 2003). When these objects are not present, we yearn for them. Such objects thus become symbols of lack, and this sense of lack will continue to plague us for the rest of our lives (as cited in Bressler, 2003). It is just at this critical stage that Emily is separated from her mother and sent to different places. She seldom sees smile on her mother's face and never feels her mother's love. At a time when every little girl is supposed to look a chubby blonde replica of Shirley Temple, Emily is thin and fails to have the golden and curly hair (Olsen, 1961, p. 295). Her growth apparently lags behind her contemporaries. She is often fretted by her foreign-looking appearance. In the convalescent school, despite her efforts in writing letters, she has never received a star for it and is considered as an over conscientious slow learner who keeps trying to catch up with others. When she secretly takes money from her mother's purse and buys candy for her beloved boy, she painfully finds that he loves another girl more. Failing to be a cared daughter, a good student, a beautiful and independent girl, Emily is desperately caught in an identity crisis. She is constantly tortured by the sense of lack and is too vulnerable and fragile to stand all these life pressures. She tries to alienate herself from people around since escape from this cold and loveless world can bring her momentary tranquility and peace.

Suffering both physically and emotionally, Emily gradually picks up the skill of protecting herself. Escape cannot solve the problem in essence. Instead of holding a negative attitude, Emily attempts to break the ice with her mother and take the initiatives to establish a more harmonious mother-daughter relationship. This is also an amazing opportunity to reconstruct her identity. The return to the new family and to the real world brings her a sense of safety and belonging. The mother's efforts to approach and spoil Emily help her confirm her identity as a cared daughter. When realizing her role as the elder sister, Emily quickly starts to help her mother tend the babies at morning crisis, combing hairs and preparing coats for her little siblings at the cost of "suffering over unpreparedness, stammering and unsure in her classes" (Olsen, 1961, p. 296). Such a busy life gives her no moment to feel frustrated or confused. Besides, she develops a hobby of imitating, which is an efficient way to release her frustration and pain. She imitates funny events in school to amuse her mother and performs in collages, at city and statewide affairs (Olsen, 1961, p. 297). Her performance is extensively recognized and praised, which brings her confidence and pleasure. She is no longer the unknown ordinary girl, but a humorous and popular girl bringing happiness to others. Through her efforts, she confirms her meaning of existence and reconstructs her identity as an individual female. Assuming the role of a cared daughter, a caring sister, and an excellent student with a special gift, the confusion about her identity is eliminated and the mother-daughter relationship becomes close and harmonious.

IV. CONCLUSION

"I Stand Here Ironing" is not simply a story recalled by a working woman, but instead a mother's monologue to her own experience of raising five children alone in the great depression. As Pratt (1997) states, it opens the door to new understandings of the inter-relationship between family and the world, between class and gender, and between mother and daughter. Actually, both Emily and her mother have suffered from the experience of being abandoned. The mother is abandoned by her husband, and Emily, as the victim of depression and her mother's unhappy marriage, also experiences in a bitter way the feeling of desertion at a very young age. In the turmoil of the Great Depression, the young mother regrettably fails to pay enough emotional attention to her daughter Emily who is at the exact age of craving love from mother. Both of them consciously or unconsciously employ defense mechanisms to protect their

injured ego. Their repressed pain and annoyance are to some degree effectively reduced. They try to escape from the real world to seek protection and their identity. As they grow, Emily and her mother both take the initiatives to harmonize the mother-daughter relationship. The mother reassumes the traditional female role and Emily grows into a similar female busy with housework and tending her siblings. Differently, Emily successfully constructs her independent identity as an imitator. Both Emily and her mother have experienced frustration, rejection, and ultimately, acceptance. Realizing that they cannot obtain assistance from others, Emily and her mother finally return to the hard realities of life and act within its limitations (Colston, 2011). Fortunately, their efforts are well rewarded and they finally not only get along well with each other but also live in harmony with themselves. They successfully avoid being troubled by the negative feeling of being abandoned and are no longer confused about their identity. This happy result may be attributed to the universal love between mother and daughter and the strong desire to survive which lies in the collective unconscious.

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Evaluation of Two General English Textbooks: New Interchange 2 vs. Four Corners 3

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Abstract—**Textbooks play a crucial role in language classrooms and educational programs all over the world. Choosing appropriate general English textbooks has always been a mind-boggling issue in Iranian English language institutes. This study aimed at evaluating two popular English textbooks including New Interchange 2 and Four Corners 3 in order to show their similarities and differences in terms of subject matters, vocabulary, structure, exercise, illustration, and physical make up. These English textbooks were compared and contrasted and their weaknesses and strengths were explained in terms of the mentioned criteria based on Daoud and Celce-Murcia's (1979) checklist. This evaluation was done by four English language teachers. The findings of the research revealed that there was no significant difference between the two mentioned textbooks; however, in some cases Four Corners 3 was found to be better than New Interchange 2.**

Index Terms—**Four Corners 3, general English textbooks, New Interchange 2, textbook evaluation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Textbooks play an important role in English language classes. As they are one of the most essential elements of second language teaching program. They can be significant resources for educators in helping learners to learn second language. And they are considered as a basis of education and the main resources of information. They may encourage or discourage learners according to teaching materials. Learners can promote in language learning gradually by using textbooks. Textbooks are type of program for teachers which lead them manage their time to improve English language learning in the L2 classes. There have been controversial ideas about the role of EFL textbooks in second language teaching and learning all over the world. In Iran many studies have been done on textbook evaluation. Based on Nunnan (1988), words, materials and course books are the most crucial elements in the curriculum and lubricate the wheels of learning.

According to McDonough and shaw (2003), we have to evaluate materials in some situations. Textbook evaluation is very useful in that it allows the teachers or language instructors to choose the best possible book for their language learners. As English is an international language, it is one of the ways of communicating in the areas of politics, economy and education. English is the best way to communicate with all people all over the world and it is the major language which is used for international trade and academic situation that is why people tend to learn English as a second language in their countries particularly in Iran (Wong, 2010, as cited in Gholami, Rimani Nikou, & Soultanpour, 2012). So, textbooks play a major role in language learning.

In the process of language teaching and learning, textbooks have a high position in this regard. According to Richards (2010), textbook is considered as the major source of contact that EFL learners have with the language. In fact textbooks are important resources which help EFL learners to learn English in EFL contexts. But textbooks rely on the educational environment in which they are used. Today textbooks are considered as the main factors in English language teaching. Furthermore, based on Dubin and Olshtain (1986), textbook is the tangible factor which provides many teachers and learners with language course face validity. As textbooks are important in learning, their quality should be taken into account. Since no textbook can be qualified, therefore textbook evaluation is used to find out its suitability. As to the significance of textbook evaluation in the field of ELT, the researchers qualitatively analyzed the two general English textbooks; Four Corners (3) and New Interchange (2). The evaluation was based on the checklist developed by Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979).

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Text Book Evaluation

Textbook is too significant in language classroom in every educational institute around the world. According to Lamie (1999), the necessity of textbooks goes on to grow, and publishing companies are responsible for new versions. Razmjoo (1999) states that students who involve in text books feel safe and successful. Based on Cunningsworth (1995), text books are too effective to be known as self-directed learning which is the source to present materials by the teacher, source of opinions and tasks, and source of reference for learners which can help the experienced teachers. Daoud and Celcer-Murcia (1979) argue that information on text book is so helpful that becomes the teacher's duty to choose the text book, she/he teaches in an institute. Cunningworth (1999) and Ellis (1997) discuss about three various kinds of material evaluation. They declare that the predictive or pre-use is the most typical kind of evaluation which is organized to experiment the potential performance of text book. The in-use evaluation is the other kinds of textbook which is organized to experiment the material that is recently being used.

Richards (2001) states that the huge amount of materials which get the form of printed, non-printed, or both construct the language teaching materials around the world. According to Hutchinson and Torres (1994) textbook has a great role in educational system that can be described as a vehicle for teachers to make support and relief. Based on Allwright (1981), textbooks cannot fulfill the changing needs of students and classes and they do not depend on their learning styles. Graves (2000) believes that text books provide a course syllabus, the student's security and already- made materials for instructors which make easier the teaching task. Nunan (1988) believes that materials make the most important part of curriculum. A short review of literature relating to materials evaluation shows that the main focus has been on predictive evaluation. According to Ellis (1997), there are two types of evaluation namely micro-evaluation and macro- evaluation. A macro evaluation is related to general assessment of whether materials are effective or not but in micro evaluation, the teacher chooses a special activity to be regarded to empirical evaluation.

Ur (1996) introduces some advantages of textbooks such as giving a framework, playing a role as a syllabus, preparing ready text for class and so on. In spite of advantages, textbooks have some disadvantages too. According to Richards and Renandya (2002), textbooks include some disadvantages such as inability to introduce suitable language models, making cultural misunderstanding and so on.

B. Evaluation Checklist

The quality of learning-teaching procedure as Najafi Sarem, Hamidi, and Mahmoudi (2013) stated, can be demonstrated by the type of language teaching materials. As a part of the materials applied in the language classroom, the textbook has an important role in students' success or failure. Once a textbook is chosen, it should be evaluated by standard or reliable checklists based on acceptable criteria so that the strong and weak points of the textbook are determined (Hamidi & Montazeri, 2014; Hamidi & Montazeri, 2015). So certain attention must be paid to evaluating English language teaching materials using standard checklists which are instruments that provide the evaluator with a list of features of successful learning –teaching materials. Based on Souri, Kafipur, Souri (2011), regarding these criteria, the quality of the material may be evaluated by evaluators such as teachers, students and researchers. A very detailed examination of a course book's language content is advocated by many experts, which causes the production of extensive evaluation checklist. In developing checklist, we have two important things. One of them is finding out the evaluative criteria that make up the main skeleton of any checklist and according to which textbook are evaluated. The other important step is the level of major or weight of every criterion (Mukundan & Nimehchisalem, 2012).

Checklist may be of equal-weight or optimal-weight schemes. In an equal-weight scheme equal-weights are assigned to each criterion but in an optimal-weight scheme different weights are assigned to each criterion. Most checklists available in the literature follow an equal weight scheme (Mukundan & Nimehchisalem, 2012). Global characteristic of checklists are disclosed based on reviewing ELT text book evaluation checklists for example Skiero's (1991) checklist pertains features such as; bibliographical data; aims and goals, subject matter , vocabulary and structures, exercises and activities, layout and physical makeup. Skiero's (1991) and Cunningworth's (1995) checklists share some characteristics which the latter one involves objectives and approaches, pattern and organization, language content, skills, topic, methodology, practical considerations. However, the aforementioned checklists have parts with different heading. An investigation of the items will demonstrate that they are approximately the same. For instance, in bibliographical data, Skiro (1991) mentions the cost-effectiveness of the textbooks, but Cunningworth (1995) refers to them in the practical considerations part. Similarly, another textbook evaluation checklist offered by Daoud and Celce-Morcia (1979), involves five main parts; such as (a) subject matter (b) vocabulary and structures, (c) exercises, (d) illustrations, and finally (e) physical make up. Each part consists of various small features techniques that can be applied in textbook evaluation. Based on Mukundan and Nimechi (2012), in order to provide a checklist some points must be considered including validity, reliability, and practicality. A checklist must be reliable; that is every person should understand. A checklist must be valid and related to what is being evaluated and also practical if it is short, it should easy to use and easy to interpret the results.

C. Related Studies

Numerous studies have been carried out internationally to explore textbook evaluation. Although literature on evaluation of Four Corners series is rare there are many researches on evaluation of Interchange series. For instance, a comparative study done by Razmjoo (2007) in which high school text books and Interchange series were analyzed.

Razmjoo (2007) found that unlike the EFL private institute textbooks that indicate the CLT principles to a great extent, English high school textbooks in Iran are not contributing to CLT implementation. Additionally, Sahrahgard, Rahimi, and Zaremoayeddi (2009) investigated an in-depth examination of the third edition of Interchange. They noticed that New Interchange 3rd edition had some weaknesses such as dearth of reference to teachers and students. Ignoring the significance of self-directed activities in completing a task and overreliance on input, improvement techniques are the other shortages of these series. But, these series also involve some positive aspects such as their great focus on group work and meaningful interaction. Riasati and Zare (2010) evaluated the New Interchange textbooks from Iranian EFL teachers' point of view. They came to conclusion that the usefulness and appropriateness of the textbooks were recognized by most teachers. Despite the merits, these series had some weaknesses such as lack of testing exercises, and insufficient number of teacher's manual. In another study, Alirezaee, Kouhpaeenejad, and Mohammadi (2012) evaluated the New Interchange 3rd edition and the Top Notch 2nd edition. Their findings revealed that there was no significant difference between the two series. Soleimani and Dabbaghi (2012) evaluated the New Interchange series. The results showed that the books enjoyed enough pragmatic input for language learners to deal with their basic communicative needs. Pedagogically the findings of the study involved using EFL materials which provided learners with enough pragmatic input. The results of a study by Moradi and Afraz (2013) which evaluated speech acts and language functions in high school textbooks and the New Interchange series showed that variety of language functions used in the Interchange series while in the high school textbooks they were shown unequally and some of them repeated throughout the books that didn't follow a particular pattern. Roohani, Taheri, and Poorzangeneh (2014), conducted a study about evaluation of two ELT textbooks (Four Corners, book 2 and Four Corners, book 3) according to Bloom's revised taxonomy (BRT). They investigated the degree to which these two books could indicate the 6 cognitive categories of the BRT (i.e. remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating) in their activities. The findings showed that the processes of remembering and understanding were prevalent in these textbooks. Also, Roohani et al.' (2014) findings showed that the aforementioned books couldn't engage learners so well in the activities requiring higher levels of cognitive ability, prerequisites of autonomous language learning. All of the above studies done to help curriculum developers, teachers, and students used different procedures. This study aims at evaluating the two English textbooks including Four Corners 3 and New Interchange 2 in order to find out the similarities, differences, weaknesses, and strong points.

III. METHODOLOGY

The study had no participants, but it had four evaluators. The evaluators of this study were three female EFL teachers having M.A. degree and one Ph.D. holder in TEFL. The two English language textbooks, Interchange 2 and Four Corners 3 which are commonly used in the private English language institutes in Iran were evaluated based on the textbook evaluation checklist developed by Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) (see Apendix A & B). The checklist which consists of five parts contains several questions each of which considers a certain aspect of the textbook. The questions were clear and straightforward and they were addressed qualitatively. The four evaluators worked together and tried to reach a consensus for the comparison and contrast and shared their views on the results as well.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

What comes below is a qualitative analysis and comparison of the two general English textbooks (New Interchange 2 vs. Four Corners 3).

A. Subject Matter

1. Does the subject matter cover a variety of topics appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended(urban or rural environment; child or adult learners; male and/or female students)?

Both books cover a variety of topics related to young and adult learners, male and female students. These topics are appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended, but none of these books have considered the rural environment just urban environment and mechanical life.

2. Is the ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion?

In both books the ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion, but in New Interchange 2 the students can understand the topics better than *four corners* 3 because all the topics are related to the subjects. But in Four Corners we can see topics which are related to the subjects.

3. Is the content graded according to the needs of the students or the requirements of the existing syllabus (if there is one)?

In Four Corners 3 the content is arranged according to the requirements of the existing syllabus but in New Interchange 2 the content is arranged according to the needs of the students. Scope and sequence that is related to Four Corners 3 is clearer than the plan of New Interchange 2.

4. Is the material accurate and up-to-date?

The materials in Four Corners 3 are newer than the materials in New Interchange 2. Four Corners 3 takes newer topics into consideration.

B. Vocabulary and Structures

1. Does the vocabulary load (i.e. the number of new words introduced every lesson) seem to be reasonable for the students of that level?

The number of new words introduced in every lesson seems to be suitable for the students of that level both in Four Corners 3 and New Interchange 2.

2. Are the vocabulary items controlled to ensure systematic gradations from simple to complex items?

Vocabulary items have systematic gradations from simple to complex in both books.

3. Is the new vocabulary repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement?

The new vocabulary items are not repeated in subsequent lessons in both books.

4. Does the sentence length seem reasonable for the students of that level?

The length of sentences in New Interchange 2 and Four Corners 3 is reasonable for the students of that level.

5. Is the number of grammatical points as well as their sequence appropriate?

The number of grammatical points in Four Corners 3 is more appropriate than New Interchange 2 because the sequence of grammatical points is in order.

6. Do the structures gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of students?

In comparison with Four Corners 3, the structures in New Interchange 2 increase in complexity more to suit the reading ability of the students because New Interchange 2 starts with simple structures to complex structures but in Four Corners 3 the complexity of structures are equal.

7. Does the writer use current everyday language, and sentence structures that follow normal word order?

The writers use current everyday language and sentence structures in both books.

8. Do the sentences and paragraphs follow one another in a logical sequence?

The sentences and paragraphs follow one another in an appropriate way in both books.

9. Are linguistic items introduced in meaningful situations to facilitate understanding and ensure assimilation and consolidation?

In both of these textbooks linguistic items are introduced in meaningful situations which provide learners with language samples to work that learners may encounter outside the classroom. These items help learners understand and ascertain assimilation and consolidation.

C. Exercises

1. Do the exercises develop comprehension and test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas?

Exercises increase learners' comprehension and evaluate the knowledge of main ideas and details in two books.

2. Do the exercises involve vocabulary and structures which build up the learner`s repertoire?

Exercises of two books cover vocabularies and structures which improve learners' knowledge adequately.

3. Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion, spelling and dictation, guided composition)?

The exercises provide different types of written work such as sentence completion and guided compositions in both books but the writers of two books ignore exercises about spelling and dictation. The writers don't mention the rules of composition writing except some questions as a hint.

4. Does the book provide a pattern of review within lessons and cumulatively test new material?

Four Corners 3 doesn't provide review within lessons but New Interchange 2 provides it.

5. Do the exercises promote meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations?

The exercises increase meaningful communication by using realistic activities and situations in both books.

D. Illustrations

1. Do illustrations create a favorable atmosphere for reading and spelling by depicting realism and action?

Illustrations of two books create a favorable situation for reading and spelling by showing realism and action. Both writers draw learners' attention by real examples.

2. Are the illustrations clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learner?

Illustrations of both books are clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details so students are not confused by the illustrations.

3. Are the illustrations printed close enough to the text and directly related to the content to help the learner understand the printed text?

The printed illustrations of New Interchange 2 and Four Corners 3 are so close to the text and related to the content.

E. Physical Make-up

1. Is the cover of the book durable enough to withstand wear?

The cover of two books is not durable enough to withstand wear.

2. Is the text attractive (i.e., cover, page, appearance, binding)?

Page and appearance of both books are good but the cover of Four Corners 3 is better and more attractive than New Interchange 2.

3. Does the size of the book seem convenient for the students to handle?

The size of both books is not convenient enough for all students.

4. Is the type size appropriate for the intended learners?

The type size and font of both books are appropriate and easy to read.

The Four Corners series are newer in comparison to the New Interchange series. Although the authors have kept many features of the New Interchange series, they have modernized the Four Corners series in terms of pictures, dialogues, reading comprehension, and choice of vocabulary. Hamidi and Asadi (2015) found the same results comparing simultaneously Four Corners 1 and Top Notch Fundamentals A using the present checklist. The findings showed that both textbooks were almost the same in most parts. In comparison to Top Notch, Four Corners did not contain appropriate illustrations and physical make up, but as a dominating EFL textbook, it was flexible enough to be used. One reason for Four Corners to be used more could be its lower price (nearly half) comparing to Top Notch. Hamidi, Montazeri, Alizadeh, and Rezaie (2015) comparing Four Corners (1) and Top Notch Fundamentals (A) concluded that the two books almost did not differ based on Daoud and Celce-Murcia's (1979) checklist, though they both had some strengths and weaknesses.

V. Conclusion

The present study aimed at evaluating two series of ELT materials namely Interchange 2 and Four Corners 3, by means of a checklist adopted from Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) in terms of subject matter, vocabulary and structure, exercises, illustrations and physical make up. After conducting the evaluation, the results of the study were analyzed. As it was revealed by analyzing the data, Four Corners 3 and Interchange 2 both showed some weaknesses and strengths in some of the mentioned criteria. The study showed that in terms of subject matter, Four Corners 3 included more interesting subjects than Interchange 2, but in Interchange 2 students had better understanding of the topics as they were more related to the subjects. In addition, the contents in Four Corners 3 were clearer than the contents in Interchange 2. In terms of vocabulary and structure, there was no significant difference between these two textbooks. However, the number of the grammatical points mentioned in these books was different. The authors of Four Corners 3 used appropriate sequence of structural points. Another issue was the exercises; the writers of Interchange 2 could better consider structural rules in the textbook. Despite the fact that Four Corners 3 had better subject matter and content than those of Interchange 2, the latter book provided students with better exercises such as better and more different types of written work, vocabulary, structure, and meaningful communication. Both textbooks could satisfy students with favorable and clear illustration that were directly related to the content. It can be argued that the authors of Four Corners 3 could better draw learners' attention by employing more attractive and convenient texts and by regarding general physical make up. However, we should notice that there was no significant difference between these textbooks in terms of physical make up.

This study also has some limitations that should be taken into consideration. The first limitation is that the present study compared only one of the books of the Four Corners series with one of the books of the New Interchange series. Another limitation was that students' opinions were not considered. The present study may help instructors and materials developers improve the textbooks and remove the shortcomings of the textbooks regarding the similarities and differences between two English textbooks of Four Corners 3 and New Interchange 2. Additionally, teachers can identify the learners' problems in different parts of the books by considering the similarities and differences between these two textbooks.

APPENDIX. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR TEXTBOOK EVALUATION (DAOUD & CELCE-MURCIA, 1979)

Daoud, A., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Selecting and evaluating a textbook. In M. Celce-Murcia and L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 302- 307). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

0= totally lacking, 1= weak, 2= adequate, 3= good, 4= excellent

Items to examine	0	1	2	3	4
A. Subject matter					
1. Does the subject matter cover a variety of topics appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended(urban or rural environment; child or adult learners; male and/or female students)?					
2. Is the ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion?					
3. Is the content graded according to the needs of the students or the requirements of the existing syllabus (if there is one)?					
4. Is the material accurate and up-to-date?					
B. Vocabulary and structures	0	1	2	3	4
1. Does the vocabulary load (i.e. the number of new words introduced every lesson) seem to be reasonable for the students of that level?					
2. Are the vocabulary items controlled to ensure systematic gradations from simple to complex items?					
3. Is the new vocabulary repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement?					
4. Does the sentence length seem reasonable for the students of that level?					
5. Is the number of grammatical points as well as their sequence appropriate?					
6. Do the structures gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of students?					
7. Does the writer use current everyday language, and sentence structures that fallow normal word order?					
8. Do the sentences and paragraphs follow one another in a logical sequence?					
9. Are linguistic items introduced in meaningful situations to facilitate understanding and ensure assimilation and consolidation?					
C. Exercises	0	1	2	3	4
1. Do the exercises develop comprehension and test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas?					
2. Do the exercises involve vocabulary and structures which build up the learner`s repertoire?					
3. Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion, spelling and dictation, guided composition)?					
4. Does the book provide a pattern of review within lessons and cumulatively test new material?					
5. Do the exercises promote meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations?					
D. Illustrations	0	1	2	3	4
1. Do illustrations create a favorable atmosphere for reading and spelling by depicting realism and action?					
2. Are the illustrations clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learner?					
3. Are the illustrations printed close enough to the text and directly related to the content to help the learner understand the printed text?					
E. Physical make-up	0	1	2	3	4
1. Is the cover of the book durable enough to withstand wear?					
2. Is the text attractive (i.e., cover, page, appearance, binding)?					
3. Does the size of the book seem convenient for the students to handle?					
4. Is the type size appropriate for the intended learners?					

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Validity of Multimodality in Autonomous Learning of Listening and Speaking*

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Abstract—This paper investigates the validity of multimodality in non-English majors' autonomous listening through an experimental study. The experiment examines two groups. The experiment group learned English listening through multimodality both in class and after class, when autonomous learning was instructed and practiced. The control group is exposed to sound alone, which has been the traditional teaching and learning method of English listening for many years in college. Tests, surveys and interviews were conducted and the results were analyzed. The results indicate that multimodality could boost students' autonomous listening significantly and improve their comprehension, as well as multiliteracy capacity.

Index Terms—multimodality, listening comprehension, empirical study

I. BACKGROUND INTRODUCTION

A. Multimodality Theory and Practice

The concept of multimodality teaching is a new term suggested by the New London Group in 1996. As a new teaching theory, it advocated the integrating of a variety of channels and teaching methods, including the Internet, pictures, and role-play etc. into rousing multiple senses in language learning. It emphasized the cultivation of learners' multiliteracy capacity. With this teaching approach, the teacher could effectively make use of multiple modalities to gain, deliver and receive messages.

This approach has been receiving more and more attention and confirmation in recent years, both home and abroad, and there are many research findings on multimodality teaching theory, practice, class design, as well as the application of combining multimodality and specific teaching of language, such as writing, reading, listening and so on. For example, Hu Zhuanglin(2007) holds that traditional reading and writing are not enough in this era of multimedia, and with more and more multimedia facilities appearing in classrooms, the whole education is being multimodalized. Zhang Delu(2009)says that multimodality discourse refers to the phenomenon of communicating by applying a variety of feelings such as hearing, seeing and touching, through multiple methods and signal resources, such as listening, images, sound, actions and so on. Zeng Qingmin (2011) had a research on the application of multimodality discourse analysis theory into college English teaching, and found it more effective and had different effects on students of different English levels.

B. Theories and Practices on Autonomous Learning

Arguments and practices on the concept of autonomous learning began in 1981, when Holec had his work Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning published. From then on this concept has become a hot topic in language teaching field. In recent years, a lot of Chinese scholars have done a lot of study, analysis and practice and made plenty of achievements in this aspect. Many of them combined autonomous study with the teaching of listening and did research with outstanding findings, which proves that autonomous learning of listening is quite feasible. For example, Yu Senlin (2008) believes that the cultivation of autonomous listening abilities can enhance other aspects of the students' autonomous learning abilities, and as a result, their whole-life learning abilities and self-development will be benefited a great deal in the future. Zhu Xiaoshen (2011) probes into the implementation of autonomous learning of College English listening in the web environment.

Autonomous learning has already been widely accepted by both teachers and students in today's college English teaching and learning. It is especially advocated in the practice of listening. To make autonomous learning of English listening more interesting and effective, plenty of attractive audio and audio-visual materials in today's Internet environment could be of great help. With the popularity of multimedia devices in colleges, it seems natural that multimodality teaching be applied into facilitating autonomous learning.

C. The Integration of Multimodality and Autonomous Learning

At present, although there are various researches on multimodality and autonomous study respectively, the combination of the two aspects are comparatively hard to find. Li Xin (2012) had an empirical study on the validity of

multimodality teaching pattern of autonomous listening, which found that this pattern could effectively improve the students' listening and multiliteracy ability. However, this research was based on classroom teaching without exploring after-class learning and it was on English majors only. Wang Yuwen (2009) had a research on multimodality autonomous listening and made a detailed design and stated the monitoring method of students' learning on the Internet. Her research was based on the E-learning system and whose experiment objects were post-graduates only.

The author found that thorough studies in this area on non-English majors in college are by far far from enough, but the number of students is quite large. To them, English is a required course which is given at most 4 hours of class each week. To learn a foreign language well in such short period of time is not enough. Therefore, autonomous learning in their spare time is quite essential for them to effectively improve their English level. They urgently need instructing and better methods to make full use of the rich materials easily accessible with a simple click of the mouse.

II. THE ORIGINALITY OF THIS RESEARCH

Different from previous studies, this research was an empirical study about the practicing of autonomous learning of English listening through multimodality teaching pattern among non-English majors. This research was supported by an experiment with the support of three teachers and four classes of non-English majors. They committed to the instructing and carrying out of the instructions to learn respectively, worked very hard with discipline for a whole term, and they both reaped the benefit of their hard work.

The present college English teaching purpose is to improve the students' listening and speaking ability, and at the same time strengthen their autonomous learning ability. Under this background of college English teaching reform, this research focused on the application of multimodality teaching pattern to cultivate students' autonomous learning both in and out of class, the purpose of which was to improve their listening and speaking capacity and promote their comprehensive application of English. Experiments, surveys and interviews were conducted to explore the validity of this approach.

III. THE EXPERIMENT

A. Main Content of This Research

Multimodality autonomous learning is an open teaching approach, which is also the extension of the classroom teaching and learning. The aim is to strengthen and enhance the content of classroom teaching, satisfying students' individual demands. According to the teaching requirements, learners could learn how to interactively listen according to their own listening level and through their accustomed methods. They could learn by integrating sight, hearing, touching and learning resources of multimedia listening in the Internet environment. These resources include sound, video materials and their corresponding scripts. They should make and revise their studying plans and finish the assignments autonomously within required time limits and choose whether to make addition to their listening materials according to their studying requirements.

This research integrated multimodality teaching theory, teaching theory of listening class, autonomous learning theory and after-class study. It is a comprehensive integrity of class teaching and after-class study. Meanwhile, it checked how the students accept and support this pattern and concluded the strengths and weaknesses of applying it. A Specific performance of the experiment as well as the data and the result of data analysis will be stated here. A survey as well as an interview will be conducted to examine whether this pattern is valid.

B. The Objective of the Research

This research was done with the aim of breaking traditional teaching pattern of listening and speaking class, taking students as the real center of learning and cultivating their ability to learn autonomously and confidently.

Questions to be answered by the experiment are as follows:

1) Will multimodality teaching boosts students of non-English majors' autonomous learning of listening, speaking and their multiliteracy capacity?

2) What are the advantages of pictures and videos as well as their captions in listening comprehension?

3) Is writing or taking notes helpful in promoting listening and speaking ability?

C. The Process of the Experiment

1. Choosing objects for the experiment

Two classes of science and two classes of arts from non-English majors were chosen as the experiment group. To this group experiment was conducted. Two other classes of science and another two of arts from non-English majors were chosen as control group. According to the college entrance examination grade, the English levels of these eight classes were very close; almost the same.

To both the experiment group and the control group, two tests were conducted, one at the mid-term, which was about two months from the beginning of the experiment, and the other at the end of the term, which was about four months from the beginning of the experiment. A survey was conducted at the end of term with the students in the experiment group. The results from both the exams and surveys were analyzed and compared. According to the results, some

students from both groups were chosen to be interviewed.

2. The training of students

2.1 The teacher experienced multimodality learning together with the students in class, making students the center of class so as to boost their comprehensive capacity of being the center. They learned how to deal with the various materials and learned effectively from them. Most importantly of all, they learned the necessary disciplines, as well as how to take charge of time and use it scientifically in order not to concentrate and get distracted by the temptations online.

The arrangement of materials and the division of time are as follows:

Types of materials	audio	Audio-visual	Text reading	speaking	writing
Time arrangement (minutes every day)	15	20	10	10	5

Students should spend at least 60 minutes every day and distribute them as required. The texts should be related to the audio and audio-visual materials. And the texts should be read after they have listened to or watched these materials.

2.2 To get the students prepared for autonomous learning psychologically and methodologically, they were trained for cognitive and metacognitive strategies, as well as their language sensitivity and language learning.

strategies	Description of the strategies	Questions to be answered by the students after being explained by the teacher
Meta-cognitive strategies	Self-evaluation by the students	1.Could you learn English well through your own hard work?
		2.Could you make sure such time is spared to concentrate on learning listening in your spare time each day?
		3.Which is the weakest part of your English capacity, listening, speaking, reading or writing?
		4. Do you think you could improve your listening and speaking by yourself?
	Self-consciousness	5.Do your want to be the center of class and be more active both in your own learning and responsive to the teacher's instruction?
	Self planning by the students	6.Do you want to accept the learning plans and do you think they are beneficial to your English learning?
		7.Do you want to be cooperative and reflective in the complementing of your plans?
	motivation	8.Do you think you are essential in improving your English level?
		9.Do you think your English teacher is important for you to learn English well?
		10.Do you work hard to learn English well in order to pass different types of exams?
		11.Do you want to learn English well just to find a good job?
cognitive strategies	speaking	12.Are you willing to talk with your partner about what you listen to or watch?
	writing	13.Can you persist in writing journals every week?
	Listening and watching	14.Do you want to listen to and watch the required materials?
Social strategies	cooperation	14.Do you want to be cooperative with the members in your group?
	Willingness to participate	16.Do you want to be active in class and be brave to ask and answer questions?
		17.Do you think being cooperative with your group member could boost your speaking and learning?
	The wanting of interference from authority	18.Do you think the autonomous learning after class needs the teacher's interference and instruction?
Multimodality teaching and learning	Agreement of multimodality learning	19.Do you want to accept this method and try to adapt to it as soon as possible?

These questions were answered one by one after being explained by the teacher. This is both a general understanding and a training of the students' cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. It could help the teacher to better know their students and at the same time remind the students to know themselves better.

The result can be summarized as follows: 1) The students of the experiment group agreed to be cooperative and be active both in class and after class. Although some of them were not sure or confident at first, they agreed after the teacher's explanation and promise that this is essential to learn a language well, and that it is crucial for the success of the experiment. 2) They promised to spare one hour every day and divide the time as required. 3) They promised to monitor each other and stay focused on the learning materials assigned by the teacher, not get distracted by online games, movies, novels or other temptations.

2.3 Establishing plans (or signing learner contracts): taking into account of their individual listening levels, interests and demands, etc., students set their objectives for study, limited the learning contents, making their learning schedules, setting objectives within a short term. They also chose and decided their learning methods and skills, and wrote a feasible plan.

According to the plan, students listened to or watched abundantly the discs provided by the textbooks or materials they chose from the Internet, radio, language labs, borrowed or bought by themselves or provided by the teacher.

2.4 The carrying out of the plan: The teaching and learning process was divided into three stages: pre-listening, listening or watching, and post-listening. In each stage, methods and strategies students should get prepared and took include: prediction, taking note, writing comments, dictation, and regular oral report, etc. all of which were instructed by the teacher and enhanced through practice many times.

The following is a specific example of the learning and teaching process according to the three stages. The material taken is a piece of video clip about going to parties and how to have small talks.

1) Pre-listening: The students were instructed to go over the new words from the video. From these words and the title and questions asked, the students were asked to predict what this video might be about. All predictions were encouraged although some may be far from what they are going to hear, because the prediction process will boost the brain activities, elements relating to the topic will arise in the conscious and subconscious mind.

2) Listening and watching: The students were asked to watch the video for two times without showing the caption, and then do the exercises and check the answer. After that, they read the script of the caption. It is a conversation between the doctor and Walter, who are friends. Walter is going to play Santa for the children in the orphanage, but he is very nervous and Doctor is trying to give him some advice and encouragement. In the short clip, there are three elements that are funny and should make the audience laugh at least several times. But these elements are difficult for the students to understand.

The first one is the speech that Walter prepared for the kids, which is like a formal speech for a group of adults.

The second is when Doctor shows with his body language that this speech is not proper, while Walter's response is "I know, I know. Too formal."

The third is Walter's response when he found Doctor's hesitation at one of his presents prepared for the kids, a pack of beef, "I should've bought pork."

These humorous points may not be spotted by the students when they watch the video because of the listening capacity. The teacher reminds them to talk about these points and ask them to think about the meaning between the lines.

At last, the students were asked to watch the video again. Then listened for another two times with the caption on.

3) Post-listening: The students were asked to reflect on the video, and write in their notebooks about their understanding of how to make a small talk and what is wrong with Walter's planning of what to say to the kids. Then they were asked to talk with their partner about the video's content and imagine what they would say and what presents they would prepare if they were Walter and what suggestions they would give Walter if they were Doctor.

The teacher could go one step further by asking the students to write down or talk about one of the most unforgettable small talk they have made or have heard or read. They could also talk about their experience of choosing the wrong presents for friends or relatives.

The students' senses of sight, hearing, touching, smelling and tasting etc. were fully put into practice. Besides in class, every time they practice listening in their spare time, they wrote down a little note about what they listened to or watched and what they feel about what they have listened to, had group discussion, reported to their groups by summarizing their study and benefits, realizing the objectives of multiliteracy.

3. Findings of the experiment

A variety of research instruments were adopted: Surveys were conducted to both teachers and students, while students were tested and interviewed regularly and quantitative analysis was done with the results.

For a whole term, the experiment group was learning as described above, while the control group was learning with the traditional method. Their textbooks are the same and were in the charge of the same teacher. They were both tested by the same papers in the middle of the term in November, 2014, and at the end of the term in January, 2015. The average grades of four aspects in both exams are listed as follows:

Grades of the two groups in November, 2014 and January, 2015 respectively.

groups	class	L1	ave.	L2	ave.	S1	ave.	S2	ave.
Experi-g roups	one	14.2	14	15.9	16	15.3	15.4	16.2	16.4
	two	13.8		16.1		15.5		16.6	
Control groups	one	13.5	13.4	13.8	13.6	14.9	14.8	15.0	15
	two	13.2		13.4		14.7		14.9	

(Notes: L=Listening grades, the full mark is 20 points; S=Speaking grades, the full mark is 20 points; R=Reading grades, the full mark is 20 points; W=Writing grades, the full mark is 20 points; 1=the first exam in Octomber, 2014; 2=the second exam in January, 2015; ave.=average points)

From the table above we can see that in both the first and the second exams, the experiment group made obvious progress in both listening and speaking, the improvement is 2 points in listening and 1 point in speaking. While the control group's improvement was only about 0.2 in both the two aspects.

The difference in the grades between the two groups is obvious. For the first exam, the grade of the experiment group is o.6 point higher while 2.4 points higher respectively in listening. In speaking, in both exams, the experiment group is 0.6 point higher in both exams.

Reading and writing were tested at the same time when listening and speaking were tested. The experiment group also did better than the control group. The results are omitted here.

Obviously, after one term of hard work with the multimodality autonomous teaching, the students made obvious progress in their listening and speaking capacity. These improvements could not have come from the improvement of the original monomodality, but from the result of the learners' several senses interacting with each other, such as sight, hearing and touching, etc. Thus their multiliteracy capacity was eventually improved.

4. The findings of the survey and interviews on the students are as follows:

1)This teaching and learning pattern was welcomed by almost all the learners, claiming that it increased their interest in English learning and their efficiency was boosted as well.

2)This pattern could better support their autonomous learning, because it makes learning more interesting and attractive and studying is not very boring anymore, so they could be more committed.

3) The great progress they have already achieved greatly encouraged the students of the experiment group, they promised to go on with this learning method in the future.

4) The teacher and conductor of the experiment found that more time and energy were put into the preparation of class. After class, he also needed to spend some time supervising and instructing the students. In class, he had to persist in checking their work and encouraging them to continue. But once everything had been done, he felt teaching easier and the classroom atmosphere more active and quite pleasant.

5. The answer to the questions at the beginning of the experiment.

1) Multimodality teaching has obviously boosted students of non-English majors' autonomous learning of listening, speaking and their multiliteracy capacity.

2) The advantages of pictures and videos as well as their captions can make the listening practice more vivid, and if used properly, could become great support.

3) Writing or taking notes are helpful to the students and get them prepared for speaking, through which they are relaxed and could be more brave and confident, especially when speaking is concerned.

6. The disadvantages of this approach

Some students from the experiment group complained that pictures or videos may somewhat interfere with their listening comprehension as well as their speaking ability because they got distracted and couldn't be confined to what they are listening to or what they were supposed to write. In this aspect, there arose some negative influences.

To be cooperative with other group members and stick to the plan, the students should be highly disciplined and self-controlled. Thus, some interference from the authority should be called in to make sure of that. That would be too much work for the teacher, which needs to have other ways to be replaced by.

As for the differences between the two groups, the experiment group students put more time and energy to their English learning than the control group. Therefore, we couldn't measure what the differences could be if both groups put in exactly the same amount of time and energy.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this time of multimedia and Internet, it is a waste of resources if we don't put such plenty of materials of all kinds into usage and let them help us to teach and help our students to learn, because with the help of which, teaching and learning could be more efficient and interesting. As for the difficulties, such as the high requirement for the teacher, measures could be taken to solve this problem. For example, the teacher could get some help from volunteers whose English level is high and who is willing to help.

This pattern is suitable for students of all backgrounds, no matter they are English majors or non-English majors, no matter they are in the medium level or high level. Multimodality plus autonomous learning should be the future of language teaching and learning, especially listening.

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The Impact of Cultural Factors in Learning and Education on Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—**The aim of the present study is to investigate the potential effects cultural factors in learning and Education on Iranian EFL learner both in terms of their attitudes towards the cultural factors and their listening comprehension. A combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods was applied with 64 students. Learning logs, treatment, close ended questionnaires were the means of data collections. The result of data analysis indicated that the researcher's treatment proved to be effective but in varying degrees with different participants. On the basis of the results obtained. It is strongly recommended that foreign language teacher consider. The cultural factors and employ specific teaching techniques that can improve student's English abilities.**

Index Terms—**cultural theory, cultural awareness and identity, text book, EFL**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is an common system of human. They have some need which Coney by this system, like needs, desires, wishes. People come in to contact by the language system, cultural, and point of view. (Richard et al. 1989)In this regard knowing a language goes far beyond its structure and so does the learning of it .In these terms foreign language learning is a complex process of simultaneous acquisition of a number of competencies like, grammatical competence, communicative competence … et c. Therefore, foreign language learning is also supposed to establish a change in learner's attitudes toward his/her own culture and towards the target culture. Many teachers have see in as their goal of learning and associate the teaching of culture in to the foreign language educational program (Brooks, 1975).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Culture

Human beings and a have been affable creature. They have always lived in a social group. They can not live alone. Because. They try to live in peace there must have special rules and regulation that lead them to this uniformity in two society. The rules and regulations are called culture. Culture is a set beliefs, attitudes, customs. Behaviors and social habits of a community (Richard et al, 1989). Therefore culture plays an important role in the community. Thus culture is the glue that binds the community together. Culture as defined by (Lado, 1957) is synonymous with the ways of the people. People and acclaimed by the same people when looked up with hesitation or censure by the others and often in about arguments with amazingly little understating of what those ways really are and mean. If a visitor is in the united state to study the style life of American or their culture everybody is delighted to help him. Have an understanding of the way and that culture, but what is shown to the visitor and what people tell him is a different story. How do people know what to show and tell the visitor? If the visitor is near an automobile plant, he will be shown an assembly line and the tourist spots in the city, and perhaps a farm and a school. He will also be told about the well –disposed general. That Americans have been learnt about themselves which my happen to be the same well-disposed generalities that visitor has taught about himself and his culture. Periodically someone preferring to pose as a disjoined intellectual may criticize a thing or two or everything. However, people are preferred helpless to interpret themselves regularly and explained what they do though custom, achieved almost unnoticed from their elders and their cultural environment. People incapability to explain their cultural ways alongside their in capability to explain their language, unless especial study is carried out about it. The paradox lies where the people are able to use the complex structures of their language surprising ease and flexibility, but when someone asks Americans to use between and among, for instance, they will describe the most amazing fiction with the best purpose of telling the truth (Lado, 1957).

B. The Importance of Culture in Language Teaching

It is generally accepted that language is a part of culture and it is very essential attitude in it some scientists pay attention that language, culture would not be possible. Language simultaneously depicts culture and is impressed and shaped by it and in the wide spread sense, it is also symbolic description of people. Science embodies their historical and cultural background as well as their approach to life and their ways of *living and thinking. (Brown, 1999, p.165) tells the two as follows: culture and language are interlocking. They are sophisticatedly inter related so no one can isolate the two without losing the significance of language or culture to put in a nut shell, culture and language and

language are in in extricable. Some people describe that language is the reflection of culture in the other words, people can learn culture through its language. Another image used to represent language and culture is iceberg. The observable part is language, with an invisible part it culture. The most essential part is indiscernible beneath the surface, is the invisible aspect of culture make a living organism. Language is tissue culture is own blood. Language would be dead without culture and culture would have no shape without language. Many linguists inspect the association between language and culture (Nida, 1998, p.29). Believes that language and culture are two symbolic systems. Everything we say in language and culture has meaning descriptive or associative, denotative or connotative. Every language has its own meaning because it is interrelated with its own culture and culture is more comprehensive than language.

C. Integrative Culture into Language Teaching

People with different cultures can ascribe to bizarre things while using the same language form. For illustration, when a person as an English man says lunch, probably means hamburger or pasta, but a man with different nationality, like, a Chinese will most maybe referring to steam bread or rice. The division of culture from language resulting to culture from Language leading to culture confiscation as being compared with conclusive integration of culture with the English language teaching at different EFL contents. One side of a coin is the disintegration of cultural from the English language in ELT contexts in Iranian EFL classes at different levels of educational system, i.e. from primary up to tertiary levels. The other side of the coin is the integration of culture with language teaching in multifarious contexts. The horrible mutilation of passages, tapes, films, learning and teaching materials as well as English magazines and news paper is the least preventive measure done in ELT context to reduce the probability of culture incursion/ invasion.

The out comes of such disintegration has dismaying effects on EFL learner, since their misunderstandings and misinterpretations of the socio cultural norms of the English langue communicates case them many problems in time of real communication with English native speakers. (Cook, 1999; Kramsch 1998).

The goal of this study is to answer the following questions:

1. What is the EF learners attitude toward the censorship of English book?

2. Does text mutilation have any significant effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners?

This study wanted to show the reasons behind the disintegration of culture in EFL contexts in Iranian institutions and organization and light on the mutilation of course materials and the impacts it may. Cause on the learners' knowledge & personality.

(Prodromou, 1992) requested what should language teaching be about? And supposed from their answers that there is lot at powerful relationship in learner's mind learning a language and learning about people who speak the language; (ibid: 40).

Linguists and anthropologists have acknowledged that the forms and uses of a language depends on the cultural aspect of the community which means that linguistic competence is not enough for learner to be appropriate in that language (Krasner, 1999). Language learners require to be enlightened, for example, of the culturally applicable ways to speak people, depict gratitude, make request and agree or disagree with someone.

D. Teaching Culture without Pre Conceptions

Culture information should be demonstrated in a non judgmental fashion, it means that, no make difference between the students' native culture and culture taught in the classroom. (Kramsch, 1993) explains the "Third culture" of the language classroom. Kramsch (1993) describes the: Third culture" of the language classroom- a neutral space that learners can create and use to explore and reflect on their own and the target culture and language some teachers have recognized it effective to express student with object or ideas that are specially to the culture of study and a class should be a neutral space that learners can present and use to explore and reflect on their own and the target culture. Teacher should give the clue to two students about target culture. This could lead into related discussion in the target culture. It is also critical to help student recognize that cultures are not monolithic.

Any type of interaction in any particular culture has a variety of successful behaviors.

Teachers must permits students to learn and explore culture heartedly so that they can interact their own specific and enable them to represent their own voice in the second speck community.

E. Young Adult Attitude towards, Foreign Culture

Professor of English Michael Lessard – Clouston (2000) notices three attitudes of culture. These are 'prevalent', specific, and 'dynamic' aspect. At first, according to (Saville Troike, 1975, p.83) "integrated both immaterial manifestation of culture that are comfortably see and 'non- material' one that are arduous to observe." The culture characteristic are sometimes effortlessly acknowledged and they sometimes disguise behind some behaviors, therefore it is complicated to learn or teach them.

(A daskov & Fashi, 1990, p.3-4) by the distinguishing aspect of culture mean: media, music, literature and cinema. For successful communication family, interaction, ceremony, material condition … The system and motivation of the learners is another reason for selection of culture topic. They have their own reason and attitudes for their future.

They, themselves are aware of their needs while learning a foreign language (Rod Ellis, 1997, p.75-76) explains instrumental, integrative, regulative, and intrinsic c motivation. Briefly, the first is instrument and very important to find a better job. Students are not interested in more than is necessary to be fluent in the language. The second, is integrative

motivation is critical in students' are interested in the people and culture represented by target language group". For these reasons, learners, culture lesson, arouse them to get better understanding of language and satisfy their needs. Next conclusive motivation is "The cause of L2 achievement."

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Introduction

This chapter aims at the elaboration of some features of the recent study. To brush up what the researcher has gone through in the previous chapters. The research question will be mentioned once again. Then, There will be a brief explanation on the participants and the reason behind their selection. The design, instrumentation, procedures and statistical analyses of the study will be discussed to full detail.

B. Research Question

- Why and in what way, do social and cultural factors influence learning second language.

C. Participants

80 Iranian students at "Shokooh Institute" took part in this study. Having administered a celt test by the institute, the researcher chooses 60 participants. The criterion was to select those who second one standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean on the celt. Thus two homogenous groups, control and experimental, were settled in which 30 students participated, both male and female and aged between twenty and thirty.

D. Design

The present research is a combination of qualitative and quantitative stud design. A pre test and post- test quantitative experimental approach has been employed, measuring the effect of the treatment used by the investigator. A questionnaire served as the result.

As the independent variable in this study is personality type, 30 students out of 80, were sent into two of the researchers. Colleague's classes were chosen as the control group of the study. The other 30 students were chosen as the experimental group of the study that were supposed to pass a 2-month treatment period.

Additionally, the researcher aims at identifying the type and degree of relationship between two variables rather than establishing a cause and effect relationship. Therefore, the design after this present study is "quasi-experimental" as recommended by Hatch and Farhady (1981). It should be mentioned that the issue of text- mutilation, the culture integration and culture disintegration and the way of teaching are three variables of this study.

E. Instrumentation

A celt test was administered to the participants in 3 different sessions. The first one (The celt) for measuring their level of proficiency and the other one was taken twice, once at the beginning of the semester as the pre/test of the study and again at the end of the term as the post/test of the study.

Celt

The first instrument which was used by the Institute to measure the language proficiency level of the students, was on original test of English as the foreign language (Celt), a well- known and wildly used English language proficiency test.

The test is to be taken in 115 minutes and encompasses three major sections:

1) The structure section consists of 75 items. This type of items involves an incomplete sentence and requires the test taker choose from the four options given for each sentence one which completes it. The time for completing this section is 35 minutes.

2) The vocabulary section consists of 75 items this type of items involves an incomplete sentence and requires the test taker choose from the four options given for each sentence the one which completes it. The time for this section is 35 minutes.

3) The reading comprehension section consists of 24, items. The test takers are supposed to answer to the questions related to 3 different text, each text 8 questions the time allocated to this section is 35 minutes.

The allotment of scores is demonstrated below:

TABLE 3.1
INFORMATION ON THE CEIT TEST

CEIT	NUMBER OF ITEMS
Structure	75
Vocabulary	75
Reading comprehension	24

F. Procedures

CEIT was administered at first, As specified in Tabl 3.1. it consisted of 174 items in three sections: structure vocabulary and Reading comprehension. The subtest, each started with detailed instructions in English, but the participants, native language was used to give explanations and to make sure that they fully understood how to perform

on each part. The students were given 115 minutes to finish the three subtests and they were required to mark their answers on their answer sheets. Based on the scores of the CELT, 60 homogenous participants were selected to take test as the pre/test at the study.

Based on their performing the scores of the control/experimental pre-test were gathered. Two month treatment period was done during the course by teaching the cultural points related to the text mutilation and cultural dis integration only to the experimented group. The book which was used is culled "Extra book" by "miles craven". 10 units of this book had ban worked only with participant of the experimental group and the test of the one/post test were exactly according to the material they had learnt during the term.

Control group did not have any special way of teaching over cultural and text mutilation and just they had a normal procedure of acquiring a general English language course.

After treatment period, the test was taken again as the post – test of the study to both control and experimental and the results, scores and the comparison will be mentioned in following discussion.

G. Data Collection

The CELT subtests were scored by using the original key of correct responses and each correct response was assigned. The total number of the items being 100 and the participants' scores were subtracted from this figure.

This test was managed to be given twice. First at the beginning of the semester as the pre-test of the control and experimental group and after a 2 month of treatment period, as the post –test of these two groups for second time. The result will be mentioned in following discussions.

H. Data Analysis

Pre first step to be taken at this stage was to tabulate the data. Since research questions were dealt with in this study. The statistical procedures had to be performed in two separated series of analysis. The T-Test estimation which is used to show the amount of influence of one variable on the other variable, was done to provide answer to the research questions; never the less the estimation of some fundamental issue like, mean, standard deviation and text reliability was inevitable.

I. Questionnaire

A close – ended questionnaire was administrated it comprised of 32 items and was made up of 5 options. The first corresponded to strongly agree and the fifth to strongly disagree. Because of the uniqueness of this case study the researcher had to design the questions herself based on the intention of the study. Tow teachers as the rater and a professor in the field of education reviewed and approved of questions.

To ascertain that the participants' beliefs and attitudes towards their native culture and the censer ship of English books and text mutilations and the effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners were clearly depicted.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In this study has reported a qualitative and quantitative study on the cultural factors from English language teaching and learning context, materials and activities the researcher has carried out a critical linguistic study of the Next series.

Have inside then many cultural values which are explained in detail in chapter three.

In the next step the researcher found out that text books are all written and published under academic standards and supervisions, so there is no need for censorship, further more. There is no points in doing so in order to prevent from cultural invasions, since our students live in a modern world where satellite and internet have paved the way for them to be in contact with other cultures and ideas. They are mature enough to make their own decisions considerably.

This survey has talked round books teaching English and learners of English , therefore . It has some views to add the field and some conclusion.

V. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study may have different kind of implication, such as sociological implications and pedagogical implications.

A. Sociological Implication

There is a lot of wrong attitude about the phenomenon of cultural attack and cultural impact in our country which is Islamic country. The reason is the distance between our cultural value as an Islamic community from those which western countries live by one of the chief worries of many parents and elders of our society is that children might be appealed by the foreign culture in books designed by writers living in foreign countries.

This research, however represents that cultural integration and disintegration doesn't happen through one book. If these control value are shown in one book which is used for teaching English it does not become part of the learners' belief system they found the book censorship respectable. They insisted that censorship just limits and controls the way people feel and think?

There force, there is no cause for worry.

Those people who want to pressure Islamic culture can rest assured that foreign books. Will not kinder with their work.

B. Implications for Syllabus Design

The findings of this study can be useful in pedagogical respects as well. In fact it can makers in teaching and material development.

Implications for syllabus design and material development.

1. This study shows that next series do contain cultural values. This presentation of values is done in a subtle and clever way. This can be good model. When syllabus designers and material developers start planning books they can take. This possibility in to account. They can include understanding.

The cultural of day – to – day conversational conventions such as greetings, fare wells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments means more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences.

2. Since this problem of cultural disintegration and teat mutilation has a big impact on learners' second language. They deep down liked uncensored ones better. Moreover, they disliked the idea of having one censor as a super-being to decide to them to read or see. Since our students live in a modern world where satellite and internet have pare the way for them to be in contact with other futures and ideas. In addition, Iranian student, here their own right and at least it should be allowed to know about the fact, so this the least right of human being to know the truth. If we look at foreign books without bias we will see there are positive values form or point of view as well when me are sure that there are many different culture and behaviors around the world and are know that all the countries have their own culture and customs, and they will not harm us. We can then start to use them to improve our learning EFL language.

C. Implications for Teaching

1. This research has shown that teachers are aware of the interdependency of culture and language. They have also shown that they do try to give cultural awareness to their students. These teachers should also come to know about cultural values which are implicitly put into the books so that they will be aware of what they are teaching.

2. When teachers are made aware of the existence such values, then can be asked to give explanations to the student. Teachers can elaborate of the cultural values in their classrooms. They can explain the cultural values to their students along with the causes which gives rise to such values, so that they come to understand the cultures are different and there is a reason for this difference which is usually the needs of those people.

3. Since students do not accept the cultural values in foreign books in to their cultural system, it can be deduced that they have not come to accept it and they hold their own culture in esteem. Teachers therefore have to be very careful not to say anything demeaning, humiliating or do grading about the students' cultural system. Such a mistake will have a very series demotivating effect on the students.

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Role of Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) in Chinese Undergraduate Students' Comprehension of Textbooks

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Abstract—Vocabulary knowledge has always been considered crucial in reading comprehension. This paper aims to link Chinese learners' performance on Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) to the profiling of their textbook so as to draw pedagogical implications on English teaching. The participants were 108 freshmen in Jiangsu University of Technology, China. All of them took part in the VLT, and their English textbook was profiled to see the lexical level of the vocabulary. Results showed that 81.48% of the participants had mastered the 2,000-word level, and the vocabulary of the textbook was within the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. However, results also indicated that no participants had reached the mastery level of the K-3, K-5 and AWL words. Based on the findings of the research, it was suggested that the language teacher could make use of the textbook to consolidate the participants' K-1 to K-2 words and at the same time give them more exposure to K-3 to K5 words as well as academic words by exposing them to some extra materials.

Index Terms—vocabulary, vocabulary size, Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT), reading comprehension, profiling

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past two decades, vocabulary in second language learning has attracted more and more interest of both researchers and language teachers. It plays a fundamental and complex role in both first and second language learning. According to Schmitt (2013), there are two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge, one being breath (size) and the other being depth (knowledge). Breath refers to how many words a learner knows at a particular lexical level while depth means how well a learner knows about a certain word. Vocabulary breath is very important for second language learners in that when they attempt to understand a certain text, how many words they know in the text is likely to influence their comprehension. Many researchers and scholars have conducted research to investigate the relationship between learners' vocabulary size and their performance on reading comprehension (Hu & Nation, 2000; Nation, 2001; Qian, 2002; Zhang & Annual, 2008). It is claimed that most second language learners need to know at least 95% of words in a particular text in order to achieve an adequate understanding of the text (Hu & Nation, 2000; Nation, 2001), and learners' vocabulary size, in most cases, significantly correlates to learners' reading comprehension (Qian, 2002; Zhang & Annual, 2008; Alavi & Akbarian, 2012). Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) (Nation, 2001) is a validated and reliable test, which aims to measure language learners' receptive knowledge of vocabulary at particular lexical levels. Although most of the researchers have examined the correlation of learners' performance on VLT and reading comprehension, only a handful of them connect students' performance on VLT with the profiling of the textbook so as to draw implications for pedagogy.

This research, by administering VLT to 108 undergraduate students in a university in China, seeks to find out the vocabulary size of the participants at 2,000 (2K), 3,000 (3K), 5,000 (5K), 10,000 (10K) and academic word (AW) levels. And then by comparing the participants' performance on VLT with the profiling of the textbook they use, the researcher aims to draw possible pedagogical implications for teaching.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this part, firstly some important terminologies will be introduced to better understand the concept of vocabulary. Secondly, the relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension will be elaborated on using previous research in this field. Finally, the gap in the previous research will be identified along with the significance and purpose of the present research.

A. Understanding Vocabulary

Vocabulary refers to the set of words known and used by a particular person within a language (Schmitt, 2013). Vocabulary plays both a significant and complex role in not only first language learning but also second language acquisition. When it comes to what vocabulary means, some very specialist terminologies should be introduced to achieve a better understanding of it, such as tokens, types, lemmas and word families. Please look at the following example: The dog loves the ball.

In this sentence, there are five separate words, so this sentence contains five tokens. When counting the number of separate words in a text, words are often called tokens. This way of counting words is very useful since it helps learners figure out how many words there are in a passage, how many words they have written for an essay and how large a corpus is.

When deciding how many word types in the above example, it is the number of different words in this sentence that counts rather than the number of separate words. Therefore, in the above example, although it has five tokens, it only contains four types since the word 'the' occurs twice. When measuring second language learners' vocabulary size, types are more significant than tokens in that much more attention is paid to how many words a particular learner can produce regardless of repetitions (Moghadam, Zainal & Ghaderpour, 2012).

Lemma refers to the head or root of a word and all of its inflections, but the part of speech of this word must not be changed. For example, in English, the lemma of the word "judge" would include 'judging', 'judges' and 'judged', but 'judgment' does not belong to its lemma because 'judgment' is a noun but not a verb.

Word family usually concludes the base word, all of its inflections and derivatives regardless of its part of speech (Schmitt, 2013), so the word family of 'judge' includes 'judge', 'judges', 'judging', 'judged' and 'judgment'.

B. Vocabulary Size and Reading Comprehension

As Schmitt states, "reading is an important part of all but the most elementary of vocabulary programs" (2013, p. 150). Vocabulary knowledge has always been crucial for second language learners in reading comprehension since a learner must know most of the words in a running text so as to comprehend a certain text. Therefore, inadequate vocabulary will undoubtedly influence second language learners' reading performance in a negative way. Although the exact percentage has not been established, recent research has shown the significant role of vocabulary size in reading comprehension. According to Nation (2001), learners with a vocabulary size of more than 3000 words can read with ease because in most situations it gives coverage of at least 95% of a running text. Similarly, Hu & Nation (2000) created four coverage groups (80%, 90%, 95%) by replacing some words in the text with words beyond participants' vocabulary knowledge, and found that most L2 English learners would need 98% text coverage to achieve adequate comprehension of a particular text. Qian (2002), by administering Vocabulary Levels Test to a group of Chinese and Korean L2 learners, concluded that the participants' reading comprehension score was highly correlated to the score of VLT. Zhang & Annual (2008) conducted a research study among a group of secondary students in Singapore by using the Vocabulary Levels Test, and found that the students' vocabulary knowledge at the 2K and the 3K word levels was highly correlated to their reading comprehension. Alavi & Akbarian (2012) investigated the relationship between learners' vocabulary size and their performance on TOEFL reading item types. It was found that participants' performance on the TOEFL reading items (guessing vocabulary, stated detail and main idea) correlated to their overall performance in VLT.

The findings of the previous research indicate that second language learners' vocabulary size greatly impacts their reading comprehension. If a text contains too many difficult words beyond learners' vocabulary knowledge, it will definitely hinder their understanding of the text, thus negatively influence their second language learning. A reasonable coverage of known words in a running text will not only help with learners' reading comprehension but also yield a better learning effect. Although previous research has worked out the role of vocabulary size in reading comprehension, only a handful of them connected participants' performance on VLT with the profiling of the textbook to see whether some implications for pedagogy could be found. Therefore, the present study seeks to measure the vocabulary size of a group of first-year undergraduates in Jiangsu University of Technology, China. Based on the results of their performance on VLT, their textbook will then be profiled to see the lexical levels of the vocabulary. By making comparison of students' vocabulary level and the lexical level of their textbook, this research aims to make conclusions as to whether the textbook fits the students' vocabulary needs and make possible pedagogical implications.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this part, the research setting, the participants, the materials used and the research procedure of this study will be described.

A. Research Setting

The research was conducted in Jiangsu University of Technology, a university in the southeastern part of China. Similar to other schools, the college puts emphasis on college English teaching and has a regulation that only if students pass the College English Test Band Four (CET-4) can they get the bachelor's degree when they graduate. During the past five years, college English teaching has gone through a lot of reform and the students in the college achieved higher CET-4 passing rate due to the joint efforts made by the administrators and the English teachers. In the current semester, the students are asked to use a newly published set of English textbooks. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to find out the actual vocabulary size of the participants at particular lexical levels by using Paul Nation's VLT so as to see whether the new English textbook fits the students' current vocabulary level.

B. Participants

The participants were first-year undergraduate students (N=108) who are non-English majors studying in Jiangsu University of Technology. The participants included 56 male students and 52 female students with ages ranging from 19 to 21. Most of them began to study English in the third year in primary school, and some began in the first year. They were from three different classes but utilizing the same textbook. They were told the purpose of the research and any data collected would only be used for research purposes. And they were further told that they could withdraw the study at any point if they felt uncomfortable and their performance on the VLT would not be counted as part of their final score for this semester. A consent form was signed at the initial stage of the study.

C. Materials

Two kinds of materials were used in this research. One was the Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) and the other was the new English textbook used by the participants as their learning material for the college English class.

1. Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT)

VLT measures the participants' receptive knowledge of vocabulary at five different levels including 2K, 3K, 5K, 10K and academic word levels. VLT was chosen because it is practical, economical, and easy to administer and interpret (Schmitt, N. et al, 2011). And VLT can show the participants' general vocabulary knowledge regardless of their learning background (Lauder & Nation, 1999). At each level, there are 10 three-item clusters with three definitions on the right side and six words on the left (See Figure 1). Therefore, a number of 30 words were tested at each level.

Participants must choose the right word that goes with each meaning. They must write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example.
1. copy
2. event   _____ end or highest point
3. motor   _____ this moves a car
4. pity   _____ thing made to be like another
5. profit
6. tip

Figure 1 A sample of Vocabulary Levels Test

A score on each level of VLT indicates the number of words known at that particular level. For example, if a student gets 15 words correct, s/he knows 50% words at that level. Getting 24 words correct at a level of VLT indicates a mastery of that particular level (Lauder & Nation, 1999).

2. Textbook used by participants

The textbook used by the participants is *New Century College English---Zooming In: An Integrated English Course (Book 2 Second Edition)* which was published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press in 2014. There are altogether eight units in this book and each unit has two reading texts, Text A and Text B.

3 Procedure

In the first step, the participants were asked to do the Vocabulary Level Test administered by their English teacher in class. The students were given 60 minutes to complete all the tasks and when they finished, the test papers were collected and double-scored by the researcher and the teacher so as to ensure the reliability of the test results (Fulcher, 2010). The students' performance for each level was reported separately. In the second step, the students' English textbook, *New Century College English---Zooming In: An Integrated English Course (Book 2 Second Edition)* was profiled by using an online software called VP-Compleat on a website, *www. lextutor. cn* developed by Paul Nation. This website is well known around the world and quite popular among researchers and scholars in the field of language teaching and learning. The software analyzed all the vocabulary in Text A and Text B and a result of the lexical level of all the vocabulary in the textbook was presented. Finally, based on the results of the students' performance on the VLT and the profiling of the textbook, discussions were made on whether the new textbook fits students' current vocabulary level along with some pedagogical implications.

IV. RESULTS

A. Students' Performance on VLT

Although the participants have completed five levels of VLT including the 2K, 3K, 5K, 10K and AW levels, the 10K word level would not be reported here because it was far beyond the participants' vocabulary level and many participants just gave up this part by not answering the questions. Therefore, only four levels of vocabulary (2K, 3K, 5K and AW) were reported in this study for it fitted not only the participants' vocabulary level but also the textbook's vocabulary range. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of student performance on VLT including the mean score and the percentage of students who have got the mastery level by getting 24 items correct in each level.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE ON VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST (N=108)

Level	Full mark	Mean	Percentage of mastery
2K	30	27.31	81.48%
3K	30	16.72	0%
5K	30	11.23	0%
AWL	30	9.89	3.44%

From Table 1, it can be seen that the participants didn't do very well on the VLT. Only the mean score for the 2,000-word level has reached the criteria of mastery. The mean scores for the 3K, 5K and AW levels are much lower than it is for the 2K word level given the maximum possible scores of 30. Besides, 81.48% of the participants achieved mastery on the 2K word level while no participants got 24 items correct concerning the 3K and 5K word levels. For AWL, although the highest score the participants got was 28, the mastery percentage, 3.44%, is quite low.

B. Profiling of the Textbook

The English textbook, *New Century College English---Zooming In: An Integrated English Course (Book 2 Second Edition)* has eight units, and the texts in each unit was scanned and profiled by using the software VP-Compleat on a website, *www. lextutor. cn* developed by Paul Nation. Table 2 presents the lexical distribution of the participants' textbook by using a Classic (GSL/AWL) profiling model.

TABLE 2
THE LEXICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS' TEXTBOOK: CLASSIC (GSL/AWL)

Freq. Level	Families (%)	Types (%)	Tokens (%)	Cumul. token %
K-1 Words	621 (60.29)	950 (52.90)	7542 (85.24)	85.24
K-2 Words	266 (25.83)	307 (17.09)	442 (5.00)	90.24
AWL [570 fams] TOT 2,570	143 (13.88)	171 (9.52)	316 (3.57)	93.81
Off-List:	??	417 (23.22)	548 (6.19)	100.00
Total (unrounded)	1030+?	1796 (100)	8848 (100)	100.00

It can be seen from the table that the vocabulary in the participants' textbook is mostly high-frequent words with 90.24% of K-1 and K-2 words. Besides, the AWL only takes up 3.57% of the total vocabulary. For the off-list words, they account for 6.19%, which is a quite reasonable considering the fact that there are some proper nouns in the texts such as America, New Zealand, Africa and so on.

Table 3, by adopting the BNC (1-20K) model of profiling, presents the lexical distribution of K-1, K-2, K-3 and K-4 words of the participants' textbook. According to Table 3, K-3 words accounts for only 2.51% of the total vocabulary and the most frequent K-1, K-2 and K-3 words take up 94.36% of the total vocabulary.

TABLE 3
THE LEXICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS' TEXTBOOK: BNC (1-20K)

Freq. Level	Families (%)	Types (%)	Tokens (%)	Cumul. token %
K-1 Words :	643 (46.36)	983 (53.08)	7623 (84.87)	84.87
K-2 Words :	330 (23.79)	389 (21.00)	627 (6.98)	91.85
K-3 Words :	151 (10.89)	165 (8.91)	225 (2.51)	94.36
K-4 Words :	94 (6.78)	100 (5.40)	130 (1.45)	95.81

V. DISCUSSION

According to the participants' performance on the VLT, the results suggest that most of the participants have achieved mastery on the most frequent 2K word level. And considering that about 90% of the textbook vocabulary consists of words on the K-1 and K-2 word levels, most of the students might not find it difficult to understand the texts. Based on the result in Table 3, K-3 words take up only 2.51% of the total vocabulary. Although the participants did not do very well at the K-3 level of the VLT, this might not negatively impact their understanding of the textbook. According Zhang & Annual (2008), K-2 and K-3 words are highly correlated to their reading comprehension. Therefore, most of the participants are more likely to understand the textbook without much difficulty.

Additionally, based on the result in Table 3, words at the K-1, K-2 and K-3 word levels cover a percentage of 94.36 which is consistent with the finding of Nation (2001), K-1, K-2 and K-3 words, in most situations, give coverage of 95% of a running text.

The AWL words in the textbook only takes up 3.57%, which matches the students' current performance on the AWL on the VLT, but it suggests that the textbook might not be a good material for the participants in enlarging their academic vocabulary.

VI. Pedagogical Implications

Although the relatively small sample of the research design might restrict the generalizability of the findings, some pedagogical implications could still be drawn to schools with students of the same proficiency level and using similar textbooks.

Firstly, although most of the students have mastered words on the 2K word level of the VLT, still some of them scored relatively low, so it is suggested that teachers should still focus on the K-1 to K-2 level words by exposing the students to these words in their daily teaching. Besides, extra vocabulary training and practice should be provided to the group of students who scored less than 24. Secondly, since the students' performance on the K-3 and K-5 levels was unsatisfactory, they might not be able to comprehend more complicated articles or texts. The textbook with coverage of nearly 95% K-1 to K-3 words can help them build up their vocabulary of the K-3 level. Therefore, the teachers should make good use of this textbook, putting emphasis on those frequently used words on the K-1 to K-3 level by guiding the students constantly review and using these words in context until they fully grasp these words. Meanwhile, the teachers should carefully select some readings from newspapers or magazines which fit the students' needs and give them to the students as extra reading, thus facilitating students' sensitivity to and understanding of words at the K-3, K-4, and K-5 levels (Zhang & Annual, 2008). Thirdly, concerning the students' performance on the AWL, it is found that a majority of the students hardly had any knowledge of academic vocabulary. Since the textbook cannot provide enough academic words for the students to learn, and considering that academic words are very important in a university context, it is suggested that the teachers should deliberately add some academic vocabulary learning into their teaching practice so as to help the students grasp more academic words.

VII. Conclusion

In this research, firstly the participants' vocabulary was measured by Paul Nation's VLT, and then the textbook was profiled to see the lexical distribution of the vocabulary. Based on the participants' performance on the VLT, it was concluded that most of the participants achieved the mastery level of the 2K words, while their performance on the 3K, 5K and AW levels was quite unsatisfactory for no participants reached the mastery level. The results suggested that these participants needed more instruction and practice on the frequently used K1 to K3 words first and then K3 to K5 and academic words might also be incorporated into the daily teaching step by step. The lexis of their textbook is normally distributed, with K1 to K2 words accounting for about 91%. Therefore, the textbook fits the students' current level and it is reasonable that a little bit beyond the participants' vocabulary level can efficiently facilitate their English learning. It is suggested that the teachers should not only make good use of the textbook but also deliberately find some extra materials for enlarging the students' vocabulary, for example, to find suitable material from newspapers and magazines and to add academic words into their teaching syllabus.

Vocabulary knowledge, which is proved to be a predictor of learners' language proficiency, plays a significant role in language learning. Language teachers should pay special attention to students' vocabulary learning, assisting them with appropriate and effective ways to learn and enlarge their vocabulary. Considering students' vocabulary level when teaching second language is very crucial for successful teaching and learning. This research, by making an attempt to link learners' vocabulary size at particular levels to the profiling of the textbook, might serve as a good method for choosing teaching materials and design teaching syllabus in a second or foreign language context.

Although the sample is relatively small, which might negatively influence the generalizability of the findings, this study represents a group of undergraduates who are in the same English proficiency level in a Chinese university context. Based on the findings of this research, future research could focus on the growth of the participants' vocabulary after a certain period of time.

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Input Enhancement through Using Author's Biography: The Impact on Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Ability across Gender

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Abstract—This study aims to investigate whether enhancing input through author's biography affect Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability across gender or not. To answer, a proficiency test of OPT was administered to a total of 120 male and female learners. Then 60 homogenous subjects, with the same English proficiency, were selected. The 60 participants were assigned into 4 groups randomly i.e. experimental male, experimental female, control male, control female. The study includes a pre-posttest design with 4 groups. The female and male experimental groups went through the treatment and finally the four groups were given a posttest. Finally, descriptive and inferential statistics (A paired- samples t-test and a two-way ANOVA) were applied to analyze the statistical data. The findings indicated that input enhancement through author's biography does affect Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability and male participants outperformed female participants.

Index Terms—author's biography, EFL learners, gender, input enhancement, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Developing EFL learners input and fluent reading is challenging and time-consuming. English learners' input enhancement through being exposed to effective context as well as improving their reading comprehension is not just a matter of teaching them some strategies. The content and the contexts of reading materials are very influential in enabling EFL learners to read in an effective manner and to read between the lines to find out what the author is really saying. There are reasons for L2 reading and we read for different purposes. As a result, our reading manners change due to the purposes e.g. we may scan, skim, read to learn, read to enjoy, etc. Thus, a rich command of input paves the way for EFL learners' fluent reading and comprehension. Reading refers to the readers' engagement in a number of processes such as phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and monitoring and discourse. It is the process of receiving and interpreting information via the medium of print. L2 readers do not have the same language resources as L1 readers; they do not share all the social and cultural knowledge. Also, L1 and L2 readers are different in their background knowledge about how the world works. L2 learners have different reasons for learning al L2; for example, they may want to integrate in the L2 society, to build an educational base, find a job, etc. These differences indicate that the results of L1 reading research cannot be applied to L2 reading research. In addition, these differences show that L2 readers may go through different cognitive processes that are different from those of L1. This study considers the importance of using author's biography to increase input enhancement. It can be regarded as one of the practical methods towards input enhancement. The finding of his study indicate that author's biography can be useful in helping EFL learners develop and enhance their knowledge of English as a second language.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Carrell (1991), L1 students usually know thousands of words of their native language before starting to read. Also, they implicitly know most of the basic grammatical and syntactic structures of the language but this is generally not true about L2 readers. L2 students usually come from different languages with different orthographies which may cause differences in the way the print is processed. L2 students develop and use a bilingual mental lexicon; they engage in bilingual processing of language and semantic interpretations. They also learn their L2 at different times in their lives and they experience different degrees of interdependence between the two languages. L2 learners come to reading tasks with various levels of proficiency which is reflected in their abilities to carry out different reading tasks successfully. The degree of guessability in L1 is more than L2. This is because L1 is genetically determined. Learners should be taught to guess the meaning of words instead of checking the dictionary all the time. The context in which the sentences are produced and the cohesive and coherent organization of the sentences can help learners to guess the meaning of words.

As Koda (1996) stated, one of the important and significant phenomena in second language reading is word recognition. L2 word recognition depends on the amount of L2 orthographic processing experience, the distance

between the orthographies of the L1 and the interaction between L1 and L2 orthographic knowledge. Learners with different amount of L2 experience have different word recognition efficiency and skill.

According to Pressley and El-Dinary (1992), strategy awareness helps to improve comprehension as well as efficiency in reading. Researchers have suggested that teaching readers to use strategies should be a prime consideration in the reading classroom. Alderson (2000), believed that reading comprehension consists of two variables: the reader and the text variables.

As has been shown by Ediger (2001), reading ability has been emphasized in recent years because it is not only an important skill for second language learners in academic environments; but a large number of learners, all over the world, are learning English as a second or foreign language also. Today, portable books and reading materials over the Internet are widely available. As a result, reading is becoming a valuable source of language input. When second language learners read a text, they interpret and construct meaning through an interaction with the written material. Here, the learners' past experiences, their language background and culture are influential in the way they interpret the text. The whole process of reading includes six different components such as 1.automatic recognition skills, 2.vocabulary and structure knowledge, 3.formal discourse structure, 4.content/ world background knowledge, 5. synthetic and evaluation skills and 6. Metacognitive knowledge. When skilled readers read, they engage in all the mentioned components. Experienced readers use their general background knowledge to make sense of the written text. They combine the syntactic, semantic information in the text with their personal knowledge to form a logical idea of what they are reading. However, second language learners have different language backgrounds. When children start reading in their first language, they have oral ability but this is not always the case with second language learners. As a result, while reading in L2, second language learners may face new vocabularies, cultural gap and gaps in their knowledge also. The variability of L1 backgrounds, academic backgrounds, the level of language proficiency, and prior knowledge in second language learners suggests that teachers should use and employ various teaching approaches and techniques with second language learners. Teachers should use appropriate ways and methods to activate the L2 learners' schemata i.e. their background knowledge, past experiences or mental schema which help us to navigate our way in life.

Nunan (1999) found that reading is an active process and it is something that not all individuals learn to do. While reading, readers get involved in bottom-up and top-down approaches. In a bottom-up process, readers decode written clues or signposts linearly; in other words, they move from language to meaning. So readers have to interact with the text because readers need to match the clues provided in the text to their own background knowledge. Schema theory is linked with bottom-up and top-down processing. In top-down processing, readers use their prior knowledge to make sense of the reading material. Based on schema theory, the process of interpretation is directed or guided by some existing schema.

According to Shishehsaz (2006), genre-based instruction is argued to be a facilitative approach and activity in reading comprehension and recall of information through providing the reader with background knowledge. The result of his study showed that there is a significance difference between reading comprehension ability of the experimental group who took part in genre-based reading instruction and the control group who did not receive such an instruction. This means that explicit genre teaching improved reading comprehension ability of the experimental group significantly.

Mousavian (2005) suggested that reading comprehension is a cognitive process and various cognitive strategies can be employed to facilitate reading comprehension. His study aimed at exploring one of these techniques called "brainstorming" and its impact on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. The result showed that reading comprehension ability of the experimental group enjoyed an improvement as a result of the brainstorming treatment. So, brainstorming as a pre-reading activity has positive impact on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners.

Sheikh Hassan (2002) conducted a study according to which presenting Iranian EFL learners with collocations of reading texts leads to their reading comprehension improvement. He examined the role of collocations in reading comprehension of seventy students who were selected and classified into two groups: one control group and one experimental group. The control group was presented with synonyms, antonyms, and definitions of key words of collocations whereas the experimental group was presented with the collocations of the same reading texts as well as exercises related to them. The study had a pre-posttest design. The results of the study were analyzed by the statistical technique of one way ANOVA. The findings of the study indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group and they proved to be more proficient.

Marzban (2003), found that L1 reading skills contribute differentially to L2 reading performance depending upon the amount of exposure to the second language. Also, advanced readers can flexibly employ and transfer the Persian language reading strategies while reading texts in English. However, this was not observed among low-proficiency or inexperienced readers. Based on the findings of Marzban's study, a threshold level of L2 language ability is necessary before L1 reading ability transfers to L2. This indicates that second language learners need to acquire some basic linguistic knowledge before they are able to read in second language.

According to Zohoorian (2005), there is not any relationship between EFL' learning styles and their achievement in reading comprehension. She examined the relationship between EFL language learning styles and strategies and achievement in reading comprehension. The findings of her study revealed that there is no relationship between the

EFL's strategies used and their achievement in the reading comprehension. Also it was found that there is a relationship between the strategies and the styles used by EFL learners.

Input Enhancement

Manipulation of input is one of the important functions of language teaching. That is teachers are able to provide different degrees of explicitness in the input. The notion of input enhancement refers to the ways input can be made salient to learners. Input enhancement is related to the concept of noticing i.e. drawing learners' attention.

Theoretical Background

This study tries to provide input enhancement through authors' biographies. In this paper, knowledge in L2 and input could be improved by using authors' biographies. This paper is written to highlight the importance of authors' biographies for developing EFL learners' reading abilities. There are various strategies or techniques that can be used to make input salient. The examples cited by Sharwood Smith (1993) include color coding, boldfacing, using error flags, stress, intonation, and gestures, as well as pointing out and explaining a construction using metalinguistic terminology. These techniques have been widely used both in learning language. Nevertheless, Sharwood Smith cautioned that input enhancement could come in many different forms. 'Author's biography' is the key notion in this study which is considered to have effect on another notion which is reading comprehension ability and it plays a significant role on EFL learners' input enhancement.

Statement of the problem

Iranian EFL learners have problems in English reading comprehension according to Toraghi (2008), Hashemi(2003), Shokri (2008), Shishehsaz (2006), Mousavian(2005), the researcher's own experience and etc. A major difficulty facing Iranian EFL learners is understanding and decoding what they read. Not knowing sufficient vocabularies and words affects learners' ability to comprehend; however, sometimes learners have difficulty comprehending texts because the material is beyond the learners' reading skill. Also, Iranian learners have limited prior knowledge or limited vocabulary knowledge. As a result, they do not understand the most important elements and the connection between different parts.

There are a number of issues that indicate the significant role of vocabulary knowledge for L2 reading abilities; for example, the number of words needed to read L2 texts, the role of context in L2 vocabulary acquisition, the role of different kinds of dictionaries, the role of extensive and pleasure reading and the role of vocabulary instruction. Several researchers have addressed the question of how much vocabulary is needed for L2 reading. According to Laufer (1989), 95 per cent of words must be known words and concluded that L2 readers had a significantly higher chance of being a 'reader' if they understood 95 percent of the text's word tokens. Hu and Nation (2000), found that the percentage might be closer to 98 per cent. Hazenberg and Halestijn (1996) first assessed the representativeness of more than 23,000 words taken from a dictionary to cover a 42 million-word corpus of contemporary written Dutch.

Another problem for failing to understand a text is being unfamiliar with prefixes and suffixes which help learners in guessing the meaning of a word. According to the conducted studies, the existence of reading comprehension problem in Iranian learners cannot be denied. Iranian Learners fail to connect ideas in a passage. They cannot distinguish significant information from less important ones; as a result, they may skip key words and key sentences on which the meaning of the text relies. Another problem may be "lack of competence". That is the learners' linguistic competence and language knowledge about TL is not enough. Without comprehension, reading a text is nothing more than tracking symbols on a page with eyes and sounding them out.

Toraghi (2008), stated that in spite of so many attempts, Iranian university students still have problems in understanding ESP reading texts. The researcher made an effort to examine the effects of text adjunct on ESP learners' reading comprehension. He selected 65 students after administrating the CELT who were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups with 33 and 32 students respectively. The findings of the study showed that the text adjuncts increased remarkably ESP learners reading comprehension ability.

Based on the research conducted by Akhgar (2004), observations on the performance of foreign language readers and their confrontation with unknown vocabulary have highlighted the important role of vocabulary to the researchers, as a predictor of overall reading ability. In certain contexts, a sentence or even an entire paragraph might become incomprehensible due to occurrence of even a minimal number of unknown words. Akhgar carried out a study to explore relationship between the reading task, readers' profile, and unknown word processing. The subjects of the study were 128 female Iranian students of English as a foreign language, at upper intermediate level. The results of the study suggest that the word treatment strategies are dependent on the type of reading, task and also to some extend on the readers' reading profile.

Hashemi (2003) claimed that, there is no relationship between inferential and referential questions in reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. The purpose of her study was to investigate two different techniques for testing reading comprehension questions. To answer the referential questions, the reader is required to move beyond the level of sentence comprehension and understand the relationship among the sentences. Hashemi studied different views towards teaching and testing reading comprehension, techniques and factors meticulously; then, based on these features, some suggestions have been made for an effective reading comprehension classroom.

According to Shokri (2008), except for the significant correlation between intermediate learners' self-assessment and teacher assessment, there revealed no other significant correlation between the variables. During the researcher's teaching experience, many Iranian EFL learners with reading comprehension problems were observed. In many cases,

they failed to get the gist of texts even after giving them the Farsi equivalents of the unknown English words. Teaching them the common prefixes and suffixes has been helpful but it does not make much difference. The researcher also used English short stories and English lyrics in order to help Iranian EFL Learners to progress in reading comprehension. In spite of many attempts, Iranian EFL learners still have problems in understanding reading texts. In this regard, the proposed study is going to examine whether author's biography affects Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability and whether input enhancement through author's biography is effective.

According to Mohabat (2001), there is a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' aptitude and their vocabulary learning strategies. Mohabat conducted a study to investigate the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and Iranian EFL learners' aptitude according to which L2 learners who have high aptitude use vocabulary learning strategies more than those with low aptitude. Also, the high aptitude L2 learners used more memory strategies such as association and elaboration. Low aptitude L2 learners used dictionary strategies, memory strategies such as repetition and metacognitive strategies.

Significance of the study

The significance of this research is the influence which it could have on the way input will be enhanced. There is a consensus of opinion among Iranian of all walks of life on the need to improve the standard of English in Iran. Efforts are being made to improve the teaching and learning of the EFL learners in Iran and this present study seeks to find out a way to help Iranian L2 learners. The findings of this study will serve as a data-base for teachers, text-book writers and EFL teachers towards input enhancement. EFL learners need to be exposed to authors' biographies to improve their L2 input. The findings of the present study will assist the teachers in maximizing the knowledge of Iranian EFL learners' by using authors' biographies. Based on this objective, two research questions were conducted.

Research questions

The article addresses the two following questions:

Q1: Does enhancing input through author's biography affect Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

Q2: Is there any difference between the mean scores of male and female EFL learners' reading comprehension test as a result of exposure to author's biography?

Hypotheses

H1: Enhancing input through author's biography does not affect Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability.

H2: There is no difference between the mean scores of male and female EFL learners' reading comprehension test as a result of exposure to author's biography.

III. METHOD

Subjects

The participants of this study were 60 homogenous EFL learners who were studying at Tabarestan University, Chalus, Iran. Their ages were about 18-23. Their average exposure to English was about 7 years. Based on a placement test and an interview, they were considered intermediate learners. Since they were studying English in Iran only, they were described as foreign language learners.

Procedures

The participants of this study were assigned into 4 groups: experimental male, experimental female, control male, control female. The participants were all given a pretest. Then the treatment groups received the treatment in the form of being exposed to biographies of different authors (D.H. Lawrence, James Joyce, Toni Morison, Thomas Hardy, Mark Twain, and Emily Bronte) during ten sessions. Finally, the participants were given a posttest. Then, the result of a paired samples t-test and a two-way ANOVA became the subject of data analysis.

Research Design

The schematic representation of the design of the study is as follows:

Week 1: pretest

Week 2-9: application of the treatment of the study on reading proficiency (authors' biography).

Week 10: posttest

IV. RESULTS / DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

TABLE1.
GROUP STATISTICS

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttesttreat	Male	15	8.2667	3.73146	.96346
	Female	15	4.9333	3.63449	.93842
posttestcontro	Male	15	3.4667	1.99523	.51517
	Female	15	3.9333	3.69298	.95352

As it is indicated in Table 1, the number of participants was15 in each experiment (N_{PRE}=15, N_{PRE}=15, N_{POE}= 15, N_{POE}=15) and there has been no missing value (missing value= 0.00) which means that all the selected subjects took part

in the experiment. According to the results in Table 1, the mean scores of the posttests of the treatment groups are higher than the mean scores of the posttests of the control groups. This may give an image of participants' posttest scores more heterogeneous after conducting the treatment of the study (using authors' biographies).

TABLE2.
ANALYSIS OF THE POSTTEST SCORES OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
posttesttreat	Equal variances assumed	.028	.867	2.47828		.019	3.33333	1.34495	.57833	6.08834
	Equal variances not assumed			2.478	27.981	.019	3.33333	1.34495	.57824	6.08842
posttestcontrol	Equal variances assumed	1.337	.257	-.431	28	.670	-.46667	1.08379	-2.68671	1.75338
	Equal variances not assumed			-.431	21.531	.671	-.46667	1.08379	-2.71715	1.78382

As it is indicated in Table 2, sig (2-tailed) is .019 in the treatment groups i.e. it is less than .05. The obtained t-observed (T_{obs}=2.478) is higher than the critical value of t in the control groups with the level of significance of .6.70 and 6.71. As a result the null hypothesis is rejected because t-observed is more than t-critical.

TABLE3.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE POSTTEST SCORES OF THE TREATMENT GROUPS I.E. MALES AND FEMALES.

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: posttesttreat

Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	8.2667	3.73146	15
Female	4.9333	3.63449	15
Total	6.6000	3.99655	30

According to Table 3, as for the standard deviation obtained for the treatment groups, there seems to be more variability among the posttest scores of the male treatment group.

TABLE4.
OUTPUT OF TWO-WAY ANOVA

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: posttesttreat

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	83.333[a]	1	83.333	6.143	.019	.180
Intercept	1306.800	1	1306.800	96.324	.000	.775
Gender	83.333	1	83.333	6.143	.019	.180
Error	379.867	28	13.567			
Total	1770.000	30				
Corrected Total	463.200	29				

a. R Squared = .180 (Adjusted R Squared = .151)
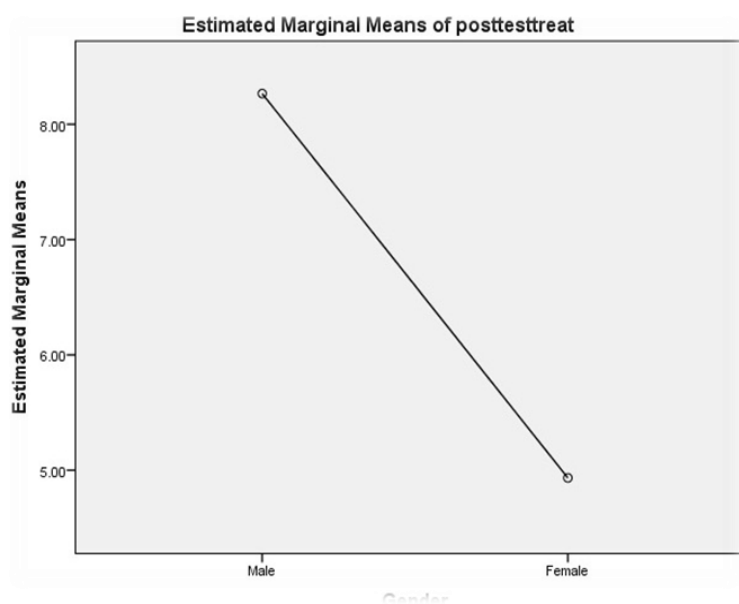
As table 4 and the above graph show, there has been a significant gender difference between the results according to which male participants did better.

V. Discussion

The study reported here has made an attempt to discover that Input enhancement through author's biography does affect Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. The analysis of the study reveals that male participants gained more proficiency than did the female ones. An OPT (Oxford Placement Test) was administered among 100 subjects 60 of whom were selected for the aim of this study. The subjects were randomly divided in four groups i.e. experimental male, experimental female, control male and control female. For 10 sessions, the experimental groups received treatment in the form of working on author's biographies and the control group received a placebo. A pretest was administered prior to the application of treatment and placebo. Then a subsequent posttest was administered at the end of the duration of the teaching. Then the scores were analyzed through SPSS using a Two-way ANOVA, a Paired-sample t-test and Descriptive Analysis. The results revealed that and there is a significant difference between the mean scores of male and female EFL learners' reading comprehension test as a result of exposure to author's biography. Thus the two null hypotheses were rejected which indicate that the treatment of the study was effective and the subjects in the experimental group outperformed the ones in the control group.

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From Self-identification to Self-destruction—A Mirror Image Interpretation of Dorian Gray's Psychic Transformation[*]

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Abstract—**Oscar Wilde, the representative of Aestheticism, is the most controversial figure in English literary history. *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, as his first and only novel, has been the object of study for a long time. The study of the protagonist from the psychoanalytic angle is still new and has potential research value for its in-depth analysis. According to Lacanian mirror theory, the self-construction of an individual is formed under the influence of the other's mirror image. In the novel, under the influence of all the elements, Dorian experiences the psychic transformation and gradually ends up in self-destruction after alienating his self-identification. The thesis aims to explore the critical mirrors in the process pf Dorian's transformation in the light of Lagan's theory so that the understanding the protagonist can be expanded.**

Index Terms—**mirror images, psychic transformation, self-identification, self-destruction**

I. INTRODUCTION

Oscar Wilde, a genius in English literature, showed excellent talent in creation of plays, novels and other literary forms. He is also regarded as the chief representative of the aesthetic movement. For a long time, he has been the center of controversy for both critics and readers for the unconventional themes of his works. However, one fact that we can not deny is that he is a writer with wit and keen observation. He was considered by some critics as one of the most successful playwrights and one of the greatest writers in the late Victorian era in Britain. *The Picture of Dorian Gray* was his first and only novel. For more than one hundred years, it has brought disputes and controversy to itself as well as to Wilde. "There is no such thing as a moral or an immoral book. Books are well written, or badly written. That is all"; "Art never expresses anything but itself" (Wilde, 1994). Wilde's comments in the preface of *The Picture of Dorian Gray* fully express his ideas on literary creations. Unluckily, since the book was published in Lippincott's Magazine on 20 June 1890, severe attacks on him and the book have come one after another. However, together with criticism, research on them has never ceased in more than one hundred years.

Researchers have studied the work from the perspective of morals, aestheticism, socialism, history and psychology. Stuart Masons's literary criticism on Wilde's works, "Art and morality" and the later bibliography he writes are possibly the most important research in early Wilde's study. His research sets the keystone for the later scholarship with a moral respective. Then critics paid more attention on Wilde's private life. R. H. Sherarad's *Life of Oscar Wilde* is a well-known overview of Wilde's life, and Arthur Ransome's *Oscar Wilde: A Critical Study* publicly disclosed that *De Profundis* is the prototype of Alfred Douglas. Later, other critical studies, such as Yeats "The Trembling of the Veil" began to review the novel in a more objective way and clarify some misunderstandings of Wilde. Most of the studies research the aesthetic or the moral themes embodied in the novel while the exploration on the psychological aspect of the novel is inadequate. Perhaps Wilde has no intention of composing the novel in a psychoanalytical way, but what he has achieved in exploring human psyche is ignored a lot.

In psychology, seeing others as a mirror can illustrate our own image and then help us form the conception of selves, which is called mirror effect. Referring to Lacanian Mirror stage theory, there is a period called mirror stage before entering the Oedipus stage. (The Oedipal stage is derived from Freud's Oedipus complex. It is a period that a child, especially a male child, forms a special feeling for the parent of the opposite sex). At the mirror stage, the only way to realize the existence of self- image and to build self-identity is through the mirror effect. Then at the Oedipus stage, a child can make decisions and develop self-realization by using language to express his needs and demands. Coincidently the growth and transformation of Dorian in the novel is similar to this mirror theory.

The paper tries to analyze the novel in a psychoanalytical perspective. By Lacanian theory, the growth and transformation of Dorian can be divided in two parts: the mirror stage and the Oedipus stage. The essay will explore how Dorian obtains his self-identification and ends up in his self-destruction under the influence of all kinds of mirror images in the two period of self-awareness development.

II. THE INFLUENCE OF TWO MIRRORS AT THE MIRROR STAGE

The essay believes that mirror stage is a period to realize self-image and to identify self. Before encountering with mirror image, Dorian was as pure as a piece of white paper. At the mirror stage, Dorian recognizes himself through two mirrors: the portrait and Sybil. However, in his period of self-identification, Dorian misunderstands the real self under the influence of the portrait and Sybil.

A. The Portrait: A Magic Mirror

In the novel, the portrait plays a role as a carrier combining Dorian's inner world with his outer appearance. It can be regarded as a mirror with magic power on Dorian, through which Dorian forms his self image and loses himself at last. From his ignorance to self-realization and to self-destruction, the portrait is one of the most influential elements. To some degree, Dorian's transformation and his fate is inseparably connected to it, and even determined by it. At the beginning of the story, When Dorian catches a sight of the picture, he realizes his extraordinary beauty and his unique charm of youth, and starts to understand and recognize self for the first time. "There had been things in his boyhood that he had not understood. He understood them now". (Wilde, 1994) Through the image he obtains from the portrait, Dorian acquires an identity and begins to sense and interprets the outer world as an independent individual. "Life suddenly became fiery-colored to him. It seemed to him that he had been walking in fire" (Wilde, 1994). Apparently with passions and curious, Dorian is excited at the change of his life .He enjoys the self image forming through the portrait and he wants to keep his newly-formed perfect image. Thus when he finds the magic power of the portrait reflecting what happens to him and growing old and ugly instead for him, Dorian forms an idea that the picture changes and bears the consequences of his evil behaviors and that he can remains young and beautiful without any retribution. Dorian carefully pays attention to the changes of the portrait and confirms the truth of the magic power of it. He believes in the portrait and regards it as a second self. Considering it faithfully records the trace of transformation of him, Dorian keeps checking it and identifies his self image again and again. However, the portrait is not really Dorian's true self and thus Dorian's self-alienation is inevitable.

Readers may consider that Dorian burdens the portrait with his sins and psychological transformation, but the horrible truth is that the portrait simultaneously shapes Dorian in an invisible way. When Dorian becomes addicted to the portrait, his autonomy is gradually weakened and replaced by the portrait. It interprets Dorian's conceptions and even determines his choices and behaviors. When Dorian tries to be the master of the picture, only to find that he cannot free himself from the control of the picture. In fact, the portrait not only reflects the changes that happen, but also prognosticates what will happen to him. Thus the power that the portrait reveals to Dorian becomes so formidable which threatens him that he attempts to reform himself and desires new changes to save his soul. He looks forward to the sign of approval of the portrait with great hope after he allows a village girl who has fallen in love with him to get away. However, the answer disappoints him and a fact uncovered is that his good deeds cannot change the mirror picture. That is to say, his resolution to be good is denied by the portrait. Thus he begins to doubt himself and even loses the faith in the reformation of the self. At this moment, the portrait seems to reveal the most cruel side to Dorian while he is powerless and hopeless. "His beauty had been to him but a mask, his youth but a mockery." (Wilde, 1994)Therefore, Dorian is doomed to misrecognition and he fails to obtain the true self image, as a result of which, he chooses to destroy the picture to kill himself.

B. Sybil: An Idealized Mirror

Sybil, the first love of Dorian, is connected with Dorian's sins and his moral decline. Her encounter with Dorian not only means the first romance in his life, but also brings changes to the picture, which further affects his life. Her genius for acting and flowing among multiple identities satisfies Dorian's desires. However, what captures Dorian is the illusion she creates, which can not only satisfy Dorian's desire but also pay for what he lacks. Dorian has a lonely and joyless boyhood. Dorian's grandfather had somebody kill Dorian's mother's husband. Dorian's mother, who could not bear the pain of losing her love, died in the same year. Given the background of Dorian's childhood and the environment in which he grows up, it can be argued that Dorian can find a kind of satisfaction from Sybil because of the desires he unconsciously cherishes. On one hand, Sibyl is charming and graceful. Her perfect female image reminds Dorian of the mother he misses so much. On the other hand, her innocent and childlike nature also makes Dorian recall the memory of his childhood life. To Dorian, his meeting with Sibyl has been to him a continuation of the mirror stage that is inspired through the impact the picture creates. As mentioned above, at the mirror stage, the baby begins to gain a sense of the "self" and comes to see the other. As he sees his self image from the portrait and begins to perceive himself differently, Dorian finds his image reflected in Sibyl, while she remains a distinctive "other". Dorian reconstructs the imaginary self and relocates his self-identity through the dual relationship with the mirror image and the romance with the actress. From Sibyl and her representation, Dorian recomposes himself and integrates the fragmented past of his. Sibyl sparks Dorian's imagination, for she not only mirrors him, but also represents for the period of his childhood, which is connected with the mother. Sybil provides Dorian a perfect mother image(Zhang Y, 2010). It can be argued that Dorian's craze for Sibyl includes a narcissistic and a desire like Oedipal Complex.

As the mirror functions in the process of Dorian's transformation, Sibyl's acting is what mirrors and supports Dorian's desire. We may state certainly that Dorian only loves Sibyl's perfectly assumed images, so she is only a

medium target of his love and her charm and attraction is fading away. Dorian constructs and deconstructs the imaginary self image, ending up with Sibyl's suicide. To Dorian, Sibyl is so excellent and can transform freely among various images, and she "is all great heroines of the world in one" (Wilde, 1994). Actually, Dorian mistakes the real Sibyl for his imaginary image. Therefore, what he loves seems to be always more than Sibyl herself. Without the idealized image, she means nothing to him. When she is too self-conscious to perform well, Dorian abandons her. And cruelly Dorian destroys both the actress and her acting career. Later in the story, Dorian suddenly shows curiosity about jewel, music, perfume, and even embroideries, which can all considered as the endless journey in which he endlessly and blindly transfers his desired object, only to find it is in vain. The more he experiences, the more he desires to own. However, he could not love what he is really in love with, which can only be obtained in his narcissistic relation with the self. Thus he has to transfer his target frequently and loses himself in deep despair when his illusion is broken each time. There is no doubt that Sibyl plays a critical role among Dorian's imaginary images. And it is widely accepted that the appearance of Sibyl has immensely affected Dorian and her death also frightens him. However, after this crucial incident and short sadness, Dorian regards Sybil's death as "a wonderful ending to a wonderful play" (Wilde, 1994) and keeps remaining exploring in his own world. It is not hard to regard Sybil as a wonderful side of Dorian and the death of Sybil indicates that Dorian loses some valuable characters. Apparently, Dorian fails to realize the importance of Sybil and misses the chance to achieve right self-realization (Mu, 2007).

III.   THE MIRROR IMAGES FUNCTION AT THE OEDIPAL STAGE

Oedipal stage is a period that a child can express desires and demands by language to develop self-realization (Mason, 1971). When Dorian enters the Oedipal stage, he still recognizes self in the light of others and goes further on the way of self-alienation. During this period, a concept of the name of "Father" is proposed to function as a power to shatter imaginary self. The influence mainly comes from Oedipal "mother" Basil and Two "fathers", Lord Henry and James Vane.

A.   A Failed Oedipal Mother: Basil

Many critics ignore Basil who seems to be a insignificant person in the novel. However, Mahaffer proposes that Basil is "not only as a man who secretly desires Dorian but also as his "mother, the creator of his physical image: the portrait that Basil has painted and labeled his masterpiece". (Mahaffer, 1994) Basil poses an Oedipal Mother in Dorian's transformation and growth. And his influence on Dorian cannot be ignored.

Basil is a talented painter, devoting himself to the art of painting. He is kind, warm-hearted and gentle, and he obeys all the social rules. "He has nothing left but his prejudices, his principles and his common sense" (Wilde, 1994) are the most accurate words to describe him. Basil believes that artists can penetrate the truth of life, and then they can reveal the truth in art as much as possible and as transparently as possible. Basil creates the portrait in a free way as he likes, through which Dorian gets a mistaken self-image. The fact is that Basil idolizes Dorian and gives the life of the portrait but he cannot shape the real Dorian as he likes. Unlike Henry, Basil's aesthetic is moral and positive. It can be said that he enlightens Dorian's mind and opens his eyes. And what he taught Dorian arouses his consciousness of self and influences his life in different ways. Dorian begins to perceive himself in a new way and with a new mind.

Basil regards beauty as the supremacy of art and peruses beauty and art for his life. He advocates the beauty and charm of the portrait with great passion, desires to dominate and mould Dorian in his own way and wants to keep Dorian away from the influence of Henry. He urges Dorian to obey social norms and expects Dorian to be as fine as before. From beginning to end, he is unwilling to give up his attempt to reform Dorian to be a good person. Basil's affection to Dorian is the same as mother's devotion towards the children. He wants to protect Dorian and free him from the control of Henry's poisonous theory. But what Basil does to amend Dorian has bothered and annoyed Dorian and it drives him to commit a murder to escape his preaching. Murdered by Dorian with a knife, Basil dies a martyr's death. Only in this way, can Dorian be free from all the fetters on him, can he degenerate completely. Then Dorian lives a double life and he becomes a kind of person as described by his own words "Each of us has heaven and hell in him" (While, 1994). Dorian speeds up the alienation of his self-awareness after Basil's death.

B.   An Incompetent Father: Henry

Lord Henry Wotton is still the most influential mirror in the transformation of Dorian. In the light of Lacan's theory, the child produces Oedipus complex only after the intervention of the father (Lacan, 1997). Compared with James Vane, Henry, who shapes Dorian with his powerful language, is an incompetent father for his negative influence on Dorian. As Henry's own words reveals that "all influence is immoral", he influences and molds Dorian according to his own theory about hedonism and aesthetic, bringing Dorian no good things. In other words, after Basil, he remolds Dorian following his own desire that he cannot achieves by himself. Before encountering Henry, Dorian is as clean as a piece of white paper. Henry successfully conveys his ideas to Dorian with beautiful language and guides him to pursue a kind of life which exacerbate his alienation and destruction.

"Words, Mere words! How terrible they were! How clear, and vivid, and cruel. One could not escape them" (Wilde, 1994). To some extent, Henry's comments strongly confirm one point that his language is power and Dorian cannot escape from them at all. His theory of aesthetic hedonism is poisonous but delightful, which persuades Dorian into

becoming hedonistic to pursue sensual pleasures. Aiming to be free from "the terror of God and society" (Wilde, 1994) and gain self-development, he tells Dorian to "Live! Live the wonderful life that is in you!" (Wilde, 1994) With natural marvelous beauty, Dorian is chosen by him to materialize his desire. Dorian realizes the fact that his perfect beauty and youth is temporary and his life goal is to keep beauty. According to Henry, Dorian begins to explore all kinds of sensational experience, which makes him lost in hedonism. However, Henry himself lives a normal life quiet different from both Dorian's pursuit of sensual enjoyment and Basil's discipline and morality. And his theories also seem to be paradoxical. For example, his new hedonism seems to combine aesthetic ideas with hedonism and form a wonderful picture about this kind of life. Besides, though he reveals that "all influence is immoral", he has the attempts to educate Dorian with "revealing himself for himself" (Wilde, 1994). Therefore, Dorian cannot find the right way of life and becomes confused gradually. The negative influence of Henry serves as a barrier to interfere Dorian. Dorian's real need to become an independent individual is shifted by Henry's Desire. Thus in the interaction of Henry, Dorian is always self-misrecognized, failing to get right self-identity and keeping alienating himself.

C. A True Father: James Vane

Compared with other characters, James can be easily ignored by critics and readers. This thesis puts emphasis on his alarming function by regarding him as a father that helps Dorian leave the mirror stage. It is hard for Dorian to give up imaginary self-identity until James breaks the up the relationship between Dorian and other mirrors. As we know, Dorian becomes a lost lamb in morality under the influence of all kinds of mirror images and he cannot abandon the control of them. He has to proceed to his sensual explorations and evade morality since he has fallen deep in self-alienation. It is James who helps him break the relationship with other mirror images and starts to realize self for a second time. Or it may be more accurate to say that his death is of critical effect in Dorian's transformation.

In the light of the plots of the novel, without a father, James plays a role of protector for his sister, Sybil. To revenge for Sybil's death, he invades into Dorian's world. Once James and Dorian are in the same room and he has a chance to kill Dorian but Dorian deceives him. After eight years, he comes back to kill Dorian again. But accidentally he is shot by one of the hunter in a hunting game. Looking at his dead body, Dorian's eyes are full of tears because of a feel of relief. Though James attempt ends up in failure, he inspires Dorian's resolution in self-reformation. Meanwhile, his corpse makes Dorian notice the punishment of his sins and evil doings. According to Lawler, "All excess, as well as all renunciation, brings its own punishment"(1988).

Frightened by James's death, Dorian decides on changing his life style, with great hope to transform and save himself. Hoping to gain peace and uncover a new beginning, Dorian tries to change himself with sparing a pure girl as the first good deed. However, "He could see no change, save that in the eyes there was a look of cunning, and in the mouth the curved wrinkle of the hypocrite".(Wilde, 1994)The picture remains unchanged, which makes Dorian cry with pain and indignation. Dorian eventually loses faith and realizes that his reformation ends up in failure. In the end, he attempts to stab the picture with the aim to "kill the past…the monstrous soul-life" (Wilde, 1994). But the result is that the portrait becomes as beautiful as before while Dorian becomes an ugly old man with a knife in his heart. Failing to ruin the picture, Dorian demolishes himself. Through the way of destroy the picture, he consequently destroy himself. From self-identification to self-destruction, Dorian's exploration in his inner world ends up in failure. The worse is that he cannot have right self-identity and enters the error of self-alienation.

IV. CONCLUSION

Like a child who finds his image in a mirror, an individual comes to recognize ego only through the mirror reflection. Through the mirror images, one comes to gain a sense of self. According to Lacanian Mirror Stage theory, "the psychic process of achieving the subject is based on the harmonious relationship between the inner world of the individual and the other. It is through the self-image reflected in others that each individual integrates himself and grows the identification" (1997). In the novel, Dorian begins to recognize himself through the mirror portrait and other images. Then he is aware of himself as an independent one, trying to develop himself fully. However, under the influence of the mirror images, Dorian misrecognizes himself and finally turns into a devil because he gets confused between "others" and "himself". At the mirror stage, Dorian forms his self image through the picture and actress Sybil. Unfortunately, the image he gets from reflection is an imaginary, visional and mistaken identification. When Dorian enters the period of Oedipus, by the intervention of the Name of the Father, he realizes the image he got before was mistaken and decides to tear down the illusion.

During the process of Dorian's transformation, the elements functions as mirror images are influential. The influential mirrors show respective influence in the process from Self-identification to self-destruction. Henry is of view that "All influence is immoral", (Wilde, 1994) which is right to the point. The picture, which represents the artist's desire, is the signifier of Dorian and the real Dorian is substituted. Dorian is molded by the picture. The picture reflects the change of Dorian's inner world and guides his behaviors, and gradually, even decides him. At last, Dorian cannot go back and he decides to destroy the portrait, and kill himself. Maybe death is the only way for Dorian to free himself from evil. And it is the only way for Dorian to shatter his self-misrecognition. Sybil represents a kind of maternal charm and beauty, which builds up an idol image of mother for Dorian. But when Dorian realizes the differences between his imaginary figure and the real Sybil, he rejects her attraction and abandons her. Basil appreciates Dorian's beauty and

helps him aware of his beauty. His desire functions on Dorian through his picture. Henry is an incompetent father and has no positive influence on Dorian. Henry guides Dorian through his talk about his own theories of aesthetic Hedonism. Dorian is addicted to glorious things and indulges in sensual pleasure. James, after his death, like a real father, help Dorian break the relationship with others, and thus finish his final transformation.

Under the influence of all the mirrors, Dorian starts to put theories he receives into practice and explore his inner world. He learns to identify himself and becomes an independent individual, trying to shake off the influence from others. Unfortunately, he fails to be aware of the true self and has to terminate himself. His destruction is doomed since he has been long on the way of immoral self-alienation. In a word, the effects of the different mirrors are decisive factors in the process of Dorian's self-identification to self-destruction.

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BICS and CALP: Implications for SLA

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Abstract—**The BICS/CALP dichotomy, proposed by Cummins, has attracted the attention of many educators, syllabus designers, and various educational systems involved in the education of minority migrant children. Though not immune to criticism, this distinction has solved some of the enigmas concerning the education of such children. Nevertheless, its relationship with SLA on the whole is rather under-researched. To meet such an end the researchers of this paper, following Kumaravadivelu's (2006, p. xiii) suggestion concerning creating a "pattern which connects", have tried to investigate the status of this dichotomy in the SLA literature.**

Index Terms—**BICS, CALP, interdependence hypothesis, threshold hypothesis, common underlying proficiency**

I. INTRODUCTION

The distinction between BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) was first introduced by Cummins (1979a). According to Cummins (2013, p. 65), "BICS refers to conversational fluency in a language while CALP refers to students' ability to understand and express, in both oral and written modes, concepts and ideas that are relevant to success in school". Later, Cummins (2000c) used the terms conversational/academic language proficiency interchangeably with BICS/CALP. This distinction was largely made to draw attention to the reasons behind the low academic achievement of migrant children in comparison with their native peers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Background

The BICS/CALP distinction was initially used to qualify John Oller's global language proficiency proposed in 1979 (Cummins, 2008). Cummins (1979a) believes that such a view is too simplistic and cannot account for issues such as enormous differences observed between reading and writing abilities of two monolingual English-speaking siblings (aged 6 and 12) in comparison to the minimal differences observed between their phonology or basic fluency. Also, the idea of this dichotomy has been inspired by Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa's (1976) study which pointed to low academic and cognitive achievements of minority migrant children who possessed less than native-like ability in their L1 (Lyon, 1996).

These two researchers were among the pioneers who drew attention to the unequal achievements of migrant children in terms of their conversational fluency and their academic language proficiency. Based on their investigation it was observed that while such students were fluent in the former they lag behind their native peers in the latter (Cummins, 2008). Further evidence for the distinction between BICS and CALP was provided by Cummins (1981a) regarding the required time for achieving them. It was noticed that while BICS developed rather rapidly, on average a period of 5-7 years was needed for migrant students to catch up grade norms in academic aspects of English (Cummins, 2008). In fact, simple communication skills such as the ability to hold a simple conversation with a shopkeeper may conceal a child's inadequate language proficiency required for academic achievements (Baker and Jones, 1998).

According to Cummins (1984, as cited in Cummins, 2000a), failure to take into account such a distinction has led to discriminatory psychological assessment of bilingual students and this, in turn, has resulted in their premature exit from language support programs. Cummins (1984) believes that the information so far provided by the evaluations of many bilingual education programs is unreliable and this has resulted in a confused state of language proficiency assessment in bilingual programs. To him this state stems from failures in developing an adequate theoretical framework for relating language proficiency to academic achievement.

B. Four Quadrants Model

Cummins (1981b) elaborated the BICS/CALP distinction into two intersecting continua that accentuated the range of contextual support and cognitive demands involved in specific language tasks or activities, i.e., context-embedded/context-reduced, and cognitively undemanding/cognitively demanding. From this, Cummins (2000b) proposed the four quadrants model (Figure 1).
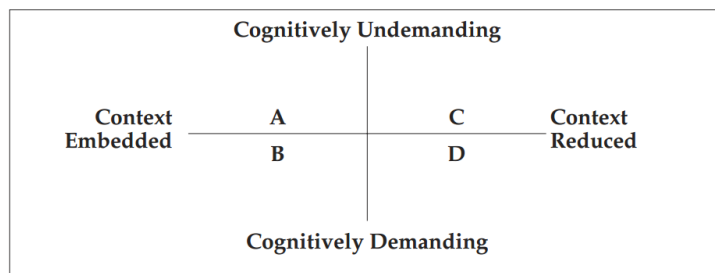
Figure 1 Range of contextual support and degree of cognitive involvement in language tasks and activities (From Cummins, 2000b)

In this framework the horizontal continuum ranged from context-embedded to context-reduced, and the vertical continuum ranged from cognitively undemanding to cognitively demanding (Cummins, 2013). Therefore, four quadrants were resulted which differed in the degree of contextual support and cognitive demand required for different language activities. Cummins believes that this framework has provided pedagogical implications for BICS/CALP distinction.

C. Two Hypotheses

As acknowledged by Cummins (1979b), research has provided little data on the dynamics of educational interactions used by bilingual children. He has ascribed such scarcity of information to overlooking the interrelationship between language and thought, believing that in determining such a relationship the level of L1 and L2 competence (among other factors) plays a substantial role. Therefore, to provide a theoretical framework for research on the interrelationship between language and though in bilingual children and to give reasons for different outcomes of immersion and submersion programs, he has postulated two hypotheses**: 'Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis'** and **'Threshold Hypothesis'**.

1. Cummins' Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis

This hypothesis has been inspired by studies which consistently indicated significant correlations between L1 and L2 reading abilities (Cummins, 2005, September). In short, the Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis "addresses the functional interdependence between the development of L1 and L2 skills" (Cummins, 1979b, p. 227). This hypothesis "proposes that the development of competence in a second language (L2) is partially a function of the type of competence already developed in L1 at the time when intensive exposure to L2 begins" (p. 222). In other words, as elaborated by Baker and Jones (1998), the more developed or proficient L1, the easier it may be to develop L2. That is, for those whose L1 is at a lower stage of growth achieving proficiency in L2 will be more difficult.

In Cummins's (1979b) system, the Interdependence Hypothesis postulates that transfer of proficiency across languages will occur provided that there are sufficient exposure and motivation. This idea led Cummins to develop the notion of a Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP). He used the Dual Iceberg metaphor (Figure 2) to elucidate the relationship between proficiencies in two languages. According to him, common cross-lingual proficiencies underlie the different surface manifestations of each language. Of course, this figure only provides a general sense of what aspects of languages are interdependent and empirical research is needed to provide much more specific information (Cummins, 2005, September).
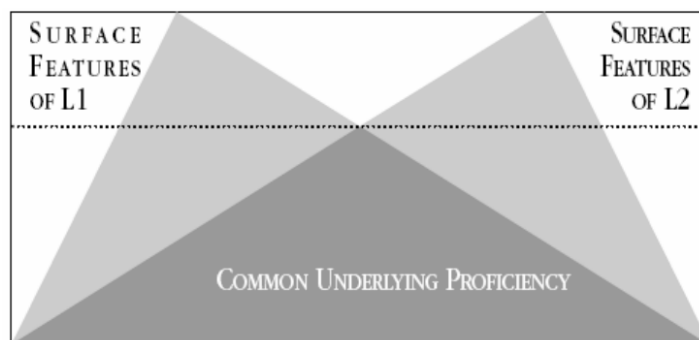
Figure 2 The Dual-Iceberg Representation of Bilingual Proficiency (From Cummins, 2005, September)

In fact, although the surface aspects of different languages (e.g. pronunciation, fluency, etc.) may be different, there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across languages. Therefore, this hypothesis posits that learning one language will facilitate the learning of the other. To elucidate this point, Cummins has used the balloon metaphor (Figure 3 and 4). In CUP (Figure 4) blowing either L1 or L2 into a balloon which comprises both L1 and L2 will affect both languages (Cummins).

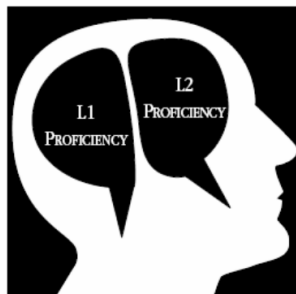Figure 3 The Separate Underlying Proficiency Model   Figure 4 The Common Underlying Proficiency Model
(From Cummins, 2005, September)   (From Cummins, 2005, September)

Based on this notion, Cummins has managed to delineate the transfer of cognitive/academic or literacy-related proficiency from one language to another. In the same vein, Cummins, Swain, Nakajima, Handscombe, Green and Tran (1984) found correlations even across quite dissimilar languages (e.g. Japanese and English). This suggests that the CUP should be conceived not just as linguistic proficiency but also in conceptual terms (Cummins, 2005, September).

As mentioned by Cummins, in the case of cognate languages derived from similar source languages (e.g., Latin and Greek), transfer will involve both linguistic and conceptual elements. However, in the case of dissimilar languages, transfer will involve mainly conceptual and cognitive elements (e.g. learning strategies). By contrast, in the case of very dissimilar languages, transfer will only involve conceptual elements. This can explain higher correlations observed across similar as compared to dissimilar languages (Genesee, 1979). Depending on the sociolinguistic situation, five types of transfer may emerge:

"• Transfer of conceptual elements (e.g. understanding the concept of photosynthesis);
• Transfer of metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies (e.g. strategies of visualizing, use of graphic organizers, mnemonic devices, vocabulary acquisition strategies, etc.);
• Transfer of pragmatic aspects of language use (willingness to take risks in communication through L2, ability to use paralinguistic features such as gestures to aid communication, etc.);
• Transfer of specific linguistic elements (knowledge of the meaning of photo in photosynthesis);
• Transfer of phonological awareness—the knowledge that words are composed of distinct sounds" (Cummins, 2005, September, p. 5)

2. Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis

The Threshold Hypothesis deals with the cognitive and academic outcomes of different patterns of bilingual skills (Cummins, 1979b). This hypothesis, according to Cummins and Swain (1986, as cited in Lazaruk, 2007), proposes that the positive cognitive effects of bilingualism are dependent on the linguistic competence in both languages. Such a conclusion was based on Cummins's (1979b) survey of the results of several studies on bilingualism, which revealed rather contradictory (both negative and positive) cognitive outcomes.

Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa's (1976) study is an example of the negative effect of bilingualism on academic and cognitive achievements of migrant children. Cummins concluded that the negative effects of bilingualism in this study may be attributed to their low levels of linguistic competence in both languages (Cummins, 1979b) although the roles of social and motivational factors as interfering cannot be not denied (Lyon, 1996). In the same vein, Lambert's (1975) distinction between additive and subtractive bilingualism can help bridge the gap between socio-cultural elements and the actual process of cognitive development (Cummins, 2001). Cummins (1979b) noticed that studies reporting positive effects of bilingualism mostly involved subjects with additive bilingualism and those reporting negative effects with subtractive bilingualism. According to him, the analysis of such studies indicates that L1 and L2 competences act as an intervening variable which mediates the effects of bilingualism on cognition. The threshold hypothesis, therefore, "proposes that there may be threshold levels of linguistic competence which a bilingual child must attain both in order to avoid cognitive disadvantages and allow the potentially beneficial aspects of bilingualism to influence his cognitive and academic functioning" (Cummins, p. 222).

In this regard, Cummins (1978, as cited in Lyon, 1996), has posited that there are two thresholds (Figure 5). While the lower threshold is ample to avoid the negative effects of bilingualism, the higher threshold is necessary to obtain the positive benefits of bilingualism.

Those children who are below the first level will show a relatively low level of competence in both L1 and L2 and consequently, may experience negative cognitive effects. They can attain the first threshold by fostering age-appropriate competence in their L1 or L2, but not both. At this level, they can avoid the adverse effects of bilingualism but it is improbable to gain any cognitive advantage over monolingual children. The positive effects of bilingualism can be

achieved only when they reach the second level of threshold, which is 'balanced' bilingualism, or age-appropriate competence in both languages (Lazaruk, 2007).
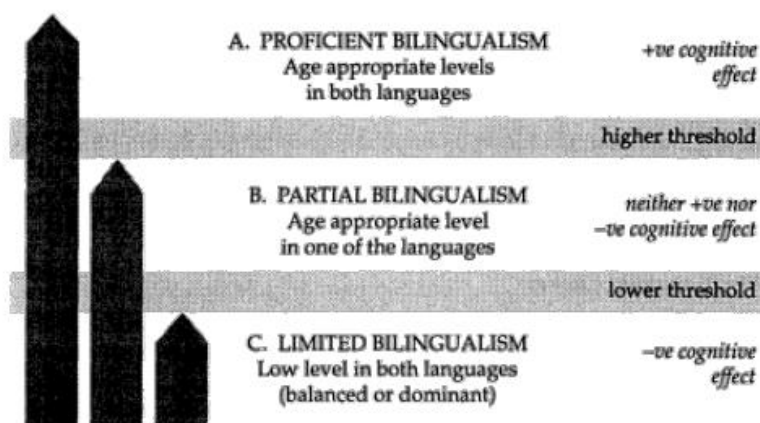

Figure 5 Threshold Theory: The cognitive effects of different kinds of bilingualism (From Cummins, 1987, as cited in Lyons, 1996, p. 58)

In the Threshold Theory Cummins (1987, as cited in Lyon, 1996) has referred to three kinds of bilingualism: Proficient Bilingualism; Partial Bilingualism; and Limited Bilingualism. In the first one there are age-appropriate levels in both languages, in the second age-appropriate level in one of the languages, and in the third low levels in both languages.

D. Pedagogical Implications

All in all, it can be claimed that the BICS/CALP dichotomy can yield some insights into the bilingual education of the minority groups especially students with poor CALP. For instance, the four quadrants model recommends a pedagogical system in which more emphasis is placed on context-embedded and cognitively demanding tasks for such students (Cummins, 2008). In what follows other insights provided by this dichotomy which are in accordance with those of other theoretical perspectives in SLA have been mentioned.

1. Implications regarding relevance to the Multi-competence and Dynamic Systems Theory

The CUP model of bilingual proficiency proposed by Cummins (1979b) is reminiscent of the Multi-competence theory proposed by Cook (1991, as cited in Cook, 2008). Cummins (2007) acknowledges similarities between notions such as Multi-competence, Dynamic Systems Theory and CUP, believing that the theoretical constructs of such concepts are consistent with one another. In fact, as mentioned by him, all these constructs hold the view that the languages of bi- and multi-linguals interact in complex ways that can improve aspects of overall language and literacy development. Also all of them question the pedagogical basis of monolingual instructional approaches that minimize and inhibit the possibility of two-way transfer across languages. Nevertheless, he believes that the notion of CUP was utilized to account for a different set of issues and does not aim to provide the kind of elaborated cognitive model depicted by Dynamic Systems Theory.

Also following the 'Developmental Interdependence' and 'Threshold Hypothesis', Cummins (1979b) pointed to the beneficial cognitive and academic effects of a bilingualism which is developed based on L1 language skills. Therefore, it can be inferred that language pedagogies which utilize L1 or provide a medium for enhancing it would be more likely to result in cognitive and academic success of minority students. Consequently, it seems that employing teachers who share the same mother tongue as that of minority ethnic students can improve students' poor command of CALP. This idea is in concordance with the recommendations concerning the use of non-native teachers in many theories including the Multi-competence Theory.

2. Implications regarding relevance to the Identity Theory

Utilizing L1 and non-native teachers, as recommended by the Multi-competence Theory and inferred from Cummins' ideas, also fits well with identity approaches; hence in that case students can identify more with teachers and it will help improving identity formation in them. According to McKay (2011), investigating the second learners' identity has recently gained momentum in SLA theories. Therefore, attention is turned towards the ways school discourses can position language learners within the educational context and give them a specific identity. As mentioned by her, language use today is often not just English but a mixture of a variety of languages that underline the speaker's identity and proficiency. Holding this stance, it can be inferred that views such as the 'Self-Other' discourse (Pennycook, 2007) or 'othering' (McKay, 2011) should not have a place in pedagogy. So, curricula for L2 learners are encouraged to utilize examples of other varieties. It can also benefit from the rich repertoire which most bilingual speakers of English possess in order to signal their personal identity and social relationships. Code-switching, is consequently, a means to such an end.

It can be claimed that aside from the higher cognitive demands required for CALP which makes mastering it more difficult in comparison to BICS, the factor of identity, which is apparently rather dealt with differently in these two

proficiencies, plays a role in the minority students' poorer command of CALP. It seems that while most BICS interactions takes place among minority peers, CALP interactions usually take place between teachers and these students who usually do not share the same ethnic background. Therefore, minority students' poorer command of CALP may, in part, be due to the lower degrees of identity affirmation which these students receive in CALP in comparison to those of BICS. The importance of identity affirmation has been also pointed out by Cummins (2008); Cummins (2009); Cummins, Bismilla, Chow, Cohen, Giampapa, Leoni, Sandhu, and Sastri, (2006). For example, Cummins et al. (2006) have recommended students to create what they term 'identity texts' in multilingual classes where none of the languages are known by the teacher, i.e., the students invest their identities in written, spoken, visual, musical, dramatic, or combinations texts.

3. Implications regarding relevance to 'language as ideology'

Cummins (1986) has attributed the vexed issue of the minority students' school failure to power and status relations between minority and majority groups. To solve this problem, he has proposed a framework which assigns a central role to the following sets of interactions or power relations:

1) the classroom interactions between teachers and students,
2) relationships between schools and minority communities
3) the intergroup power relations within the society as a whole

Cummins has suggested an alteration and a redefinition of these relationships in order to promote the empowerment of such students so that they can achieve success in school. In this framework he has assumed that "the social organization and bureaucratic constraints within the school reflect not only broader policy and societal factors, but also the extent to which individual educators accept or challenge the social organization of the school in relation to minority students and communities" (p. 657).

In the same vein, Cummins (2009) has emphasized the leading role that power relation plays in minority education. He has encouraged collaborative rather than coercive relations of power. The former refers to the cases when power is conceived of not as a fixed quantity but as engendered through interaction with others. In fact, by emphasizing critical literacy, active learning, deep understanding, and the importance of building on students' prior knowledge not only is Cummins echoing the principles of Freire's critical pedagogy, but also he takes one step further to emphasize the importance of identity negotiation and identity investment for furthering academic expertise among marginalized students.

These ideas are reminiscent of the Kumaravadivelu's (2006) notion of "language as ideology, which deals mainly with issues of how the social and political forces of power and domination impact on language structures and language use" (p. 24). So both Cummins and Kumaravadivelu conceive of language as a means for transporting and translating ideology. Considering ideology as "meaning in the service of power" (Thompson, 1990, as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 12), Kumaravadivelu has recommended 'interaction as ideational activity' in order to recognize language as ideology, where learners must be provided with some of the tools necessary for identity formation and social transformation. Therefore, such ideas are again in line with McKay (2011) and identity approaches to SLA. In fact, these ideas are echoing critical pedagogy whose followers according to Shor (1992, as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 72) call for an "empowering education" that relates "personal growth to public life by developing strong skills, academic knowledge, habits of inquiry, and critical curiosity about society, power, inequality, and change". So, in line with such ideas, one way to solve the problems of minority students could be what Kumaravadivelu (1999) has referred to as 'critical classroom discourse analysis' (CCDA).

4. Implications regarding relevance to the World Englishes (WEs) Theory

The identity affirmation approaches are also in line with ideas put forward by WEs. In this regard, Y. Kachru (2011) has referred to a paradigm shift that teaching and learning WEs signals. Holding the idea that "it is neither possible nor desirable to impose any rigid linguistic norm on the entire world" (p. 163), she has welcomed the insight provided by WEs into using pedagogies that utilize other varieties and do not stick to one so-called standard version. B. Kachru (1997, as cited in Y. Kachru, 2011) has warned that nearly no teacher training program in the Inner Circle so far has incorporated WEs awareness programs. Therefore, it can be claimed that one of the ways of alleviating minority migrant students' poor command of CALP can be provided by incorporating such programs.

III. Conclusion

Although the BICS/CALP distinction was developed partially in response to Oller's simplistic view of unitary language proficiency (Cummins, 2008), Anderson (2011) believes that CALP itself is also suffering from the same flaw. Also, the distinction between BICS and CALP has been criticized by many scholars. Some of such criticisms are as follows:

"- Conversational/academic distinction reflects an autonomous perspective on language which ignores its location in social practices and power relations.

- CALP or academic language proficiency represents little more than "test-wiseness." It is an artifact of the inappropriate way in which it has been measured.

- The notion of CALP promotes a deficit theory insofar as it attributes the academic failure of bilingual/minority students to low cognitive/academic proficiency rather than to inappropriate schooling" (Edelsky, Hudelson, Altwerger, Flores, Barkin and Jilbert, 1983, as cited in Cummins, 2000c, pp. 67-68).

Cummins (2000c) provided a detailed response to these criticisms. By referring to the elaborated sociopolitical framework within which the BICS/CALP distinction was placed, he attributed the underachievement among subordinated students to coercive relations of power working in the society at large. So, power relations have not been ignored this dichotomy.

He has also referred to Biber's (1986) and Corson's (1995) study as evidence justifying the linguistic reality of the BICS/CALP distinction. Biber (1986) found enormous lexical differences between English speech and written text and Corson (1995) found differences between conversational interactions and academic or literacy-related uses. Moreover, Cummins (2000c) has also shown that the construct of CALP depends in no way on test scores as support for either its construct validity or relevance to education.

Duncan and De Avila (1979, as cited in Cummins, 1984), and Kessler and Quinn (1980, as cited in Cummins, 1984) can be considered as further support for Cummins views since they support the Threshold Hypothesis.

On the whole, it should be mentioned that, in spite of all criticisms leveled against the notion of CALP, this dichotomy has deepened our insight into the minority bilingualism, As mentioned by Hakuta, Ferdman and Diaz (1987), the important thing about Cummins's theoretical framework is that it explicitly identifies the way in which linguistic and cognitive development must be perceived as occurring within a sociocultural context. Consequently, an apprehension of differences among these types of societal bilingualism can lead us to a variety of cognitive findings.

Moreover, despite objections to the notion of CALP, this term can be useful in a wide variety of circumstances as long as its particular sense for which Cummins originally used it is being taken into account and it is used bearing the cognizance that it may or may not transcend that specific sense (Anderson, 2011).

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Contrastive Study of English and Chinese Word Order from the Perspective of Figure-ground Theory—A Case Study of *The Moonstone* and Its Chinese Version

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Abstract—**The relationship between human language behavior and cognition can be reflected by the Figure-Ground Theory in cognitive science. In the frame of cognition, figure is more prominent. It is the focus of attention; ground is less prominent and it provides the cognitive reference for the figure. In English expression, figure is usually put on the prominent position. This article points out the similarities and differences between English and Chinese word order by comparing English and Chinese sentences from The Moonstone written by Wilkie Collins. It delves into their cognitive differences through cognition pattern. English adopts cognitive model from figure to ground, while Chinese takes the order from ground to figure. According to the analysis of the article, a conclusion is made that the difference between English and Chinese word order lies in different cognitive models.**

Index Terms—**figure-ground theory, word order, cognitive model, English, Chinese, The Moonstone**

I. INTRODUCTION

English is one member of the Indo-European language family, while Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family. English is characteristic of being hypotactic, which depends on conjunctions to keep sentences complete. By contrast, Chinese is paratactic, following the word order of chronological sequence. Chinese differs from English in many aspects, such as phonology, morphology, word-formation and syntax. This article studies the distinction of English and Chinese word order in order to strengthen people's comprehension of English and Chinese languages.

In light of figure-ground theory, this article is devoted to making an analysis of the contrastive study of English and Chinese word order represented in sentences of The Moonstone and its Chinese version from the cognitive perspective with the aim to explore the underlying relationship of languages and find out reasons of the distinction between English and Chinese word order.

II. PREVIOUS RELEVANT RESEARCH

A. Research on Word Order

The study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language is the category of word order typology. In reality, different languages have different word order in organizing the sentence structure. The study of word order pays attention to the sub-sentence domain, but the primary concern is the word order of the subject, verb and object, the order of modifiers in a noun phrase, such as adjectives, demonstratives, possessives, numerals and adjuncts, and the order of adverbials. The word order of some languages is of grammatical property which is applied to convey important grammatical function. Some inflectional languages allow more flexibility which can be used to encode pragmatic information. However, most languages have some preferred word orders which are used most frequently.

Based on the sequential arrangement of the basic constituents of most languages, the word order can be classified into the following six types, namely, SVO, SOV, OSV, OVS, VSO, and VOS. English and Chinese belong to the SVO type.

Word order studies involve many grammatical models, which roughly falls into two models: to consider word order as an abstract underlying property of sentences and to view word order as an independent issue. Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar is the typical case of the first model. The representatives of the latter models are functional grammar, lexical functional grammar and word grammar.

The publication of Greenberg (1963) marks the beginning of an interest in word order typology. In masterpieces, *Language and the Study of Language*, *and The Life and Growth of Language*, William Dwight Whitney observes the

classification and arrangement of language phenomenon, and regards "position" from language constituents as important features of form in the last half of 19th century.

Since the 1980s, as an independent grammatical phenomenon, word order has become more active. The study of word order has two orientations. One is the study of position and influence of word order in language and language acquisition from the perspective of psychology and psycholinguistics. For example, Slobin and Bever (1982) in cross-language research have found that children form canonical word order scheme by the age of four. He points out that this scheme plays a vital role in discourse comprehension. The other orientation is the study of regulations and features of word order itself in terms of syntax.

In contrast, functioning grammar views word order as an independent issue. These grammatical models believe that word order is not the implicit property of clauses; the alignment of each constituent can be inferred from the semantic properties of each word and the correlation between different classes of words. Linguist Halliday (1994: p.37) illuminates in his book *An Introduction of Functional Grammar* that the theme is the element which acts as the point of departure of the message, and the remainder of the message with the purpose of developing the theme, is called rheme; the structure is expressed by the order.

Cognitive linguistics established in America in the 1950s is the study of language that is in accordance with our experience of the world and the way we perceive and conceptualize it, and the study of the human language with consciousness knowledge. Langacker, (1991) the founder of cognitive grammar, suggests that a unified explanation of this syntactic diversity is possible if one understands the subject-verb-complement pattern as a reflection of the general cognitive principle of figure-ground theory.

B. Application of Figure-ground Theory in Linguistics

Figure-ground theory is one of the basic cognitive principles which was first introduced into psychology by Edgar Rubin in 1915, and later integrated into more comprehensive framework of perceptual organization by the gestalt psychologists. Cognitive linguistics holds that the application of language is determined by people's empirical structure and cognitive mode. Expressions of language based on people's perception to things and events are divided into figure and ground to organize language performance by means of arranging them perpetually. In terms of present study, figure-ground theory is demonstrated to explain many language phenomena efficiently, such as syntactic diversity, sentence structure, use of preposition, definition of adverbial of time, and stress mechanism of inversion, etc.

Talmy is the first linguist applying figure-ground theory to language study. He (2000: p.312) proposes two conceptualizations of figure and ground in language:

a. The general conceptualization (in single clause): The Figure is a dynamic or conceptually movable entity whose route, site, or direction is believed to be a variable. The value of the figure is a relevant issue. The Ground offers a background or reference for the figure, and it has a comparatively stable setting with regard to a reference frame, with respect to which the Figure's path, site or orientation is characterized.

b. The temporally specific conceptualization (in complex clause): Temporally the figure is a variable concept or entity. The value of the concept or entity is the relevant issue. The Ground offers a reference, which has comparatively stable setting relative to a reference frame. And against such background the figure's location or orientation in time sequence is identified.

The linguists after Talmy begin to adopt figure-ground theory as a basic cognitive principle. Talmy applies figure-ground theory in explaining the expressions of prepositions indicating time in language and specifies the defining property and associated characteristics to entities which are used as figure and ground in language. Talmy (1978) also studies figure-ground theory in simple and complex sentences and between events. The conclusion is that the relation of figure and ground in complex sentences is decided in accordance with the following five principles: sequence principle, cause-result principle, inclusion principle, contingency principle and substitution principle.

Langacker, on the other hand, introduces another pair of "figure and ground", namely, "trajector and landmark". He defines trajector as "the figure within a relational profile" (Langacker, 1987: p.217). The ground within a relational profile would be the landmark, which is less prominent in the relation. The trajector refers to the entity serving as a moving figure or as being located relative to the landmark and the landmark is the frame of a dynamic figure. The figure moves along the "path" to the ground. Trajector and landmark may differ from each other in size and shape and the trajector can come into contact with the landmark.

Ungerer and Schmid (2001) agree with Langacker's proposing the term of "trajector and landmark" and his elaboration of simple transitive clause as well. Similarly, in the aspect of simple clause, Ungerer and Schmid initiate the terms of "syntactic figure" and "syntactic ground" to refer to subject and object accordingly, postulating that the verbs can account for the scale of prominence between subject and object in basic sentence patterns like SVC or SVO.

III. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

A. Cognitive Approach

Cognitive approach is an approach to language that is based on our experience of the world and the way we perceive and conceptualize it (Ungerer & Schimid, 2001: p.36). It was emerged in America in the 1950s being a new approach to

language study. Cognitive linguistics, which is a new discipline that is the synthesis of linguistics and cognitive science, argues that cognition and language are inseparable, for language is the result of cognitive process. Thus, being part of cognition, language can promote the development of cognition. Cognitive linguistics is represented by three main approaches: the experiential view, the prominence view, and the attentional view of language.

The experiential view holds that a more practical and empirical path should be pursued rather than postulating objective definitions and logical rules based on theoretical considerations and introspection (Ungerer & Schimid, 2001: p.37). It is not limited from objective description of one entity, but also offers more meaningful description.

The prominence view argues that the expressed selection and arrangement of information in language depend on the degree of prominence. For example, although they have the same propositional meaning, the expression The car crashed into the tree is different from the expression The tree was hit by the car in the selection and arrangement of the clause subject. This explanation suggests that the construction of the sentence is determined by how the cognitive model deals with the different degrees of prominence of information. This prominence is not only reflected in the selection of the subject as opposed to the object and the adverbials of a clause, but there are also many other applications of what may be called the prominence view of linguistic structures (Ungerer & Schimid, 2001: p.38-39). hus figure-ground theory can be viewed as the heart of this theoretical framework.

"The attentional view is an alternative approach of the prominence view. Based on the assumption that what we actually express reflects which parts of an event attract our attention, the attentional view interprets why one stage of the event is expressed in the sentence while other stages are not. The potential of the attentional view starts out from the notion of 'frame', which is an assemblage of the knowledge we have about a certain situation, e.g. buying and selling. "Depending on where we direct out attention, we can select and highlight different aspects of the frame, thus arriving at varied linguistic expressions" (Ungerer & Schimid, 2001:p. 39-40).

Generally speaking, cognitive linguistics studies the following aspects: categories, prototype and categorization, metonymy and metaphor, figure and ground, frame and attention, iconicity, grammaticalization, etc. This article is aimed at analyzing English and Chinese word order from the perspective of figure and ground.

B. Origin of Figure-ground Theory

The figure-ground theory is an important theory from the perspective of the prominence view in cognitive linguistics. The previous chapter mentioned that the notion of figure and ground was first introduced by Danish psychologist Edgar Rubin in 1915. Later the gestalt psychologists integrate the notion into a more comprehensive framework of perceptual organization, especially the visual and auditory perceptual organization. In cognitive linguistics, the perception field is divided into two parts: figure and ground. Figure is the more prominent part in cognition, which is the focus of attention, and more easily attracts people's attention, while the ground is less prominent than figure in cognition and can be regarded as the reference of figure in people's cognition. Rubin is interested in the way that human beings percept things, direct and pay much attention to something which is more prominent than others, and regard the less prominent things as the background of the more prominent ones. That is how we human beings could single more salient things out as our focus of attention, namely figure from the ground. Therefore, he designs the famous face/vase illusion (see Figure 1) to explain this phenomenon.

The well-known face/vase illusion is the best illustration of the figure-ground theory. There are two illusions in Figure 1: a white vase and two faces. We can see one illusion on the first sight, either a vase or two faces, but after longer inspection, we can easily notice the other possibility. Obviously, the perception of these two possibilities is not difficult and does not need much time or energy, and we can easily switch between the two ways of looking at the picture. But there is no possibility that we can catch both of them at the same time. In other words, we can not see both a vase and two faces at the same time. The perception of these two possibilities can not take place at the same time but must be in order. We make out of the one what we think more prominent first and take the rest as its environment. After long observation or implication, we can get the other possibility take the former environment as prominent one and the former prominent one as environment. In the perception of face/vase illusion, we cannot see them both simultaneously; we must take one of them as the prominent figure and the rest as the ground.

C. Figure-ground Segregation and the Principle of Pragnanz

Why we can not see a white vase and two faces simultaneously? It seems that there is something invisible controlling our perception and stops us from catching them both simultaneously. In what way can we decide which element of a situation should be the figure and which the ground? The following two concepts: Figure-Ground Segregation and the Principle of Pragnanz can give us the explanation to these questions.

a. Figure-Ground Segregation

The picture in the Figure 1 indicates that we can only see one possibility at one time. The figure-ground segregation is a phenomenon to explain that people can not at the same time capture both figure and ground in one setting.
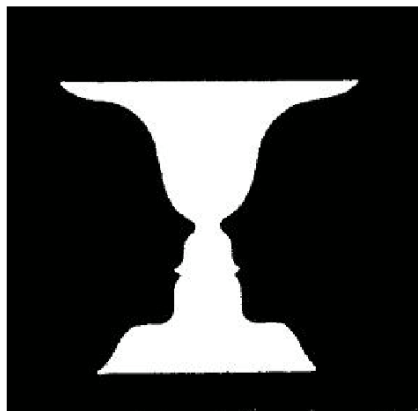
Figure 1 The face/vase illusion (Rubin)

It is concluded that figure is the focus of attention which refers to the prominent parts in cognitive concepts or perception; it has a definable shape, or form, and "thing-like" qualities such as structure and coherence, while the ground refers to the background or environment, and it seems to be unstructured, formless and uniform. The relation between figure and ground is such that figure seems to be put in front of ground which is less prominent than figure in cognition and can be viewed as the cognitive reference. "Psychological study has indicated that it is more likely to be identified and remembered and to be associated with meaning, feeling and aesthetic values" (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001: p.157). Things can be selected as either figure or ground according to many aspects, such as personal taste and preference. An object selected as figure or ground is determined by the observer's personal taste to a large extent. Psychological studies have shown that the perception of figure from the ground is a result of an internal selection. Personal beliefs, needs and values, etc. are the important stimulus for the selection of figure in the internal world; the selection is also enhanced by the drive to seek for meaning, a drive intrinsic in human beings. One point we should be clear about is that our putting too much emphasis on the figure does not indicate the ground is unimportant. It only suggests that the ground is not the focus of attention. If the ground is absent, on the one hand, the gestalt of a sentence or scene cannot be kept, and on the other, the figure cannot be prominent. Thus, the ground is indispensable. "The perception of figure-ground is the direct result of human experience and ground can be regarded as the cognitive reference point of figure" (Kuang Fangtao & Wen Xu, 2003). Apparently, there is a factor that plays an important role in assigning the status of figure to certain parts of a visual scene, and this factor is taken granted as the Principle of Pragnanz.

b. The Principle of Pragnanz

The Principle of Pragnanz is a guiding principle which reflects the way that people choose something as figure. Figure-ground theory should observe the Principle of Pragnanz, which offers a meaningful guide to determine figure and ground. The Principle of Pragnanz consists of a series of formula that are reflections of human being's visual processing. "The term is used by the gestalt psychologists to portray a phenomenon as the more a configuration of individual elements adheres to these principles, the more it will tend towards a clear-cut and cogent organization" (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001: p.160). These principles are called "gestalt principles". The most important of these principles are:

"Principle of Proximity": individual elements with a small distance between them will be perceived as being somehow related to each other.

"Principle of Similarity": individual elements that are similar tend to be perceived as one common segment.

"Principle of Closure": perceptual organization tends to be anchored in closed figures.

"Principle of Continuation": elements will be perceived as wholes if they only have few interruptions. (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001: p. 160)

D. Abbreviations and Acronyms Properties of Figure-ground Theory

Considering the examples stated above carefully, we can notice that the one we select as figure appears to have some special properties. In the face/vase illusion, if we take attention on the white part, the vase may emerge, and if we focus on the black part, the two faces will emerge. It seems that the factor which determines the selection of figure is our subjective attention. However, it seems that it is not reasonable in the determination of figure when we explain the situation of a book and desk. Here it is not subjective attention or focus but the gestalt properties that decide the selection of figure. The Principle of Pragnanz is quite applicable in the above example, in which the book and desk are quite different in shape and contour, and it is easy to distinguish the figure and ground. However, it is not always applausive and effective. For example, the following two sentences Linda sits next to Tom; Tom sits next to Linda. In this situation, Linda and Tom are almost equal no matter in shape, contour, or other figure-like features as the principle claims. There exists a problem of the determination of figure and ground. In this case, some other properties of figure and ground must be introduced. Talmy first uses the figure-ground theory to explain some linguistics phenomenon the

spatial relation in natural language. According to him, the determination of figure and ground should follow the rule that figure is more salient, much smaller, geometrically simpler, more concrete and movable, while on the contrary, the ground is less salient, much larger, geometrically complex, more abstract and permanently located. "Palmer claims that the figure is the one which draws our focus and attention easily in a situation, while the ground provides background, acts as the reference point, and it is relatively stable. Figure is smaller, more compact, more easily defined, simpler and more likely to be in motion" (1996:p. 101). Talmy (2000) contributes a lot to the study of the characteristics of figure and ground. He uses the following table to identify them.

Figure		Ground
Definitional characteristics	Has unknown spatial/temporal properties to be determined	Acts as reference entity, having known properties that can characterize the figure's unknowns
Associational characteristics	More movable	More permanently located
	smaller	larger
	Geometrically simpler(often pointlike) in its treatment	Geometrically complex in its treatment
	More recently on the scene/in awareness	More familiar/expected
	Of greater concern/relevance	Of lesser concern/relevance
	Less immediately perceivable	More immediately perceivable
	More salient once perceived	More backgrounded once the figure is perceived
	More dependent	More independent

Fig3.4 Characteristics of Figure and Ground (Talmy, 2000:p.315)

On the basis of this table, Kuang Fangtao and Wen Xu (2003) add two other associated characteristics to the figure and ground: time length and predictability. Figure is much shorter in the time length than ground, and more difficult to be predicted than ground. In the determination of figure and ground, the definitional characteristics play a determinative role and the associated characteristics only supplementary acts as an assistant. Usually more than one associated characteristics function in the determination process of figure and ground. Not only the features that the Principle of Pragnanz gives function in the determination of figure and ground, but also the definitional and associational characteristics of figure and ground affect in the determination process of figure and ground.

IV. A CASE STUDY OF THE MOONSTONE AND ITS CHINESE VERSION FROM THE VIEW OF FIGURE-GROUND THEORY

The sequence of English and Chinese expressions is different, but sometimes is identical. Some scholars believe that Chinese logic order is simpler than that of English. Generally, Chinese complies with rules of time sequence, rules of cause-effect sequence, etc. Nevertheless, English word order is more flexible. For example, adverbial clause of time introduced by after, before can precede the main clause, or follow the main clause. In order to point out the similarities and differences in cognitive structure between English and Chinese word order, English and Chinese sentences in original text and its Chinese version of The Moonstone will be selected to be compared.

A. Contrastive Study of Word Order from Time Order

In terms of time order, events that happen earlier will be described first in Chinese, and events that happen later will be talked about afterwards. Sometimes, in English, sentences will be constructed according to the sequence of action or events. The following examples are taken from the novel *The Moonstone* written by Collins. (2014)

Example 1:

The matron, seeing my lady took an interest in the place, pointed out a girl to her, named Rosanna Spearman, and told her a most miserable story, which I haven't the heart to repeat here; for I don't like to be made wretched without any use, and no more do you. (Collins, 2014:p.35)

那位女管事者看到我房东太太对于那个地方很感兴趣，就把一个姑娘指给她看，那姑娘名字叫罗珊娜·史珀尔曼，并且讲了她的悲惨的身世故事，这些故事我没有心情在这儿重复；因为我不喜欢做那些没有什么用处的事情，你可能也是这样。

The matron seeing my lady took an interest in the place is put in the first position. Then pointed out a girl to her, and introduced her name. During the narration, it is still in the light of time order. After I heard this story, I had s series of psycho reaction. English and Chinese word orders concord with the same time sequence.

Example 2:

Only yesterday, I opened my Robinson Crusoe at the place. Only this morning (May twenty-first, Eighteen hundred and fifty), came my lady's nephew, Mr. Franklin Blake, and held a short conversation with me. (2014: p.9)

就在昨天，我把我的《鲁宾逊漂流记》翻到了此处。就在今天早上（1850 年的 5 月 21 日），我的女房东的外甥，弗兰克林·布莱克先生来了，他与我简短交谈。

From yesterday to this morning, the original text and its translated text both have obviously the same time order.

Example 3:

If the unknown person who has pledged the Moonstone can redeem it in a year, the jewel will be in that person's possession at the end of June, forty-nine, I shall be thousands of miles always from England English news that date.(2014:p.253)

如果那个不知名字的已经抵押了那颗月亮宝石的人在一年之后能够赎回它的话，那件珠宝将在四九年的六月底再次回到那个人的手中。那时我将离英国数千英里之外了，而那个时期英国发生的事也将离我很遥远了。

The things described in these sentences have not taken place, but just existed in people's imagination. However, both English and Chinese expressions are in accordance with time sequence.

As two different languages, English and Chinese also have differences besides the similarities. The differences will be analyzed by combining characteristics of figure and ground with English sentences and Chinese version in The Moonstone under the figure-ground theory. The following examples can demonstrate this.

Example 4:

She has never spoken a word in private to Rosanna, since that unhappy woman fires entered my house.(2014:p.155)

自从那个不幸的姑娘罗珊娜最初来到宅邸以来，她从来没有私下里跟这个姑娘说过一句话。

In this example, in English, the main clause she has never spoken a word in private to Rosanna is the focus of the information, revealing the central point of view of the clause, having unknown spatial or temporal properties to be determined, so it is the figure part. The main clause precedes the subordinate clause functioning as a reference entity in English sentence. Therefore, it is a typical instance following the order from the figure to the ground. By contrast, the Chinese equivalent is in the opposite sequence, and the subordinate clause 自从那个不幸的姑娘罗珊娜最初来到宅邸以来 is placed at the beginning part of the sentence, providing reference event for the main clause, which complies with the common expression of Chinese. The whole sentence follows the order from ground to figure.

Example 5:

About four months before the time I am writing of, my lady had been in London, and had gone over a reformatory, intended to save forlorn women from drifting back into bad days, after they had got released from prison.(2014:p.21)

大约在我写这些东西的四个月以前，我的房东夫人去伦敦参加了一个感化院，这个感化院的目的是拯救那些失足绝望的妇女，以防止她们从监狱里得到释放后又重新回到堕落的路子上去。

In this example, the former part is the focus of attention. After they had got released from prison is the subordinate clause functioning as a reference entity. It follows the order from figure to ground. On the contrary, Chinese is in the opposite sequence. 她们从监狱里得到释放后 provides the reference event for the main clause. Chinese follows the order from ground to figure.

Example 6

You are tempting me with new prospect, when all my other prospects are closed before me.(2014:p.99)

当我其他的一切生活前景都暗淡下去的时候，你正用一种新的前景在引诱我。

In the tenth example, the same situation occurs. The English sentence is initiated by new information "You are tempting me with new prospect". Subordinate clause "when all my other prospects are closed before me" provides reference entity for the main clause. It is ordered in the way from the figure to the ground. The Chinese sentence is in the opposite sequence The Chinese sentence 当我其他的一切生活前景都暗淡下去的时候 is put in the first position, having known properties and getting people aware of which field is talked about, then followed by the focus of the sentence 你正用一种新的前景在引诱我. Complying with definitional characteristics of figure and ground, Chinese sentence follows ground-figure sequence.

From the view of the definitional characteristics of "figure" and "ground", the figure has undefined properties with regard to time and space; and the ground is a reference entity, having all-known qualities that can characterize the figure's unknowns. The relevant characteristics of figure and ground are analyzed from the perspective of salience, accessibility, dependence, familiarity, and expectation. From the dimension of accessibility, figure is less immediately perceivable and ground is more immediately perceivable. Specifically, on the level of syntactic structure, the main clause is the focus of information of the whole clause, having unknown spatial or temporal properties to be determined. The subordinate clause expresses given information, functioning as a reference entity and having known properties that characterize the main clause's unknowns of the figure part.

In accordance with associated characteristics of figure and ground, figure is more salient and ground is more backgrounded. The main clause shows the new information and is the focus of information so that it will be more salient than the subordinate clause. Therefore, the main clause is taken as figure, and the subordinate clause is the reference event functioning as ground. From above-mentioned examples, it is obviously seen that Chinese sentence accords with time order. Things that happen are described in sequence so as to be consistent with Chinese expressions. However, English sentence is constituted according to grammatical rules rather than time sequence. Constituents in English sentence are linked through the use of conjunctions. For instance, in the above examples, such as when, after are applied in the sentences. From the analysis, a conclusion will be made that cognitive structure of English follows the order from figure to ground, but Chinese follows the opposite way.

B. Contrastive Study of Word Order from Space Order

Objects occupy certain space with different constituents. In order to illustrate their spatial expressive mode, it should be explained according to a certain sequence of spatial location. That is space order. Shen Jiaxuan (1996) holds that when people perceive spatial relations of two objects, one object is treated as the focus of attention, and the other as a reference entity for the first object. Generally speaking, the focus of attention is called figure and reference entity as

ground. Figure and ground are a pair of basic concepts in cognitive psychology. There is a certain rule for which object is perceived as figure, and which is ground specifically. In a general way, there exists a tendency that movable object is figure, stable object is ground; smaller object is figure, while larger one is ground; the part one is figure, while the whole one is ground. He also believes that the constituents denoting the figure are usually placed before the ground in English spatial expressions. Specifically speaking, people are sure about the categorization of figure and ground in objects' spatial relations, but the conceptualization could be different in experiencing a spatial relation. There are two processes of experiencing spatial relations: one is from the figure to ground, the other is from the ground to figure. English has a strong tendency of figure to ground, while Chinese is in the opposite way of ground to figure. Nevertheless, marked situation may exist. In other words, exceptions may exist. English and Chinese adopt the same cognitive model. The following instances will illustrate it.

Example 7:

There stood Miss Rachel at the table, like a person fascinated, with the Colonel's unlucky Diamond in her hand. There, on either side of her, knelt the two Bouncers, devouring the jewel with their eyes, and screaming with ecstasy every time it flashed on them in a new light. There, at the opposite side of the table, stood Mr. Godfrey, clapping his hands like a large child, and singing out softly, "Exquisite! Exquisite!" There sat Mr. Franklin in a chair by the bookcase, tugging at his beard, and looking anxiously towards the window. And there, at the window, stood the object he was contemplating-my lady, having the extract from the Colonel's will in her hand, and keeping her back turned on the whole of the company.(2014:p.56)

This paragraph is translated as: 蕾茜尔小姐坐在桌子的旁边，像一个有点儿神智不清的人一样，一只手里拿着上校送给她的那颗不祥的宝石。艾伯怀特家的两位小姐分别跪在她的两边儿，眼睛盯着那个宝石，几乎要把它吞下去。那颗宝石每发出一次新的闪光，她们都着迷一般尖叫声叫喊起来。在那张桌子的对面，站着高孚利先生，正拍着两只手像一个大孩子一样，低声赞叹着说道："漂亮极了！漂亮极了！"弗兰克林先生坐在书柜旁边的一把椅子上，正摸着他的胡须，一面焦急地朝窗子处看着。而在窗口站着他正端详的那个人-我的房东太太，她手里拿着上校遗嘱的摘要，一直背对着那些人站在那儿。

Miss Rachel is the reference entity of two Bouncers and Mr. Godfrey, while Mr. Franklin is the reference entity of my lady. Miss Rachel is the known information, and is salient. In the example, both English and Chinese sentences obey the sequence from ground to figure.

Example 8:

He was almost fifty, and looked it. His hair was long and uncombed and greasy, and hung down, and you could see his eyes shining through. It was all black; so were his long whiskers. There wasn't any color in his face, where his face showed. As for his clothes, they were just rags. (2014:p.76)

他差不多五十岁了，看起来也像那么老。他的头发又长、又蓬乱、又油腻，往下搭拉着，你能看见他的眼睛透过头发闪着亮光。头发全是黑的；长长的络腮胡子也是一样。他露出来的脸上毫无血色。至于他的衣服，简直就是一堆破布。

In this example, English and Chinese both obey the principle from whole to part, from top to down. The author describes the whole impression of this person first-He was almost fifty, and looked it. Then every part of his body is depicted respectively, which follows the sequence from top to down. This description complies with the sequence of people's spatial perception. English cognitive model is the same with Chinese. So do the next three instances. Both English and Chinese word orders comply with the sequence from whole to part, namely from ground to figure.

Example 9:

The man's swarthy face was placed and still; his black hair and beard were slightly, very slightly, discomposed. His eyes stared wide-open, glassy and vacant, at the ceiling. The filmy look and the fixed expression of them horrified me. (2014:p. 386)

哪个人黑黝黝的脸一动也不动；他黑色的头发和胡子都稍微，只是稍微有一点凌乱。他的两只眼睛睁得大大地，正在茫然而无神采地瞪着天花板。两只眼睛中的那种呆滞的样子和凝滞的表情把我吓坏了。

First the man's face is described, and then his hair, beard, and eyes, which follows the sequence from the whole to the part during the description of the man. Thus, English and Chinese descriptions also obey the sequence from ground to figure.

Hence, we cannot say English only adopts a bottom-up model which is from part to whole casually through the analysis of the existing exceptions. Through a large number of examples from The Moonstone and its Chinese version, it is proved that English and Chinese word order accord with people's cognitive sequence with regard to the description of spatial relations. Descriptive sequence of English and Chinese in spatial relation possesses the similarity because people's body and material experience are the basis for people's perceiving space and obtaining spatial thought.

C. Contrastive Study of Word Order from Logic Order

Chinese is a logical language, and the arrangement of its word order depends on logical thinking. Chinese word order complies with the sequence from cause to effect, from condition to result when describing things, while English word order is more flexible, which comes straight to the point first, and makes an explanation later. Thus English follows the

sequence from effect to cause. The following examples will show the differences between English and Chinese word order.

Example 10:

It is impossible you can see her for the present.

现在你要想去看她，是不可能的。

In English, the result is usually put in the first place. Describing causes or truth is placed later. In this example, English is from result to narration. In other words, English word order obeys effect-to-cause order. By contrast, according to logical rules, Chinese is in the opposite way.

Example 11:

They want to be certainly informed of the earliest period at which the pledge can be redeemed because that will be the earliest period at which the Diamond can be removed from the safe keeping of the bank.(2014:p.181)

因为那就是那颗钻石可能从保存在银行的保险柜里拿出来的最早日期，所以他们当然想要弄明白抵押品可能被赎回来的最早的日期。

This example shows that English accords with effect-cause order. The main clause precedes the adverbial clause of reason in English sentence. But the Chinese sentence is in the opposite way, which demonstrates that Chinese emphasizes logical order.

Example 12:

The search must be given up, because your young lady refuses to submit to it like the rest.(2014:p.99)

搜查必须取消了，因为你家小姐也像其他人那样拒绝接受搜查。

The search must be given up is the effect part, so English is from effect to cause. Chinese word order also follows the same sequence.

This example has the same situation. According to associated characteristics of figure and ground, figure is more salient and dependent on ground. In the cause-effect sentence, the effect part is figure, and cause part is ground. Effect-cause order in English belongs to normal word order at the level of grammar, and English takes the order from figure to ground in the clause of cause-effect. Chinese version takes the opposite order, namely, from ground to figure.

V. CONCLUSION

The contrastive study of English and Chinese word order is conducted from three aspects, namely, time order, space order and logic order. Similarities and differences between English and Chinese word order are examined from the perspective of figure-ground theory. According to figure-ground theory, when people are observing the spatial relation of two objects, one object is taken as the focus of attention, and another object as reference or background. The focus of attention is usually called "figure", the reference is regarded as "ground". Properties of figure and ground are divided into definitional characteristics and associated characteristics. Through the qualitative studies of English and Chinese word order, it is found that figure and ground has similar realizations in English and Chinese sentences or even paragraphs, which reflects that human beings possess the universal thinking modes. Nevertheless, the cognitive models are different through the analysis. he analysis of word order in English and Chinese sentences from The Moonstone and its Chinese version demonstrates that English word order adopts the basic cognitive structure from figure to ground, while word order from ground to figure is often seen in Chinese sentences according to the properties of figure and ground. Thereby, English word order differs from Chinese word order. Through this study, a conclusion can be drawn that different word orders are determined by different cognitive models.

Nevertheless, there are also some exceptions through the case study. In terms of space order, it is obviously found from above instances that both English and Chinese word order complies with the sequence from whole to part, namely from ground to figure. English and Chinese comply with the same cognitive model because the sequence that people perceive spatial location is similar. In other words, the sequence of things that people observe is from far to near, from big to small, from whole to part. Therefore, English and Chinese expressions have the similarities. Comparing the similarity of English and Chinese word order is aimed at exploring the common relations and laws of the two languages.

The value of this study lies in that English and Chinese word order are examined from cognitive perspective. In practical translation, different word orders in English and Chinese as well as arrangement of figure and ground should be noticed. In translation from English to Chinese, the ground part should be put at the beginning of the sentence because Chinese cognitive model is from ground to figure, and Chinese focuses on logic relation, but in translation from Chinese to English, the figure part should be put in the first place. Furthermore, the study gives a great contribution to providing an instruction for the translation between the two languages and language teaching and learning.

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On the Mutual Effect of L1 and L2 in SLA: A Brief Look at Cook's Multi-competence

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Abstract—**Considering the notion of multi-competence coined by Cook (1991) calls on the necessity to revisit the stance of first language in foreign language teaching. The use of mother tongue in second language acquisition (SLA) is widely criticized by many practitioners, notably Krashen (1981). However, more recently Widdowson (2003) also called for an explicitly bilingual approach. The present paper, though arguing for the use of L1 in L2 context, did not ignore the fact that L2 can exert inevitable effects on L1.**

Index Terms—**L2 user, multi-competence, native language**

I. INTRODUCTION

We build ourselves and our sense of ourselves as persons through our verbal and non-verbal actions. In fact, we build up our sense of self as a result of the way that other people respond to us. In a sense, the way we communicate with our environment shapes and forms who we are and who we think we are, not only in abstract or psychological ways but in a very pragmatic and every-day-live fashion. Similarly, learning a new language involves adding a new identity to the existing one. In fact, learning a new language is a metamorphosis; that is, it changes everything about you from your first language to your brain (Cook, 1991, 1992, 2003). Indeed, learning another language does not only give you a skill but it changes you. Besides, your first language might possibly exert inevitable effects on SLA, too. In the following paper, the researchers, compatible with Cook's multi-competence, are delineating the mutual effects of L1 and L2 in SLA.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The term *multi-competence* was originally defined as "the compound state of a mind with two grammars" (Cook, 1991, p. 112). Elsewhere, Cook (1992) asserts that multi-competence is usually said to be the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind. Through a focus on Cook's concept of multi-competence, one can infer that Cook's multi-competence, therefore, involves the whole mind of the speaker, not simply their first language (L1) or their second language (L2). In fact, Cook's notion of multi-competence conceives knowledge as an integrated whole in the mind. Put another way, it is a holistic interpretation of bilingualism opposed to an atomistic interpretation of bilingualism.

"Holistic multi-competence is seen as an offshoot of polylectal grammar theory applied to monolinguals. [That is,] language teaching should try to produce multi-competent individuals not ersatz native speakers" (Cook, 1992, p. 557). In the field of dialectology, a polylectal grammar, is a linguistic analysis set up to encode or represent a range of related varieties in a way that displays their structural differences. What Cook in 1991 reported was that L1 competence and L2 competence were never treated as a single system. Put differently, Cook's multi-competence entails the integration of the lexicons of two or more languages.

Believing that the mind of an L2 speaker is different from the mind of an L1 speaker, Cook raised a number of questions, including whether the bilingual's languages form two separate systems or only one system. In fact, the idea of multi-competence is a different state of mind from monolingual linguistic competence. On the other hand, the knowledge of the second language is not an imitation knowledge of an L1; it is something that has to be treated on its own terms, alongside the knowledge of a first language. A single mind with more than one language has a totality that is very different from a mind with a single language (De Bot, Lowie, &Verspoor, 2005).

The notion of multi-competence can be investigated from two senses—theoretical and practical (Brown, Malmkjaer & Williams, 1996). Theoretically, "it is independent of the debate over the role of universal grammar in adult SLA. The issue is whether the polyglot's language systems are completely independent" (p. 56). Practically speaking, the notion "advocates a change in philosophy concerning such issues as the 'target' for SLA which cannot by definition be monolingual competence. A further implication, according to Brown et al., is that "if an atmosphere is created in which the first language competence of an individual is recognized and valued then this might potentially have an important affective and motivational impact on their approach to learning a second language"(p. 56).

The relationship between L1 and L2 has been the topic of numerous studies in SLA research. As to Ellis (1994), the linchpin of the debate is limited to "the incorporation of features of the L1 into the knowledge system of the L2 which the learner is trying to build" (p. 28). However, research shows that transfer phenomenon is not unidirectional. In other words, it is not limited to the influence of L1 to L2, but can also entail the effect of L2 on L1. Or what Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) refer to as forward transfer. That is, the influence of L2 on L3 is also plausible.

Regarding the use of L1 in language teaching, there are two approaches: monolingual and bilingual. As a proponent of the monolingual approach, Krashen (1981) holds that learners acquire foreign languages following basically the same path they acquire their mother tongue. Thus, as to him, the use of L1 in the learning process should be minimized. The rationale for the use of L1 in the classroom is that "the more students are exposed to English, the more quickly they will learn [since] they will internalize it to begin to think in English; the only way they will learn it is if they are forced to use it'' (Sharma, 2006, p.80). In fact, the use of L1 has long been considered as a lower language and a source of errors. The bilingual approach, in contrast, holds that L1 use is beneficial in EFL context. In practice, the use of mother tongue is seen as a common feature in EFL and its judicious use makes positive contribution to the learning process (Atkinson, 1993; Aurbuch, 1993; Widdowson, 2003). In a sense, it is undeniable to assume, when students come to the classroom they don't come out of the blue; they come "loaded" with their native language and a cultural heritage that nobody must deny or underestimate.

A. On the Plausibility of L1 Use in EFL Context

Whether to use of translation in EFL classes has become a hot debate in L2 learning. Several scholars aired different viewpoints concerning the use of translation. Duff (1990) was among the first to support of translation as a strategy that invites discussion and speculation. As to Duff, language competence is a two-way system by which we need to be able to communicate. In fact, learning a second language is not a monolingual phenomenon, and L2 learners inevitably have an access to their L1 reservoir. Cook (1992), in the same line, holds that L2 learners use their L1 while processing L2. Cook's idea implies that L1 must not be separated from L2, but instead, L1 must be used while the teacher instructs students. Kasmar (1999) contends "the use of bilingual text in the classroom may be a boon or an omen for an ESL teacher" (p. 10). Accordingly, in the study carried out by Calis and Dikilitas (2012), the results indicated that the "use of translation helps them reading comprehension and memorize target vocabulary" (p. 5079). The very study came to hold that translation tasks contribute to learners' receptive and productive skills, as well.

Besides, the use of L1 is highly suggested for conveying the meaning of an unknown word. To several scholars (e.g., Laufer & Shmueli, 1997), L1 translation is the most effective because it is clear, short and familiar. In the same vein, when the use of an L1 translation is combined with the use of word cards, learners will have an effective strategy for speeding up vocabulary growth (Nation, 2001). Nation contends that any criticism regarding translation of the L1-L2 word pairs is unsupportive. In the study done by Lameta-Tufuga (1994), the result indicated that the learners did the task in their first language outperformed the learners who did the task in their second language.

Without a doubt, L2 use in EFL classrooms needs to be maximized where learners have little chance to use the L2 outside the classroom (Nation, 2003). Nation holds that through classroom management one can easily do maximize the use of L2. Classroom management entails telling the class what to do (e.g., take out your book, turn to page 6), controlling behavior (e.g., be quiet), and explaining activities (i.e., get into pairs). However, to Nation, the use of L2 is a source of embarrassment for shy learners and those who think they are not very proficient in the L2. In effect, the use of L1 in the tasks which involve a heavy cognitive load is highly efficient. That is, if a meaning based L2 task is beyond the capacities of the learners, a little use of L1 can have a facilitating role.

Still, care must be taken in the use of translation in EFL classes. Although translation has been given a bad name in modern language teaching, it is only considered dangerous if it is become the only translation technique. Nation (1990) declares that translation can be highly efficient, but should be cautiously employed because it may result false equation between concepts in L1and L2. Moreover, translation might be responsible for interference errors.

Heltai (1989) puts forth that translation can be a useful technique under the following conditions: (1) translation should not be used where it does not belong. It should not be used excessively; (2) a translation exercise should always be thoroughly prepared; and (3) translation should be integrated with other activities. Newmark (1992), also, says in the early stages, translation from L1 to L2 may be useful as a form of control and consolidation of basic grammar and vocabulary. In the middle stages, translation from L2 to L1 may be useful in dealing with the errors. In the advanced stages, translation from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 is recognized as the fifth skill and the most important social skill since it promotes communication and understanding between strangers.

B. The Effect of L2 on L1

There is a variety of factors that affect L1, too. As to Cook (1991), the question of L2 effects on the L1 arose out of the notion of multi-competence. In fact, multi-competence opens up reverse transfer from the second language to the first and other forms of transfer (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2009). Accordingly, Pavlenko (2000) holds that there are a number of individual, linguistic, and psycholinguistic constraints that determine the nature and extent of L2 influence on L1. More meticulously, the effects of L2 on L1 can be evaluated in at least three ways (Cook, 2003): positive effects on the L1, negative effects on the L1, and effects that are essentially neutral.

To deal with the positive effect of L2 on L1, Cook (2003) declares that the first language can be enhanced by the use of a second language. In much the same way, Cook declares the use of the first language invoked the concept of brain-training. By the same token, the development of learners' intellectual faculties could be achieved. Along the same line, Bialystock (2001) argues that extensive research into bilingual development shows overall that L2 user children have more precocious metalinguistic skills than their monolingual peers (Cook, 2003). Nevertheless, the first language can also be harmed by the use of a second language. Language loss or attrition is among the harmful effects of L2 on L1. Accordingly, there are circumstances under which the prolonged speaking of an L2 can lead to the loss of the L1. In fact, attrition refers to the phenomenon that gaining ability in L2 amounts to losing ability in L1 (Pavlenko, 2003).

Ignoring the mutual relationship between L1 and L2 is as absurd as claiming that the sun rises from the west. To better appreciate the nature of relationship between L1 and L2, it is worth taking a look at the models proposed by Cook (2003) that may symbolize language representation in the brain of a person who uses two or more languages:

Separation Model.

In separation model, no possible connection between L1 and L2 is traced. In other words, L1 and L2 are stored in two separate entities with no possible interaction. By the same token, according to this rather simplistic model, L1 and L2 are stored in two separate entities with no possible connection between them. Proponents of the very model draw support for this view that L1 acquisition and L2 learning are housed in two separate linguistics systems, and none of these systems can be turned into each other. Compatible with the separation model, Wolck's (1988) coordinate bilingualism contends that coordinate bilinguals have two separate systems for storing and processing the two languages. As to Cook (2003), in this model, the discussion is not about the influence of L2 on L1, but about the balance between elements of a single language system.

As a variation of the separation model, *linked model* involves two separate systems in the same mind whose interactional influence is bidirectional. This is perhaps the typical model assumed in much SLA research; development and use of the L2 is affected by the already existing L1 (Odlin, 1989, cited in Cook, 2003).

Integration Model

Integration model implies the unitary existence of a single language system for L1 and L2, which is in extreme opposite end. Some research in areas of vocabulary (Caramazza & Brones, 1980) and phonology (Williams, 1977) supported this language representation theory, as it provided evidence of a single memory store for both the lexicon and the sound system.

Partial Integration Model

Another model raised in this regard is *partial integration model* which implies that clearly no total integration is possible since L2 users can keep the language apart. As a variation of integration model, it claims the existence of a shared area between the L1 and L2 systems. This area is most likely in the form of a common underlying conceptual base (Kecskes & Papp, 2000) related to various aspects of language such as vocabulary, phonology, and syntax.

Integration Continuum Model

The nature of relationship between L1 and L2 systems goes through changes. The continuum does not necessarily imply a direction of movement. It may be that some people start with separation and move towards integration or vice versa, or the languages might stay permanently separate. L1 and L2 systems could start as two separate systems, and then gradually turn into one system, as it is the case in Consecutive Bilingualism. Conversely, they could start as one, and then gradually turn into autonomous systems, as it is the case in Simultaneous Bilingualism. The integration continuum does not necessarily apply to the whole language system (Cook, 2003); a person's lexicon might be integrated, their phonology separate. Nor does it necessarily affect all individuals in the same way; some may be more integrated, some not, a factor of individual variation subsuming Weinreich's types of bilingualism.

C. On the Death of Native Speaker

Revaluing the concept of native speaker, Cook (1999) coined the term multi-competence. In fact, the rationale behind multi-competence raises from the issue whether L2 learners had access to Universal Grammar (UG) was seen as a matter of whether they learnt the same grammars as monolingual native speakers or not.

Many teachers and learners today still prefer a 'native speaker' model. But native speakers are often limited to their own local dialect, may not be aware of international usages; and many English speakers who were originally non-native are today fully competent. (Shakouri & Shakouri, 2014). Non-native fully competent speakers have the advantage of being an appropriate role model; and the language proficiency level of the non-native fully proficient speaker is, by definition, achievable. Cook (2003) asserts by this definition, however, it is impossible for an L2 user to become a native speaker – one reason why so many L2 users think of themselves as 'failures' and so many SLA researchers treat them in the same way: 'learner's language is deficient by definition' (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997). Cook (2003) outlines three arguments against the use of native speakers as the norm against which L2 users should be measured are: (1) the rights of L2 users, (2) the number of L2 users, and (3) the distinctive characteristics of L2 users.

The rights of L2 users

Cook (2003) argues that the L2 user is a person in his own right not an imitation of someone else. A language user not a language learner is not as an approximation to a monolingual native speaker. Thus, one group must not judge other people as failures for not belonging to their group in terms of race, class sex or language. This look which is prescribed by those who felt the sense of ownership of first language is called norm-biased approach (Sifakis & Sougari,

2003). By the same token, a native speaker of English who considers himself as the right owner of the foreign language implies their tendency to uphold a set of rules that map their competence and performance and against which non-native speakers competence and performance will be measured. Thus, whether one L2 user is going to be the consumer of one's L1 is not to be subordinated.

The numbers of L2 users

The widespread use of English around the world is undeniable. In much the same way no one exactly knows how many monolingual native speakers in the world are, and also no one knows the exact number of those who use English as their second language. As to Cook (2003) while the construct of the native speaker competence may be appropriate in first language acquisition as all human beings attain it, the concept of idealized bilingual competence can be extremely misleading since so few L2 users attain it.

Kachru (1985) insists that 'the native speakers [of English] seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization' (p. 30). What makes language global is not the concept of nativity but it is the concept of internationality. As Ur (2009) contends, we have to accept that we are native speakers of our own language. In fact, what English native speakers take pride of is that their language has become an international means of communication, not because they are native to that language. However, as the number of second and foreign language speakers of English far exceeds, the number of the first language speakers of English implies that Standard British language and American English is no longer the privilege of native speakers. Thus, it is a totem to claim a native speaker has an omniscient power and he/she is always considered as a yardstick for measuring a non-native speaker' competence. Along the same line, Rajagopalan (2004) holds considering the native speaker as a consummate speaker of the language was an incredibly impoverished sense. This anti-cognitive perspective towards language acquisition comes out the facts that nativity is not a matter of genetics but training and practice. Thus, educationally, it is not a bold claim that English has no native speakers.

The distinctive characteristics of L2 users

If L2 users are different kinds of people, the interest of SLA research lies in discovering their characteristics, not their deficiencies compared to native speakers. In Cook (2003) the characteristics of L2 users are stated as four propositions: (1) the L2 user has other uses for language than the monolingual; (2) the L2 user's knowledge of the second language is typically not identical to that of a native speaker; (3) the L2 user's knowledge of their first language is in some respects not the same as that of a monolingual; and (4) L2 users have different minds from monolinguals.

III. CONCLUSION

In practicality, the taboo against using L1 in the classroom is breaking down. The above review of the literature on the bilateral effects of L1 and L2 leaves no doubt that such influence is inevitable. The judicious use of L1, from one side, in L2 context can not only maximize language learning but also provide a secure atmosphere that can guarantee the success of language learning. Nevertheless, L1 use can also lead to language attrition in SLA. In this regard, the development of a multi-competence perspective has been useful in suggesting not only new interpretations of existing theories and phenomena but also new research questions to be tackled.

Undeniably, whenever teachers face a problem in their teaching, the first principle is that they should endeavor to solve classroom problems through the application of pedagogical skills rather than through administrative or disciplinary procedures prescribed earlier. It is worth reminding that an English policy in classroom, as to Auerbach (1993), "is rooted in a particular ideological perspective [that] rests on unexamined assumptions and serves to reinforce inequities in the broader social order" (p. 9). Auerbach argues for the reasoned and appropriate use of L1 in L2 context whenever positive effects are resulted, for instance. Thus, "when learners using L1 in classrooms, the teacher should observe this carefully to see what opportunities for learning are occurring" (Nation, 1997, 25).

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Tips for College Science Majors in English-Chinese Translation Practice

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Abstract—after an experiment of teaching science majors EST translation, the author explains the importance for science majors to learn and practice English-Chinese translation, and provides some theoretical foundations science majors should learn when they do the translation practice. At the same time, the author summaries some unique stylistic features in EST and some tips students should notice in translation practice considering these stylistic features.

Index Terms—EST (English for science and technology), stylistic characteristic, nominalization, composite sentence

I. INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, translation is a linguistic practice of employing one language to realize the thoughts expressed in another language exactly and completely Zhang, 2009). Translation is the bridge between different languages when people communicate different ideas, which enables people of different languages to communicate ideas through reproduction of source languages. To make it simple, translation is to express message of one language (source language) in the form of another language (target language), so that the target language reader could understand what the writers of source language want to express and get similar reading comprehension of source language readers.

While different languages account for different information systems, how to fit the information in one language into the structure of another language is absolutely not an easy task. That's why in Nida's theory, "translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, firstly in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (Nida &Taber , 1982, P.12). In this definition, "closest" refers to being close to the source language message; "natural" refers to the natural expression in receptor language; while "equivalent" connects the two together which means "being equal to" but not "identity". So in some sense, the definition stresses the equivalence in message, but not formal correspondence and Nida made clear about his point that in translation practice, conveying of meaning is considered more important than the equivalence of style. Nida's translation theory has great influence both on Western and Chinese translation theory development and it is the basic theoretic knowledge every translator should learn. Nida (1982) also points out in his *The Theory and Practice of Translation* that a good translator should be qualified in the following aspects:

1. He must know the original language well. Just being able to understand the main idea in the original text or understanding the text with help of dictionaries is far from enough. A good translator must be clear about the subtle difference between words, the emotional colors of words and stylistic characteristics that determine the specific style of texts.

2. He must be proficient with the target language, which is even more important than the first point. In translation practice, translators could understand the original texts through dictionaries, notes or some specific technical literature, but nothing could replace his proficiency in target language, while usually the most severe mistakes in translation occur when translators do not have good command of target language.

3. Proficiency with a language is different from proficiency with professional knowledge in some specific field. To translate some technical literature, general knowledge in languages is insufficient, which means translators should be enough familiar with the translation material.

4. He must be able to understand the original writer's intent between the lines, and express this intent out in target texts.

In another very important translation theory ---- Skopos theory, which is the most important theory in the functional school of translation studies, people propose different understanding. In this theory, Germany scholar Hans Vermeer defines translation as "`information' about a source text in another language" (Vermeer, 2000, P.97). This approach engenders a view of translation in which the way a target text functions in a specific cultural context is paramount: "translation is the production of a functional target text maintaining a relationship with a given source text that is specified according to the intended or demanded function of the target text"(Nord, 2001, P.28). George Steiner takes a wide view of translation: "inside or between languages, human communication equals translation."(Steiner, 1998, P.47)

Skopos theory, represented by Germany functionalist Katharina Reiss, Hans J. Vermeer and Christiane Nord, constitutes the mainstream of translation functionalism. Vermeer defines human action as intentional, purposely behavior that takes place in a given situation (Vermeer, 1984, P.49). So "any form of translational action, including

therefore translation itself, may be conceived as an action, as the name implies. Any action has an aim, a purpose... (Vermeer, 1984, P.173). Reiss refers to this kind of translation as "integral communicative performance" (Reiss, 1984, P.112). The most important element determining any translation process is the purpose (Skopos) of the overall translation action. (Nord, 2001, P.27) The translation purpose justifies the translation process... "the end justifies the means"(Nord, 2001, P.124).One of the most important factors determining the purpose of a translation is the addressee, who is the intended receiver or audience of the target text with their culture specific world-knowledge, their expectations and their communicative needs. (Nord, 2001, P.12)

In terms of Skopos theory, the viability of translation brief depends on the circumstances of the target culture, not on the source culture. Since translation has been defined as a translational action involving a source text, the source is usually part of the brief, so the meaning or function of a text is not something inherent in the linguistic signs, and a text is made meaningful by its readers and for its readers. Vermeer finally concluded that any text is just an "offer of information"(Vermeer, 1978, P.38) from which each reader or receiver selects the items he or she finds interesting and important. Vermeer considers the Skopos rule as each text is produced for a specific purpose and should serve this purpose.

In Vermeer's terms, the target text should meet the standard of "intratexual coherence"(Reiss & Vermeer, 1984, P.109). A communicative interaction can only be regarded as successful if the receivers interpret it as being sufficiently coherent with their situation. The extent to which the translation had met with success could be determined by whether it was interpreted by the target recipient in a way which was coherent with his or her situation, and whether or not it lead to any kind of protest against its meaning of form. (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984, P.112) Accordingly, another important rule of Skopos theory is the "coherence rule", which specifies that a translation should be acceptable in a sense that it is coherent with the receivers' situation (Reiss and Vermeer, 1984, P.113). However, since a translation is an offer of information about a preceding offer of information, it is expected to bear some kind of relationship with the corresponding source text. Vermeer calls this relationship "intratexual coherence". Intratexual coherence is considered subordinate to intratexual coherence, —and both are subordinate to the Skopos rule. If the Skopos requires a change of function, the standard will no longer be intratexual coherence with the source text but adequacy or appropriateness with regard to the Skopos (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984, P.139).

Nord also proposed two kinds of translation processes: documentary and instrumental. The former, as could be known from its name, aims at producing in the target language a kind of document of (certain aspects of)a communicative interaction in which a source-culture sender communicates with a source-culture audience via the source text under source-culture conditions. While the latter aims at   producing in the target language an instrument for a new communicative interaction between the source-culture sender and a target-culture audience, using (certain aspects of)the source text as a model.(Nord, 2001, P.47) And the result of an instrumental translation is a text that may achieve the same range of functions as an original text. In this way, translation of English for science and technology (EST) just belongs to the latter type of translation process. And in such translation practice, both target culture and source culture should be considered, as well as the given function of the texts.

II. STYLISTIC FEATURES

Just as what is discussed above, in the increasingly developing modern world, science majors are often faced with many occasions to do the translation practice themselves concerning their own research field. These translation practices, different from literature translation, have their own features and difficulties. Although they are usually informal, and do not require the exact equivalence in style and rhetoric, they are usually restricted and defined by their function and the skopos. In other words, the equivalence of language structure or vocabulary is not as important as the equivalence of message and internal logic. EST usually has plain style and rigid writing criterions, which states objectively with strong logic and high specification. To explain this, first the stylistic characteristics of EST should be clarified, which could be sorted out in two aspects:

1. words

In choice of vocabulary, the EST vocabulary are simple, direct, precise and without ambiguity. Different from oral English or English in literature which is visual and perceptual, EST does not carry with itself any affective color, thus formal and standard written language vocabulary is employed instead of oral vocabulary with the same meaning. What's more, rhetorical devices are not as commonly seen in EST as clear and rigid logic to describe objective laws. All these factors should be considered in translation and usually simple and precise words are employed to make the translation fluent and smooth. The translation of "What does reinforced concrete mean for highway?" "钢筋混凝土的意义" is much better than "钢筋混凝土对公路意味着什么?"

Broadly speaking, EST vocabulary could be divided into three categories: functional words, technical words, and sub-technical words. Functional words are the basic English vocabulary used in all kinds of English styles, including prepositions, verbs, conjunctions, pronouns and adverbs, and they are of the same meaning in different styles, while the other two kinds are unique in EST.

1.1 There are many special technical words in EST which could not be understood by readers without specialized knowledge. These words are composed mostly in the following ways,

a) affixation, like "anti-" in "antiallergenic"(抗过敏的), "semi-" in "semisomnus" (半昏迷), "auto-" and "radio-" in "autoradiography" (自动射线照相术)

b) acronym, like Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code ---- BASIC   (BASIC 语言)

Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome ---- SARS (非典)

c) In recent years more compounds have been created to refer to the new products in scientific development, such as anti-armored fighting vehicle missile(反装甲车导弹).

1.2 There are many sub-technical words used in EST, that is, the vocabulary that contain different meanings in different disciplines. Most of the quasi special technical terms are common vocabulary. Such as, "frame" means 框架 in daily English, but it means 机架 in mechanics and 帧 or 镜头 in telecommunication.

2. sentences

2.1 To make the sentence structure clear and precise, there are many gerunds, noun phrases and abstract nominalization structures to indicate actions or states in sentences, such as "Knowledge of forces on the gear makes possible the determination of its size" (如果人们知道传动装置的动力，就可以判断其尺寸)

2.2 There are many long and composite sentences and logical connectors in EST since EST stresses factual points and rigid logic reasoning, thus one long sentence is usually needed to make the reasoning complete and sufficient, which requires complicated structures and clauses.

eg: It is animals and plants which live in or near water whose remains are most likely to be preserved, for one of the necessary conditions of preservation is quick burial, and it is only in the seas and rivers, and sometimes lakes, where mud and silt has been continuously deposited, that bodies and the like can be rapidly covered over and preserved.

只有在水中或者水边生活的动植物，才能把遗骸保留下来。因为这样做的条件之一，就是迅速地埋葬。而只有在泥浆或者淤泥能够接连不断沉积的地方----如海洋河川，或者湖泊里，动植物的遗骸或者类似的东西，才能被很快地覆盖而保存下来。

2.3 There are lots of passive voice structures in EST to make it more objective. At the same time, present tense and assertive sentences are employed more.

eg: So far, four members of Power PC family have been introduced.

目前已经推出了四种 Power PC 系列的产品。

III. TRANSLATION SKILLS

As science majors in college, students should learn on their English classes some translation skills to address these stylistic characteristics of technical literature. And the following steps are what they should be instructed.

1. Translation theories introduction

A good translator should grasp some basic knowledge in translation theories since these theories are valuable experience accumulated by senior workers. So it is necessary that science majors should be introduced to some basic translation theories on college English classes. At least they should be clear about the idea of "translation":

What is translation?

What is the aim of translation?

What are some criteria of good translation?

What should be a translator's responsibility in translation?

These are the questions students should be taught to think about when they practice translation of technical literature. And the key to translation education is to teach students principles and methods, help them to grasp ways to obtain information and gain ability of self-study. (Zhang, 2009)

2. Translation Appreciation

Thought non-English majors usually do not have plenty of time spent on translation study, it is still necessary for them to read and study enough good translation works, be them scientific or literature. To appreciate translation works is a quick way to grasp the tricks in translation practice. And it is especially useful and effective for students to be accustomed to the style of EST in translation.

3. Practical skills introduction

When learning translation practice, science majors should be clear that "plainness" and "preciseness" are the most important criteria to following. For non-English majors, "preciseness" is a more difficult criterion to meet. Many science majors make kinds of mistakes in translation due to their limited English language comprehension ability.

eg: All these TV sets are not new, but they are still available.

Incorrect translation: 这些电视机并非都是新的，但它们都还可以用。

Correct translation: 这些电视机都不是新的，但它们都还可以用。

This is a mistake that the fairly good students would make, because they remember clearly that "all … not" structure means partial negation in English. And why they are called "fairly good students"? Because they completely forget that if there are determiners like "these" or "this" or numerals between "all" and modificands, the "all … not" structure should be taken as total negation, but not partial.

Other than those basic translation skills, science majors should also pay attention to the following points which are

characteristic in EST:

3.1 words

As is mentioned above, one stylistic characteristic of EST is employment of nominalization structures, while one important feature of Chinese language is the use of verbs. So in translation practice, many nominalization structures should be transferred into verbal structures.

eg: This small factory is developing with a surprising speed after undergoing technology renovation.

经过技术改造之后，这家小工厂发展很快，令人感到惊讶不已。

In this English sentence, noun phrases like "with a surprising speed" and "undergoing technology renovation" are used, but in Chinese, they are changed into verbal structures like"经过技术改造" "发展很快". And some necessary changes in words should be made, for example, some words could be omitted in translation, like "after", and some words could be added, like "令人".

3.2 sentences

3.2.1 As what is mentioned above, there are many passive voice structures used in technical literature, which is way to show objectiveness in literature, but in Chinese, things are different, and passive voice structures are not so commonly used, such as the English sentence "You are wanted on the phone" usually would be translated as "有人打电话来找你". So when doing translation, some ways could be applied to translate passive voice structure, and the key is to change passive voice structure into active voice structure.

(1) Passive voice structure could be translated in an active voice way by adding subjects like "人们" "我们" etc.

eg: It is universally known that oxygen is necessary to life.

人人都知道氧对生命的必要性。

Or passive voice structure could be translated in an active voice way by using the actors introduced by "by" in original sentences as subjects in translated versions.

eg: Heat and light are given off by the chemical reaction.

这种化学反应能发出光和热。

(2) A new active voice structure could be created with application of words like "使，让，由，把，给" etc.

eg: The water pollution should be paid attention to.

水污染问题应该予以重视。

(3) A new active voice structure could also be created by taking the receivers (subjects) in original sentences as actors (subjects) in translated versions.

eg: Three-phase currents should be used for large motors.

大型电机应当使用三相交流电。

3.2.2 Another very difficult point in EST translation should be composite sentences. In this part, one point students should keep in mind is that we could always use many sentences or clauses to translate or explain one composite sentence since grammatical structures are not so rigid in Chinese as they are in English.

Composite sentences could be translated without changing the logical sequence and structure when the English sentence conforms to Chinese sentence structure.

eg: This simple fact shows that the more of the force of friction is got rid of, the farther will the ball travel, and we are led to infer that, if all the impeding forces of gravitation and resistance could be removed, there is no reason why the ball, once in motion, should ever stop.

这个简单的事实证明，摩擦力去除的越多，球就会滚的越远，由此我们可以推断出，如果一切起阻碍作用的地球引力和阻力能够去除的话，就没有理由认为处于运动状态的球可能停下来。

But most of the time, the logic sequence of English composite sentences is quite different or even opposite to Chinese correspondents, in which case the English composite sentences should be translated by reversing the original sequence to make them more logical in Chinese, since one aim of translation is to make the readers of target language understand the message in original language. What's more, since in English language, the sentence structure is more flexible, for example, the adverbial part could be put in the beginning, in the end, or even in the middle of a sentence, while in Chinese language, the adverbial part is usually put in the very beginning to obey the rule of consequence or time sequence.

eg: Aluminum remained unknown till the nineteenth century, because nowhere in nature is it found free, owing to its always combined with other elements, most commonly with oxygen, for which it has strong affinity.

铝总是和其他元素结合在一起，最普遍的是和氧结合在一起，因为铝对氧有很强的亲和力。由于这个原因，在自然界中任何地方都找不到游离状态的铝，所以一直到十九世纪人们才发现有铝这种元素。

Since sentence structure in Chinese is fairly short, the long composite English sentences could be broken apart and the clauses could be translated into independent sentence structure in Chinese.

eg: If the design problem is rather complicated an electronic computer can solve it within sixteen hours after running though 16,000 possible designs.

这个设计问题虽然非常复杂，但是电子计算机快速审阅了 16,000 个可供选择的设计方案之后，便在 16 个小时之内解决了这一问题。

In this example, the adverbial clause of condition is translated with an adverbial clause of concession to make the Chinese easy to understand. Furthermore, the main clause is broken apart into two clauses, and the sequence is reversed. All the skills adopted are to make the translated sentence conform to the target language.

IV. CONCLUSION

For science majors, translation of EST is not like literature translation, which requires more in rhetorical skills and literacy background. To make it simple, two keys students need to pay attention to should be "understanding" and "expressing": to understand the source language well and to express in target language well. When they learn and grasp the features of EST well, science majors could understand the source language text more complete and better, hence it could be easier to do the translation.

With the rapid development of science and technology, there will be more new disciplines and research areas as well as a lot more new technical words. All of these, plus the more frequent employment of long and composite sentences in EST will make the translation practice more difficult, but at the same time more important. In that case, on the one hand, students should learn and grasp more translation skills in EST translation, on the other hand, the improvement of one's own English and Chinese language proficiency is also important. At the same time, students should master enough professional knowledge in their own research field, which also is an important reason why science majors should learn and practice English-Chinese translation.

In conclusion, it is very important for science majors to learn and practice translation skills since when they are both expert in their own technical field and expert in English language and translation practice, many troubles and problems in modern scientific and technical development in China will be solved or avoided. When practicing EST translation, students should first know well about the stylistic features of EST; secondly, they should grasp the two languages well; then they should master some basic translation theories and practical skills; finally, they should be expert in their own technical field. Only in this way can they do EST translation well.

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Cohesion Analysis of Iranian Advanced EFL Learners' Writing

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Abstract—**This study seeks to examine the most common cohesive devices used by Iranian advance EFL learners in writing a composition. This study also tries to determine the most common cohesive errors committed by the learners and find probable sources of errors. To this end, 30 advance EFL learners were selected. A proficiency test was conducted to ensure if they were at the same level. Then, participants were asked to write a composition of 200-220 words. The data were analyzed. It had been revealed that the most frequent cohesive devices were reference cohesion followed by conjunction, lexical cohesion, ellipsis, and substitution. The most frequent cohesion errors committed by learners were also related to reference cohesion, conjunction, lexical cohesion, ellipsis, and substitution respectively. Furthermore, in this study some pedagogical implications had been suggested for language teachers regarding cohesion.**

Index Terms—**cohesion analysis, cohesive devices, cohesive errors, the sources of cohesive errors**

I. INTRODUCTION

Productive skills, especially writing, are the most problematic areas for foreign language learners. Nowadays, the skill of writing a coherent text is of great importance particularly in academic setting. The ability to convey meaning coherently in written texts is a critical skill for academic success. Cohesion and coherence are two concepts which are used to show connectedness of a text. Halliday & Hassan take the view that "a text has a texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that it is not a text" (1967). According to Halliday and Hassan (1976) cohesive relation is what provides texture. Cohesive relationships refer to when the interpretation of discourse elements is dependent on that of another. They are achieved by explicit using of cohesive devices. In fact, cohesion is regarded as explicit realization of semantic relation within and between the sentences.

Writing a coherent text as mentioned is highly important for language learners; therefore, studying cohesion in writing deserves much attention. There is also a considerable value in cohesion errors committed by learners. Analysis of those errors to some extent makes it possible to find the sources of learners' errors. Subsequently, it makes teachers able to find an appropriate teaching method in order to teach cohesion and therefore, to avoid cohesion errors, at least those predictable errors, committed by the learners.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A considerable amount of literature has been published on error analysis of cohesion and cohesive devices. Learners' errors were always of great importance. According to Corder (1967), errors represent discrepancy between the transitional competence of the learner and the target language. Errors are inevitable and a necessary part of learner language. Error analysis may supply clues to find the sources of errors. Although it is uncontroversial that using cohesive devices alone does not guarantee 'textness' they are necessary features of a coherent academic writing. As mentioned before, Halliday and Hassan pointed out that cohesion distinguishes 'text' from 'non-text'. In the words of Halliday and Hassan (1976), explicit manifestation of meaning relations through cohesive devices is necessary for a text. Halliday and Hassan (1976) identified five types of cohesive relationships including reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctive, and lexical cohesion have been explained very briefly.

1. Reference

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), reference is a relation between different elements of the text in which one element is being interpreted by reference to other elements. They distinguished between three kinds of reference which are explained below:

1.1 *Personal reference* is a reference through the category of person such as personal pronoun (e.g. I, me, you, we, us, he, him, etc.); possessive pronoun (e.g. mine, yours, ours, his, hers, etc.); possessive identifiers (e.g. my, your, his, her, our, their, etc.).

1.2 *Demonstrative reference* is a reference by means of location (e.g. this, that, there, here, there, then, etc.).

1.3 *Comparative reference* is a reference by means of identity or similarity. In this case, the words such as same, identical, equal, similarly, likewise, differently, otherwise, etc. are used.

2. Substitution

It refers to the replacement of a word or sentence segment by a dummy word. There are three kinds of substitution as following:

2.1 *Nominal substitution:* three words occur in nominal substitution, one, ones, and same. For example: Can you give me a glass? -There is *one* on the table.

2.2 *Verbal substitution:* lexical verbs are replaced by *do* and its morphological scatter such as *does, did, doing, done.* For example: Jane goes to the party. I think Mary *does* too.

2.3 *Clausal substitution:* an entire clause is replaced by *so* and *not.* For example: Is there going to be rainy? -It says *so.*

3. Ellipsis

It refers to the omission of a word or part of a sentence. Depending on structural unit within which ellipsis occur there are three types of ellipsis:

3.1 *Nominal ellipsis:* This is my bag. I used to have four.

3.2 *Verbal ellipsis:* Have you done your assignment? -Yes, I have.

3.3 *Clausal ellipsis:* Are you going to write your composition? – Yes.

4. Conjunction

It indicates how sentences or clauses should be linked to the preceding or the following sentences. Conjunctions are categorized as followed;

4.1 *Additive conjunction* simply adds more information to what is already stated; for example, I like tea *and* coffee.

4.2 *Adversative conjunction* adds information in some sense opposed to what has come before; for example: this ring is beautiful *but* it is very expensive.

4.3 *Temporal conjunction* indicates a relation of sequence in time; for example: revise your assignment *before* submission date.

4.4 *Causal conjunction* indicates the cause or reason of what is being stated; for example: stay at home *because* it is raining.

5. Lexical cohesion

It refers to the links between the content words used in subsequent segments of discourse.

5.1 *Repetition: John* gave his book to Mary. *John* bough the book yesterday.

5.2 *Synonymy:* I *bought* the car from Peter. He had *purchased* it from his friend.

5.3 *Antonymy:* Your ruler is *long* and mine is *short.*

5.4 *Hyponymy:* Jenny is climbing *the palm. The tree* is very long.

5.5 *Meronymy: The house* seems to be very old. *The roof* is completely destroyed.

5.6 *Collocation: The teacher* left *the class.*

Some language researchers have conducted empirical studies regarding cohesion. Sadighi and Heydari (2012) investigated the most frequent cohesive errors committed by Iranian EFL learners at different proficiency levels. They found that in low level the most frequent errors were involved in lexical cohesion and conjunctive cohesion respectively. In mid level the most frequent cohesion errors were found in lexical cohesion and conjunctive cohesion. Finally, in the high level, errors in lexical, references and conjunction cohesion were the most frequent one respectively. This study also seeks the origin of cohesive errors. It was found that errors relevant to personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and collocations were rooted in learners' L1, which is Persian.

In 2015, Gholemi and Abedini conducted a study to investigate language related problematic areas in Iranian medical specialists' research papers. It aims to seek the most common discoursal, lexical, grammatical and mechanical problems. The result showed that 576 (around 44.6%) errors out of 1291 were related to discoursal features. This statistic revealed the significant of discoursal features, particularly cohesive devices. It has been said that the higher proportion of discoursal errors is the result of foreign language educational system in Iran.

In 2007, similar study was conducted by Nasrin Shokrpour and Mohammad Hossein Fallahzadeh to determine areas of difficulties which medical students of Shiraz university face with when writing the their medical reports. To this end, 120 medical students were selected. They participated in three writing unit courses, three hours weekly. During this period they were required to visit patients and write reports. 101 notes written by fifth year medical students were examined to identify the major problems. The study found that the most problematic areas were grammar, punctuation, cohesive devices and coherence. Cohesive devices were the most problematic area. At the end, some recommendations were given regarding effective teaching of writing. It had been suggested that "process genre approach" would be appropriate in university writing classes as the language teaching approaches have moved toward discoursal aspects of language.

Cohesive errors in writing have been studied by Kwan and Yunus (2014) among ESL pre-service teachers. In this study, 30 Malaysian final year ESL pre-service teachers of medium and high levels were asked to write 200-word narrative essays. Then, according to Halliday and Hassan's (1976) Cohesion Taxonomy cohesive errors made by the teachers were tabulated and categorised. The results showed that the most cohesive errors by medium level pre-service teachers were lexical errors followed by reference and conjunction. The most frequent cohesive errors by high level pre-service teachers were lexical errors followed by reference and ellipsis. It had been concluded that regardless of the proficiency level of the teachers, lexical cohesion, collocation on particular, was the most difficult to master. However,

it has been suggested that the absence of cohesive errors in some categories and subcategories of cohesive devices may not necessarily mean that the teachers have completely mastered those cohesive devices.

In an investigation into academic writing difficulties, Hassan Al-Babi (2015), found that one of the most common difficulties was related to cohesion and coherence. Most of the students in the sample were found to have difficulty employing the cohesive devices accurately and properly. In the same vein, Akpinar (2012) found that Turkish learners were familiar with cohesive devices and they were good at grammatical structures; however, they did not know how to use their knowledge appropriately. Turkish EFL learners were asked to read an argumentative text and identify cohesive devices. Substitution and ellipsis were the most difficult cohesive devices to identify. An implication suggested in this study was that teaching cohesive devices could be helpful for comprehension of the text; thus, it seems necessary to teach them explicitly.

Overall, the combination of findings provides further support for the significance of cohesion and cohesive devices. Lack of cohesion in writing and high proportion of cohesion errors reflect the fact that cohesion as a problem cannot be ignored. It seems necessary to take teaching cohesive devices more seriously while the ability to convey meaning proficiently in written texts is a critical skill for academic and professional success. Cohesive errors by intermediate- and high-level proficiency English learners have received much more attention than those by advance learners. The current study intends to investigate cohesive errors by advance learners.

The purpose of the study

The aim of this research project has been to examine the following questions:

1. What are the most frequent cohesive devices used by Iranian advance learners?
2. What are the most frequent cohesive errors committed by the learners?
3. What are the probable sources for cohesion errors?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Thirty advance students studying English language teaching were recruited non-randomly for this study. Participants were from Rasht University. They were learners of two intact classes. Participants were both male and female aged between 25 to 35 years old. Regarding linguistic background of the participants, all participants were monolingual in Persian.

B. Instruments

In order to be sure that all of the participants were from the same proficiency level and there were no significant differences between them, Oxford full Placement Test was administered. This test included 76 multiple items, each of them were worth one point, and 3 writing items, 8 points for each of them. Essay items were scored by two raters. To determine the frequency of cohesive devices used and the frequency of cohesion errors committed by the learners the participants were asked to write a composition of 200-220 words about the following topic (TEOFL essay topic);

'Do you agree or disagree: you can get a better education from experience than you can in a classroom? Use specific details and examples to support your opinion'.

C. Procedures

First, to ensure that the participants are of near homogeneity regarding their proficiency level Oxford Full Placement Test was administered. According to the Oxford Full Placement Test conversion table, the participants' scores fell between 86 and 100 (mean score: 88); therefore, they were assigned to advance level. After determining the level of participants, they were given a topic on which they were asked to write a composition of 200-220 words. To determine the frequently used cohesive devices and cohesive errors made by the learners, the cohesion taxonomy developed by Halliday and Hassan was used.

D. Data Analysis

In the case of the first two research questions investigating the most commonly used cohesive devices and the most frequent cohesive errors committed by the participants, the data were analyzed quantitatively using descriptive statistics with frequency and percentages. Referring to Halliday and Hassan's (1976) Cohesion Taxonomy, cohesive devices and cohesive errors made by learners were identified and categorized. In the case of the last research question investigating the origin of errors, the data were analyzed using qualitative method.

IV. RESULTS

A. The First Research Question

The frequency and percentages of the cohesive devises used by the learners were calculated according to Halliday and Hassan's (1976) Cohesion Taxonomy. Table 1 presents the frequency of cohesive devices used by the learners. The results indicate that reference cohesion was the most frequently used one (42.91%), followed by conjunction (33%), lexical (17.51%), ellipsis (3.82%), and substitution (2.76%).

TABLE I.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF COHESIVE DEVICES USED BY THE LEARNERS

Cohesion categories	Number of occurrence	Percentages	Cohesion subcategories	Number of occurrence	Percentages
Reference	730	42.91	Personal	430	58.90
			Demonstrative	190	26.02
			comparative	110	15.06
Substitution	48	2.76	Nominal	20	42.55
			Verbal	25	53.19
			Clausal	3	6.38
Ellipsis	65	3.82	Nominal	30	46.15
			Verbal	20	30.76
			Clausal	15	23.07
Conjunction	560	33			
Lexical	298	17.51	Repetition	83	27.85
			Synonymy	20	6.71
			Antonymy	30	10.06
			Hyponymy	20	6.71
			Collocation	145	48.65
Total	1701	100		1701	

B. The Second Research Question

The frequency and percentages of the cohesive errors made by the learners were also calculated according to Halliday and Hassan's (1976) Cohesion Taxonomy. Table 2 shows the frequency of commonly errors committed by the learners. It is apparent from the table that errors in references were the most common (43%), followed by conjunction (35%), lexical (18%), ellipsis (2.5%), and substitution (1.5%). In the case of reference cohesion, major portions of errors were related to personal pronoun and demonstrative pronoun. In the case of lexical cohesion, the major portions of errors were related to collocation and repetition.

TABLE II.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF COHESIVE ERRORS COMMITTED BY THE LEARNERS

Cohesion categories	Number of errors	percentages	Cohesion subcategories	Number of errors	percentages
Reference	86	43	Personal	38	29.23
			Demonstrative	37	28.46
			Comparative	11	8.46
Substitution	3	1.5	Nominal	1	0.76
			Verbal	2	1.53
			Clausal	0	0
Ellipsis	5	2.5	Nominal	5	3.84
			Verbal	0	0
			Clausal	0	0
Conjunction	70	35			
Lexical	36	18	Repetition	16	12.30
			Synonymy	0	0
			Antonymy	1	0.76
			Hyponymy	0	0
			Collocation	19	14.61
Total	200	100		200	

Cohesion errors committed by the learners were exemplified in the following table.

TABLE III.
EXAMPLES OF LEARNERS' COHESION ERRORS

Cohesion categories	Cohesion subcategories	Learners' cohesion errors
Reference	Personal	Consider a student… he might be a top student. <u>She</u> will certainly learn a lot. The teacher encourage <u>their</u> students. His family can help <u>s/he</u> learn speaking. You involved yourself in the classroom but <u>it</u> classroom you…
	Demonstrative	You can get a better education <u>in classroom</u>. There are several <u>argument</u>. … we are exposed to the experience of <u>the another</u>.
	Comparative	For learning mathematics, I think that classroom is more important <u>that</u> experience.
Substitution	Verbal	Whatever you learn theoretically and whatever your teachers had done in the classroom, you can <u>did</u> too.
Ellipsis	Nominal	… for instance, the teacher uses a specific method and you can use <u>a specific</u>. (no need).
Conjunction		<u>The child</u> who wants to learn writing it is necessary that… (for the child) The similar situation cannot be identical <u>because of</u> individuals have… (because) Although both kinds of learning are useful <u>but</u> in my opinion… (no need)
Lexical	Repetition	Being involved in the classroom may be <u>it</u> has a theoretical reason. (no need) When I think of myself as a teacher, I hope to start my language teaching <u>to teach</u> based on experience rather than... (no need)
	Antonymy	Extreme view of both ways not only cannot make you more proficient but also make you <u>low proficient</u>. (less proficient)
	Collocation	He will probably need to <u>take part at</u> practical courses. (take part in) When I try to do a research, I can <u>get in touch with</u> it. (be in touch with) … learn to work in groups and <u>cooperate by</u> one another. (cooperate with) Although I <u>agree with</u> learning by experience… (agree on) For instance, when I teach practically not only I <u>enjoy from it</u> … (enjoy sth) I think teachers should <u>denote their experiences for</u> their students or in other words make their experiences available. (denote sth to)

C. The Third Research Question

Regarding the sources of learners' cohesive errors, intralingual and interlingual causes were considered. Interlingual errors refer to those which are related to the target language, in this case English language. Inerlingual errors refer to those which are originated from the source or the first language.

Intralingual errors: In this study, the majority of cohesive errors especially most of the errors in the use of conjunction and repetition, can be attributed to L2 proficiency. For example:

1. Being involved in the classroom may be <u>it</u> has a theoretical reason. (no need)

2. The similar situation cannot be identical <u>because of</u> individuals have… (because)

Interligual errors: It is uncontroversial that L1 (Persian language) influences L2 (English language) learning. This is called interference of L1. The results of this investigation show that the most frequently errors committed by the learners was related to the reference cohesion. A possible explanation for this is that Persian does not make distinction between pronouns (personal pronouns and possessive pronouns).

3. His family can help s/he learn speaking.

/xanevade-?æsh mitævanænd dær yadgiriy-e sohbæt kærdan be ?u komæk konænd /

In this example /æsh/ represent possessive pronoun.

4. … he might be a top student. She will certainly learn a lot.

/?u momken ?æst daneshamuz-e xubi bashæd. ?u qæt?æn chizhay-e ziyadi yad xahæd gereft/

Here, /?u/ in Persian is equivalent to both 'he' and 'she' in English.

There are some other interlingual errors which are the result of the fact that in Persian, there is also no agreement between the determiner and its referent. For instance:

5. There are several argument.

/chændin dælil vojud daræd/

Regarding lexical errors, most of the problems deal with the use of wrong preposition. It seems that the learners overlook co-occurrence restrictions and under the influence of Persian add, omit, and replace prepositions wrongly. For instance|:

6. Although I agree with learning by experience… (agree on)

/?ægarche mæn ba yadgiri ?æz tæriqe tæjrobe movafeqæm/

7. When I teach practically not only I enjoy from it … (enjoy sth)

/zæmani ke ?æmæli tædris mikonæm næ tænha ?æz ?an lezzæt mibæræm/

8. Although both kinds of learning are useful but in my opinion… (no need)

/?ægarche hær do noe yadgiri mofid ?æst ?æma be næzær-e mæn/

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study set out with the aim of investigating cohesion in the learners' writing. The first question in this study sought to determine the most commonly used cohesive devices in writing. The results indicate that reference cohesion

was the most frequently used one (42.91%), followed by conjunction (33%), lexical (17.51%), ellipsis (3.82%), and substitution (2.76%). The second question in this study sought to determine the most frequent cohesive errors committed be the learners. The results show that errors in references were the most common (43%), followed by conjunction (35%), lexical (18%), ellipsis (2.5%), and substitution (1.5%).

However, the absence of errors in some cohesion subcategories including clausal substitution, verbal ellipsis, clausal ellipsis, synonymy, and hyponymy may not necessarily mean that learners have mastered them. The learners may avoid using these cohesive devises because they are difficult for them (Brown, 2007). The third question in this study investigated the origins of the errors. It was found that the majority of cohesive errors can be attributed to L2 proficiency (intrallingual causes) and some others were the results of L1 interference (interlingual causes). The findings were consistent with those of Sadighi & Heydari (2012), and Ahmadvand (2008). They reported that most of the errors were independent of the learner's native language. The results of this study indicate that more than half of the errors were the results of lack of L2 proficiency; most of the errors in the use of conjunction and repetitions have intralingual causes. On the other hand, some of the errors in the use of personal references, demonstratives, and collocations were the result of interference of native language, Persian. In conclusion, the study found that even advance EFL learners have difficulty in the area of cohesion. Therefore, in order to improve writing skill it is necessary to teach cohesion and guide learners to use cohesive devices appropriately.

VI. LIMITATION

The present study has some limitations. Firstly, the sample, consisting of 30 advance EFL learners, is an insufficient representation of the population so the results cannot be generalized. Secondly, it did not distinguish between errors and mistakes. It seems that some of the errors were not really errors. They were mistakes and their occurrence were not the results of neither lack of L2 knowledge nor L1 interference. They were occurred due to memory lapses, physical states or psychological conditions. Another limitation of the study is that avoidance strategies used by the learners are not taken into account. Learners may avoid using some specific cohesive devices because they find them difficult.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have a number of implications for language teachers. First of all, since writing a coherent text is highly important for language learners and there is a positive relationship between appropriately use of cohesive devices and the quality of writing, studying cohesion in writing deserves much attention. The results of this study show that major weak points in the advance EFL learners' writing are personal reference, demonstrative reference, lexical repetition and collocation. So, there is a need for more rigorous attention to these cohesive devices. Second, ellipsis and substitution were the least frequently used cohesive devices thus, it is important to make the learners more familiar with them and ask the learners to practice them. The next one is that in the case of interlingual errors, it is suggested that the teachers inform the learners about differences between L1 and L2. Pointing to the differences may help the learners to avoid interlingual errors.

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Analysis of Symbolic Meanings between Chinese and English Food Proverbs from the Perspective of Cultural Linguistics

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Abstract—**Each nation has its own characteristic food culture, and cultural inheritance requires language as its carrier. Therefore, proverbs, as part of the treasure of human language, definitely contain profound cultural details. On account of people's different perceptions of food, some relevant proverbs present different cultural connotations. This paper is to analyze symbolic meanings between Chinese food proverbs and English food proverbs from the perspective of cultural linguistics, and to explore the differences and similarities between Chinese culture and Western culture.**

Index Terms—**food proverbs, symbolic meaning, cultural linguistics, cultural comparison**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a cultural behavior exhibited by humans, and this behavior reflects not only people's understanding of the world but also people's understanding of themselves. That is to say, the existence of language cannot be separated from its cultural background, because everything existing is rational. Therefore, language is always to reflect a specific national culture and social psychology. "Under the ecological environment of humanity, it is impossible that language is a pure and transcendental thing. So, language is definitely the product influenced by its cultural environment. Only under its cultural background can people think about the form and content of language, as well as its existing state and evolving rule" (Su, 2006, p. 57). Proverb, as one of the forms of language, more intuitively presents people's understanding of practical experience. Owing to its concise sentence, rhythmic tone and vivid expression, proverb is mainly passed down from mouth to mouth. "It is a 'ready made expression' which people use to show their real life experience or their feelings" (Wu & Ma, 1998, p. 3). The material of proverb is various, so its content certainly is rich and colorful, such as enlightening philosophy, imparting knowledge, satirizing current situations and so on. What's more, the same proverb material also reflects different cultural connotations according to different national and regional environments. Therefore, when researching the characteristics of a specific proverb material, we should constantly pay attention to its national history, geography, local customs and belief. The paper is to comparatively analyze Chinese and English food proverbs from the perspective of cultural linguistics, and to explore the differences and similarities of symbolic meanings between Chinese culture and Western culture as well as their reasons. All of this is to reveal the humanity of language.

II. THE LINGUISTIC VIEW OF CULTURAL LINGUISTICS

Cultural linguistics studies the relationship between language and culture. On the one hand, language contains the connotation of national culture, i.e., language is the carrier of culture; on the other hand, national culture has a great impact on the rise, development, and evolution of language, i.e., language is one of cultural styles. Therefore, "language is also not a 'carrier' independent on culture, and language itself is a special cultural phenomenon under the influence of cultural environment" (Su, 2006, p. 58). Humanity, one of the indispensible attributes of language, is to reveal national cultural elements in one area through researching the change of language. Besides, the relationship between humanity and cultural connotation is not one to one. The former is a universal phenomenon; the later is the concrete reflection of language in the concrete cultural aspect. We can say that a specific language element is always closely relating to its relevant cultural factor, so their relationship always shows a kind of orientation. Humanity exists in all aspects of language, so "in the east or in the west, language is a way of how a nation views the world. 'It sufficiently performs human characteristics in all human activities'; it is also 'a key to open the door of people's hearts.' Therefore, humanity is the essential attribute of language" (Shen, 2003, p. 1).

III. THE COMPARISON BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH FOOD PROVERBS

Basic necessities are the indispensible material prerequisite in people's production activities. Among them, food not only materially provides human with the basic energy requirements, but most importantly, it spiritually provides more intuitive language materials for people to create national culture. Therefore, there are many food proverbs in both languages. People use these food proverbs to express their feelings to the outside world. The following content is to explore the differences and similarities of symbolic meanings of food between Chinese and English proverbs.

A.   Some Food Materials with the Same Symbolic Meanings

Each region and each nation have their own well-developed food culture, in which there are various food materials. Based on their experience to these materials, people have created splendid proverb culture with different forms and contents. In Chinese and English food proverbs, though people sometimes take different food materials as symbol, their symbolic meanings are coincidently the same. In Chinese, "鱼和熊掌，不可兼得 (Yu He Xiong Zhang, Bu Ke Jian De)" which means that people cannot get Yu (fish)and Xiong Zhang (bear's paw) at the same time, so Yu (fish) and Xiong Zhang (bear's paw) show the relationship between gain and loss; while in English, there are "You cannot eat your cake and have it" and "You cannot sell the cow and sup the milk", so people here usually use cake, cow and milk to show the same matter - gain or loss. As for the expression of warning, "The rotten apple injures its neighbors", here apples symbolize a sort of surroundings, while Zhou (gruel) also shows the same meanings in Chinese proverb - "一颗老鼠屎，弄坏一锅粥 (Yi Ke Lao Shu Shi, Nong Huai Yi Guo Zhou)" which warns people against bad things. "One's meat is another one's poison" corresponds to "甲之熊掌，乙之砒霜 (Jia Zhi Xiong Zhang, Yi Zhi Pi Shuang)", people respectively use meat and Xiong Zhang (bear's paw) to symbolize personal preference. Besides, in Chinese, Luo Bo (carrot) and Qing Cai (cabbage) in Chinese proverb - "萝卜青菜各有所爱 (Luo Bo Qing Cai Ge You Suo Ai)" also show the same symbolic meanings. In English, people use "A watched pot is long in boiling" to express "haste makes waste", but Chinese people prefer to say "心急吃不了热豆腐 (Xin Ji Chi Bu Liao Re Dou Fu)", and use the action of being eager to eat hot tofu (Re Dou Fu) to express the same meanings. When expressing an urgent request for something, Chinese and Western people also have different expressions. Chinese people would like to say "饥不择食 (Ji Bu Ze Shi)" which means that those who are suffering from hunger are not picky to his food he gets, so here Shi (food) symbolizes the thing people need anxiously. However, its counterpart - people from the Western world would like to say "A hungry ass eats any straw" or "To the hungry no bread is bad". The two English proverbs almost express the same meanings as the Chinese one, though their symbols are totally different. So, straw and bread in English and Shi (food) in Chinese, they have the same symbolic meanings. Furthermore, there are also some proverbs which encourage people to do something they have never done before. For instance, Chinese people are used to a proverb - "要知道梨子的味道，就要亲口尝一尝 (Yao Zhi Dao Li Zi De Wei Dao, Jiu Yao Qin Kou Chang Yi Chang)" which advises those who want to know the taste of Li Zi (pear) to eat it by themselves, while Western people prefer to say "The proof of the pudding is in the eating". So, people here also use different food materials - Li Zi (pear) and pudding to symbolize the same meanings that only by personally experiencing something can people really know how the thing is like. In Chinese and English proverbs, there are also some expressions with the same meanings drawn from the same food materials. That is to say, both sides use the same food materials to symbolize the same meanings. When saying the expression of seizing opportunity, people from both sides are more likely to use the ripe apples (Ping Guo) to symbolize opportunity. For instance, "When the apple is ripe it will fall" corresponds to "苹果尚绿且莫摘，待到熟时自然落 (Ping Guo Shang Lv Qie Mo Zhai, Dai Dao Shu Shi Zi Ran Luo)". The two proverbs all express the importance of opportunity. Sugar cane (Gan Zhe) in both languages also has the same symbolic meanings. For instance, "甘蔗没有两头甜 (Gan Zhe Mei You Liang Tou Tian)" and "You can't expect both ends of a sugar cane are as sweet", they all express one truth that it is hard to satisfy both sides. In addition, for some who cannot get something they really want but pretend not to like it, in Chinese they are usually described as "吃不到葡萄就说葡萄酸 (Chi Bu Dao Pu Tao Jiu Shuo Pu Tao Suan)" which corresponds to the English one - "The grapes are sour". So, in both Chinese and Western worlds, Pu Tao (grape) here is endowed with the same symbolic meanings - something people want, at the same time, something people cannot get.

B.   Some Food Materials with the Different Symbolic Meanings

For some nations, who live along the coast, fish is a kind of wealth. Especially in ancient times, fishing is one of the basic primitive survival means. People easily accumulate their life experience according to their understanding of fishing. However, such understanding is not always the same, so people from different nations endow fish with different symbolic meanings. In Chinese and English proverbs, such differences of course exist. In Chinese, there are some well-known proverbs about fish (Yu), for instance, "鱼得水而生 (Yu De Shui Er Sheng)" means that only in the water can Yu (fish) survive, "鱼怕离水，草怕见霜 (Yu Pa Li Shui, Cao Pa Jian Shuang)" means that Yu (fish) will die without water and straw will droop with the influence of frost, and "只有鱼吃水，没有水吃鱼 (Zhi You Yu Chi Shui, Mei You Shui Chi Yu)" means that it is Yu (fish) to drink water but not the other way round. They all emphasize on the natural attribute of fish so as to warn people against violating the objective law of things. However, fish in English proverbs more focuses on its humanity attribute. "Like a fish out of water" means people in trouble, and "fish" here symbolizes person; "Great fishes are caught in great waters" expresses big fortune usually on great occasions, so

"fishes" here symbolize fortune. There are also so many proverbs about egg in both languages. In English, "You cannot make an omelet without breaking eggs" and "You can't hatch chickens from fried eggs" express the matter of gain and loss; "Don't put all your eggs in one basket", eggs here symbolize a kind of investment. Therefore, eggs in English proverbs are endowed with the special cultural connotations which are beyond their semantic meanings. While Chinese proverbs about egg (Ji Dan) still emphasize on its natural characteristics, for example, "鸡蛋里挑骨头 (Ji Dan Li Tiao Gu Tou)" means to find bones in eggs and "鸡蛋碰不过石头 (Ji Dan Peng Bu Guo Shi Tou)" means that eggs cannot bump against rocks. They use the characteristics of egg to imply the behavior and social experience in life respectively. As for the proverbs about liquor (Jiu), its symbolic meanings are also different. Chinese people think that "酒乱性，色迷人 (Jiu Luan Xing, Se Mi Ren)", "酒朋饭友，没钱分手 (Jiu Peng Fan You, Mei Qian Fen Shou)" and "酒是穿肠毒药，色如刮骨钢刀 (Jiu Shi Chuan Chang Du Yao, Se Ru Gua Gu Gang Dao)", they all express bad sides of liquor; while Western people think that "Old friends and old wine are best", "New wine in old bottles" and "A good wine needs no bush". Though in Chinese there are the same expressions as the last two English proverbs, namely "旧瓶装新酒 (Jiu Ping Zhuang Xin Jiu)" and "酒好不怕巷子深 (Jiu Hao Bu Pa Xiang Zi Shen)", on most occasions, liquor is endowed with negative meanings in Chinese proverbs; on the contrary, wine connotes positive ones in English proverbs. When mentioning honey, people cultivated by different cultural elements naturally have different associations. In Chinese, honey usually reminds people of its sweet, but in proverbs, this kind of sweet is always accompanied with other food materials, such as You (cooking oil) and Suan (garlic), so there are "蜜多不甜，油多不香 (Mi Duo Bu Tian, You Duo Bu Xiang)" and "嘴里蜜罐子，心里蒜瓣子 (Zui Li Mi Guan Zi, Xin Li Suan Ban Zi)". These two proverbs use the different flavors of Mi (honey), You (cooking oil) and Suan (garlic) to imply different principles. In English, besides its flavor, people also pay attention to its producers - bees. For example, "Bees that have honey in their mouths have stings in their tails" or "Honey is sweet, but the bee stings". They use honey and stings to make a contrast in order to warn people not to only focus on the good sides of things but their dangerous aspects. Moreover, there are also some English proverbs relating honey with vinegar. For instance, "Flies are easier caught with honey than with vinegar" or "Honey catches more flies than vinegar". Based on the characteristics of honey, Western people here emphasize on the importance of right means applied to right occasions. Thus, honey has to be endowed with different cultural colors according to its different associations. In Chinese, the character "果" rightly corresponds to the English word "fruit", but their symbolic meanings are not always identical with each other when it has religious and local colors. People in the west are familiar with the saying: "Forbidden fruit is sweet", so "forbidden fruit" here symbolizes something good that people can never get. However, it has different meanings in Uygur culture - one part of Chinese culture. For example, the proverb - "果实累累的树枝，总是低俯下身子 (Guo Shi Lei Lei De Shu Zhi, Zong Shi Di Fu Xia Shen Zi)" praises those who have good skills and knowledge are always humble and modest. So, "Guo Shi Lei Lei De Shu Zhi" here symbolizes competent people.

IV. CAUSES ANALYSIS

A. The Causes of the Same Symbolic Meanings in Chinese and English Food Proverbs

First, there are some similar characteristics in Chinese and English food materials. Most importantly, such characteristics are easily to be observed. That is to say, each food itself possesses multiple attributes, so only its common and obvious parts can lead to a cognitive basis which can connote the same symbolic meanings. Take sugar cane as an example: those who are familiar with it always firstly remember its sweet, then its ends which are the sweetest parts of it. This is the basis to further extend the same symbolic meanings. Second, from the perspective of humanity, people sometimes endow different food materials with the same symbolic meanings according to different customs. These symbolic meanings maybe show a kind of social behavior, some ideas, or other things. Putting it another way, there exist similar elements in both Chinese and Western social culture. For instance, when expressing the confusion of gain or loss, Chinese proverbs usually take fish and bear's paw as their symbol, while English proverbs usually take cow and milk as their symbol. In ancient China, people well knew about fish and bear which were also viewed as their main food. However, milk has been always one of the common food in the west. Both sides use their familiar food to symbolize the same meanings.

B. The Causes of the Different Symbolic Meanings in Chinese and English Food Proverbs

The first is the differences of thinking ways and thinking habits in different nations. "It restricts every respect of national life, and also has a great impact on national language, like its morphology and syntax" (Chen, 1999, p. 205). In terms of vocabulary, the expression of Chinese proverbs is more visual and vivid, i.e., it is easily associated with the image of the food, like "鸡蛋碰石头 (Ji Dan Peng Shi Tou)". So, the thinking ways of Han nationality are likely to visualize or embody their expressions. Compared with Chinese proverbs, the expression of English ones are more abstract. Syntax is the way of how language is expressed, so also influences its content. Chinese proverbs are accustomed to using short sentences and antithesis to express the meanings, such as "蜜多不甜，油多不香 (Mi Duo Bu Tian, You Duo Bu Xiang)" and "酒乱性，色迷人 (Jiu Luan Xing, Se Mi Ren)". Besides, Chinese proverbs are usually explicit and concrete, while in English proverbs, people comparatively like to use simpler sentences whose meanings

are usually expressed clearly and thoroughly. Thus, this logical thinking of Western people can well explain why the symbolic meanings of their food proverbs are always abstract. The second is the differences of national spiritual lives. Due to different life habits and different cognitive perspectives, there occur different life views when people observe things around them. Western people would like to fry eggs, so there are many expressions in proverbs about fried eggs. As for liquor, more Chinese proverbs concentrate on its negative respects in order to warn people not to drink too much. However, English proverbs emphasize on wine's mellow flavor, so people use wine to symbolize good things. The third is the differences of national humanistic thoughts. The Han nationality very awes natural force and law in their productive process. On the contrary, the Western world advocates the concept of "man can conquer nature", and "considers people's logic thinking as the world's thinking" (Shen, 2003, p. 464). Thus, the expressions of Chinese proverbs are more likely to present the natural characteristics of food. English proverbs more focus on the humanity of food which is endowed with national cultural connotations. The last is the influences of religion and ethnic culture. From the perspective of history, religion is another important factor to influence people's faiths, perceptions and world views, i.e., religious culture can endow some food with its special meanings, like forbidden apple drawn from the religious story of Adam and Eve. There are 56 ethnic groups in China, and each of them has created characteristic ethnic culture in certain area, so their proverbs are one of reflections of their life attitudes. Conversely, on account of different local colors, people from different areas endow the things around them with different meanings.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Through comparatively analyzing the symbolic meanings of Chinese and English food proverbs, the close relationship between language and culture is confirmed, i.e., "language cannot separate from its culture; culture also cannot separate from its language. Therefore, language and culture are interdependent" (You, 2003, p. 28). We can say that a language always bears its national culture; in the meantime, national culture influences the development and evolution of language. The exploration of language cannot be only limited in its symbolic communication, expression and application, but also need focus on its exploration of humanity. That is to say, to learn the function of language, we need put it under its cultural background. Therefore, to interpret language from the cultural linguistics provides people not only with a new thinking when learning a special social environment, but with a new field when further learning a language.

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Mistranslation of Three Cultural Signs: Rajm, Food, and Tayammum in Vambery's *Travels in Central Asia*

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Abstract—**Translation as a process of domesticating something alien is not restricted solely to linguistic domain; on the contrary, it can be extended to other arenas as well. For example, travel writing as an attempt to tame foreign culture and render it accessible for the audience in home culture, can be considered as a kind of cultural translation. When a travel writer enters into a new context (source culture), he encounters with signs which are radically different from those in his home culture. Hence, the travel writer is burdened to deforeignize hitherto unknown signs to render them familiar and consumable for his audience. Since the travel writer carries his cultural baggage which functions as a cultural filter, his cultural translation cannot be objective and free from cultural mistranslations, and as a result, the current article is going to focus on the cultural mistranslations in Arminius Vambery's *Travel to Central Asia*. Thus, it argues that the travel writer in question in his journey to Central Asia which is a semi terra incognita in nineteenth century endeavors to translate the exotic aspects (foreign signs) of Central Asian culture; however, his cultural biases give rise to the cultural mistranslations in areas such as diet and religious punishment like stoning.**

Index Terms—**translation, travel writing, cultural mistranslation, central Asia**

I. Introduction

The word "travel" etymologically is derived from 'travail' which in Latin means "a torture instrument consisting of three stakes designed to rack body" (as cited in Gholi & Ahmadi, 2015, p.183). In the heart of this term lies the notion of mental and physical suffering. Serving as a criterion, the suffering in voyage differentiates an original traveler who endures an arduous travel and tests his stamina and valor along the road from a pampered tourist who does not endanger his/her life by barring him/herself from adventures and risks. Additionally, this aspect of travel has "the power to transform the lives of those survived it" (ibid.) notwithstanding, Seyd Islam (1996) is dubious about the life-transforming dimension of the travel since he believes that some travelers whom he calls sedentary travelers do not travel despite their physical movement due to carrying their borders on their backs. By definition, travel "is the negotiation between self and other that is brought about by movement in the space" (ibid.); and this mobility and dynamism which is interwoven with human existence bestows variety into humans' otherwise dull and tedious lifestyle and works like a dose of medicine for the terror of death which is connected to immobility. At philosophical level, the reason behind travel, according to Fussell (1987), is dependent on John Locks' *Essay Concerning Human Understanding,* which holds that, "knowledge comes entirely through the external senses, and from mind's later contemplation of materials laid up in the memory as a result of sense experience" (ibid.), and consequently "if knowledge is rooted in rooted in experience and nowhere else, travel instantly gains in importance and desirability" (ibid). From the standpoint of psychology, the substantial joy of travel, Freud speculates, is located in "the fulfillment of… early wishes to escape the family and especially the father" (ibid.), but when it is analyzed in a large scale, the objects for undertaking travel varies from "exploration, conquest, colonization, diplomacy, emigration, forced exile, and trade to religious or political pilgrimage, aesthetic education, anthropological inquiry, and the pursuit of a bronzer body or bigger wave" (ibid.). Travel played a pivotal part in the birth of not only non-fictional subjects such as history, natural history, anthropology, and geography but also in a genre like novel fiction (ibid.) Nonetheless, the trips do not necessarily result in travel writing due to the fact that it is "a non-fictional first person prose narrative describing a person's travel(s) and spaces passed through or visited which is ordered in accordance with, and whose plot is determined by the order of narrator's act of travelling" ibid).

Author's Biography and His Itinerary in Central Asia

"Arminius Vambery, an Orientalist-traveler, Turcologist, secret agent of Britain, guest of Queen Victoria in Windsor Castle, and political expert on Central Asian affairs, was born into a poor family in Hungry" (p.184) in 1831. Despite his financial problems, after his high school, he dedicates himself to learning European languages and literatures in his free time and learns them in a short period. Enthralled with the Orient, "all my musings, endeavors, thoughts, and feelings tended towards the Land of the East, which was beckoning to me in its halo of splendor" (p.184) he makes up his mind to pursue his luck there. Finally under the auspicious of Baron Joseph Eotvos, a minister of education, he can travel to Turkey so as to seek his oriental dream. After staying for some years in Turkey, he comes back to his

motherland and convinces the Hungarian Academy to offer him a grant so that he will "investigate the similarities of [sic] between Turkish dialect known as Chagatai and Hungarian" (p.184). Accordingly, he journeys to inside Persia as a disguised Osmanli dervish for one year. His chance to perform his linguistic study in the sealed territory of Central Asia arises as the travel writer encounters mendicant Tartar pilgrims in the embassy of Turkey in Tehran discussing their plan to travel back to their homeland in Central Asia; as a result, he presents himself as a Turk poor Sufi who desires to visit the shrines of holy saints there. Thanks to reading the parts of Koran like Muslims, he persuades his prospective companions follow them in their journey. They depart from Tehran to Turkmen Sahara, located in the north of Iran to Khiva. After staying in Khiva, they move to Bokhara. Then, they leave to Samarkand. There his companions depart to Chinese Tartary and leave him alone. With his new Oriental company, the travel writer make journey to Afghanistan. He offers his finding in Central Asia to Royal Geographical Society which immediately accepts it since it is well aware of its political importance. In England, he publishes his observation and adventure in the form of a travelogue entitled Travels *in Central Asia* in English which took six months to be finished. It sells very well in the Continent. Considering its literary value, Abraham (2003) states that its "narrative quite literally dazzle with detail … [and] is distinguished with by magnificent prose style…at once lyrical and imminently readable" (as cited in Gholi & Ahmadi Musaabad, p. 185), and it explains why Marvin notes that "*Travels in Central Asia* for [its] graphic description and forcible diction has few equals in our literature of exploration" (ibid.). He dies in Budapest in 1913.

Theoretical Background: Similarities between a Translator and a Travel Writer

Susan Bassnett (2004) argues that there are "parallels between translators and travel writers" (p.70). The travel writers like the translators engage in the process of converting foreign contexts into familiar ones, but one linguistically while the other culturally. Concerning travel writing, when a travel writer embarks on a journey to an alien/source culture (mostly to the remotest territories), like a translator he encounters with an ocean of unfamiliar signs which are pronouncedly different from those of his home culture. The signs under question are crucial in defying his inherited cultural system. To clear this cultural hurdle, there are two methods for the travel writer. Firstly, by acknowledging the difference between the cultural signs which exist in travellees 'culture and those of home culture by means of giving extensive explanations about them. Secondly, by demystifying, domesticating, and decoding the cultural signs so that his readers in the home culture can have access to their cultural significance and consume them. On the positive side, according to Scholl (2009) both the travel writer and the translator pursue the same goal of promoting cross-cultural understanding (p. 108). On the native side, this act of linguistic and cultural translation/exchange does not takes place dispassionately although some translators and travel writers may claim in their works (p.110). Lack of objectivity in them stems from their cultural baggage, to borrow Ali Behdad, which both the travel writer and the translator carry it with themselves while dealing with the alterity. The baggage in question contains cultural prejudices and preconceived cultural assumptions; hence it fortifies the sense of cultural- racial narcissism in the travel writer and the translator. Additionally, it strongly hampers their attempts to rise above the confines of these fetters. Moreover, this invisible force plays a pivotal role in preventing them not only from immersing themselves in the source contexts to acknowledge the cultural significance of signs without distorting, but also from adapting the standpoint of an insider which is conducive to shattering the cultural barriers. According to Mary Louise Pratt successful translation by extension successful travel writing occurs when the translator and the travel writer dismisses his "cultural imagination" (as cited in Scholl, p.111)/ or cultural filter(s) because it functions as a yardstick to evaluate the source culture, and as a result, when the travel writer fails to set himself free from the shackles of his cultural imagination, his object of advancing cross-cultural dialogue collapses, and cultural mistranslation in his travelogue become inevitable.

II. METHODOLOGIES

This article is interdisciplinary in its nature since it fuses travel studies with translation ones. Additionally, it will draw on postcolonial theories in particular Orientalism since travel writing is political genre and has been used by Westerners in their colonization to justify and legitimize their presence and exploitation in their colonies. Accordingly, postcolonial theories can provide a suitable analyzing tool for unveiling travel writers' cultural baggage or lenses which play key role when travel writers as cultural translators engage in the process of translating the cultural signs which they encounter during their journeys in alien and far-flung destinations. Since their cultural baggage prevent them from offering objective portrayal of their traversed zones, this article will concentrate on the mistranslation of cultural signs by Vambery in his travel to Central Asia due to clinging to his cultural baggage

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Susan Bassnett (2004) in her article, *Travelling and Translating* delineates two types of translations which translators normally adopt in translation source texts. In the first kind of translation, translators foreignize the source texts, that is, they acknowledge the "intrinsic" difference between the source and target texts and signal them for their audience, and this explains why this sort of translation was advocated by postcolonial critics (p.72). The translators who translates in this manner are similar to what Lisel (2006) calls them as cosmopolitan travelers since "they reveal moments of empathy [and*] recognitions of difference*" (emphasis added, p.4). In fact, they respect their traversed culture, while the second type of the translators in lieu of "foreignization", they translates on the basis of "domesticatition" and

"acculturation", that is to say, they gloss over the difference between the source texts and target ones. Additionally, these translators' main concern is catering for their readers' needs for excitement and exoticism. This method of translation was favored by English translators; nevertheless, it was severely criticized on the grounds of "appropriating the foreign, of erasing difference and effectively colonizing text" (Bassnett, 2004, p.72). The translators in question closely resemble to colonial travel writers in their very travelogues "difference in any form is domesticated by the travel writer's power to arrange events, others and objects into a coherent narrative" (Lisel, 2006, p.76). Considering what is said, this article argues that Arminius Vambery as a travel writer/cultural translator fits to second category of translators/traveler because he culturally mistranslate three cultural signs: stoning, food, and tayammum due to his inability in shattering his cultural baggage and in acknowledging the difference of the signs in question via presenting enough information about them. As to his cultural baggage, the following excerpts attests to it,

"The conquest of India was and is undoubtedly the glory of Western civilization; it is the best mark of the superiority of our European spirit, and the strength of young Europe compared with old and crumbling Asia" (as cited in Cain, 2006, p.80).

Rajm

Meaning stoning in Arabic language, Rajm is a cultural/ religious sign which is sometimes practiced in Islamic contexts, thus a new sign for the travel writer and it is culturally challenging for the travel writer/ cultural translator because the sign in question does not fits to the sign system of his home culture. To translate it properly, its signifier (its physical aspect) and signified (its concepts) needs to be delved carefully, but the travel writer in question does not appreciate the uniqueness of this sign in the Islamic context of Central Asia by foreignizing and giving correct information. Instead he distorts the sign and breathes wrong information into it, and the following fragment indicates it,

"To have cast a look upon a thickly veiled lady sufficed for the offender to be executed by the Redjm [Rajm/stoning] according as religion directs. The man is hung, and the woman is buried up to the breast in the earth near the gallows, and there stoned to death. As in Khiva there are no stones, they use Kesek (hard balls of earth). At the third discharge, the body, dripping with blood, is horribly disfigured, and the death which ensues alone puts an end to her torture" (1864, p. 139).

In the above passage, stoning as a punishment is related to adultery (or fornication). From Islamic perspective, the adultery is viewed as a grave sin which undermines the foundation of family and leads to its disintegration and spreading immorality in an Islamic community. As a result, it is has to prevented. In Islamic sharia, lashing and stoning (in some cases) is regarded as its preventive solutions; however, it will be simplistic to disregard the factors which are required to mete out its punishment. To administer it, a Muslim judge has to take into consideration some difficult criteria. These criteria have to be met before carrying out the punishment. In fact, the criteria for this religious sentence not only make the allegation hard to prove but also difficult to impose; the following passage points to its difficulty,

"The accused was forced to confess four times before his conviction was accepted; sentencing occurred if both perpetrator and victim admit the "crime". Otherwise, four independent male witnesses have to be found. These four witnesses must all profess to be direct eyewitnesses to the crime. If four men are not available, three men and two women will suffice" (Alasti, 2007, p.13).

With regard to stoning, Vambery instead of giving his Western readership accurate information about the factors which are necessary to carry out the punishment from the view point of Islamic sharia or how the Muslim looks at it, he provides wrong information about it and wrongly claims that only casting a glance at a fully covered woman is enough for the gazer to be subject of horrible punishment, which he describes in full detail to satisfy his readers' need for something extremely exotic and odd. In fact, his mistranslation arises from his cultural baggage which makes him unwilling to understand the signs of the source culture without filtering from his Western regime of signs.

Food

Another cultural sign which travel writers frequently refers to it in their travelogues is food in the source culture. This cultural/culinary sign is similar to a new word in a source language for which there is no equivalent in a target language. Translating its signifier (its color, taste, ingredients) and its signified (its concept) pose a challenge for a translator because its dual aspects do not conform to his absorbed culinary system, and this naturally induces in them a sense of repulsion, and if he wants to offer its faithful rendering, he has to be receptive by acknowledging this different or exotic sign, as well as abandon his cultural baggage. With regard to Vambery, he travels to Central Asia in Victorian period when "travel writing displays explicit Orientalist disdain for the foods of the other, linking them with dirt and disgust thus rejecting the Other entirely" (Gholi & Ahmad, 2015, p.187). In other words, in this period, the sign under study was subject to mistranslation. During his journey through Central Asia, Vambery's disguise himself as a poor Dervish, the only possible way to reach there. His masquerade enables him to have an access to culinary signs which were radically different from what he experience in his home culture. However, like other Victorian travellers he could not get above his cultural filters in translating culinary signs which he witness in Central Asia. The following extract indicates his cultural mistranslation,

"The quality and dressing of the meats which were served to us are not calculated to interest much our 'gastronomes.' I merely, therefore, in passing that horse-flesh and camel flesh were the order of the day: what other dishes represented our vision; I must decline mentioning" (Vambery, 1864, p. 61).

As a cultural translator, Vambery fails to acknowledge and provide enough information concerning eating camel and horse flesh in the context of Central Asian culture. Central Asians are Muslim and their food culture is based on this Islamic sharia and from Islamic standpoint eating the horse and camel flesh is not unlawful, and thus they are permitted to consume them. Additionally, Central Asians' nomadic lifestyle, the abundance of camels and horses as well as the lack of farming in the region rendered their flesh a suitable source of food for them. The travel writer does not take into account these factors, instead he implicitly criticizes eating the horse and camel meat only on the grounds that Westerners are not in the habit of eating it and their digestive systems will not be successful in digesting it, "to our digestion like a weight of lead" (Vambery, 1868, p.118). In fact, in dealing with this culinary sign he foregrounds his cultural baggage and operates on the basis of it, as a result, he mistranslates culturally.

Tayammum

Lastly, Vambery as a cultural translator in his travel in Central fails to capture the essence of tayammum, a cultural/ religious sign. In fact, he cannot penetrate to its signifier (its physical dimension) and signified (its meaning behind it). As to this cultural /religious sign, the travel writer keeps silent about its importance in Koran. According to Koran, Muslims are required to perform it where there is not any clean water nearby for making their Wudu, ablution, so that they will not miss saying their prayers on its due time. In this case they make it by placing their hands to clean rock, stone, or dust, and then rubbing them to their hands and faces, "ye find not water, then go to clean high ground and rub your faces and your hands with some of it" (5:6). Given his first encounter with the sign in question, he experiences it in an inhospitable desert on their way to Khiva when his Muslim fellow travelers halt to perform it in the eve of Eid Ul-Adha. Since he has disguised himself as a pious dervish, he is forced to do it. From his perspective, tayammum is going through an absurd Islamic ritual which only makes the body filthier, thereby unhygienic and unhealthy, "all my comrades were disfigured by Teyemmun [tayammum] for believers are required to wash themselves with dust and sand, so render them *dirtier*" (Vambery, 1963, p.117). With regard to his statement about this religious sign, he turns back to his cultural baggage since he translates/ interoperates the sign in the light of Victorian hygiene discourse. In other words, that it is not compatible with the Victorian concept of sanitation, the travel writer depreciates it and mistranslates it as a dirty activity. He could translate it correctly if he looks at it from the standpoint of Koran. According to it, Tayammum is an act of purification which God prescribes it for the ease of the Muslims in emergency cases, "Allah would not place a burden on you" (Glorious Koran, 5:6). Additionally, the Muslims look at the ritual as the sign of their devotion and respect to their God even in hard times not as polluting themselves with the dust and stone. Vambery in this regard reduces this cultural sign into a dirty act in the place of viewing and translates it in its context of Islamic culture by appreciating and acknowledging it which he could do it via purveying enough information about it. But his treatment of it is tantamount to the mistranslation of the sign.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Translation as the process of converting the signs of one context/source culture into another foreign context/ target culture is not confined solely to linguistic level. It takes places in other domains like travel writing as well. When a travel writer sets off to an alien zone/source, he encounters different cultural signs which he has to culturally translate them for his audience in the target culture. There are two available approaches for him to translate the cultural signs. Firstly, he can acknowledge the difference of the cultural signs in the source culture with those of home culture via providing enough information about them to obviate not only mistranslating the signs but also distorting them. Secondly, he can domesticate and tame the cultural signs by disregarding the difference between cultural contexts. Vambery in his voyage to Central Asia recourses to the second method when he treats three cultural signs: stoning, food and tayammum. He mistranslates them by failing to extricate himself from his cultural baggage which precludes him acknowledging, appreciating the signs under question, and highlighting their difference. As to stoning, he clings to his Western regime of signs/cultural baggage, and as a result he presents inaccurate information about it; he claims that just casting a glance on a fully veiled woman is sufficient for stoning the male viewer. His claim is inconsistent with Islamic sharia. With regard to the culinary sign, he translates eating camel and horse flesh as an unusual (and horrible) practice. Finally, concerning Tayammum he regards it a dirty ritual, while the Muslin sees it as an expression their love to their God. That this sign does not fit into Victorian sanitation discourse, the travel writer rejects it as filthy act.

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Effects of L2 on the L1 at Semantic Level: An Empirical Study

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Abstract—**Language transfer is a bidirectional phenomenon, which includes not only forward transfer but also backward transfer. Recently, backward transfer, also seeing as effects of L2 on the L1, has gaining attention in the field of SLA. Taking tag questions as an example, current study aims to enrich backward transfer study with a tentative research on the influence of English (L2) knowledge on Chinese (L1) in the light of Multi-competence Theory from SLA perspective. A questionnaire with assurance-doubt task (40 items) is made and 101 university students are recruited to fill it out. The data are analyzed by SPSS 18.0. Results proved the influence of English knowledge on that of Chinese at semantic level. Besides, the improvement in metalinguistic awareness is found in English major students.**

Index Terms—**backward transfer, multi-competence, tag question, semantic, metalingusitic awareness**

I. INTRODUCTION

The effects of the L2 on L1 are known as the influence of a person's knowledge of second language on that of his or her first language. There are many terms relate closely to it, including L2 influence, reverse/backward transfer, bidirectional transfer, interference, interlingual effects, crosslinguistic influences, cross language transfer, cross language influence (Cook, 2003; Seliger & Vago, 1991, p.6). In the field of SLA, L2 effect study equals to backward transfer study to a certain degree, so in this study L2 effect and backward transfer are used alternatively. Besides, it also relate closely to L1 attrition study, as L2 effect is usually considered to be a cause for L1 attrition. Vivian Cook is a prominent scholar in the field of L2 effects. The Multi-competence theory purposed by him has become the dominant supporting theory of L2 effects study. The effects of the L2 on L1 has been discovered and proved at phonetic (Zinszer et al., 2015), morphsyntactic (Balcom, 2003), lexical (Laufer, 2003), semantic (Pavlenko, 2003), pragmatic (Abu-Rabia, 2013), rhetorical (Kecskes & Papp, 2000), and conceptual (Kesckes & Papp, 2003) level. However, most of the researches have been done in L2 dominant environment with balanced bilinguals, few discussed the L2 effects in L1 environment with L2 users who have scarcely any exposure to L2 culture. This study, therefore, aims to reveal possible L2 effect in L1 environment with unbalanced L2 users.

II. MULTI-COMPETENCE THEORY

Multi-competence Theory is of primary importance in the field of backward transfer without dispute. Firstly proposed by Cook (1991), the term is created to describe precisely a bi/multilingaual's knowledge of the "combination" of the languages he or she acquired. He argues that former scholars usually use interlanguage to refer to bi/multilinguals' knowledge of non-mother tongue while no term was available to emphasis the special mental state of bilinguals' mother tongue or the synthesis of different languages.

He clearly defined Multi-competence as knowledge of two or more languages in one mind, thus the whole mind of the bilingual is involved, rather than simply their first language or their second language (Cook, 2012). In order to avoid the misleading that Multi-competence only applied to research at individual level, Cook further developed the definition as the overall system of a mind or a community that uses more than one language (Cook, 2013). The most insightful point for Multi-competence in the field of SLA is that it questioned the stability of mother tongue and argued for the right of L2 users. For application, Cook also pointed out three particular researches inspired by the concept of Multi-competence, one of which is to see transfer as a two-way process allowing L2 influence on L1 (Cook, 2013).

III. EFFECTS OF THE L2 ON L1 AT SEMANTIC LEVEL

Under the name of "loan words" or "borrowing words", the effect of L2 on L1 at lexical and semantic level has been looked closely and deeply from various study perspectives of socio-culture, SAL, and bilingualism, to name just a few. The discussion here will be limited to studies in this field targeted at individual bilinguals or L2 learners.

Pavlenko & Jarvis (2002) looked into the narrative performance of 22 Russian-English bilinguals and detected

semantic reverse transfer of semantic extension, lexical borrowing, and loan translation. A similar finding of semantic extension was detected again by Pavlenko's (2003) study. The broadly borrowing effects of L2 are reported by other researchers such as Latomaa (1998) and Boyd (1993), who investigated the speech of Finland-Americans and late Finnish-Swedish. Several researches reported lexical retrieval difficulties of L1 or reduce of lexical diversity (Laufer, 2003).

As to the constraints of the L2 effect, Laufer (2003) found that age of arrival, length of residence, and the amount of use of L1 (Russian) were proved to have an impact on the results of L2 effects while the use of L2 (Hebrew) had no influence to bilinguals performance. A study conducted by Van Hell & Dijkstra (2002) found backward transfer only in L2 users with high proficiency.

Besides, there are documents failed to detect the influence of the L2 to the L1. In Porte's (2003) research, 3 expat teachers, with English as their mother tongue living in Spain at least 15 years, enrolled in the investigation. Only code-manipulation and code-mixing were found in their speech which can not sufficiently use as L2 effects evidence. While the study conducted by Dewaele & Pavlenko (2003) showed no difference between Russian-English bilinguals and Russian monolinguals on productivity and lexical diversity.

To sum up, L2 effects on L1 is shown as semantic extension, loan translation, language borrowing, as well as retrieval difficulty at semantic level.

IV. ENGLISH TAG QUESTION AND CHINESE TAG QUESTION

Tag question (TQ) belongs to the interrogative sentences and exists in many languages around the world as a common colloquial form. The definition of tag question was given based on the form it takes. Formally, tag questions refer to the sentences combined by two parts: a statement (or a clause) and a tag appended to it, seeing (1) (2):

(1) The boat hasn't left, has it? (Quirk et al., 1985, p.810)
(2) Joan recognized you, didn't she? (Quirk et al., 1985, p.810)

The statement is referred to as anchor. Taking (1) as an example, the whole sentence "The boat hasn't left, has it?" is called tag question, the clause "The boat hasn't left" named anchor, and "has it" as tag.

Two main semantic functions were distinguished both in Chinese and English: Verification and Confirmation functions, the former one characterized by lower degree of assurance of the statement of tag question on the part of the speaker and the later one characterized by the higher degree of assurance of the statement of tag question on the part of the speaker.

For Chinese declarative tag questions, the polarity condition of tag only determines the semantic function of the tag question. Positive tags including positive-positive and negative-positive sentences generally express verification function with more shade of uncertainty on the part of the speaker whereas negative tags including positive-negative and negative-negative sentences generally express confirmation function with more shade of certainty on the part of the speaker. For English declarative tag question, the tone of tag generally determines the semantic function. On the one hand, rising tone on both positive-negative and negative-positive polarities represents real question with less assurance exercising verification function. On the other hand, falling tone is of more assurance exercising confirmation function. What's more, in Chinese classroom setting, English tag question is taught to have similar function as Chinese rhetorical questions, which is used primarily for searching confirmation. That is to say, to most of the Chinese EFL students, English tag question is believed to have a higher degree of assurance.

To sum up, positive tag of Chinese are more often than not used to search for answer while negative ones suggest higher degree of assurance using for gain confirmation in Chinese; whereas, there are no such form and function correspondences in English. For most of Chinese student, English tag question is considered to have a higher degree of assurance.

V. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Objective

The purpose of this study is to detect possible effect of the L2 semantic knowledge on that of L1 by using Chinese tag question as example. We are trying to find out backward transfer from knowledge of English tag question to Chinese tag question at semantic function level.

B. Subjects

Two groups of candidates are distinguished according to a method purposed by Cook (2003) to establish the contrast between maximal bilinguals and minimal bilinguals. One group consists of 41 English major students of Nanjing Normal University (NNU), who have passed the highest English Test in China: Test for English Majors Band 8. The other group is composed of 60 students specialized in sports in NNU who failed to pass the lowest English Test for all University students in China: College English Test Band 4. They were chosen because they are not forced to learn English during their university time. Besides, they are similar to English major group in all other aspects except English learning experiences. The former group is referred to as English major group (EMG) and the later group as Non-English major group (NEMG).

C. Instrument and Materials

A 5-scale assurance-doubt test containing 40 items was developed to reveal the participants' knowledge on semantic function of conduciveness of Chinese tag questions. Each item is made up of four utterances: the first and the third one is identical to all items serving as background setting and instruction, the second utterance is the target tag question of the item, and the last one is the proposition of the tag question. An example is listed below:

假如你的朋友小李对你说：　　　　If your friend Li said to you:
他不想参加明天的聚会，是吗？　"He doesn't want to go to the party tomorrow, does he?"
请判断小李是否确定：　　　　　　Please judge whether Li is sure about:
"他不想参加明天的聚会"　　　　"He doesn't want to go to the party tomorrow."

Participants are asked to judge to what degree the speaker Li is sure about what he said from 1 to 5 points. "1"= totally doubt, "2"= fairly doubt, "3"= half to half, "4"= fairly sure, and "5"= totally sure.

As to the target tag questions, we first distinguished two kinds of tag questions: natural one and controlled one. Natural tag question (NTQ) sentences are those can be found directly in corpus while controlled tag question (CTQ) sentences are made by the author in order to highlight the contrast of polarity of the sentence. We further distinguished four structures according to polarity for both NTQ and CTQ sentences: positive-positive, positive-negative, negative-positive, and negative-negative and each variant contain 5 items. Most of the target sentences come from online corpuses called CCL Chinese-English Bilingual Corpus (*http://ccl.pku.edu.cn:8080/ccl_corpus/*) and bebel Chinese-English Parallal Corpus (*http://www.icl.pku.edu.cn/icl_groups/parallel/concordance.asp*). The Chinese Corpus of the CCL Chinese-English Bilingual Corpus is available for the study with about 783 million tokens in all and nearly 582 million of them belong to modern Chinese and the bebel Corpus contains 709 pairs of sentences. Modifications are made to make sure that the selected sentences (1) best match the form of English tag question; (2) avoid any extra information which would influence the judgment, for example: model particles suggesting higher or lower certainty on the statement and factual or counter factual statement. Three Chinese teachers in a middle school are invited in the whole process of questionnaire preparing and provide valuable suggestions.

D. Pilot Study

Before taking the experiment, a pilot study was conducted to give information about reliability of the questionnaire. 32 junior students in a middle school were selected to be subjects of the pilot study as they have not learn English tag questions at the time of taking the experiment. The inner reliability is tested by the index of Crobach's Alpha. For tag questions, the values of α of PP, PN, NP, and NN are above 0.9, PP=0.955, PN=0.902, NP=0.911, and NN=0.915 to be specific. The values of Cronbach's Alpha of controlled tag questions are 0.911, 0.881, 0.851, and 0.855 for PP, PN, NP, and NN respectively. The results show that the items are consistent with each other within the subtype.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to find out the possible L2 effect, the data are put into SPSS 18.0 to make inter-group and intra-group comparison. The means of each structure are indicated in Table 1 in the first place.

TABLE 1:
MEANS OF EACH STRUCTURE FOR ENGLISH MAJOR GROUP AND NON-ENGLISH MAJOR GROUP

		English major		Non-English major	
		mean	**SD**	**mean**	**SD**
NTQ	**Positive-positive**	2.67	0.95	3.16	1.01
	Negative-positive	2.82	0.85	3.20	1.02
	Positive-negative	4.44	0.55	4.05	0.82
	Negative-negative	4.45	0.52	4.03	0.86
CTQ	**Positive-positive**	2.78	0.88	3.14	0.96
	Negative-positive	3.23	0.80	3.20	0.93
	Positive-negative	4.49	0.54	4.16	0.80
	Negative-negative	4.39	0.60	4.07	0.84

First of all, from Table 1, it is obvious that the means for positive tags are generally much lower than those for negative tags for both English major group and Non-English major group in both natural and controlled sentences regardless the polarity of the anchor. It is in accordance with the Chinese semantic rule that positive tags means relatively higher degree of uncertainty on the part of the speaker while negative tags means relatively lower degree of that. This result indicates that even there are slight influence of English semantic knowledge on Chinese, Chinese knowledge still plays a determine role in one's linguistic competence. This founding is no surprising, as L1 is expected to play a dominant role even for balanced bilinguals.

Then, to answer the question about the backward transfer from semantic knowledge of English tag question to Chinese tag question, we conducted paired sample test on positive tag structures and negative tag structures of both natural tag question and controlled tag question for Non-English major group and English major group separately. The results for Non-English major group are listed in Table 2 and results for English major group are listed in Table 3.

TABLE 2:
PAIRED SAMPLE TEST FOR NON-ENGLISH MAJOR GROUP

		Mean	t	df	Sig.
NTQ	**PP-NP**	-0.03	-0.85	59	0.398
	PN-NN	0.02	0.46	59	0.643
CTQ	**PP-NP**	-0.07	-1.15	59	0.086
	PN-NN	0.09	1.71	59	0.093

From Table 2, no significant differences are found between positive tag NTQ (t=-0.85, p=0.398) and negative tag NTQ (t=0.46, p=0.643). Similar to this, there are no significant differences between positive tag CTQ (t=-1.15, p=0.086) and negative tag CTQ (t=1.71, p=0.093). Above results suggest that positive-positive tag question and negative-positive tag question share same or at least similar meaning in terms of certainty in the view of Non-English major subjects. This proofs the view of many scholars statistically that positive tag in Chinese indicates higher level of uncertainty and negative tag indicates higher level of certainty. This founding serves as the baseline for results of English major group.

TABLE 3:
PAIRED SAMPLE TEST FOR ENGLISH MAJOR GROUP

		Mean	t	df	Sig.
NTQ	**PP-NP**	-0.16	-2.23	40	0.031
	PN-NN	-0.02	-0.34	40	0.738
CTQ	**PP-NP**	-0.45	-6.44	40	0.000
	PN-NN	0.11	1.50	40	0.139

From Table 3, we find significant differences between positive tag NTQ (t=-2.23, p=0.031) and positive tag NTQ (t=-6.44, p=0.000). By contrast, there are no significant differences between negative tag NTQ (t=-0.34, p=0.738) and negative tag CTQ (t=1.50, p=0.139).

The raise of the scores for negative-positive tag question compared to those of positive-positive tag question in natural and controlled structures demonstrates the raise of assurance of negative-positive tag question. This change is believed to be caused by the extension of English semantic knowledge to Chinese as the primary semantic function of English tag question is to ask for confirmation which indicates higher degree of assurance on the part of the speaker. There are two more evidence supporting the conclusion that the change is brought by backward transfer: (1) the raise in certainty does not occur in Non-English major group subjects who are equivalent to English major group subject in all other aspects but for English learning experience; (2) a sharp increase in certainty is found in controlled negative-positive tag question ($Mean_{PP-NP}$=-0.45, t=-6.44, p=0.000) but not in natural negative-positive tag question ($Mean_{PP-NP}$=-0.16, t=-2.23, p=0.031). As controlled tag question is designed to highlight the form-function mapping of the structure, the difference between NTQ and CTQ should be brought by the salient form: the polarity of the structure to be exact rather than other variables. So it is relatively safe to draw the conclusion that L2 knowledge has an effect on L1 at semantic level.

What's more, it is worth to pay attention to the experiment environment and features of subjects of current study. Unlike most of previous studies taking in L2 dominant linguistic environment with balanced L2 users, this study is carried out in L1 dominant environment with unbalanced L2 users. Although subjects of present study begin to learn English at around the critical period, they acquire English almost by formal instruction and have little contact with native English speakers much less the experience of living in English environment. The semantic extension from English to Chinese found here proved that exposure to L2 cultural environment is not indispensible to bring influence to L2 users' language system; intensive L2 learning in L1 dominant environment can lead to L2 effect on L1 as well.

In addition, the different results between positive tag structures comparison and negative tag structures comparison of English major group are worth concern. As mentioned above, the significant higher score found in negative-positive structure comparing to that of positive-positive structure is seen as the result of semantic extension from English to Chinese. However, no significant higher score is found in positive-negative structure comparing to negative-negative structure in both natural tag question ($Mean_{PN-NN}$=-0.02, t=-0.34, p=0.738) and controlled tag question ($Mean_{PN-NN}$= 0.11, t=1.50, p=0.139). The positive-negative tag question in English represents more often than not conduciveness of the speaker and the same is true in Chinese. This may imply that positive-negative tag question impress similar degree of assurance in English and Chinese, so no strengthen is found in the study.

Lastly, there is still an interesting phenomenon calls for explanation that the two groups scored differently in most of the structures. Independent sample test is done on all 8 structures between English major group and Non-English major group, showing in the following table.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST ON ENGLISH MAJOR GROUP AND NON-ENGLISH MAJOR GROUP

		Mean Difference (EG-NEG)	t	df	Sig.
NTQ	**Positive-positive**	-0.49	-3.10	99	0.002
	Negative-positive	-0.38	3.81	99	0.000
	Positive-negative	0.39	-2.34	99	0.019
	Negative-Negative	0.42	4.25	99	0.000
CTQ	**Positive-positive**	-0.36	-2.40	99	0.017
	Negative-positive	-0.01	3.42	99	0.001
	Positive-negative	0.33	-0.10	99	0.917
	Negative-Negative	0.32	3.81	99	0.000

From Table 4, we can find out that significant difference between English major and Non-English major group is detected in all tag question structures but for positive-negative one (t=-0.10, p=0.917). The difference between two groups of subjects on same polarity tag questions (PP and NN) is beyond our expectation. Since there is no same polarity tag question in formal English and, furthermore, Chinese EFL students has never learnt same polarity tag question, English major group subjects is expected to score the same or similar to Non-English major group subjects on those structures, whereas, significant differences are found in all four same polarity structures. To look closely into the scores of the four same polarity structures, we found that English major group subjects give much lower score to positive-positive tag question (NTQ: Mean$_{EG-NEG}$=-0.49, p=0.002; NTQ: Mean$_{EG-NEG}$=-0.36, p=0.017) and much higher score to negative-negaitve tag question (NTQ: Mean$_{EG-NEG}$=0.42, p=0.000; NTQ: Mean$_{EG-NEG}$=0.32, p=0.000) than Non-English group subjects. It seems that in structures free from possible direct influence of English form-function mapping, English major subjects tends to label lower level of assurance to positive tag structure and higher level of assurance to negative tag structure. The same tendency is found in all other structures except controlled negative-positive structure, which is caused by strong direct backward transfer discussed above. So compared to Non-English groups subjects, English major group subjects consider positive tag less conduciveness and negative tag more conduciveness. This implies that English major group subjects have a clearly form-function mapping awareness than Non-English major group subjects as they give more precise scores.

The ability to think and rethink the feature and function of languages forms is known as metalinguistic awareness (Gong, 2005). Form above results, we detected a more precise knowledge on semantic function of different Chinese tag questions on the part of English major group subjects compared to Non-English major group counterparts. This improvement in semantic awareness is regarded as the results bring by intensive English learning, especially in traditional Chinese English course where "focus on form" is prevalent.

Other researches did reported improvement of metalinguistic awareness as a result of SLA, however, their studies were taken out with children and the metalinguistic advantage is believed to disappear in adulthood (Bialystok et al., 2003; Gong, 2005). Current study, unlike most other studies, argues for metalinguistic advantage of adult L2 users. The author here tries to give tentative reason for this discovery: (1) Selection of subjects. As the target subjects of this study majored in English, they may outperform other student in general linguistic task and a clearer awareness on not only English but also Chinese just like a pianist outperform normal people in distinguish pitch made by a violin. (2) Use of 5-scale task. Unlike many other studies which asked their candidates to judge right and wrong of items in question, we applied a 5-scale task to distinguish minor differences. (3) Choose of tag question. The conduciveness of both Chinese and English tag question is modest rather than definitely sure or definitely uncertain which may help to avoid the ceiling effect and floor effect.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study showed the influence of English (L2) tag question knowledge on Chinese (L1) tag question conduciveness judgment. In other words, it proved the backward transfer from L2 to L1 at semantic level in L1 dominant environment. The L2 effect detected is subtle in natural condition. Although the effect is strengthened in controlled condition, L1 still plays a leading role. Besides, the data suggested improvement on metalinguistic awareness which remains to adulthood. We tentatively attribute this to target subjects choosing, applying of 5-scale task rather than true-false choices, as well as the use of tag question as example.

Despite from above findings, there are many limitations of this study. Firstly, there is only one task used in the study without enough supporting data from other tasks. Assurance-doubt task is used to prove English influence at semantic level; the data of it is convincing to some degree as a minimal bilingual control group is set. But still other tasks should be done to make sure that English influence is the source of change in question. Secondly, more effects should be taken to determine the source of semantic awareness improvement found in this study. More control groups should be set to determine whether the metalingustic advantage is limited to English major students or not. If the advantage can be found on other high proficiency English user in China, the adulthood advantage on metaligusitc awareness will be better proved.

APPENDIX

Target tag question sentences in assurance-doubt task (In Chinese)

	Natural Tag Question	Controlled Tag Question
PP	它与孩子们进行了交流，是吗？	昨天一起吃饭的那个人是学生，是吗？
	这医院还处在严密警戒中，是吗？	家里养的第一只宠物是小狗，是吗？
	朱先生去美国留过学，是吗？	小张一直想去的地方是西藏，是吗？
	你想马上就知道一切，是吗？	这首诗的作者是李白，是吗？
	他们管你叫老妈子，是吗？	那篇文章里提到的长河是黄河，是吗？
PN	这比拥有实力更有价值，不是吗？	日本的支柱产业是汽车产业，不是吗？
	那得视具体情况而定，不是吗？	那个季节最便宜的水果是苹果，不是吗？
	她可以用魔法得到想要的东西，不是吗？	张阿姨最喜欢的动物是兔子，不是吗？
	他有时候会说些搞笑的话，不是吗？	最后一个离开办公室的人是经理，不是吗？
	她算挺能进取的，不是吗？	当时人们最主要的食物是大米，不是吗？
NP	这不算敷衍，是吗？	去年生日收到的礼物不是汽车模型，是吗？
	你不满意你目前的生活，　是吗？	咱们刚才看到的那个男生不是班长，是吗？
	他不会有麻烦的，是吗？	公司年会三等奖的奖品不是豆浆机，是吗？
	你不喜欢自己现在住的地方，是吗？	刚抓到的那个小偷不是惯犯，是吗？
	你不会忘记以前说过的话的，是吗？	第一个成为吉祥物的动物不是棕熊，是吗？
NN	在班里，她几乎是不引人注目的，不是吗？	这里最美的季节不是春季，不是吗？
	他不敢买这种报纸了，不是吗？	照片上穿裙子的女生不是你妹妹，不是吗？
	这永远都不会结束，不是吗？	故事中最受欢迎的人物不是公主，不是吗？
	她担忧的不该是他的头发，不是吗？	公司去年销量最高的化妆品不是口红，不是吗？
	你不能否认我说的话，不是吗？	受伤最严重的部位不是胳膊，不是吗？

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- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills

- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - Submission of extended version
  - Notification of acceptance
  - Final submission due
  - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/