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Contents

A Study of Factors Influencing Students' Intercultural Competence

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Abstract—This study explored the concepts of intercultural competence and cultural intelligence and clarified corresponding terms. Using the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) as an instrument and conducting multiple regression tests, this quantitative research investigated individual scale factors that would influence the intercultural competence of the students who declared an education major or minor in the College of Education within the chosen university. Analysis of the 184 survey responses from an American state University indicated that the independent variables of perceived competence in non-native language or culture, frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and teaching experience were significant predictors of pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence.

Index Terms—intercultural competence, cultural intelligence, teacher education, pre-service teacher, language, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the term cross-cultural is often used synonymously with intercultural, Gudykunst and Kim (2007) clarified that the term cross-cultural "implies a comparison of some phenomena across cultures" (p. 18). In contrast, when discussing communication and interaction among different cultures, people often use the term intercultural. Marginson and Sawir (2011) proposed that intercultural relations that involve the potential for mutual transformation are within the broad category of cross-cultural relations. According to Marginson and Sawir, "the elements of openness and reciprocity are key, distinguishing intercultural relations from all other cross-cultural relations" (p. 17). There is not an agreed upon terminology about intercultural competence. Different disciplines and approaches adopt different terms to describe this concept (Deardorff, 2011). Sercu (2005) identified intercultural competencies and characteristics as the following:

The willingness to engage with foreign culture, self-awareness and the ability to look upon oneself from the outside, the ability to see the world through one's eyes, the ability to cope with uncertainty, the ability to act as a cultural mediator, the ability to evaluate others' points of view, the ability to consciously use culture learning skills and to read the cultural context, and the understanding that individuals cannot be reduced to their collective identities. (p. 2)

Intercultural competence includes one's knowledge, skills, attitudes, and awareness when interacting with people from diverse cultures. Intercultural communicative competence is the actual use of competence in the authentic context to communicate successfully across different cultures.

While research efforts have addressed the development of intercultural competence and its importance within the competitive global economy, few have sought to explore the intercultural competence of pre-service teachers. This topic, however, demands greater attention because teachers need to develop intercultural competence in order to effectively communicate with students of diverse cultural backgrounds. This is particularly relevant in the United States, a country of immigration, where there are many students of different ethnic backgrounds. In identifying the factors influencing pre-service teachers' intercultural competence, this study highlights several skills that need to be cultivated in the collegiate setting.

Fantini (2009) argued that a review of the assessment tools of intercultural competence reveals the dilemma. Some instruments address lingual aspects, but some address cultural customs. Other instruments focus on international rather than intercultural and therefore exclude diversity within a nation. However, others are simply unclear and their intent is uncertain. One construct, cultural intelligence (CQ), appears to address intercultural competence directly. CQ refers to "a person's capability for successful adaptation to new cultural settings, that is, for unfamiliar settings attributable to cultural context" (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 9). CQ is defined in accordance with general intelligence, and it addresses a specific form of intelligence in authentic intercultural settings (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007). Ang et al. (2007) depicted that CQ is "a multidimensional construct targeted at situations involving cross-cultural interactions arising from differences in race, ethnicity and nationality" (p. 336). The Cultural Intelligence Center (2005) introduced the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) as an instrument to measure one's intercultural competence. Ang and Van Dyne (2008) compared the other 11 intercultural competency scales with the CQS and concluded that the CQS is a valid instrument that evaluates multiple aspects of intercultural competence. Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh (2008) suggested four dimensions of CQS: (a) metacognitive CQ, which is a person's foreknowledge, onsite adjustment, and post-evaluation of an interaction with people from different cultures; (b)

cognitive CQ, which is a person's comprehension of different languages, values, and customs; (c) motivational CQ, which is a person's inner drive to direct his or her appropriate behavior in a new cultural scenario; and (d) behavioral CQ, which is a person's ability to communicate appropriately with people of diverse backgrounds. Using the CQS as a survey instrument, this research assessed the levels of intercultural competence of pre-service teachers, at the age of 18 years or older, having declared an education major or minor at a Midwest state university.

II. Intercultural Competence and Cultural Intelligence Scale

Intercultural competence is a capability of communicating with peoples of diverse backgrounds, which represents different cultural orientations in the world (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). It includes one's wisdom and strategy when interacting with people from different languages and cultures. Given the need to educate students for the interconnected and diverse world, educators must highlight intercultural competence in the curriculum of higher education (Deardorff, 2011). Global education, multicultural education, and intercultural education all address the development of intercultural competence, which enables an individual to interact and communicate appropriately in an alien culture.

In their book Crossing Cultures in the Language Classroom, DeCapua and Wintergerst (2007) wrote that different research fields such as linguistics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, and communication influenced the definition of culture. DeCapua and Wintergerst asserted that culture can be viewed as the set of fundamental ideas, practices, and experiences shared by a group of people. Culture can also refer to a set of shared beliefs, norms, and attitudes that are used to guide the behaviors of a group of people, to explain the world around them, and to solve their problems. (p. 12)

The elements of culture include beliefs, norms, taboos, and attitudes. "Beliefs are an individual's convictions about the world, convictions that are shaped by the culture a person is raised in" (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2007, p. 17). Cultural beliefs represent the reality and the expectations of the world. People from the same culture hold similar beliefs. For example, American people will open gifts given to them and express their thanks. Chinese people also receive gifts from their relatives, friends, and colleagues, but they do not open the gifts immediately. They often open the gifts and find an opportunity to show their appreciation later. "Norms are the fixed behavior patterns for members of a cultural group. They are culturally shared notions about what is appropriate behavior. They may also be described as culturally established patterns of doing things" (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2007, p. 19). In the United States of America, there is an age minimum for people purchasing alcohol or tobacco, but in other countries, there is no such regulation. Taboos regulate actions that are or are not allowed in a society, and attitudes are emotional reactions toward people and surroundings. When people enter or encounter an alien culture, they find a difference or conflict exists between cultures. They may feel uncomfortable or even frustrated. They are experiencing cultural shock. Intercultural competence enables people to communicate effectively.

According to Fantini (2009), there are different terms addressing intercultural abilities. They are bilingualism, multilingualism, multiculturalism, cross-cultural adaptation, cultural or intercultural sensitivity, global competence, and global competitive intelligence. For example, Cui and Cui (2015) researched monolingualism and multilingualism, concluding that the latter contributes to higher education and social expression whereas the former depresses cultural identification within children of immigrant parents. Deardorff (2011) suggested using the term intercultural competence because "it applies to any [people] who interact with those from different backgrounds, regardless of location" (p. 66). Rathje (2007) reviewed three models describing intercultural competence. The list models described intercultural competence using subsequent catalogues such as reducing anxiety or using empathy. The structural models described intercultural competence as a larger framework incorporating behavioral, cognitive, and affective dimensions. The situational and interactionistic models described intercultural competence in a social context where the interaction took place.

Rathje (2007) discussed the current debate of intercultural competence in terms of goal, scope, application, and foundation. There are two viewpoints toward the goal of intercultural competence: the efficiency model focuses on productivity and sees intercultural competence as "an instrument and a means to success" (Rathje, 2007, p. 256) in an intercultural environment; the human development viewpoint "emphasizes the importance of effective human interaction in the expectation that successful intercultural competence will manifest itself in the participants as a kind of palpable personal development" (Rathje, 2007, p. 257). The scope of intercultural competence includes culture-specific competence that discusses intercultural competence rooted in one or more specific foreign cultures; generalized intercultural competence discusses intercultural competence as a means of human development among people with different cultures; general social competence gathers the separate intercultural competences as a whole and regards it as a form of social competence; transfer of generalized action competence places intercultural competence in the framework of action competence, which is necessary for a successful communication. The application of intercultural competence falls in two categories as either inter-national or inter-collective. Intercultural competence with inter-national interpretation describes the interaction between individuals from different national cultures. Intercultural competence with inter-collective interpretation describes interaction between individuals of specific collectives with distinct culture. The cultural foundation uses the scenario of intercultural competence to address the term culture. The coherence-oriented approach is a traditional understanding on culture, which describes culture as "something unifying which produces common characteristics shared by a significant number of the members of that culture" (Rathje, 2007, p.

260). Rathje (2007) called the opposite approaches, which choose to "accentuate differentiation within a specific culture and embrace the fundamental contradictions present within them" (p. 261)—cohesion-oriented approaches.

Rathje's (2007) research addressed intercultural competence in both global and multicultural settings. Rathje reviewed the existing definitions of intercultural competence and analyzed the goal, scope, application, and foundation of it. Based on the above analysis, Rathje proposed a tentative definition of intercultural competence: it is a cultural-oriented capability focusing on communication and interaction between peoples of diverse cultural backgrounds to achieve the goal of mutual understanding of the difference between cultures and thus become familiar with, and be able to appreciate, a different culture.

According to Deardorff (2011), the increase of intercultural competence is a continuing process. It involves the progress of critical thinking skills, the development of a global perspective, and other worldviews. Additionally, it hinges upon the progress of attitudes including respect, openness, and curiosity. Based on M. J. Bennett's Development Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) and the related instrument, the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), DeJaeghere and Zhang (2008) investigated factors that influenced the intercultural competence through an in-service American teachers' professional development program. In their study, they regarded intercultural competence as "the ability to think and act in interculturally appropriate ways as applied to the school/classroom setting for teachers" (p. 256). Guo, Arthur, and Lund (2009) suggested that educational institutions are the primary vehicles for developing pre-service teachers' intercultural competence through a trial and error process of learning their own and others' cultures.

Cultural intelligence is a capability of communicating effectively in a new culture scenario. It is a construct that "assesses multiple aspects of intercultural competence in a single instrument, based on a theoretically grounded, comprehensive, and coherent framework" (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008, p. 10). In developing the CQS and examining its validity and reliability, Ang et al. (2007) followed Schmidt and Hunter's definition of general intelligence and described cultural intelligence as "a specific form of intelligence focused on capabilities to grasp, reason and behave effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity" (p. 337). They conceptualized cultural intelligence through four dimensions according to Sternberg's multiple-loci of intelligence in cultural diversity settings (Ang et al., 2007). Metacognitive CQ refers to the abilities of planning, evaluating, and adjusting cultural norms in intercultural settings. "While metacognitive CQ focuses on higher-order cognitive processes, cognitive CQ reflects knowledge of the norms, practices, and conventions in different cultures acquired from education and personal experiences," and "motivational CQ reflects the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations characterized by cultural differences" (Ang et al. , 2007, p. 338). Behavioral CQ demonstrates the overt actions while communicating with people from diverse cultures. The CQS was developed in accordance with the constructs of CQ. Ang et al. (2007) concluded that CQS is a powerful tool to predict three aspects of intercultural effectiveness: "cultural judgment and decision making (a cognitive outcome), cultural adjustment and wellbeing (an affective outcome), and task performance (a behavioural outcome)" (p. 340). It is a scale that measures language, culture, intercultural, and communication issues. Many researchers (Amiri, Moghimi, and Kazemi, 2010; Báez, 2012; Banning, 2010; Franklin-Craft, 2010; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Tarique and Takeuchi, 2008) have utilized CQS to assess people's intercultural competence.

Shannon and Begley (2008) conducted confirmatory analyses on psychometric measures of CQ. The result of the study based on 333 Irish and international business students supported the validity of CQS. Their first hypothesis was that second language acquisition will positively relate to (a) cognitive CQ and (b) behavioral CQ. They found that there was a statistically significant relationship between second language acquisition and cognitive CQ. This finding suggested that multilingual people are sensitive to use language as a tool to obtain intercultural knowledge. Their second hypothesis was that international work experience will positively relate to (a) metacognitive CQ, (b) motivational CQ, and (c) behavioral CQ. They found that there was a statistically significant relationship between international work experience and motivational CQ. This finding indicated that people with multiple international work experiences are inclined to work with people from diverse backgrounds and are willing to explore different cultures and traditions in an unfamiliar cultural setting. Their third hypothesis was that diversity of social contacts will positively relate to (a) metacognitive CQ, (b) cognitive CQ, and (c) behavioral CQ. They did not find a positive relationship between diversity of social contacts and self-reported CQ. Shannon and Begley suggested future research exploring additional antecedents beyond language acquisition, international work experiences, and diversity of social contact. Besides that, it would be of great value to conduct a future study that focuses on the evaluation of the ongoing CQ dimensions.

Tarique and Takeuchi (2008) stressed that the amount of intercultural exposure is one of the factors that contributes to the development of cultural intelligence. The participants in this study were undergraduate students in a management course at a medium-sized university in New York City. The research results showed that the increase in number of international non-work experiences was associated with higher scores of all four latent variables of cultural intelligence. Tarique and Takeuchi suggested that future researchers investigate this important area following their initial empirical research.

Using CQS as a research instrument, Amiri, Moghimi, and Kazemi (2010) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between CQ and employees' performances in a university in Iran. The research method was a correlation-survey. They received 80 returned questionnaires from the staff of a religious–scientific entity. Data analysis showed

that three out of the four cultural intelligence dimensions, except behavior CQ, had a statistically significant relationship with employees' performance. There was a statistically significant relationship between overall CQS and the employees' performance. Amiri, Moghimi, and Kazemi (2010) recommended that future research may consider other demographic variables' influence on cultural intelligence.

Banning (2010) examined the predicative relationships in a study abroad population. Participants were from three public research universities in the Southeastern United States. A total of 166 students responded to the CQS survey. Among them, 68% were undergraduates, and 32% were graduate students. They all had a first, short-term study abroad experience. This non-experimental post-test only research was to determine the extent that gender, degree level, major, and previous international travel experience could predict the levels of CQ. Through quantitative data analysis, degree level was found to be a significant predictor of all four constructs of CQ. Students' majors were found to be a significant predictor of cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and aggregate scores of CQS. International travel experience was found to be a significant predictor of behavioral CQ. Banning suggested a future study using pre-tests and post-tests to detect the effects of study abroad on CQ scores. A comparative analysis between short-term and long-term study abroad participants was also suggested as an area for further study. Banning also suggested a qualitative study utilizing interviews with targeted populations as another way to examine the relationships between study abroad programs and CQ.

Franklin-Craft (2010) adopted the CQS, a Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MSCA-P2), and a personal data form as survey instruments to answer three questions. Are there relationships between student affairs practitioners' identities and intercultural competence? Which and to what degree do experiential variables influence the outcomes of intercultural cultural competence? Are student affairs practitioners' self and peer-assessment of intercultural competency related? A sample of 465 student affairs practitioners nationwide responded to the survey. The research results showed that there were no relationships between race, identification, and CQS scores. Experiential variables including international exposure, frequency of workshop attendance, workplace interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and workplace conversation about intercultural difference were found to account for 20% of the variance in intercultural competence holding demographic characteristics constant. There was not a statistically significant relationship between self-and peer-reported CQS scores.

Báez (2012) used the CQS as an instrument to examine students' cultural awareness, sensitivity to diversity, and holistic application, which were three out of four objectives of the Foundational Studies 2010 Non-Native Language Program for Spanish 101 at Indiana State University. Among the students enrolled in the six sections of the Spanish 101 course during the spring semester of 2012, 105 students participated in the pre-test, and 89 students participated in the post-test. The research results revealed that there was a significant difference between students' pre-test and post-test mean scores with respect to cognitive, motivational, and behavioral dimensions of CQ. There was also a significant change in the motivational dimension between female and male students. Báez (2012) suggested future research addressing different majors and different programs with respect to cultural intelligence.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA ANALYSIS

The research question for this study is: Can pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence be predicted from demographic variables of (a) gender, (b) perceived competence in non-native language or culture, (c) frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and (d) teaching experience? The null hypothesis is: Gender, perceived competence in non-native language or culture, frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and teaching experience do not predict a significant proportion of the variance in cultural intelligence total scores. To assess pre-service teachers' intercultural competence, I used the CQS as a research instrument. According to Deardorff's (2011) grounded theory-based intercultural competence model, a successful assessment tool ought to evaluate students' critical thinking skills; their attitudes regarding respect, openness, and curiosity; and their holistic, contextual understanding of a culture. Van Dyne et al. (2008) claimed that metacognitive CQ promotes active thinking, triggers critical thinking, and increases the awareness of diverse cultures; cognitive CQ provides knowledge for decision-making in intercultural settings; motivational CQ addresses the curiosity in novel settings; and behavioral CQ exhibits appropriate and effective communication in diverse backgrounds. The four dimensions of CQ coincide with Deardorff's theories in the intercultural competence model. CQS measures the internal and external outcomes of intercultural competence. With regard to cross-validation of the CQS, "corrected item-to-total correlations for each subscale (0.46–0.66) demonstrated strong relationships between items and their scales, supporting internal consistency" (Ang et al. , 2007, p. 345). The aggregated reliabilities of CQS surpassed .70 (Ang et al., 2007). A request for using the CQS was sent and permission to use it was granted. I used a demographic questionnaire to collect the data to measure the participant demographics with respect to the following: gender, class standing, perceived competence in non-native language or culture, frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and teaching experience. Participants in the study defined people of diverse backgrounds as those of different ethnicities. For example, if the participant identifies himself as Caucasian, he would mark his frequency of interaction with non-Caucasian people.

I designed a survey that combined the CQS and the demographic questionnaire to collect data and conducted the survey through Qualtrics with privacy protection. I used the Statistical Package of the Social Science (SPSS), version 19, and run multiple regression tests to analyze the data. The CQS, which includes 20 items on a seven-point Likert-type

scale, provides responses that range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The range of the scores is from 20 to 140. I recoded the variables of gender, perceived competence in non-native language or culture, and teaching experience. Evaluation of frequency statistics and cross tabulation outcomes indicated that the new variables were successfully created. Table 1 shows the descriptions of independent variables predicting the intercultural competence total scores.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIONS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES PREDICTING CQS SCORES (N = 184)

Name	M	SD	Min	Max	Description
Gender	.77	--	0	1	0 = Male; 1 = Female
Perceived competence in non-native language or culture	.42	--	0	1	0 = Not feel competent; 1 = Feel competent
Frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds	3.46	.89	2	5	5-point Likert-type scale from 1 Never to 5 Always
Teaching experience	.49	--	0	1	0 = No; 1 = Yes

Among the 184 participants, 77% were female and 49% had teaching experience. There were 42% of participants in this sample who felt competent in using a non-native language or interacting with others of another culture. The average score of frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds was 3.46 (M = 3.46, SD = .89). I ran the multiple regression analysis using the recoded independent variables. Table 2 shows the results.

TABLE 2
REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR VARIABLES PREDICTING CQS SCORES (N = 184)

	B	^+SEB	β
Gender	-1.26	2.69	-.03
Perceived competence in non-native language or culture	8.33	2.36	.25**
Frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds	4.18	1.33	.22**
Teaching experience	4.59	2.29	.14*

Note. R^2 = .17; Adjust R^2 = .15. *p < .05, **p < .01, two tailed. $^+$Standard Error of B

Concerning the F-test in the ANOVA table, F = 9.17, p < .001, the model was significant. The model was significantly better at predicting the outcome than the mean. There was a total of 17% of the variance in the pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence that could be explained by the model. When adjusted for sample size and numbers of predictors, the variance explained dropped to 15%. The test results rejected the null hypothesis. Therefore, the pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence could be predicted from demographic variables of (a) gender, (b) perceived competence in non-native language or culture, (c) frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and (d) teaching experience.

The independent variables of perceived competence in non-native language or culture and frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds were significant predictors of pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence, p < .01, two tailed. The independent variable of teaching experience was a significant predictor of pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence, p < .05, two tailed. Students who felt competent in using a non-native language or interacting with others of another culture scored 8.33 points higher on the CQS than students who did not feel competent in using a non-native language or interacting with others of another culture, holding the other variables constant. For every additional point on the frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, the pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence increased by 4.18 points, holding the other variables constant. Students who had teaching experience scored 4.59 points higher on the CQS than students who did not have teaching experience, holding the other variables constant. The variable of gender was not a significant predictor of the pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence.

IV. FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

I ran a multiple regression test for the research question. Concerning the *F*-test in the ANOVA table, F = 9. 17, p < .001, the model was significant. The test results rejected the null hypothesis: Gender, perceived competence in non-native language or culture, frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and teaching experience do not predict a significant proportion of the variance in cultural intelligence total scores. The independent variables of perceived competence in non-native language or culture, frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds, and teaching experience were significant predictors of pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence.

Students who felt competent in using a non-native language or interacting with others of another culture scored higher on the CQS than students who did not feel competent in using a non-native language or interacting with others of another culture. The research results supported Shannon and Begley's (2008) findings that multilingual students are likely to use language as a method to gather intercultural knowledge. The results concurred with Báez's (2012) research results that a university's Spanish 101 course made a significant difference between students' pre-test and post-test mean scores concerning cognitive, motivational, and behavioral dimensions of the CQS. Sercu (2005) stated that the willingness to engage with foreign cultures is one of the characteristics of interculturally competent students. Colleges and universities, therefore, should make great efforts to maintain and extend non-native language courses in order to develop students' intercultural competence. For example, colleges and universities should continue to recruit students

from other cultures in order to enhance diversity on campus. Other methods, as suggested by Deardoff (2011) include designing appropriate media to bring American and international students together. University departments, such as the Office of Overseas Studies and the Office of Global Programs, should encourage students to participate in domestic and study abroad exchange programs to develop intercultural competence.

The pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence increased with additional points on the frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds. One must be reminded that the independent factor of the frequency of interaction with people of diverse backgrounds was self-reported and there was no criterion given to establish a basis for judgment in terms of frequency. The research results were in accordance with Tarique and Takeuchi's (2008) findings that intercultural exposure is one of the factors that contributes to the development of cultural intelligence. Deardoff (2011) proposed to bring American and international students together through meaningful interaction on campus. By breaking barriers between the two groups, colleges and universities would be integrating the campus, facilitating the exchange of language and cultural information, thereby increasing students' awareness of the diverse global environment. This type of experimental learning is especially important in developing the intercultural competence of pre-service teachers, who benefit from first-hand interactions with people of different ethnicities. Caine and Caine (2006) stated that students develop awareness and become mature in the solutions that are relevant to them. A collaborative approach is most consistent with an experiential perspective and is the most appropriate way to present meaningful interaction (Posner, 2004). Colleges and universities should continue creating more opportunities to engage students who were not very successful in their global-mindedness and intercultural competence to collaborate with each other and participate in activities on and off campus. Faculty members should continue designing appropriate projects and assignments to encourage their students to interact with people of diverse backgrounds. Deardorff (2011) stated that there were two ways to develop intercultural competence. One was through the curriculum; the other was through co-curricular activities. University offices, such as the Office of Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity, should sponsor more co-curricular activities to involve domestic and international students.

Students who had teaching experience scored higher on the CQS than students who did not have teaching experience. The United States of America is a country of diversity. The student teachers in a school which might have students from different ethnic groups and have different language and cultural backgrounds. Interaction with the students of diverse backgrounds in a classroom can assist pre-service teachers to develop their intercultural competence. Teacher education programs in colleges and universities should highlight the role of student teaching and accommodate the future teachers with real classroom teaching experience as early as possible.

The variable of gender was not a significant predictor of the pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence in this model. There were other variables that might affect the pre-service teachers' levels of intercultural competence, such as the number of culturally-oriented courses and the number of friends from other countries, which were not included in the model. Further research should take into account other factors that would impact the overall CQS scores. For instance, Hett (1993) suggested that interaction with persons from other countries and cultures might influence scores.

Language and culture are rooted in people's lives as means of maintain the heritage and distinction of a nation. On a larger scale, the world is an integrated and interrelated unit with groups sharing common values and world view. Intercultural competence enables communication between different ethnic groups and serves to create a more coherent community. Pre-service teachers, being educators of future generations, hold the responsibility of developing intercultural competence progressively. In doing so, they are expanding their abilities to appreciate different cultures and values. Through obtaining greater cultural awareness, pre-service teachers may cultivate intercultural competence within students in the classroom and contribute to the global-mindedness of citizens of the world.

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The Effect of Output Task on EFL Writing: How Far Can It Go?

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Abstract—The present study attempts to further the understanding of the effect of output in SLA by investigating to what extent an output task (i.e., reconstruction task) is effective in EFL writing. Data in the form of pre-, post- and delayed post-tests were collected from 28 students (14 in input-oriented group while 14 in output group) at one Chinese University. The results revealed a positive and enduring effect of the output task on learners' grammatical accuracy in writing as compared with input-oriented instruction that has long been prevalent in Chinese EFL classroom. However the results did not find an equal impact of the task on different rules: The rules carrying meaning (e.g., connective) or having semantic equivalents in target language (e.g. passive "-ed" or comparative "-er" or superlative "-est") are produced more accurately by the output group while less meaningful morphology (e.g. plural noun "-s", third singular "-s") or local rule (e.g. prepositions) were most difficult for these EFL learners. We argue semantic and functional awareness is the key format for learners to acquire and internalise the grammatical forms.

Index Terms—output task, EFL, grammatical accuracy, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

With the proposal of Swain's *Comprehensible Output Hypothesis* (1985, 1995, 2005), output has been viewed not merely as an end product of learning, but as an important factor to promote second language (L2) learning for many L2 teachers and researchers. Many studies, for example, have attempted to compare the empirical effect of output tasks with non-output conditions, such as with input enhancement (e.g., Izumi, 2002, Song and Suh, 2008; Song, 2010) or with processing instruction (e.g., Morgan-Short & Bowen, 2006). These studies have found that output tasks are beneficial to L2 language learning even though variations of such effect exist under different task conditions, e.g. comprehension or production exercise (Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996). Most of the studies, however, resonated with each other on the positive effect of output tasks on production tasks in English learning context (e.g. Izumi et al, 1999, Izumi, 2002, Song and Suh, 2008) if not all on comprehension tasks. What is not clear is the extent to which output task can be beneficial to L2 production tasks? For example, are output tasks equally effective for the different language rules and how durable such effect is. The answer to this question becomes more complex when different learner profiles are taken into consideration. This article intends to explore some answers to these issues within Chinese teaching English as a foreign language (EFL hereafter) setting, particularly in an attempt to examine to what extent one frequently-used output task (i.e., reconstruction task) will benefit student's production skills in a natural writing context (i.e., writing short essays).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. EFL Background in China

In spite of reforms in English education over decades in China (e.g., the introduction of communicative language teaching since late 1980's or task-based language teaching in 1990's), teaching EFL in China is still test-driven, mainly aimed at preparing learners for all kinds of national or graduation tests. In practice, there are some attempts for communicative or task-based language teaching, however most EFL classrooms in China are still featured by a preoccupation with careful, often painstaking examinations of grammar or vocabulary items which are always the focus of many tests (e.g., Rao, 2013). As a result grammatical accuracy is much more emphasised in practice as compared with fluency even though most English teachers agree to the fact that accuracy and fluency are both essential in language teaching and learning (Rao & Lei, 2014). This is, at least partially attributed to the lack of teaching staff. The EFL classroom in China is so big (always more than 50 students) that only a teacher-centred approach is welcome and assumed to be effective and communicative language teaching methods are not as effective as expected, either due to the students' negative attitudes (e.g., Rao, 2002) or to the teacher's dilemma of teaching grammar (Ouyang, 2000; Zheng and Borg, 2014). To cater for the national examinations, many highly controlled exercises used in Chinese EFL teaching, the majority of which are in the form of multiple-choice comprehension questions. In the situation described above, students' responses in spontaneous language production performance (e.g., writing an essay) leave many teachers feeling very disappointed at their students' inability to use what they have been repeatedly taught. For example, students often make such mistakes as "once a time, there is…" or "I'm go to…". This frequently occurs despite the fact that most students are already very skilful in choosing satisfactory answers on multiple-choice grammar tests.

B. Output Tasks and EFL Grammar Teaching

TABLE 1
A SUMMARY OF EFL STUDY USING OUTPUT TASKS

EFL study using output tasks	Methodology	Target features	Results
Izumi (2002): to compare the facilitative effects of output and visual input enhancement on the acquisition of target form	1. Subjects: Five groups (61 college-level students from two universities): 11 in +O+IE group, 12 in +O-IE group, 12 in -O+IE group, 12 in -O-IE group and 14 in CG. The subjects have diverse L1 background; 2. Pre- and immediate post-test; 3. Tests: sentence combination test, picture-cued completion test, interpretation test and grammaticality judgment test;	Relativisation	1. Those in output tasks outperformed those in the input-enhancement tasks; 2. Those in input enhancement tasks failed to show measurable gains in learning;
Izumi et al. (1999): To test the role of output on noticing and performance on the target form	1. Subjects: Two groups (22 college-level students from an ESL department with diverse L1 background):11 in EG and 11 in CG; 2. Pre- and two post-tests which were conducted immediately & the day after the two respective treatments; 3. Grammaticality Judgment test and picture-cued production test;	Past hypothetical conditional	1. Phase 1 tasks resulted in noticing and immediate incorporation of the target form, the posttest performance failed to reveal the effects; 2. Phase 2 tasks resulted in improvement on post-test 2.
Song & Suh (2008): To test the role of output and two types of output tasks (reconstruction and picture-cued writing tasks)	1. Subjects: Three groups (52 intermediate Korean EFL students with some partial knowledge of the target form in three groups: EG1, EG2 and CG; 2. Pre- and immediate post-test; 3. Recognition and written production tests;	Past counterfactual conditional	1. Noticing occurred more in the output groups as compared with non-output conditions 2. Participants with output treatments performed significantly better than those in the non-output condition on the production post-test
Song (2010): To examine the effectiveness of an output practice (i.e., translation) on promoting noticing and acquisition of lexical phrases	1. 36 EFL students from two parallel classes of same level, divided into EG (18) and CG (18); 2. Pre- and immediate post-test; 3. Multiple-choice questions and Chinese-English translation;	Lexical phrases	1. EG noticed the target form more than the CG; 2. The effect of output practice on promoting acquisition of lexical phrases was much greater than that of input practice
Abadikhah and Zarrabi (2011): To examine whether engaging learners in output tasks can fill the gap between comprehension and production of verbal morphemes	1. Iranian EFL learners (20 output group and 18 control group); 2. Pre- and post-test;	Verbal Morphemes (-ing and –ed)	1. Output group outperformed the control group 2. Control group failed to show comparable improvement in their production although they had measurable gains in comprehending the target linguistic form
Abadikhah (2012): To examine the effectiveness of mechanical and meaningful production of output on the learning of English relative clauses by Iranian EFL learners.	1. 36 Iranian EFL learners in two groups; 2. Pre- and post-test; 3. Recording of collaborative dialogue;	Relative clauses	1. Both groups improved significantly 2. More meaningful activities elicited significantly more language-related episodes compared to the more mechanical activities
Khatib, M., & Alizadeh, M. (2012): To examine the effects of using two different types of output tasks on noticing and learning the English past tense	1. 60 female subjects in three groups (picture-cued writing tasks, reconstruction tasks & comprehension check-up task; 2. Pre- and post-test;	Past tense	1. Only the reconstruction group improved in their noticing of the target feature. 2. Both picture-cued and reconstruction groups equally promoted their learning of the form.

The *Comprehensible Output Hypothesis* (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2005) claims that producing output in L2, as opposed to merely comprehending the language, may force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing. According to the hypothesis, producing the target language (TL) may serve as "the trigger that forces that learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning" (Swain,

1985, p.249). That is, producing the target language provides learners with unique opportunities for a level of processing (i.e., syntactic processing) that may be needed for the development of target-like proficiency or the enhancement of accuracy (Swain and Lapkin, 1995). In addition, it is also hypothesised that output can promote language acquisition by making learners notice problems in their interlanguage (IL) (Swain and Laptin, 1995) and thus prompting learners to do something about those problems. For example, they can seek out relevant input with more focused attention, or search for alternative means to express the given intention and stretch their IL capability, formulate and test a hypothesis, and modify it upon receiving feedback (Izumi et. al., 1999).

Much recent empirical EFL research has evidenced the effect of output conditions on learning target forms in production exercises (see TABLE 1 for details). Izumi and his associates (e.g., Izumi, 2002; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Izumi et al., 1999), for example, have conducted a series of ESL studies to compare output asks with non-output tasks. Their results are mixed, two of which are in favour of the beneficial effects for output groups. Izumi (2002) has attributed the superior performance of output groups to the effect of depth of processing and integrative processing. Another strand of research on EFL using output tasks is focused on investigating the effect of different output tasks on ESL learning. For instance, a study with the EFL Korean students (Song and Suh, 2008) has indicated that the participants receiving two various output opportunities (i.e., reconstruction and picture-cued writing tasks) performed significantly better than those in the non-output conditions on the production post-test even though there were no significant difference between the two different methods. The same effect of output tasks on target forms is also found in other Asian EFL contexts (e.g. Song, 2010 in China, Abadikhah and Zarrabi, 2011; Abadikhah, 2012 in Iranian context)

All these studies measure their subjects' learning of the targeted forms by using contextualised production tasks (e.g. picture-cued writing in Izumi's studies; sentence completion task in Song & Suh or in translation work Song, 2010). None of them, however, have examined the subject's English grammatical accuracy in natural language setting, like writing an essay. When natural writing is used as assessment task, it is very hard for learners to pay as much attention to accuracy of grammatical forms when most of their attention is directed to semantic processing of sentences or idea development (VanPatten, 1990; Huang, 2008).

Additionally, among these studies one issue that has received relatively less attention from researchers is the question: to what rules can output tasks be effectively applied? The many studies on output tasks so far are only targeted at one or two grammatical features and most of them are syntactical forms. In TABLE 1 we can see the tested forms in the series of EFL studies were either the relative clause of English or English past hypothetical conditional or the lexical phrases. Even though the relativization and English past hypothetical conditional are complex in syntax, processing the output tasks (through either reconstruction or picture-cued writing tasks), however, means a necessity to process the target syntactical rules of relativisation or past conditional because the meaning of the rules have been embedded in the sentence. That is what is called by Loschky (1994) as "task essentialness" (i.e., in order to complete the tasks, the meaning of the whole sentence needed to be processed, including the target forms). However other less salient forms especially those morphological forms such as third person singular "-s" or plural pronoun "-s" has very rarely been examined in the vein of the effect of output except for Abadikhah and Zarrabi (2011) who examined two verbal morphemes "–ing" and "–ed" (for details of the study see TABLE 1). As Muranoi (2007) posited whether output practice leads to L2 development heavily depends on various factors one of which he identifies as the linguistic features of the target form.

Another research gap of using output tasks in EFL setting is long term effect: Except for Izumi et al. (1999), the other studies only look at the immediate effect of the output tasks. However the question of the long-term effects of treatment is a very important issue. If the effects of intervention are short-lived, then as some have claimed (e.g. Krashen, 1985), acquisition results from exposure to input and nothing else. If long-term effects can be found, then such a position is less tenable (VanPatten and Fernandez, 2003).

This study, therefore, in an attempt to fill in these research gaps, is intended to examine for what rules output tasks are useful in spontaneous essay writing context in order to further the understanding of the effect of output tasks in EFL, in particular by exploring answers to the following questions:

1) Compared with input-oriented group, do reconstruction output task have a positive effect on their performance accuracy in natural writing context?

2) If such effect is found, will it be durable?

3) For what rules is the output task most / least effective?

III. THE STUDY

This study was an quasi-experimental study conducted in two classes using a design of pre-, post- and delayed post-test with post-test examining the immediate effect while delayed post-test the long-term effect.

A. Subjects

The subjects of this investigation were 28 Chinese University EFL students from two existing classes. Based on their own class, they were identified as two groups: the output group (OG) and the input-oriented group[1] (IG) (each group

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[1] The group did some controlled exercises over the experimental period. However, there were no any substantial output opportunities in the group.

involved 14 participants). The data from a background questionnaire showed that the participants in both groups were reasonably equivalent in their English learning background, having studied English for 7 years according to the national syllabus.

TABLE 2
PROFILE OF THE SUBJECTS

	OG	IG	Total
No. of Males	7	6	14
No. of Females	7	8	14
Total Population	14	14	28
Average Age	20.8	20.3	
Min. Years of Learning English	7	7	

B. Data Collection and Procedures

The data collection of the study lasted 16 weeks over three stages in two Chinese EFL classroom settings. At the pre-testing stage, a questionnaire on the subjects' background was collected. Then students were asked to complete a 20-minute pre-test in the classroom under the supervision of teachers. The first data from pre-test results was taken as the baseline referential standard to examine the subjects' progress. During the 12-week experiment stage, those students in the OG continuously participated in reconstruction tasks in normal classes whereas the IG received formal, input-oriented instruction on the grammatical features without these activities. The teacher in the IG group taught the grammatical features in a way of input-oriented instruction (that is, giving presentations and examples of the target grammatical features which is followed by the controlled grammar exercises). At the conclusion of the experiment period, all subjects were tested immediately and again four weeks later in order to determine the post-experimental and delayed post-experimental performance on grammatical knowledge. The administration procedures of the post-testing and the delayed post-testing measures were exactly the same as those in the pre-test.

C. Development of Materials

1. Selection of grammar structures

Before the actual study, a preliminary study was conducted with another group of Chinese students at the same university to obtain information on the frequency of grammatical errors that students made in their writing and grammar tests. Then the researcher selected the most frequent errors and classified them into six groups[2] as the focus of the grammatical instruction for both classes in the research. They were: connectives, third person singular verb"-s", plural nouns, prepositions, non-infinite verbs (that is English morphemes of "–ing" and "–ed") and counterfactual conditional[3].

2. Development of tasks and materials

In the study, reconstruction activities were selected as the output task for the experiment. This type of activity is basically meaning-based communicative activity. The reconstruction procedure used in the study was known as a "propositional cluster" task (Rutherford, 1987). In this, students were presented with content words and instructed to reconstruct the text by inserting appropriate function words, linking words, inflectional morphemes, and/or changing word order to produce an accurate, meaningful, and appropriate text. The detailed procedure included: 1) Content words in English were presented with a topic to each student; 2) Students worked on the task collaboratively, in pairs or small groups, producing one complete Chinese version in oral form per group; 3) Each student reconstructed a version of the text from the content words based on the discussed Chinese version; 4) The completed version was then used in subsequent class work: Students were told to compare their version firstly with others and then with the original text; 5)The various versions were analysed and compared and learners refined their own texts in the light of the shared scrutiny and discussion. The efficacy of the output reconstruction activity has been researched in previous studies (e.g., Izumi, 2002).

The texts used in the reconstruction activity were carefully selected and different ones were used for different grammar rules. In each text, the focused grammar structures were operationised in a short, coherent 80-word passage. Each week one text was used, which focused on one linguistic feature and every two weeks the linguistic focus was changed, unnoticed by students.

In class tests, students were required to write a 120-word long passage based on a given title. The title in each test differed each time to avoid that students would recite the composition after the pre-test. However, all essay titles were of the same genre (respectively titled as "My View on Children's Heavy Bags", "My View on Making Friends" and "My View on Examinations"), which required the students to express views on a certain issue.

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[2] The researcher identified and grouped the grammatical rules on the basis of the grammar book prevalently used in China, such as 《薄冰高级英语语法》(Bo Bing Advanced English Grammar), 《实用英语语法 》(*Practical English Grammar*).
[3] Or "subjunctive mood" in some grammar books in China.

D. Scoring and Data Analysis

In scoring the short essay, all errors were marked as minus points first based on their frequency of occurrence. All of these errors were classified into various categories as erroneous / absence of nouns, verbs, and others (see TABLE 6 for details, the highlighted columns being the target rules). The participants in each group were requested to write about 120 words for each text, however, some wrote more than 200 words while some only reached 70 words. Thus it was hard to say whether student A who committed 11 errors in his 240-word text performed worse than student B who only made 5 errors in a 70-word text. Considering greater accuracy, we recalculated the errors of each text based on 120-words rather than its actual word count. For the sake of data processing, these minus marks were recalculated against a full mark of 30. Take the student A as an example. His errors were recalculated and scored as -5.5 and his essay mark was scored as 24.5 in the end. In order to enhance the objectivity and reliability of the data, two experienced teachers worked separately to score all essays.

In order to examine the within-in group progress over time, paired T-tests were used while one-way ANOVA was processed to explore the between-group significance of differences in details.

IV. RESULT

The scores of three essays for the IG and the OG are presented in TABLE 3.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE OF TWO GROUPS' ESSAY SCORES

	IG (N=14)		OG (N=14)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Pre-test	18.42	5.56	18.42	4.57
Post-test	17.48	5.38	20.64	4.52
Delayed post-test	19.85	3.85	23.35	2.76

In order to answer the questions addressed earlier, the learners' grammatical performance in essays was compared in details on the basis of: (a) proficiency between groups and (b) proficiency within a group.

A. Between-group Analysis

TABLE 4
BETWEEN-GROUP COMPARISON USING ANOVA

Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed post-test
$F_{(1,26)=}000$, $p=.998$ $Eta^2= .00$	$F_{(1,26)=}2.83$, $p=.104$ $Eta^2= .10$	$F_{(1,26)=}7.62$, $p=.010$ $Eta^2= .23$

In the pre-test, both groups performed very similarly in the two sections ($p>.05$). Therefore the between-group difference after the experimental period was still processed using paired t-test. The results found that the OG, as compared with the IG, achieved significant gains after the experiment and the significance was maintained in the delayed post-test 4 weeks later (TABLE 4) with medium to large effect size (eta^2 = .10 and .23 respectively[4]). Thus, the reconstruction output task adopted in the OG appeared to have functioned more effectively than the input-oriented grammar lessons in spontaneous writing and in addition this level of proficiency had been maintained 4 weeks later.

B. Within-group Analysis

Besides the between-group analysis, analyses were also conducted within each group to examine to what extent the respective tasks had an impact on students' performance of grammatical accuracy. The within-group analysis found that in the spontaneous writing task, the OG group improved significantly over the time while the IG's performance kept very similar across the three tests. This reveals that the output task worked very well in improving students' grammatical performance in writing.

TABLE 5
WITHIN-GROUP RESULTS USING PAIRED T-TEST

	Post- & Pre-test	Delayed Post- & Pre-test
IG	Paired t = -0.85, $p>.05$, Eta^2= .05	Paired t = 0.92, $p>.05$, Eta^2= .06
OG	Paired t = 2.22, $p<.05$, Eta^2= .27	Paired t = 5.34, $p<.05$, Eta^2= .69

In order to understand clearly on what rules this reconstruction tasks have impact, all the mistakes in the essays were carefully scrutinised and categotised (see TABLE 6 for the details). An in-depth analysis was conducted to examine the OG's improvement/maintenance in accurately using different grammar forms.

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[4] Cohen (1988)，eta^2 > .01 means small effect; > .o6 moderate effect; >.14 large effect.

TABLE 6
MISTAKE COUNTS IN THE ESSAYS OF THE OG GROUP

Group	Test	Missing subject	Missing predict	Conjunctives	3rd person sing.-s	Word order	Article	Noun (plural,-s)	Noun (aspect)	Pronoun	Verb.-tense	Verb-passive	Modal v.	Non-finite verbs (-to;-ing &-ed)	Adjective	Adverb	Preposition	others	Total
IG	Pre	7	14	9	5	30	4	13	4	11	4	4	6	16	3	1	24	17	172
	post	7	16	14	6	21	3	18	2	12	7	1	1	25	1	1	28	15	178
	Delayed	6	11	11	14	15	11	13	0	7	17	2	3	8	7	0	21	17	163
OG	Pre	4	7	21	3	17	7	16	9	4	16	5	4	11	8	1	16	14	163
	post	1	8	10	2	13	8	15	0	11	2	1	2	12	2	0	22	13	122
	Delayed	0	12	6	5	10	5	25	1	4	11	0	0	5	1	0	16	13	114

TABLE 7.
THE MOST AND LEAST IMPROVED/MAINTAINED RULES IN THE OG
BASED ON CORRECT PERCENTAGE[1]

	Most Improved/maintained Rules			Least Improved/maintained Rules		
	Conj.	Passive-ed	Adj.[4]	Non-finite verbs	Prep.	Noun (-s).
Pre-test(%)	72	88.59	52.94	96.63	89.61	93.1
Post-test(%)	86.84	97.66	80	96. 12	83.71	84.72
Delayed(%)	94.92	96	80	95.42	90.94	93.37
Gains 1[2] (%)	14.84	9.07	27.06	-0.51	-5.9	-8.38
Gains 2[3] (%)	22.92	7.41	27.06	-1.21	1.33	0.27

1. Correct percentage = correct frequency of the form / frequency of occurrence this form in articles *100%
2. Gains 1= correct percentage of post-test – correct percentage of pre-test
3. Gains 2 = correct percentage of delayed post-test –correct percentage of pre-test
4. In the adjective part, it only refers to the comparative and superlative use of adjectives.

TABLE 7 gives a summary of correct percentage of rules in each section across the tests in the output group with target rules highlighted. The rules that were most and least effectively improved in essay were identified based on the percentage gains across the tests. Among the most improved rules, we found that the rule carrying meaning such as conjunctives between clauses and the ones having semantic equivalence in Chinese such as the passive "-ed" of the verbs and the comparative and superlative adjective were consistently improved or maintained by the subjects. Conversely, less meaningful morphology such as non-finite verbs, plural noun "-s" and third person singular verb "-s" and the local errors in preposition are the least effectively corrected or maintained. Interestingly, the passive "-ed" and correct use of comparative or superlative adjectives were not the focus of treatment, but both emerged as the most effective rules.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings obtained from the data in terms of the questions addressed in the study can be summarized as follows: 1) Compared to input-oriented instruction, the output task conducted in the output group played a significant role in promoting Chinese students' grammatical accuracy in natural writings. The delayed post-test 4 weeks later showed a durable effect of such tasks in maintaining that improvement. 2) The output activities had divergent effects on learning different rules. The rules carrying meaning themselves such as conjunctives, the ones having semantic equivalence in Chinese (e.g., passive verb-ed; comparative and superlative "-er" and "-est") were more easily acquired and/or maintained by the students. On the other hand, less meaningful morphology to the learners such as non-finite verbs, number of nouns and local errors such as prepositions, were the most difficult rules for the Chinese learners.

Among the six target rules (i.e., connectives, third person singular verb"-s", plural nouns, prepositions, non-infinite verbs and counterfactual conditional), only conjunctives was among the most improved rules while infinite verbs, plural noun "-s" and preposition were the least. Even though the third person singular "-s" did not appear as one of the least effective rules[5] in OG group, the mistake count of this rule increased in the delayed post-test. It is interesting to see that there was no any mistake in counterfactual conditionals in students' essays. After a careful reading of all essays, we found that no counterfactual conditional was used, which means that these students may have not understood or may have avoided using the form. An alternatively explanation is that these topics don't necessitate the use of this form.

In the study, the morphological salience is of great importance (Skehan, 1996) in learning grammatical rules. The grammatical rules in the form of lexis (i.e., conjunctives or the comparative "more" or superlative "most") in and of itself are much noticeable, which is the prerequisite to acquisition (Schmidt, 1990). In contrast, other rules suffixing a word (i.e., plural noun "-s", third person singular "-s") are not very salient in morphology for these learners to notice especially when writing systems between L2 English and their L1 Chinese are entirely dissimilar. However we suppose what matters in the process of conducting reconstruction tasks might be semantic awareness through explicit negotia-

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[5] This might be attributed to the low frequency of the use of the rule in the essays.

tion of meaning. The students in OG, in the context of "making meaning" (Swain, 1998) of words, were mainly focused on the negotiation of meaning; however they may also be exposed to "grammaticised" lexis (Rutherford, 1987). The reconstruction task may have enabled the students to explore the relationship between the form of the "grammaticised" words (e.g. conjunctives, passive voice "-ed" or comparative "-er" or superlative "-es") and their functional use. During the process, they might have had to process the meaning of passive "-ed" or comparative "-er" in order to achieve a meaningful text. Namely completing the reconstruction task meant processing the target forms and the meaning of these forms. As compared to those rules (e.g., non-finite verbs and third person singular "-s") which don't have any semantic equivalence in Chinese, these rules convey much meaning to the Chinese learners because there are semantic and functional counterparts in Chinese. Namely, it is the semantic and functional rather than morphological equivalence that is the key format for learners to acquire and internalise the grammatical forms.

In contrast, in the input-oriented situation, the teacher did attempt to draw the students' attention to the target forms by asking them to focus on the target rules and also through their elaborations of the target rules. However, these external agents did not work very helpfully as hoped. On one hand, despite the teachers' attempts to emphasize these forms and attract the learners' attention, not all students followed the teachers. In this case, the students did not necessarily notice the rule, nor did they learn it (Schmidt 1990). On the other hand, even for the students who followed the teachers carefully, these externally-imposed explanations could not guarantee the learner, who is the real agent of the learning process, was fully cognitively engaged in the teachers' elaborations. For one thing, learners may sometimes fake their comprehension knowledge and pass themselves off as having understood (Izumi, 2003). For another, the teacher's explanations were not necessarily based on where the learners were in the learning process (Pienmann, 1989). This supports the view that this input-oriented instruction often does not work, particularly when acquisition is measured in relation to spontaneous activity because target rules are provided in a way that prevents the normal process of acquisition from operating smoothly.

VI. Conclusions and Recommendations

The study, in an attempt to explore the extent to which the output has impact on Chinese EFL grammatical accuracy in natural writing task suggests that a better understanding of the role of the output task in instructional techniques will contribute to the development of learners' IL and their communicative accuracy. The findings of this study have implications for the field of EFL and L2 teaching. When designing a L2 task, the most important thing is to optimize every opportunity to fully get the learners cognitively involved in the learning process. The research findings that the output task is not equally effective in linguistic forms indicates that an essential component of a successful pedagogy lies in a careful examination of both the object and the agent of learning that is, the target language and the learners.

However, the results obtained from the study are tentative --- open to challenge and verification because the study suffers from certain limitations. For instance, the number of students was very limited; the assessment of grammatical errors in writing had an element of subjectivity; and the designed grammar tests may have emphasized some factors more than others. The study therefore suggests a few possible directions for future research. More research is clearly desirable into how such tasks can be adapted to take account of individual differences, particularly with more qualitative and descriptive data. Measurement is a very important factor to be considered in assessing L2 attainment (e.g., Ellis, R., 2005). Future research thus needs to explore the extent to which output attempts might affect other controlled and spontaneous situations.

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AVT in Italy: Successes and Failures

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Abstract—**Today audiovisual translation (AVT) occupies an important place in our lives. In a country like Italy, where all foreign films are dubbed, an analysis of how AVT does justice to original films has become compelling. Audiovisual translations can in fact be very challenging, as AVT professionals act not only as language translators, but also as cultural mediators. In this paper, the pitfalls of AVT will be brought to the fore, together with successful instances. Translation patterns will hence be highlighted, together with some possible reasons for adaptations, modifications and unfaithful renderings. Conclusions will be drawn, on the basis of the gathered evidence. In particular, what will emerge is that most of the times the greatest impediments to a faithful rendering may lie in cramped budgets, time constraints, cultural adaptations, adherence to fixed translation norms and technicalities. A final call for change in AVT will be urged, mainly focussing on the importance of raising the audience's awareness and on not reducing AVT to a mere "business as usual" matter.**

Index Terms—**AVT, audiovisual translation, dubbing, Italian dubbing, Anglo-American films**

I. INTRODUCTION

Film translation is also defined as screen, multimedia, or audiovisual translation (AVT). Dubbing, in the strict sense, is the act of applying re-voicing techniques to cover the original utterances and match the lip movement. In other words, the spoken source is entirely covered by a target-language voice and the words are adjusted to match the lip movement of the original utterances (Dries, 1995). In this way, thanks to dubbing, an original film enters a different socio-cultural context. This is what occurred at the dawn of the film industry in Italy. In the 1930s dubbed films helped the Italian population, still almost illiterate and far from speaking a national language, approach and understand Italian after the unification (Di Fortunato & Paolinelli, 2010). Although this might seem rather easy to accomplish, translating films is in fact a painstaking activity, conditioned by the functional needs of the receiving culture (Delabastita, 1990).

In light of the above, this paper will explore how the Italian translators have tackled the constraints arising from the technical aspects of film dubbing and from the hallmarks of the target language and culture. Language is known to be conflated with culture (Friedrich, 1989). Therefore, adaptations to the target culture are very likely to occur. In addition, translators generally resort to fixed translation patterns, not only because of lip movements, but also in order to comply with translation norms (Pavesi and Malinverno, 2000). In fact, language alterations, either wanted or unwanted, flattening and enhancing may occur in order to conform to translation routines (Pavesi, 2005). Such adaptations may also take place in multilingual films (De Bonis, 2015), which are films where multilingualism is opted for as a way to represent naturalistic situations.

It is bearing in mind this wide array of possible manipulations, that this paper will try to explore whether films dubbed into Italian are faithful to the original films or not. According to the literature, faithfulness in audiovisual translation revolves around the capability of keeping or modifying the words uttered in the original film (Marchelli, 2000, p. 56). In particular, Gubern (2001, p.83-89) highlights that unfaithfulness is mainly due to four factors: censorship, self-censorship, incompetence of the audiovisual translator and adaptation. In case unfaithful renderings are found in the course of this analysis, I will try to shed light on some possible reasons. To this aim, Anglo-American and multilingual films will be analysed in order to explore the quality of the Italian AVT.

II. ANALYSIS

As stated above, the intent of this paper is to shed light on the linguistic choices made in the Italian audiovisual translations of Anglo-American and multilingual films. In order to do so, the following aspects will be analysed: the ways in which the co-existence of another language (in this case: Italian) is tackled in film dubbing; the ways in which vernacular English is provided for (if it is); the ways in which humour is addressed; and also some other relevant patterns in the Italian AVT which may come to the fore. Several films will thus be considered and analysed, ranging from old films, to the most recent ones. In this way, a full perspective of the Italian approach to AVT will be dealt with.

A. Multilingual Films

As outlined above, multilingualism represents how, in real life, two characters coming from two different countries would probably interact with each other by using their native languages. If one analyses the ways in which the co-existence of another language (in this case: Italian) is tackled in Anglo-American films, s/he would notice a standard stylistic pattern. In particular, in a number of instances, the audiovisual translators resort to regionalism, such as Sicilian

most of the times. These are the cases of films such as "The Goonies" (1985), "Inglorious Basterds" (2009) and it is also the case of an episode in "Family Guy" ("McStroke", season 6, episode 8, 2008). In all these instances, the characters who speak Italian in the original film, speak Sicilian (or a Sicilian-like language) in the dubbed version. A Sicilian variety of Italian is spoken by the Fratellis, a family of criminals, in "The Goonies" (1985) and by Lieutenant Aldo with his comrades, in "Inglorious Basterds" (2009). Very interesting is also the case of an episode in "Family Guy", where Peter, the head of the Griffin family, enters a butcher's pretending to speak Italian. Whereas he only utters an Italian-like singsong, this is changed into straightforward Sicilian in the dubbed version. Quite inexplicably, where original films resort to Sicilian in order to show the origins of some characters, in the dubbed versions the characters speak a sort of lessened Sicilian dialect, characterized by a fading accent and Italianized expressions. In "The Godfather I" (1972) and "The Godfather II" (1974), Sicilian is in fact replaced only by accented Sicilian words. Ironically, the parts where characters speak Sicilian are dubbed into Italian to obtain a more understandable, Sicilian-like Italian. This is what Di Fortunato and Paolinelli (2010, p.126) refer to as flattening due to language banalization for the business purposes of the film industry.

In some other films, Italian is replaced by Spanish, such as in "A Fish Called Wanda" (1988), where Otto, a Latin lover, seduces Wanda by uttering Spanish words. Some other times, Italian is replaced by French, such as in "Live and Let Die" (1973), where James Bond plays his usual part of an acculturated and refined man, by speaking French to his lover.

So far, dubbing has resembled to flattening and homogenization, at the expense of preserving the language peculiarities of the original characters. In the next section, other interesting instances will be brought to the fore, in order to explore whether the same has occurred in other contexts.

B.   Vernacular English

Before pinning down the various translation choices of vernacular English, it is necessary to give a definition of vernacular English itself. As claimed by Wardhaugh, there are different "linguistic situations" concerning "certain social class differences in the use of language in England" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p.336). In particular:

It is widely believed that you can be advantaged or disadvantaged not just socially or esthetically [*sic*], but also cognitively, i.e., intellectually, by the accident of which language or variety of a language you happen to speak. (Wardhaugh, 2006, p.336)

From this perspective, vernacular English can be defined as a language variety, which is spoken by a particular group of people living in a given area and in certain social conditions. Such a language and social peculiarity can be traced back to "My Fair Lady" (1964), where Eliza speaks a particular variety of English (i.e., Cockney), which is aimed to depict her as a poor, but honest flower girl. In Italian, great efforts are made to convey the same message of simplicity and excellent results are found in fiction prose. In practice, Eliza speaks a mixture of Neapolitan, Apulian (both dialects from southern Italy) and Ciociarian (a dialect spoken in an area which includes the provinces of Rome, Latina and northern Frosinone, all in the Lazio region, in the centre of Italy). Table 1 reports an excerpt:

TABLE 1
Context: Eliza, a flower girl, is trying to sell flowers on the street.

English	Italian dubbing
Eliza: Cheer up cap'n; baw ya flahr orf a pore gel (=Cheer up captain; buy a flower off a poor girl)	Eliza: A commendato', compre du' fiore a 'na povera raghezz Translation [O commander, buy two flowers off a poor girl]

An additional linguistic challenge of this film is the famous phrase "The rain in Spain stays mainly in the plain", which Professor Higgins teaches Eliza in order to improve her pronunciation of some critical diphthongs. In Italian, this challenge is overcome by resorting to a critical vowel for Apulian speakers, which is the *a sound* (pronounced almost as *eə*). The result is the outstanding "La rana in Spagna gracida in campagna" (Table 2)

TABLE 2
Context: Eliza is trying hard to learn to speak as a lady and to lose her Cockney accent (critical vowels are underlined)

The rain in Spain stays mainly in the plain	La rana in Spagna gracida in campagna Translation: [The frog in Spain croaks in the countryside]

Another challenge of this film comes to the fore when Professor Higgins teaches Eliza how to pronounce the *h* sound in some words, such as those in the following phrase: "in Hartford, Hereford and Hampshire hurricanes hardly ever happen". In the Italian language there is no aspirated *h*; therefore, it would make no sense for her to learn how to pronounce such words. However, the challenge is brilliantly overcome by resorting to learning the pronunciation of some English words with an aspirated *h*, in order to take a breath and strengthen Eliza's diaphragm (Table 3):

TABLE 3
Context: Professor Higgins is teaching Eliza how to pronounce words starting with *h* and he is showing a phonetics device with a flame:

Now, you see that flame. Every time you pronounce the letter H correctly the flame will waver, and every time you drop your H the flame will remain stationary. That's how you'll know if you've done it correctly.	Vedi questa fiamma? Io pronuncerò alcune parole inglesi con l'H aspirata e la fiamma, oscillerà. Se invece non farò l'aspirazione, la fiamma resterà immobile. Cos ìsi impara a prendere fiato e ad esercitare il diaframma. Translation: [Do you see this flame? I will pronounce some English words with an aspirated H and the flame will waver. If I do not aspirate, the flame will remain stationary. So you'll learn to take a breath and strengthen your diaphragm.]

Other not so fortunate instances can be found in "From Hell" (2001), where Cockney-speaking prostitutes are dubbed in perfect Italian. The same flattening can be found in "Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone" (2001) (Table 4):

TABLE 4
Context: The school of magic is over and Harry Potter, a young wizard, is saying goodbye to Hagrid, the game keeper he grew attached to. This scene occurs at the end of the film, at the train station (elliptical language is underlined):

Hagrid: Thought you were leaving without saying goodbye, did you?... (….) Harry: But Hagrid, we're not allowed to do magic away from Hogwarts, you know that Hagrid: I do but your cousin don't, do he?	Hagrid: Pensavi di andartene senza salutare, eh? (…) Harry: Ma Hagrid, non ci èpermesso di fare magie lontano da Hogwarts, lo sai bene Hagrid: io s ì ma tuo cugino no, giusto? Translation: [Hagrid: You thought you were leaving without saying goodbye, uh? (…) Harry: But Hagrid, we're not allowed to do magic away from Hogwarts, you know that Hagrid: I do, but your cousin doesn't, right?]

In the excerpt above, it is self-evident that elliptical language is neglected. This is an issue which has long been noted in Italy, as in Italian there is no national slang (Calvino, 1965, translated by Federici, 2009):

The more one goes into spoken language, into the popular, especially for those languages which have a dimension of slang, the more Italian stays behind, because at a popular level it goes immediately into regionalism and dialect. (Federici, 2009, p.247)

Other instances which do not do justice to the intent of the original film, can be found in "Gone with the Wind" (1939). "Gone with the Wind" is a film which was dubbed twice for socio-cultural reasons: the first time in 1949 and the second time in 1977. In particular, in the following excerpt Belle, a prostitute, speaks ungrammatical English, whereas in both dubbed versions she speaks a flawless Italian (Table 5):

TABLE 5
Context: Belle, a prostitute is looking for Melanie, a good-hearted woman, to donate some money for the hospital:

Original	1949 dubbing	1977 dubbing
Belle: My name's Belle Watling, but that <u>don't</u> matter. I expect you think I've got no business here Melanie: Hadn't you best tell me what you want to see me about? Belle: First time I come here I <u>says</u> "Belle you're a nurse", but the ladies didn't want my kind of nursing. Well they <u>was</u> more than likely right , then I tried giving them money, but my money wasn't good enough for them either..pff.. old peahens! I know a gentleman who says you're a human being if you are, which they <u>ain't</u>, you'll take my money for the hospital.	Belle: Sono Bella Watling, ma questo non conta. Pensate forse che questo non sia posto per me! Melanie: Non fareste meglio a dirmi che cosa volete? Belle: La prima volta che venni qui dissi "curerò i feriti", ma le signore non m'hanno voluto, bhe forse non avevano torto. Poi ho offerto il mio denaro, ma da me neanche quello han voluto vecchie streghe. Un amico mi ha detto che voi avete buon cuore, se è vero quello che mi ha detto, prendete i miei soldi per l'ospedale Translation: [Belle: I'm Bella Watling, but this does not count. You're maybe thinking that this is no place for me! Melanie: Wouldn't you rather tell me what you want? Belle: The first time I came here, I said "I will cure the injured", but the ladies didn't want me. Well, maybe they weren't wrong. Then I offered my money, but they didn't even want it. Old witches! A friend told me you are good-hearted. If it's true that he said, take my money for the hospital.]	Belle: Mi chiamo Bella Watling, ma importa poco. Immagino che lei pensi che non dovrei essere qui. Melanie: Non potrebbe dirmi per cosa voleva vedermi? Belle: La prima volta che sono venuta ho detto "Bella sei un'infermiera!" però le signore non me l'hanno permesso certo avevano più che ragione. Allora ho offerto un po' di soldi, ma i miei soldi non li hanno voluti accettare che arpie! Io conosco un signore che m'ha detto che lei è un essere umano. Se lei lo è quelli non lo sono, accetterà il mio regalo per l'ospedale! Translation: [Belle: My name's Bella Watling, but it's little important. I guess you think I shouldn't be here. Melanie: Couldn't you tell me what you wanted to say? Belle: The first time I came, I said "Bella, you're a nurse", but the ladies did not allow me. Sure, they were more than right. Then I offered some of my money, but they didn't want to accept my money! What harpies! I know a gentleman, who told me that you are a human being. If you are, which they aren't, you'll take my money for the hospital.]

This is a case of language manipulation. Belle's broken English has the intent to accentuate her character and social background. By using a levelling strategy, instead, such an intent is lost (Zanotti, 2012, p.75).

The film "Gone with the Wind" also encompasses other language peculiarities which revolve around African American vernacular English. Wardhaugh (2006) describes African American vernacular English (formerly "black English" or "Afro-American vernacular English") as a variety of English with patterns which "have tended to separate the population of the United States along color lines" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p.342). This is particularly relevant in a film such as "Gone with the Wind", which, as stated above, was dubbed twice in Italian for reasons of political correctness. In the first dubbing all African American characters speak with a contrived African accent, as all verbs are uttered in the infinitive forms, *t* sounds like *d*, and *s* like *z*. This was the pattern chosen in 1949 to convey the speech peculiarities of the people. It was obviously fictional, but it was a way to preserve their identity (Martini, 2014, p.28). However, this was considered politically incorrect and rejected in the second dubbing. Therefore, their linguistic peculiarities and their fictional accent are lost in the second dubbing. As a result, the black characters also lose their identity and are deprived of their social context. As claimed in the literature, racial stereotyping have a specific intent in films (Zanotti, 2012, p.75). Furthermore, as Halliday *et al.* (2003, p.35) claim: "language is at the same time a part of reality, a shaper of reality and a metaphor for reality", which underpins how language is embedded in a given social context.

To some extent, the same can be said for "Pulp Fiction" (1994), where, despite keeping the obscene language as literally translated as possible, care has not been taken to provide for Marcellus's broken, colloquial English and grammar mistakes (Table 6).

TABLE 6
Context: Marcellus is an African American drug dealer. He has been raped by Zack, a policeman, but rescued by Butch, a boxer, who had previously betrayed him. Now Marcellus is telling Butch that they are even. Broken and colloquial language is underlined:

Yeah, we cool. Two things: don't tell nobody about this. This shit is between me, you, and Mr. Soon-To-Be-Living-The-Rest-Of-His-Short-Ass-Life-In-Agonizing-Pain rapist here. It ain't nobody else's business. Two, you leave town tonight, right now, and when you gone, you stay gone or you'll be gone. You lost all your L.A. Privileges. Deal?	Pace, allora. Due cose: uno, non raccontare questa storia. Questa cosa resta fra me, te e il merdoso che presto vivrà il resto della sua stronza breve vita fra agonie e tormenti, il violentatore, qui. Non riguarda nessun altro questo affare. Due: lascia la città stasera, all'istante, e una volta fuori, resta fuori, o ti faccio fuori: a Los Angeles hai perso i tuoi privilegi. Translation [Peace, then. Two things: first, do not tell anybody about this story. This is between me, you and the shitty rapist here, who will soon live the rest of his filthy short life in agony and torment. This thing does not concern anyone else. Second: leave town tonight, right now, and once you're out, you stay out, or I'll kill you: you lost your privileges in Los Angeles.]

A part from the foul language, which, to some extent, has been kept unvaried in the Italian version, all instances of broken English and colloquialisms have been levelled. This has occurred at the cost of a faithful rendering of the

character and of his socio-cultural context.

C.   Humour

In the previous paragraph, some not very successful instances of AVT have been examined. Fortunately, the same cannot be said as far as humour is concerned. An exemplary case is "Young Frankenstein" (1974), where the humorous intent is preserved throughout the film and very little is "lost in translation", despite the linguistic challenges. For instance, the most challenging issue, which is brilliantly tackled, is the famous Freddy and Inga's "werewolf" conversation (Table 7):

TABLE 7

Context: Igor, Dr. Frankenstein's servant, is taking Inga, his assistant, and him to the castle where they will stay. Suddenly, they hear wolves' howling:

Inga: Werewolf. Dr.F: Werewolf? Igor: There. Dr.F: What? Igor: There wolf.... There castle.	Inga: Lupo ulu-là Dr.F: Lupo ulu-là? Igor: Là! Dr.F: Cosa? Igor: Lupu ululà e castellu ululì Translation: [Inga: The wolf is howl-in' Freddy: Wolf howl-in'? Igor: In! Dr.F: What? Igor: Wolf howl-IN, castle howl-OUT!]

In order to highlight the remarkable translation choices of the Italian AVT, the same excerpt will now be analysed in the German and Spanish films. In particular, the German AVT does not present the same challenges with reference to the word "Werwolf". Therefore, it uses almost the same pun as the English version (as "wer" in German means "who"). On the contrary, the Spanish version is confronted with the same challenge as the Italian, but this is not successfully overcome (Table 8):

TABLE 8

German	Spanish
Inga: Werwolf! Dr.F: Wer ist der Wolf? Igor: Daa Dr.F:Da? Igor: Da Wolf, dorthin Schloss Translation: [Inga: Werewolf! Dr.F: Who is the wolf? Igor: Heeere Dr.F: Here? Igor: Here wolf, there castle]	Inga: Hombreslobo! Dr.F: Hombreslobo? Igor: Allì Dr.F: Què? Igor: Allì hombreslobo, allì castillo! Translation [Inga: Werewolves! Dr.F: Werewolves? Igor: Here Dr.F: What? Igor: Here werewolves, there castle]

Another interesting instance is "Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows, Part I" (2010) (Table 9):

TABLE 9

Context: Ron is Harry Potter's best friend. Ron has got two twin brothers: George and Fred. George is lying on the couch with a bleeding ear after being hit.

Fred: How you feeling, Georgie? George: Saint-like F: Come again? G: Saint-like. I'm holy. .. [pointing at his ear] I'm holey Fred. Get it?	Fred: Come ti senti, Georgie? George: Romano F: Come hai detto? G: Romano, come il foro*. Come il foro Fred, capito? [*foro=hole; forum] Translation: [Fred: How are you feeling, Georgie? George: Roman F: What did you say? G: Roman, like the forum. Like the forum, Fred. Got it?]

It is self-evident that when puns and jokes are at stake, the Italian AVT has proven to be successful, despite any linguistic diversity. Some other good examples can be found in "Wallace & Gromit and the Curse of the Ware-Rabbit" (2005); "Pulp Fiction" (1994) and "Robots" (2005) (Tables 10-12). Puns or jokes are underlined:

TABLE 10: WALLACE & GROMIT
Context: Gromit is Wallace's dog and business partner. In an attempt to save Wallace, Gromit is seized and put in a cage by Lord Victor Quartermaine, Wallace's rival in love.

Lord Victor Q: Your loyalty is... moving. Sadly, you won't be.	LVQ: La tua lealtà va dritta al cuore.. tu invece non ti muovi da qui. Translation: [Your loyalty goes straight to the heart.. you instead won't go anywhere]

TABLE 11: PULP FICTION
Context: Vincent, Marcellus's goon, has just brought Mia (Marcellus's wife) back home, after she almost died of an overdose. They are saying goodnight and Mia is telling a joke:

Mia: Three tomatoes are walking down the street; Poppa tomato, Momma tomato, and Baby tomato. Baby tomato starts lagging behind and Poppa tomato gets really angry, goes back and squishes him...and says, catch up...	Mia: Tre pomodori camminano per la strada; papà pomodoro, mamma pomodoro e il pomodorino. Il pomodorino cammina con aria svagata e il papà si arrabbia e va da lui, lo schiaccia e dice "fai il concentrato" Translation: [Three tomatoes are walking down the street; papa tomato, mama tomato and little tomato. Little tomato is walking absent-mindedly so papa tomato gets angry and walks towards him, he squashes him and says "be concentrated"]

TABLE 12: ROBOTS
Context: Rodney, an aspiring inventor, is meeting Aunt Fanny, a large robot with   a big backside and he is astonished by her dimensions:

Aunt Fanny: And what's your name? Rodney: I'm Rodney Bigbottom.. No! I mean, I'm Rodney Copperbottom! Copperbottom.	Aunt Fanny: E come ti chiami? Rodney: Rodney Chiappebottom. No! Copperbottom. Copperbottom. Translation: [AF: And what's your name? R: Rodney Buttcheekbottom. No! Copperbottom. Copperbottom.]

It is self-evident that as far as jokes and puns are concerned, the Italian audiovisual translators have found brilliant ways to meet the challenges arising from linguistic diversities. Another quite historical instance of conveying humour in the Italian AVT, can be found in Oliver Hardy and Stan Laurel's films (1921-1951). The Oliver Hardy and Stan Laurel case is an example of mirroring the original language of the film, if not enhancing the humour strategies. The dubbed characters speak with an English-like accent, which leads to remarkable changes not only in the pronunciation, but also in the stress of the Italian words. Consequently, the characters are funnier as additional humour is brought in (De Rosa *et al.*, 2014).

An exception to the apparent capacity of Italian translators to render humour and jokes, can be traced in the following excerpt from "Full Metal Jacket" (1987), where the Italian rendering of the American idiom is almost lost, whereas the French adaptation, for example, is closer to the mark (Table 13):

TABLE 13
Context: Private joker is meeting another soldier and he is making jokes. This is the other soldier's remark:

Original version	Italian	French
You talk the talk, do you walk the walk?	Tu sai chiacchierare, ma le palle ce l'hai? Translation: [You can talk, but have you got balls / the nuts?]	Pour causer tu causes, et pour oser tu oses? Translation: [You can talk, but can you dare?]

It is clear that the phrase the soldier utters is taken from the idiom "To walk the talk", which means to behave consistently with what one claims. The French translation is faithful because it translates the idiom and it keeps the rhyme. In the Italian translation, instead, there is no rhyme and the utterance borders on indecency. This is a case of linguistic manipulation, where vulgarity is added.

Debatable are also some of the linguistic choices in "Guys and Dolls" (1955), as Table 14 reveals.

TABLE 14

Nathan: Get on your feet, Big Jule. I now have dough to roll you again. But this time with real dice.	Nathan: Tirati su boia Giulio, ci ho la lattuga per giocare, ma con dadi per bene, ora. Translation: [Stand up lousy Giulio, I've got the lettuce to play, but now with honest / respectable dice.]

As it is clear, there are words which are non-existent in current Italian, such as "lettuce" to mean "money". Nonetheless, it cannot go unnoticed that the original language used in the film was innovative *per se*. It was in fact a landmark in the film industry, formerly characterized by a more sumptuous register (Del Moro, 2000).

D.   Lost in Translation

Finally, there are some AVT instances which represent a certain deviation from the original versions. They are

notable examples of "lost in translation"; wanted or unwanted omissions; significant changes made in the name of the target culture or of the audience's perception of the film characters. The reasons for such mistakes are sometimes claimed to be due to a cost-benefit analysis, where the urge of containing costs clearly prevails over quality (Di Fortunato & Paolinelli, 2010, p.126). Other times, unfaithful renderings are the result of a mere adaptation to the audience's presumed perspective or tastes. As a consequence, the original film "becomes the raw material that is to be re-inscribed into the different cultural contexts" (Ascheid, 1997, p.40). Some obvious examples are "Ocean's Eleven" (2001), where Rusty (Brad Pitt) has to keep his *macho* role in the eye of the Italian audience and says "I banged her for a while", instead of the original "I dated her for a while" (Table 15):

TABLE 15
Context: Rusty and Danny are two professional robbers and are planning a robbery in a casino vault:

Rusty: Munitions. Danny : Phil Turentine. Rusty : Dead. Danny : No shit? On the job? Rusty : Sun cancer Danny : You send flowers? Rusty : <u>Dated</u> his wife a while.	Rusty: Munizioni Danny: Phil Turentine Rusty: Morto Danny: Dici davvero? Rusty: Cancro della pelle Danny: Hai mandato dei fiori? Rusty: Mi sono fatto la moglie per un po' Translation: [R: Munitions D: Phil Turentine R: Dead D: Really? R: Skin cancer D: Did you send some flowers? R: I <u>banged</u> his wife for a while]

Another example is "Harry Potter and the Half-blood Prince" (2009), where Harry's probable slip of the tongue becomes a real lack of style in the Italian version (Table 16):

TABLE 16
Context: Harry and Hermione, his friend, are talking about a coming party. Harry needs to decide who to go with:

Harry: But I am the Chosen One. [Hermione smacks him on his head with a newspaper] Harry: Okay, sorry. Um, kidding. I'll ask someone I like. Someone <u>cool</u>. [In the following scene, Luna, a rather odd school wizard whose "coolness" is debatable, is waiting for Harry with a fancy party dress on]	Harry: Ma io sono sono il prescelto.. va bene, scusa, scherzavo... Inviterò una che mi piace.. Una fica. Translation: [Harry: But I'm the chosen one.. all right.. sorry, I was kidding... I'll invite someone I like... Someone <u>hot</u>]

Whereas in the original version the intent was probably to make Harry's last words: "someone cool" funnier, in the Italian version his utterance is unexpected and clashes with his whole character and personality. Another example of "lost in translation", although minor, can be found in another Harry Potter film ("Harry Potter and the Order of the Phoenix", 2007), where Luna, a wizard and friend, utters "I hope there's pudding", thinking of dinner. This phrase is dubbed literally "*spero ci sia il budino*", without thinking that "pudding" in British English means "dessert". In fact, in a following scene of the film several types of dessert are served at the dinner table.

In the film "Supersize Me" (2004), a vegan cook is introduced as vegetarian. This probably happened because the Italian audience was presumed not to be ready for veganism in 2004 (Table 17):

TABLE 17
Context: Alex is a vegan chef and is being interviewed about his boyfriend's choice not to eat but burgers for a month:

Alex:... I think this is gonna affect our relationship! Interviewer: you are a <u>vegan</u> chef Alex: yes, I am a <u>vegan</u> chef	Alex:.. E questo avrà effetti devastanti sul nostro rapporto! I: Sei una cuoca vegetariana. A: Sì una cuoca vegetariana Translation: [A: And this will have devastating effects on our relationship! I: You are a <u>vegetarian</u> cook A: Yes, a <u>vegetarian</u> cook]

In this instance, not only was the dubbing changed from "vegan" to "vegetarian", but also the video inscriptions, which introduced Alex as "A healthy chef: Morgan's girlfriend and vegetarian cook" instead of the original "Healthy chef Alex: Morgan's girlfriend & Vegan chef".

"Slumdog Millionaire" (2008) is another example, where adherence to what was currently politically in *vogue* was preferred, although it brutally clashed with the logic of the film (Arcangeli, 2010, p.34-35) (Table 18):

TABLE 18
Context: India. Two Muslim brothers are playing outside, when Hindu fundamentalists arrive and kill the people around.

A male voice in the background*: They're Muslim; get them! [*from the Hindu, referring to the two brothers]	A female voice in the background*: Aiuto! Sono mussulmani! Scappiamo! [*from the running crowd, referring to the fundamentalists] Translation: [Help! They're Muslims! Run!]

In the film, it is clear that the two brothers are Muslims; therefore it makes no sense to make a woman from the running crowd cry out that Muslims are attacking them.

Another example can be found in "The Punisher" (2004), where the "ice Florentine" (a type of dessert) is dubbed *fiorentina ghiacciata*, i.e. an "ice T-bone steak" (Table 19).

TABLE 19
Context: Bumpo has invited his neighbours for dinner. Dinner is almost over and Bumpo is offering dessert

Bumpo: There's dessert. Ice Florentine. You have to try my Ice Florentine. Come on, Dave.	B: Ah, c'è il dessert, la fiorentina ghiacciata. Devi provare la mia fiorentina ghiacciata, andiamo Dave. Translation: [There's dessert, ice T-bone steak. You must try my ice T-bone steak. Come on Dave.]

One might argue whether this translation choice was made because of lip movements (Pavesi and Malinverno, 2000). Nonetheless, it would be rather debatable. This may have in fact occurred for a variety of reasons, such as the lack of time or money to carefully translate. A particular case of adjustment to lip movements can instead be found in "Charlie and the Chocolate Factory" (2005), where a stuttering "You must be boy's... p-p-parents" is replaced by *Voi dovete essere i suoi...p-p-parenti* ("You must be his r-r-elatives"). Here it is clear that the mistake is due to lip movement synchronization as "parents" is "genitori" in Italian.

Some examples of careless translations can also be found in "The Mentalist" TV series (season 3, episode 12, 2011), where the word "soda" (a non-alcoholic fizzy drink) is also used in Italian, neglecting the fact that in Italian "soda" strictly refers to a compound of sodium, as Table 20 clearly reveals:

TABLE 20

English	Meaning in Italian: Italian Dictionary 1	Italian Dictionary2
Soda	1.sodium carbonate 2.sparkling water added with sodium carbonate	1.sodium carbonate 2.sparkling water similar to *selz* with more sodium carbonate

This case, in linguistics, would be described as a hyperforeignism: a foreign-like word "which, parallel to a (wo)man without a country, is a form without a language" (Janda *et al.*,1994, p.71). A hyperforeignism is hence a form deprived of its original meaning (in this case, the form in question is the word "soda"). In AVT, this would be instead an instance of "dubbese", which will be addressed in a later section of this paper.

Film excerpt:

TABLE 21

Patrick: I like the packaging. What flavour is that? Girl: Probably orange cream soda, right Esther?	Patrick: Mi piace la confezione. A che gusto è quella? Girl: Credo sia la soda alla crema d'arancia, vero Esther? Translation: [P: I like the packaging. Which flavour is that one? G: I think it's orange custard soda *[sodium carbonate]*, right Esther?]

The false friend *crema* ("custard") has also been used. An explanation for these shortcomings is provided by Di Fortunato and Paolinelli (2010, p.123), who say that TV series generally suffer from time constraints, which make revisions and fine-tuning almost impossible.

In some other cases, the Italian audiovisual translators mirror the grammar mistakes of the original language, albeit on reduced terms. This is the case, for instance, of "The Lord of the Ring" ("The return of the King", 2003), where Gollum's speech unorthodoxy is limited to a double consonant in the word *tesoro* ("treasure") (Table 22):

TABLE 22
Context: Gollum is a creature who found and wore an evil, powerful ring for a long time. He is now taking Frodo and Sam (two hobbit friends) to destroy it, although he is not willing to:

Gollum: You thieves! You thieves… You filthy little thieves! Where is it? Where is it? They stole it from us. My Precious. Curse them! We hate<u>s</u> them! It's ours it is… And we want<u>s</u> it!	Gollum: I ladri. I ladri. Quegli sporchi piccoli ladri. Dov'è? Dov'è? Ce l'hanno tolto, rubato. Il mio <u>tessoro</u>. Maledetti! Noi li odiamo! È nostro. E lo vogliamo. Translation: [Thieves. Thieves. Those filthy little thieves. Where is it? Where is it? They took if from us, they stole it. My <u>treassure</u>. Curse them! We hate them! It's ours. And we want it.]

Another discrepancy in the AVT of "The Lord of the Ring" ("The Return of the King", 2003) is the omission of the literary appeal "What say you?" uttered by king Aragorn to the king of the dead (Table 23):

TABLE 23
Context: King Aragorn is looking for soldiers. He is asking the king of the dead to raise an army and fight for him.

Aragorn: I am Isildur's heir. Fight for me and I will hold your oaths fulfilled! <u>What say you</u>?	Aragorn: Io sono l'erede di Isildur. Combattete per me, e io riterrò rispettato il vostro giuramento. Cosa rispondete? Translation: [I am Isildur's heir. Fight form me, and I will hold your oath fulfilled. What will you answer?]

Unfortunately, this is not an isolated case, as the same occurs also in "Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows, Part I" (2010) where Lord Voldemort (a wicked dead wizard) utters "What say you, Pius?", plainly dubbed *Pius, che ne pensi?* ("Pius, what do you think?"). On the one hand, the syntactic structure used in such a question can be considered infrequent in spoken language (it pertains to the literary world). On the other hand, it would be rather unusual for an Italian audiovisual translator not to retrieve a corresponding literary reference in the Italian language! Therefore, one might wonder why such a learned reference is omitted in the dubbed version. Ironically, the same cannot be claimed as far as the film "Trash" (1970) is concerned. In the dubbed version of the film, an erudite-like quotation replaces some prosaic nonsense uttered in the original language: (Table 24):

TABLE 24
Context: Joe, a drug addict, has encountered a girl on the street and has invited her home. Now they are chatting while he is injecting some drug:

The girl: I have a girlfriend, she's really insane. She has a boyfriend and she has a lover and she's married. It's terrible. It's unbelievable, she went all the way to Detroit just to see another one of her lovers. She tells me that she's God. It was unbelievable, because she said that she was in love with Rhett and she was in love with George...	Lo hai mai conosciuto tu? Lo sai che è stato in India? E appena arrivato si è fatto pisciare in bocca da una vacca sacra, come fanno gli indiani. È un rito sacro di purificazione che ti svuota del male. <<Voglio sapere che cosa accade quando sono marcito, perché sto già marcendo, mi cadono i capelli, mi è venuta la pancia, sono stufo del sesso; il mio cazzo si trascina nell'universo che conosco troppo.>> Translation:[speaking about a wise man] [The girl: Have you ever met him? Did you know that he was in India? And as soon as he got there, he had a sacred cow pissing in his mouth, as all Indians do. It's a purification sacred rite, which will empty you of all evil. <<I want to know what happens when I'm rotten, because I'm already rotting, my hair is falling, I put on a paunch, I'm fed up with sex; I'm dragging my dick in a universe I'm too much acquainted with.>>]

As it can be noticed, the dubbed version is completely different from the original. What comes here to the fore, is the debated question of where the translator's loyalty lies (Mason, 1992, p.24). One might ask whether such a presumed erudite quotation (if erudite might it be called) does justice to the film and, most of all, to such a character, who is instead rather dull.

E. Miscellaneous

In this last section other shortcomings of AVT will be addressed. In particular, the following topics will be addressed: compliance with fixed translation norms; examples of "dubbese", an hybrid language which is the result of translation work (Pavesi, 2005), and calques (Bocchiola, 2010).

As far as adherence to fixed translation norms is concerned, it should be reminded that "translators adhere to them more often than not. They may not like this (…) but they recognise their power" (Simeoni, 1998, p.6). In addition, audiovisual translators have long lamented their difficult work conditions, mostly affected by time and budget constraints, as well as a fierce battle about translation fees (Di Fortunato & Paolinelli, 2010). A sort of oligopoly has practically been established in the AVT world, where only few professionals dictate norms or maintain the existing ones (Pavesi, 2005, p.61). All these factors, have sometimes resulted in poor quality of translation work.

As far as calques are concerned, one typical example mentioned in the literature (Bocchiola, 2010) is the phrase "I don't know what you're talking about" which is often literally translated *Non so di che cosa stai parlando.* In Italian, a

simple *Ma che dici?* ("What do you say?") or *Non so di che parli* ("I don't know what you say", i.e., using a simple present) would suffice. This type of instances can be found in the film "The Mortal Instruments: City of Bones" (2013) and also in the 1970s film "Diff'rent Strokes"; for example, where Arnold, an African-American boy, keeps saying "Watcha talkin' about, Willis?" to his elder brother Willis. That phrase is invariably dubbed as *Che cavolo stai dicendo, Willis?* ("What the cabbage are you saying, Willis?"), where "cabbage" is an Italian euphemism of "dick".

Unfortunately, following translation routines may sometimes give rise not only to calques (Bocchiola, 2010), but also to "dubbese", which can be defined as a fixed formula far from spontaneous language (Pavesi, 2005). Some examples can be found in "Vanilla Sky" (2001), where David, who has just found out that he has been living in a dream, cries out "Tech Support!" to call for his dream builders and wake him up. In Italian, the words *Supporto tecnologico* ("Technological support") are uttered, whereas a more common *assistenza tecnica* ("technical assistance") should be used.

All the instances discussed in this paper illustrate the fact that a film rendering is not an easy process, as it is the result of a delicate balance between adaptation and faithfulness. Furthermore, the boundaries between fiction and adherence to reality, most of the times, are not clearly defined. Therefore, there is room for manipulation in the name of cultural adaptations, fixed equivalents and technicalities (such as lip movement).

III. FUTURE SCENARIOS

Taking the above issues into consideration, one might propose to resort to subtitles, in order to overcome the shortcomings in dubbing. However, subtitling may not be the right path to choose for many reasons. First of all, because "abusive subtitling" (Nornes, 1999) could occur when "the abusive subtitler may seek to produce polyvalencies and knots of signification that may not coincide precisely with the problem in the source text" (*ibid.*, p.30). This, as illustrated above, can also happen in dubbing. Secondly, because the film audience may not be able to acknowledge the various languages in multilingual films (Cronin, 2009). Thirdly, because prosody and some relevant features of oral discourse, such as false starts, hesitations, repetitions, and so on, would not be represented in subtitling (De Bonis, 2015, p.64). The only way out of a poor and disloyal AVT, could hence be found in a change of perspective. Given that films are dubbed in order to meet the audience's needs, there is a call for raising the audience's awareness about the importance of not reducing dubbing (and subtitling) to a mere matter of budgeting. Some Italian AVT masterpieces have been analysed in this paper and resourceful solutions have been noted. These are all instances which clearly demonstrate that a faithful, elaborated AVT which does justice to the original film is possible. It would be then ideal that such AVT schemes and logic could be maintained and applied to all films.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In light of the above, some final considerations will now be drawn. It is commonly agreed that the task undertaken by an audiovisual translator is a very difficult one, with the AVT translator being not only a linguistic translator, but also a cross-cultural mediator (Bassnet, 2011). Apart from some scattered successful examples which this paper has provided, AVT is clearly characterized by flaws, ranging from misrepresentations and careless renderings, to real "losses in translation". Such shortcomings may occur at the level of individual lexical choices (Mason, 1992, p.28) and may be due to a wide variety of reasons, encompassing restricted budgets, adherence to fixed equivalents, cultural adaptations and difficulties in the linguistic aspects of the target language. Resorting to subtitles in order to prevent such shortcomings may not always be the right solution. To paraphrase Nornes (1999, p.17), it seems in fact that both admiring and "wanting to kill the translator" is something everybody has ever felt at least once, when exiting a cinema. The highly debated question on where the translator's loyalty lies (or ends), still remains at stake (Mason, 1992, p.24). In this respect, this paper has explored several paths and analysed different patterns to reach the conclusion that in AVT, most of the times today, loyalty probably lies more in the supposed expectations of the audience, than in the linguistic faithfulness or in the intent of the original film. A call for change is hence needed, and one can only hope that the final decision will not depend on "business as usual". Awareness should hence be raised in order to resist film banalization (Di Fortunato & Paolinelli, 2010) and audiovisual translators should be encouraged to carry out their work undisturbed.

APPENDIX

Film list
A Fish Called Wanda, 1988, John Cleese, Charles Crichton
Charlie and the Chocolate Factory, 2005, Tim Burton
Diff'rent Strokes, 1978-1985, Herbert Kenwith, Gerren Keith
Family Guy, 1999-present day, Seth Mac Farlane
From Hell, 2001, Albert Hughes, Allen Hughes
Full Metal Jacket, 1987, Stanley Kubrick
Gone with the Wind, 1939, Victor Fleming
Guys and Dolls, 1955, Joseph L. Mankiewicz
Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows, Part I, 2010, David Yates

Harry Potter and the Half-blood Prince, 2009, David Yates
Harry Potter and the Order of the Phoenix, 2007, David Yates
Harry Potter and the Phylosopher's Stone, 2001, Chris Columbus
Inglorious Basterds, 2009, Quentin Tarantino, Eli Roth
Live and Let Die, 1973, Guy Hamilton
My Fair Lady, 1964, George Cukor
Ocean's Eleven, 2001, Steven Soderbergh
Robots, 2005, Chris Wedge, Carlos Saldanha
Shining, 1980, Stanley Kubrick
Slumdog Millionaire, 2008, Danny Boyle
Supersize Me, 2004, Morgan Spurlock
The Godfather I, 1972, Francis Ford Coppola
The Godfather II, 1974, Francis Ford Coppola
The Goonies, 1985, Richard Donner
The Lord of the Ring, the Return of the King, 2003, Peter Jackson
The Mentalist, 2008-2015, Bruno Heller
The Mortal Instruments: City of Bones, 2013, Harald Zwart
The Punisher, 2004, Jonathan Hensleigh
Trash, 1970, Paul Morrissey
Vanilla Sky, 2001, Cameron Crowe
Wallace & Gromit and the Curse of the Ware-rabbit, 2005, Nick Park, Steve Box
Young Frankenstein, 1974, Mel Brooks
Dictionaries
1.Dizionario Garzanti di Italiano 2006
2.Dizionario Lo Zingarelli 2016

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The Effect of Various Strategies of Learning on Writing Skill of Scientific Work

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Abstract—The purpose of this research was to find the effect of various strategies of learning towards writing skill of scientific work. The study was conducted on students of Indonesian Language and Literature Faculty of Language and Literature, State University of Makassar. The type of research was experimental research. The population of the study was all students of the Department of Language and Literature Indonesia who were programmed course Scientific Writing academic year 2012/2013 which had 102 students. The number of students was distributed into three classes namely Class A total of 32 students, 34 students of class B, 36 students of class C. the Samples of the research were 36 students consisting of 18 students from class A as the first experimental class and 18 students of grade B as the second experimental class. The technique of data collection was an instrument. The instrument was a test description that was making papers. The data analysis technique was an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Before the data from this study was analyzed statistically, the data was tested by the requirements that included the test of normality and homogeneity test population. The result of the research showed that the samples of students who learned the techniques of cooperative used strategies Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) got higher score significantly than the samples who learned by expository strategy toward the skills to write scientific papers.

Index Terms—strategy of cooperative learning, Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), strategy of expository learning and scientific work

I. INTRODUCTION

Cooperative Learning Strategies

The students' activeness in the learning process will create conducive learning and meaningful atmosphere in the classroom. Through cooperative learning, students will be given an adequate opportunity to collaborate with fellow students in completing structured tasks. Besides that, each student becomes a source of learning for the others. Lie in Wena (2011, p. 189) says that through the cooperative learning, the learning process will be more meaningful because students can teach each other.

Cooperative Learning Strategies is one of the learning strategies that consciously create student interaction with teachers and students with the student in the classroom in a harmony. So, learning resources for students not only teachers and textbooks but also among friends. According to Lee, Wena (2011) cooperative learning is a learning system that provides opportunities for students to collaborate with fellow students in structured tasks, and in this system the teacher acts as a facilitator. Thus, the learning center depends on the active learners (student-centered). Learners in this strategy have to discuss a topic that is predetermined. The topics that they discussed together tend to provide a broad understanding and last longer than when discussing the same topics with other strategies. It happens because they are sharing their knowledge and experience.

They convey the idea confidently and bravely so that the result is informative. Furthermore, cooperative learning can be explained that a system of learning by engaging students in a conscious interaction mutual giving and receiving of mind among students. Because the essence of cooperative learning refers to cooperation in a group, students of school or students of the university are not only responsible for their self, but also for other students in learning activities. On the other hands, cooperation in the learning process will help the success of a student (school or college) with other students. Based on some opinion, it can be concluded that cooperative learning is the learning activities which trying to exploit the potential of the student (school or college) as a learning resource, besides teachers and other learning resources.

Cooperative learning has some basic elements that are interrelated. Wena (2011, p. 190) suggests some elements that are fundamental provisions in cooperative learning, such as 1) positive interdependence, 2) face to face interaction, 3) individual accountability, and 4) use of collaborative/social skill. Further, Sanjaya (2010, p. 248) states that cooperative learning procedures in principle include four stages, 1) explanation of the matter, 2) learning in groups, 3) assessment and, 4) confession of the team.

Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)

CIRC stands for Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition which including a cooperative learning technique that is originally an integrated collaborative teaching in reading, writing, and language arts. According to Slavin (2010, p. 200) CIRC is a broad and comprehensive program and whole teaching of reading and writing for higher classes in primary school. However, its application has now been expanded mainly on aspects of writing including writing scientific papers.

The primary objective of the program developers CIRC towards writing skill of scientific paper is utilizing the presence of a friend of one class and cooperative teams to design, implement, and evaluate writing activities that take place in the classroom. The program is created out of the fact that the teaching of writing has not run smoothly. Learning activity is still dominated by the teachers, so they become the center of learning in writing activity. In contrast to the cooperative learning activities CIRC technique, Cooperation and response from members of the learner or group of their friends are the implementation character of the CIRC technique in teaching writing. In CIRC program learners are together to plan, to revise, and to edit their essays in close collaboration with teammates although the involvement of a group of their friends in the filling process is not so necessary.

The main activities in the CIRC technique for writing scientific papers involving a range of specific activities are:

1. The first activity is team formation and distribution of reading a text. One feature of the implementation of this strategy is the formation of a team or group consultation. This team consists of three or four or five students and heterogeneous. Thus, the team members come from students who have a high mastery of diction, students who have a weak mastery of diction, and students who have a middle mastery of diction.

2. The second activity is any students who scattered in some teams are given sheets of readings which are being discussed in the class with exercise sheet and a guide book how to do the exercise.

3. The third activity is discussion. This activity aims to gather information and ideas from fellow team members. This activity is carried out by exchanging information and ideas that they get from previous reading. Each member of the team presents information and ideas to teammates. Other team members listen and provide feedback.

4. The fourth activity is doing the task and exercise. This activity is the main activity as well as a benchmark for understanding and achievement of the objectives of the material. Tasks and exercise reflect the objective of material from affective, cognitive, and psychomotor. Each student does the tasks and exercise independently.

5. Feedback (correction). Each student can correct the result of their friends among members of a team. This activity is filled with correcting friends' work in one team.

6. Revision. Each student gives the correction results in the form of a note that still need to be improved and an indication of the mistake from their peers in a team and returns it to their respective owners. The next activity is each student correct their errors based on the note from their friends. Each mistake will be corrected correctly.

7. Reflection, documentation, and follow-up. At this stage, the students do the presentation in their team. Each team member is given the opportunity to present their revision.

Expository Learning Strategies

At the beginning of the learning activities, the role of the teachers should be more active. Teachers deliver learning material based on students' need. Teachers explain, ask, and give an example, guiding students to do tasks, and so on. That activity is in accordance with the implementation of the old paradigm in education. The old paradigm is the teacher in the learning process provides knowledge to students passively. They teach with lectures strategy, a transcription material in both dictate and write on the board and expect the students to sit, silent, listen, record and memorize (Lie in Wena, 2011). Another variation of the implementation of the old paradigm in the learning process are the teachers give assignments and training to students individually without adequate explanation. As a result, the learning outcomes achieved less than the maximum and created circumstances that individuals. That learning condition still dominates the learning process at most levels of education. This condition is even seen in the college.

Writing Scientific Works

The following description shows of the proposed boundaries of scientific work papers prepared by the scientific principles, based on data and facts (observations, experiments, the study of literature), the preparation uses scientific writing method and has a systematic scientific work. Based on the description, Wardarita cite from Sudjiman and Sugono states that the scientific work is drafting a paper based on scientific studies, the preparation is preceded by a research library or field research (Wardanita 2007, p. 7). Based on these opinions, it can be argued that the scientific work means that a person produces papers by following the scientific principles or scientific study. The compilation based on data and facts obtained through research library or field research. Thus, scientific papers present the results of observations, experiments, or research literature conveyed through written language. Language scientific papers should be clear, denotative, straightforward, and communicative so that the reader easily understands the contents.

Concerning the content of scientific papers, the author should give serious attention and adequate in the major of the matter presented the scientific work. According to Sudjiman and Sugono (in Wardanita, 2007, p. 7) description of part of the contents should be able to give guidance to the reader in understanding each step and the overall discussion. Thus, some of the contents must be able to demonstrate the clarity and completeness of description, writing method, analysis, and the accuracy of the conclusions of the material covered.

Furthermore, the scientific work using standard language or the language of science. Scientific language has the characteristics of scholarly and dynamic stability. Intellectualization is embodied in sentences, paragraphs, and other units of language larger expressing reasoning or thinking more orderly, logical, and sensible. Dynamic stability characteristics are represented in the form of rules and regulations that fixed, it cannot be changed or modified at any time, but is flexible enough to allow changes systematically. Moreover, in scientific language there is no interference from the local language or a foreign language, especially interference vocabulary and syntax interference.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

Population and Sample Research

The population in this study was all students of the Department of Language and Literature Indonesia who programmed course Scientific Writing academic year (2012/2013). Data section of academic majors Indonesian Language and Literature showed that students who programmed course Scientific Writing academic year 2012/2013 amounted to 102.

Multistage random cluster sampling determined the research sample. After through several stages, obtained a sample of 36 students. The sample number consisted of 18 students coming from class A that used cooperative strategy CIRC technique as experimental class one and 18 students were from class B that used expository strategy as an experimental class two. Students who were not included in the study sample both class A and class B kept being involved in this activity.

Research Instruments

1. Scientific Writing Skills Instruments

An instrument that used in this study was in the form of a written test that was developed based on the conceptual definition, operational, implementation scenarios lectures, and the course syllabus.

2. Mastery Diction instruments

Mastery of diction Instrument was developed based on the conceptual and operational definitions. This instrument was written test multiple choice objective form (multiple choice) with a total amount of about 34 items.

Data collection technique

Data collection techniques of this research were an instrument. The instrument that was prepared was in the form of a test description. Thus, to obtain information about the skills of writing scientific papers, describing the test was used with instruction how to write scientific papers, in this case, the paper in accordance with the existing provisions. This test was done at the end of the meeting to obtain the value of the skills to write scientific papers after being given treatment. The time that was needed to prepare for papers was 5 x 50 min.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical techniques were used to obtain a description of the data generally, and the technique of analysis of variance (ANOVA) at a significance level of = 0:05 was used to analyze the data.

Before the research data was analyzed statistically, the requirements test that included tests of normality and homogeneity test population was done first. Normality test was done by using Lilliefors test while the homogeneity test performed using Bartlett test (Bartlett test) with a confidence level = 0:05.

Validity and Reliability Test

For the instrument test of the scientific paper writing skills, validity was not tested empirically, but based on criteria and general validity test conducted rationally. Furthermore, to see the reliability of the test writing skills scientific work, it was done by calculating inter-rater suitability consisting of two assessors, the faculty partners Scientific Writing courses and conducted by researchers themselves. The implementation steps were: The first, compiled a set of instruments (tests) skills to write scientific papers based on the definition of a conceptual, operational, course syllabus and lecture applicable implementation scenarios. Second, the guidelines were drawn up an assessment of these tests. Third, the test instrument was tested on 30 students of the fourth semester were also programmed course Scientific Writing, which includes members of the population outside the sample of students Prodi Indonesian Language and Literature class C.

By using the current assessment, the two assessors gave the correction of the work of 30 students test. The results of the assessment of two assessors or inter-rater (interrater) included in the high category, the average score, was 75.11. Thus, the reliability coefficient was high. These results indicated that the instruments and standard scoring guidelines could be used to assess the skills to write scientific papers.

Research Questions

Is there any difference between the skills of writing scientific work group of students who learned by cooperative learning strategies CIRC techniques with the students who learned by expository teaching strategy?

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Questions

Is there any difference between the skill of writing scientific work group of students who learned from cooperative learning strategies and CIRC techniques with the students who learned by expository teaching strategy without taking into account the mastery of diction?

Data description writing skill of scientific work of students that learned the techniques of cooperative strategies CIRC (A1) had a score range of 24-100, n was 18, maximum score = 83, and the minimum score was = 74. Furthermore, Data Description Scientific Writing Skills Students who learned by Expository Strategy A2. The data of the skill in writing scientific work of students that learned with expository strategy had a score range 24-100, n was 18, maximum score was 81, and minimum score was 74.

Statistically, this research hypothesis was:

Ho: μA1 = μA2

Hi : μA1 > μA2

μA1: The average score of student skills to write scientific papers that learned the techniques of cooperative learning strategies CIRC.

μA2: The average score of student skills to write scientific papers that learned with expository teaching strategy.

Data normality test was conducted on the skills of writing scientific work of students that learned the strategy of cooperative learning techniques and strategies expository CIRC. The data normality test was a data of writing skills of scientific work of students that learned with cooperative strategies CIRC techniques and data writing skills scientific work of students that learned with expository strategy.

Test of normality of the data was conducted using Liliefors test at significance level (α) = 0.05 as has been stated in the methodology section. Testing criteria were Ho will be accepted if LO less than Lt for all groups, as shown in table 1 below:

TABLE 1:
NORMALITY TEST DATA TEST SAMPLES WITH LILIEFORS (A1, A2

Sample Group	Total Sample	Lo	Lt	Conclusion
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Cooperative Strategy	18	0,1570	0,2	normal
CIRC (A1)				
Expository Strategy (A 2)	18	0,1764	0,2	normal

Description:

Lo: calculated value

Lt: table value

A1: Sample groups of students that learned with cooperative strategies CIRC technique.

A2: The sample group of students that learned with expository strategy.

Normality testing criteria were implemented if L0 was smaller than L table, and then H0 was accepted at significance level α = 0.05. Therefore, we could conclude that the data of the skills to write scientific papers for all groups of student samples were normal.

Variance homogeneity test

In this study has been conducted homogeneity of variance test scores writing skills of scientific work among students that learned by cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique with students that learned with expository teaching strategy. Testing homogeneity of variance in the two treatment groups (A1 and A2) was carried out by calculating Fratio, by dividing the variance A1 to A2 variance of the two groups of data, then compare with Ftable at the chosen significance level. Based on the testing homogeneity of F arithmetic <F table that was 2 <2.2719, Then H0 was accepted at significance level α = 0.05. It could be concluded that the data writing skills scores of scientific papers on the students that learned by cooperative learning strategies CIRC and expository technique was homogeneous.

Hypothesis testing

There were difference skills of writing scientific papers among students that learned by cooperative learning strategies CIRC techniques and that learned with expository learning strategy. Scientific paper writing skills of students that learned with cooperative strategies CIRC technique was better than the students that learned with expository teaching strategy.

Statistically, this research hypothesis was:

Ho: μA1 = μA2

Hi : μA1 > μA2

μA1: The average score of student skills to write scientific papers that learned the techniques of cooperative learning strategies CIRC.

μA2: The average score of student skills to write scientific papers that learned with expository teaching strategy.

The hypothesis testing in this study was examined the effect of main strategy and interaction effects of the independent variables towards the dependent variable. The independent variables in question were the learning strategy

and mastery of diction while the dependent variable was the skills to write scientific papers. The main treatment of this study was the influence of cooperative learning strategies CIRC techniques and strategies expository towards writing skills for scientific work. Score calculation of ANOVA showed that the group of students that learned the techniques of cooperative learning strategies CIRC (A1) had an average score of 78.67 while groups of students that learned expository strategy (A2) had an average score of 77.33. Furthermore, ANOVA showed that scores of scientific papers writing skills of students that learned the techniques of cooperative strategies CIRC was higher than the score of the skill of writing scientific work of students that learned with expository strategy.

Scores statistical calculations showed that F count = 7.8904> F table = 4, 1491 in significance level α = 0.05. It means that Ho was rejected, and H1 was accepted. Thus, it could be concluded that there was a very significant difference between students that learned with CIRC cooperative strategies and techniques and the students that learned with an expository strategy towards the skills to write scientific papers.

Further testing using Tukey test obtained the value of T Calculate > the table T 3.9725> 2.9011, at significance level α = 0.05. It showed that the writing skills of students that learned scientific work with cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique got a higher score (better) than the students that learned with expository strategy. It could be concluded that cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique was much better to use in writing scientific papers in the learning process.

The results of this study demonstrate that cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique has advantages in the implementation of learning to write scientific papers. It is consistent with the primary objective of the program developers of CIRC towards learning that utilizes the presence of friends of the classroom and cooperative teams to gain maximum write. This activity can be realized in the form of designing, implementing, and evaluating the process of writing that takes place in the classroom. Thus, cooperative learning activities CIRC technique focusses on cooperation and response from members of students or friends of the group to achieve a common goal. So, it can be said that the cooperation and response from members of the learner or group are the implementation characteristic of the CIRC in learning writing techniques, including learning to write scientific papers.

Based on the explanation before that the central feature of the implementation of the CIRC technique in teaching writing is the cooperation between friends of the group. However, the involvement of a group of friends, especially at this stage of the writing is not very tight. It is caused by the activities of this stage is the performance of the individual. The main activity at the writing stage is to develop the outline through paragraphs into an article. A paper produced in this stage is the writing that is still shaped opaque. Furthermore, the involvement of a group of friends after writing stage taking place is to revise and to edit together, even to the stage of published writings. All activities are conducted in close collaboration with a group of friends or a team.

Relate to the reason above Slavin (2010, p. 200) explained that the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) is a comprehensive program designed to teach instructional materials in reading, writing, and language arts in the higher grade. Collaboration activities in the CIRC mean cooperating peer group activities of planning, revising, and editing posts, even on publishing writing. With the engagement between friends in the activities of pre-writing, writing, revising, and editing, writing skills of students' scientific works can be further increased.

The Cooperation activity among friends that built a cooperative group in planning the CIRC technique of writing scientific papers can be seen from activities like setting the writing topics, formulating titles, formulating the goal of writing, and formulating a framework text together. Furthermore, the cooperation of the group that can be built in revising and editing the article can be tangible like a thorough recap of the logic, systematic presentation, spelling, punctuation, word choice, sentence structure, paragraph, and so on. By Manuscript editing activities, it can make the manuscript really ready to be printed, published or publicized.

The Cooperation among members of the group in planning, revising, and editing writing scientific papers makes the writing results better. It could happen due to greetings among friends or between students with teachers, between students and lecturers that needed in this learning process. When the writing process takes place, the author is often not aware of any errors, flaws, or errors in writing, and then friends, readers, teachers or lecturers shows it. Correcting and giving input about the writing each other have a big role in it. The findings of this study illustrate that the group of students that learned by cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique is better than the group students that learned with expository strategy in terms of enhancing the skills to write scientific papers. It proves that the cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique more appropriate to the learning skills of writing scientific papers. With the results of such research, it can be a outstanding guide for lecturers to implement cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique on learning to write scientific papers.

As previously explained the implementation of cooperative learning strategies, CIRC technique on learning to write scientific papers is to give an opportunity to the students to each other to revise, to edit posts both among members of the group and between groups. Those activities are accordance with the teaching of writing, in general, whereabouts. Writing learning requires interaction from another side, especially the reader. Interaction with others may intangibles correction, editing or editing and even publishing. All the papers that have been through such a process make them much better in quality. In other words, the group of students that learned using cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique in writing scientific papers can produce higher quality paper. In addition, writing scientific papers that

produced by students who learned used cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique gets higher score significantly than the score of students that learned expository teaching strategy.

IV. CONCLUSION

The results of this research hypothesis testing proves that the skills of writing scientific work of students that learned through cooperative strategies CIRC technique is better when compared with the group of students that learned through expository strategy. The findings of this study are the first, the result of skill to write scientific work of students is determined by the application of learning strategies used by lecturers. The second, learning the skill of writing scientific papers which applying appropriate learning strategies learning shows better result significantly. The conclusion that can be taken from these findings is the implementation of cooperative learning strategies CIRC technique can produce higher value in learning outcomes rather than expository strategy towards the skill of students in writing scientific work.

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A Cognitive Linguistics Approach to Chinese Classifier Teaching: An Experimental Study

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Abstract—Chinese is commonly recognized as a classifier language with an obligatory classifier for any noun with numeral. Based on the fact that in almost all Chinese textbooks the usage of classifiers is introduced by a set of mechanical rules combining a few isolated examples, most students without classifier language background need to learn by rote memorization. This traditional approach overlooks the polysemous properties of Chinese classifiers that the functions of an individual classifier are normally related to a central sense, and the extension of meanings and functions is usually highly motivated. According to the cognitive linguistics approach (CL approach) to language instruction, presenting students with the central sense as well as the motivation underlying meaning extension facilitates students' initial learning, long-term retention, as well as identification of unfamiliar uses of polysemy. Taking the Chinese classifier 道 *dao* as an example, the present study focuses on the effect of CL approach in the Chinese classifier learning of advanced level Chinese learners with English as their first language. Participants were assigned to two groups and received different instructions. The result shows a statistically significant effect, but the benefit of CL approach lies mainly in the ability to identify uninstructed extended uses.

Index Terms—Chinese classifier, cognitive linguistics, polysemy, experimental method

I. Introduction

Recognized as a classifier language, Mandarin Chinese presents an extensive inventory of 'classifiers' that must be used in combining a numeral with any noun (Jiang, 2012, p. 1).

(1) *san *(ge) ren* 三个人
  three Cl person
  'three persons'
  (Jiang, 2012, p. 2)

There are over 900 classifiers in the language (Zhang, 2007). The most frequently used classifier in Mandarin is 个 *ge*, but many nouns still require special classifiers. Generally, the classifier is determined by the inherent property of the objects and is restricted to a certain type of object (Jiang, 2009, p. 293).

Based on the essential difference between classifier languages and non-classifier languages, Li & Thompson (1981) claimed that 'to a speaker of English, one of the most striking features of the Mandarin noun phrase is the classifier' (p. 104), and 'by and large, which nouns occur with which classifier must be memorized' (p. 112).

Consistent with Li & Thomson's claim, Jiang (2009) investigated Chinese textbooks and found that the usage of classifiers is typically introduced by a set of mechanical rules combining a few isolated examples, such as 条 (*tiao* "branch") is for long things as in *a line* or *a road*, 张 (*zhang* "to stretch") is for flat things, as in *a piece of paper* or *a poster* (p. 307). Therefore, rules concerning the same classifier appear to be arbitrary and unrelated for learners, making rote memorization the only practical way for students to learn Chinese classifiers.

However, it has been repeatedly demonstrated that the functions of individual Chinese classifiers are not as arbitrary as the way they are presented in textbooks. Rather, there is always a semantic relation between a classifier and the associated nouns referenced by the classifier, and the functions of an individual classifier are normally related to a central sense.

Tai & Wang (1990) argued that classifiers in Chinese to a great extent reflect human categorization in Chinese culture.

(2) A classifier categorizes a class of nouns by picking out some salient perceptual properties, either physically or functionally based, which are permanently associated with the entities named by the class of nouns.
(Tai & Wang, 1990)

This claim is in line with the assumption in the framework of cognitive linguistics that language is a reflection of general human cognition and cognitive processes (Lakoff, 1990; Ellis & Robinson, 2008; Boroditsky, 2011; Tyler, 2012, p. 28), and many studies have been carried out along this line to explore the motivations of categorization of Chinese classifiers. For example, Tai & Wang (1990) pointed out in their classic work that 条 (*tiao* "branch") represents some

type of human categorization based on an imputed salient perceptual property of 'extension in length', which actually stems from the original meaning of the character 条 "branch".

In addition, there is normally a certain kind of association between the multiple functions of a classifier. In other words, a semantic network can be captured and individual classifiers can thus be viewed as polysemies in most cases. Cognitive linguistic research on polysemy has suggested that the various meanings of a polysemous item constitute a 'category of senses', which center on a 'prototypical' or 'more representative' sense, from which the others may be derived (Lakoff, 1987, p. 416-419). In support of Lakoff's claim and applied to Chinese classifiers, Jiang (2009) argued that each individual extension of the uses of a classifier has its own historical cognitive basis that can result in a very complicated network structure (p. 294).

Therefore, a conjecture has been ventured that by explaining the meaningful systematicity of the semantic networks of Chinese classifiers, the cognitive linguistics (CL) approach in language teaching potentially lessens Chinese learner's memory load, and thus offers a more teachable and more learnable account of the Chinese classifier system in the second language classroom (Hou, 2006; Jiang, 2009, p. 297-298). However, this conjecture is yet to be supported by empirical evidence. To fill in the gap between theory and practice, the present study focuses on whether the CL approach can facilitate English native speakers' learning of Chinese classifiers, compared to the traditional textbook approach.

II. Vocabulary Teaching and Cognitive Linguistics

In fact, the potential pedagogical implications of a CL approach have already received researchers' attention and are dramatically gaining momentum. Langacker (2008) expressed optimism that language teaching would fare better when guided by notions from cognitive linguistics. He explained, 'compared to other approaches, cognitive linguistics offers an account of language structure that —just from the linguistic standpoint— is arguably more comprehensive, revealing, and descriptively adequate'. Tyler (2012) argues that the CL approach has the potential to provide rich insights into the relatedness of, organization of, and motivation for the core and many "exceptional" uses associated with aspects of lexis and grammar and ultimately, these insights offer language learners a more coherent and explanatory description of the language (p. 18).

Quite a few experiments have been carried out to illustrate the effect of the CL approach to second language learning, especially for English (ESL) and German (GSL). In Huong's (2005) and Verspoor's (2009) studies aiming at instruction of English articles, learners receiving instruction based on the CL approach showed significant gains on an immediate posttest and/or delayed posttest in comparison to learners receiving traditional instruction. In an effect of instruction experiment focusing on English aspect, Niemeier (2008) found that exposing students to the link between English aspect and the notion of boundedness resulted in significant gains in their ability to use the progressive aspect. Boers and Lindstromberg's (2008) edited volume presents numerous recent studies on the applications of the CL approach in learning general vocabulary, idioms and phrasal verbs. As for polysemies and the semantic networks of individual words, Verspoor and Lowie (2003) found that teaching the central meaning of a word first facilitated more accurate interpretation of unfamiliar extended meanings. In their experiment with Dutch-English learners, the cognitive group presented with the core sense of the tested words outperformed the traditional group in both initial learning of meaning extensions and long-term memory of the extended uses. Csábi, S., (2004), Berándi, Csábi & Kövecses (2008) undertook experiments teaching the meanings of *hold* and *keep* to L1 Hungarian learners. The cognitive group that received a teacher's explanation of the polysemy networks and the motivations for the targeted extensions outscored the traditional group in immediate and delayed posttests.

All these experiments provide evidence that systematically alerting students to the central sense and/or the motivation of meaning extension of a polysemy can help promote more appropriate use and long-term retention of L2 lexical items. However, to our knowledge, in the field of Chinese pedagogy, the same type of empirical study is yet to be conducted despite the considerable body of literature theoretically arguing the value of the CL approach in teaching Chinese classifiers (see section 1). Therefore, in accordance with studies in ESL and GSL, the present study aims to fill this gap by testing whether presenting polysemy networks and motivations for extensions can facilitate English speaking learners' initial learning, long-term memory as well as extended use of Chinese classifiers. The hypothesized result is a positive effect of the CL approach exists not only in initial learning and long-term retention, but also in learners' identification of new uses.

III. Method

A. Participants

32 native English speakers were recruited from 300 or 400 level Chinese classes in Institution XX (16 males, 16 females, mean age 27.03)[1]. The reason why we did not include beginning level learners is to guarantee that all participants already had a general idea of classifiers in Chinese and have enough Chinese vocabulary so as not to be

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[1] Participants only reported years of age in the background information survey, so no information of months was provided, the same for the length of Chinese study.

distracted by the nouns in the tests. Participants were randomly assigned to a cognitive group and a traditional group, 16 in each group. There are 9 males and 7 females in the cognitive group, mean age 27.94 (there is one 57-year-old participant), mean years of Chinese study 3.88, and the lengths of exposure in Chinese speaking areas vary from none to 6 years (median 1.5 months). There are 7 males and 9 females in the traditional group, mean age 26.13, mean years of Chinese study 3.97, and the lengths of exposure in Chinese speaking areas range from none to 2 years (median 1 month).

B. Procedures

Each participant completed two sessions. A brief language background survey, together with a pretest was given in the first session, followed by an instructional video of 5 minutes and an immediate posttest. The second session was one week later in which participants were asked to complete a delayed posttest. In the immediate posttest as well as the delayed posttest, half of the test items are instructed and half are unfamiliar new ones. The only difference between the cognitive group and the traditional group is how the instructional videos were organized.

C. Instrumentation

1. The classifier 道 Dao

Since the purpose of the present study is concerned with the acquisition of polysemous Chinese classifiers, a classifier with a relatively complicated polysemy network, ideally across different domains, is needed for the measurement. If the usage of the tested classifier is too simple, the CL approach may not be necessary for learners to grasp its meanings and functions. Nevertheless, complexity of usage alone may not be enough; for practical reasons there are some other factors that we need to take into consideration.

In the first place, generic classifiers need to be avoided. Though Chinese classifiers 个 *ge* and 只 *zhi* historically featured specific categorical prototypes, they have become so productive that basically all animals but human beings can be classified by 只 *zhi* and all other entities can co-occur with 个 *ge*. Students are free to apply them in different situations without much constraint.

Secondly, frequency is also a concern, not only the frequency of the classifier itself, but also the frequency of the nouns categorized by the classifier. In most cases, for classifiers with complicated networks, there are always some unfamiliar nouns involved.

Last but not least, it is better to have a classifier whose extension is not highly predictable on the surface. In literature, many classifiers other than 道 *dao*, like 条 *tiao* and 张 *zhang*, were also claimed to display complicated polysemy networks (Tai & Wang, 1990; Tai, 1994), but essentially almost all nouns referenced by 条 *tiao* can be profiled by a length-extending shape, while 张 *zhang* is for flat-faced objects. The meaning extensions of 条 *tiao* and 张 *zhang* are pretty transparent in this sense, which cannot raise any real challenge for learning. For this reason, the association between different meanings of the tested classifier should not be too obvious. An ideal classifier for this test should have undergone extension in different directions and have functions in multiple semantic domains.

The classifier 道 *dao* is among the few studied classifiers that generally meet all these requirements. Jiang (2004) summarized the polysemy network of this classifier, together with associated nouns in Figure 1.
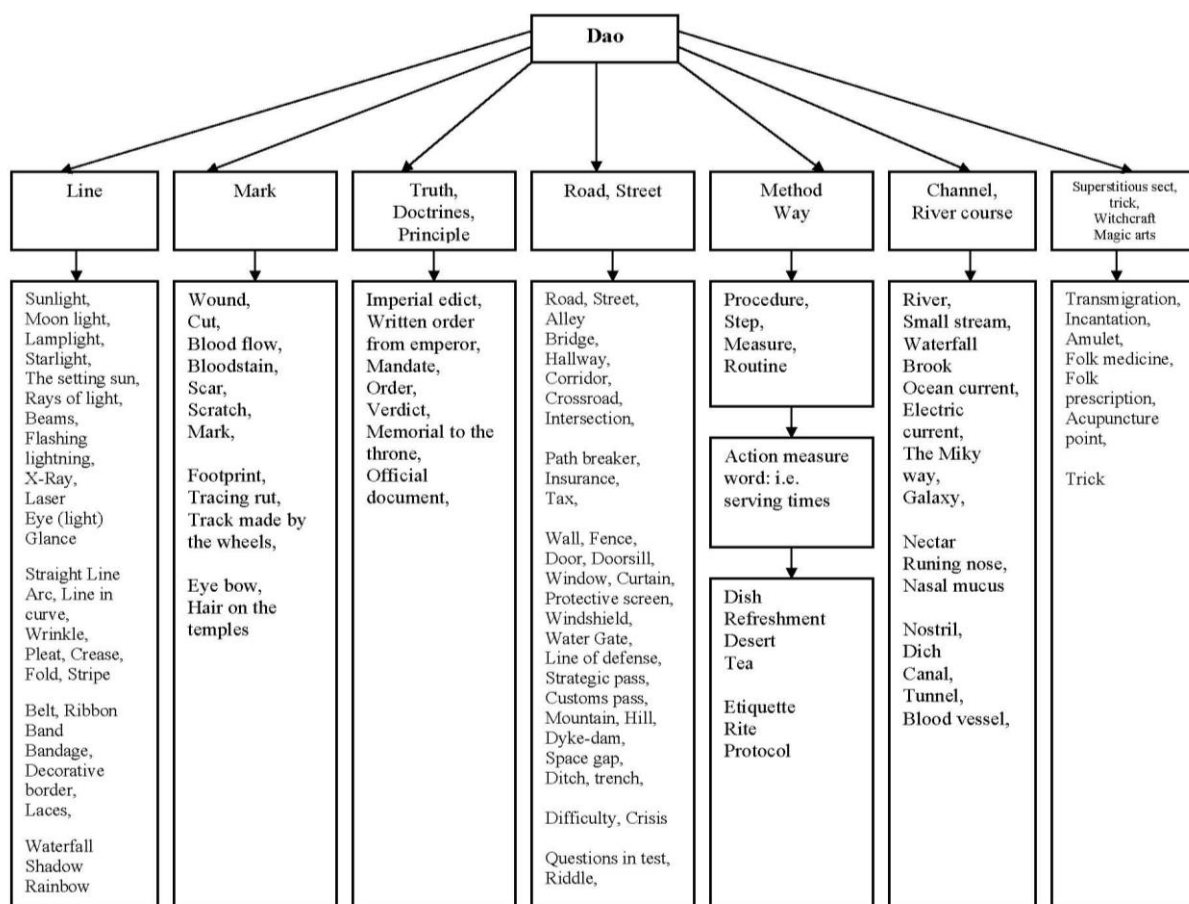
Figure 1. Semantic network of the Chinese classifier 道 *dao*

The classifier use of 道 *dao* is fairly complicated and extends to different domains ranging from tangible objects to geometric figures as well as abstract concepts, which provide us with a rich pool of test items.

2. Instruction materials

Based on the HSK *(Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* 'Chinese Proficiency Test', designed by Hanban) Level 1-6 vocabulary guideline[2], which is widely adopted in teaching Chinese as a second language, as a reference for frequency, the present study narrowed test items down to 24 nouns referenced by the classifier 道 *dao*, listed in Table 1.

TABLE I.
TEST ITEMS

No.	Pinyin	Characters	English Translation	No.	Pinyin	Characters	English Translation
1	yí dào bùzhòu	一道步骤	a step (in a work)	13	yí dào shǎndiàn	一道闪电	a lightning
2	yí dào cǎihóng	一道彩虹	a rainbow	14	yí dào shāngbā	一道伤疤	a blood vessel
3	yí dào cài	一道菜	a course (in a meal)	15	yí dào wéiqiáng	一道围墙	an enclosing wall
4	yí dào chéngxù	一道程序	a procedure	16	yí dào yángguāng	一道阳光	a ray of sunlight
5	yí dào guānqiǎ	一道关卡	a check point	17	yí dào xuèguǎn	一道血管	a blood vessel
6	yí dào hēixiàn	一道黑线	a black line	18	yí dào pùbù	一道瀑布	a waterfall
7	yí dào hénjì	一道痕迹	a mark	19	yí dào ménfèng	一道门缝	a crack between a door and its frame
8	yí dào méimao	一道眉毛	an eyebrow	20	yí dào kǒuzi	一道口子	a cut
9	yí dào míyǔ	一道谜语	a riddle	21	yí dào shǒuxù	一道手续	a formality
10	yí dào mìnglìng	一道命令	an order	22	yí dào chá	一道茶	a tea course
11	yí dào nántí	一道难题	a difficult problem	23	yí dào ménkǎn	一道门槛	a doorsill
12	yí dào shānmài	一道山脉	a range of mountain	24	yí dào nánguān	一道难关	A crisis

For the first 16 of these 24 test items, two instructional videos of 5 minutes were edited using Powerpoint, one for the cognitive group and the other for the traditional group. Both videos contain slides of the test items, combined with pictures and an audio recording as shown in Figure 2, and all slides are played twice. The only difference between the two videos is the way in which slides are organized.

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[2] The designers of HSK claimed the selection of words is based on frequency, the principle of economy and efficiency (Zhang, *et al.* 2000).
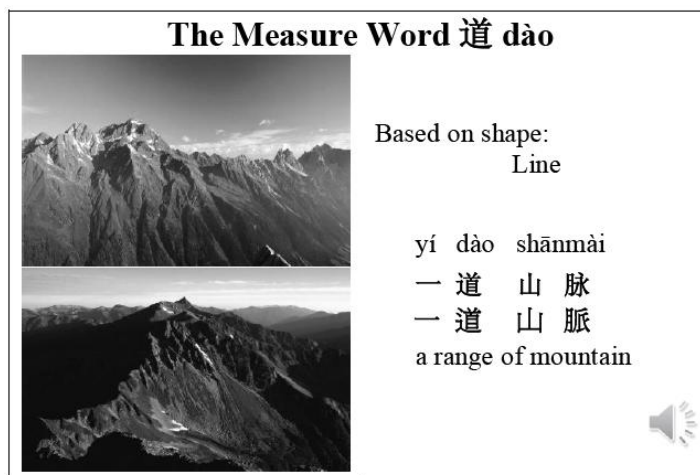
Figure 2: A sample slide of the instructional video

Jiang's simplified polysemy network (2004) was adopted in the organization of the cognitive group instructional video, thus the sixteen instructional items were categorized into classification based on shape and classification based on function. In order to design the traditional group instructional video, we studied 4 widely used series of textbooks with the expectation of finding some textbook treatments[3]. Much to our disappointment, the classifier use of 道 *dao* is just mentioned once, in the case of 一道菜 *yi dao cai* 'a course (in a meal)', in one textbook, which forces us to rely on dictionary definitions. *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* [*The Contemporary Chinese Dictionary*] listed 4 senses of the classifier 道 *dao*.

(3) ① FOR LONG AND NARROW THINGS;
      ② FOR OBSTACLES, BARRIERS, OR OBSTRUCTIONS ON A PATH;
      ③ FOR EVENTS/THINGS CONSISTING OF SEQUENTIAL ITEMS;
      ④ FOR A STEP IN A PROCEDURE.

The first three senses are related with our test items, and were adopted in the design of the traditional group instructional video. Therefore, the flow charts of the instructional videos are as follows:
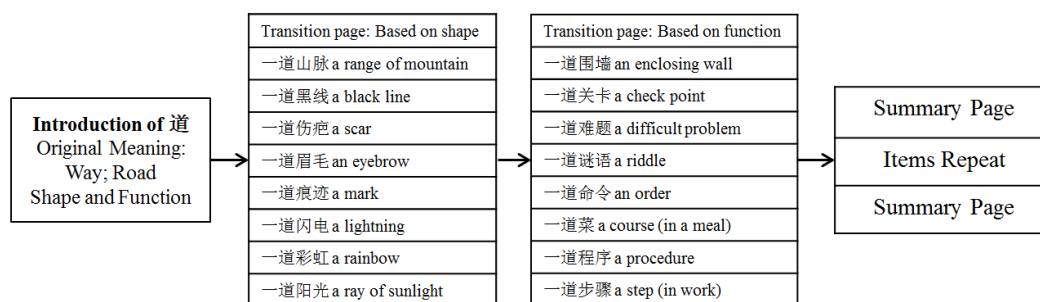
Figure 3. Flow chart of cognitive group instructional video
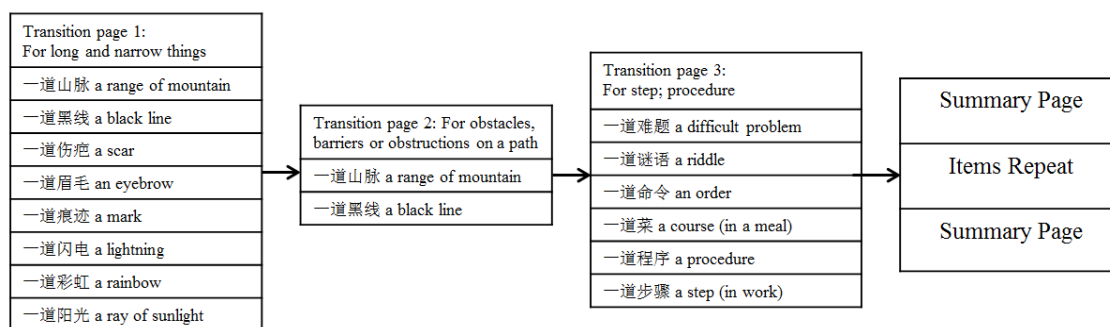
Figure 4. Flow chart of traditional group instructional video

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[3] The four series of studied textbooks are: *Integrated Chinese* (Level I, Part I - Level II, Part II), Tao-chung Yao & Yuehua Liu. Boston: Cheng & Tsui Company, 2008; *Xin Shiyong Hanyu Keben* [*New Practical Chinese Reader*] (Book 1-2). Xun Liu. Beijing: Beijing Language and Culture University Press, 2002; *Interactions: A Cognitive Approach to Beginning Chinese* (Book 1-2), Margaret Mian Yan & Jennifer Li-chia Liu. Bloomington and Indianapolis: Indiana University Press, 1998; *Chinese Link*. Sue-mei Wu, Yueming Yu, Hanhui Zhang & Weizhong Tian, 2007 (Level 1 Part 1- Level 2 Part 2).

The summary pages of both videos are shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6 respectively:[4]

Figure 5. Summary page of cognitive group video   Figure 6. Summary page of traditional group video

In the summary page of the cognitive group instructional video, in order to highlight the original meaning of 道 *dao* and the motivation for its meaning extension, items disappear and the instructional video ends with the original meaning: "path, way, road".

3. Test materials

A pretest, an immediate posttest and a delayed posttest were designed, all with fill-in-the-blank questions with the pattern 'Number (Classifier) Noun'. The pretest covers test items No.1-16 in Table 1, the same as the instructional videos. Whereas the immediate posttest covers items No.1-8 and No.17-24, and delayed posttest covers items No.9-24, so that each test has 16 test items and there are 8 instructed items together with 8 new ones in the two posttests. The 16 test items are mixed with 24 different fillers in all three tests. Pinyin, Chinese characters, as well as English translations were given, as shown in (4), and participants were instructed to fill in the blank with either the Chinese character or Pinyin, avoiding 个 *ge* or 只 *zhi* (the two generic classifiers mentioned above) if possible.

(4)

yī （   ） zuǐ
一 （   ） 嘴
a mouth

IV. RESULTS

Subject means for the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest are graphed in Figure 7.
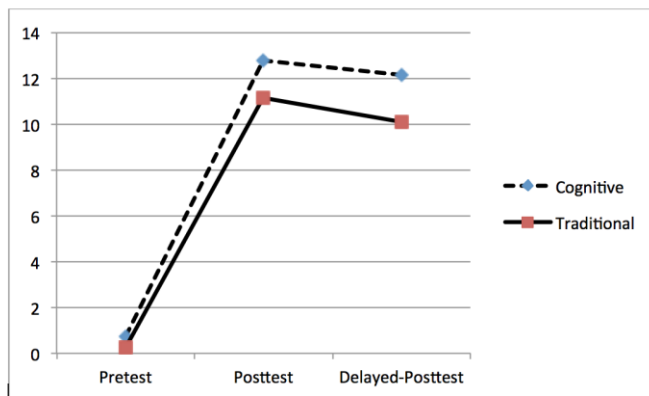
Figure 7. Graphic of scores on the three tests for both groups

It can be observed that participants basically had no knowledge of the classifier 道 *dao* before instruction. The means for the cognitive group and the traditional group in the pretest are 0.75 and 0.25 respectively. A two-tailed Mann-

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[4] The term 'measure word' instead of 'classifier' was used because 'measure word' is more frequently used in Chinese textbooks and classroom teaching. Most participants are not familiar with the term 'classifier' at the time of testing.

Whitney U test (assumptions for *t*-test not met) shows there is no significant difference between these two groups. U = 82, *p* = .08726. The critical value of U at $p \leq 0.05$ is 75.

For the immediate posttest and delayed posttest, independent group *t*-tests were carried out and revealed the cognitive group scored significantly higher than the traditional group at p < .05 on the immediate posttest, as well as on the delayed posttest. For the immediate posttest, *t* (30) = 2.31, *p* = .0279, while for the delayed posttest, *t* (30) = 2.59, *p* = .0148. Cohen's *d*s are also calculated to estimate the effect sizes, precisely *d* = 0.8168 in the immediate posttest and *d* = 0.9142 in the delayed posttest, both of which can be considered fairly large.

However, when we look only at the instructed items in the two posttests, surprisingly, there is no significant difference between the two groups, as shown in Table 2.

TABLE II.
MEAN SCORES ON IMMEDIATE POSTTEST AND DELAYED POSTTEST

Group	Immediate Posttest All items (out of 16)	Immediate Posttest Instructed items only (out of 8)	Delayed Posttest All items (out of 16)	Delayed Posttest Instructed items only (out of 8)
Cognitive group	12.75	7.50	12.13	7.19
Traditional group	11.13	7.50	10.06	7.19

Therefore, it is possible to claim that the difference between the two groups lies in the identification of extended uses, but not in the memorization of instructed items, which is exactly the condition as shown in Figure 8. The cognitive group performed noticeably better than the traditional group on the uninstructed items both times, but the advantage is not seen for instructed items.
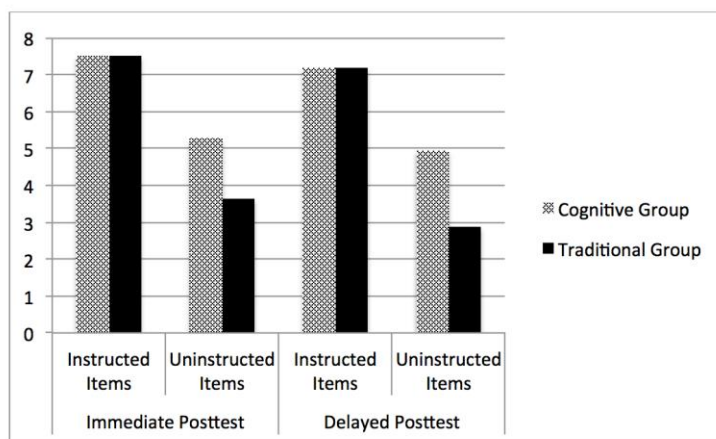
Figure 8. Graphic of scores of instructed items and uninstructed items on posttests

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The present study supports our hypothesis that the CL approach, specifically presenting polysemy network and the underlying motivations, can facilitate Chinese classifier learning. However, by contrast to our hypothesis, the benefit can only be observed in the ability to guess unfamiliar new uses, not in retention of instructed items. This finding is also different from previous studies (Huong, 2005; Verspoor, 2009; Berándi, Csábi & Kövecses, 2008). A possible explanation is that the number of test items and/or participants is too limited to produce a difference, which is a limitation of the present study.

It is also noteworthy that there is no measurement of general cognitive ability such as working memory in the present study, but working memory seems to be an important factor affecting the results, especially the memorization of instructional items in the immediate posttest. So a working memory test such as a reading span task may be a remedy for this limitation.

Despite the limitations noted above, what is definitely exhibited by our result is the superior ability of the cognitive group in the extension of instructed knowledge to uninstructed items. This finding is consistent with Verspoor and Lowie's (2003) study in the sense that introducing the central meaning of a word first facilitates more accurate interpretation of unfamiliar extended meanings. According to them, the semantic link between a core sense (the original meaning of 道 *dao*: 'path; way; road', in the present study) and a figurative sense (e.g., 'for long and narrow things' or 'for obstacles on a path') is usually one that can be readily (re)discovered and understood, but the link between two

figurative senses may not be so clear. So providing the core meaning and the motivation for meaning extension equips learners with the big picture of a radial category instead of a few unrelated mechanical rules. When learners encounter uninstructed new items, identifying items within a category seems to be easier than judging whether unrelated mechanical rules apply. In this sense, the uninstructed items are not totally 'new' to learners who have received instruction based on the CL approach.

Last but not least, there is an additional benefit of the CL approach involving Chinese character teaching and learning. In most cases, the central sense of a Chinese classifier bears some relationship to its character form, whose complexity is argued to be the biggest challenge for learners with an alphabetic first language (Allen, 2008; Bell, 1995; DeFrancis, 1984; Everson, 1988; Guder, 2005; McGinnis, 1999). With the CL approach, the central sense and meaning extension of Chinese classifiers are normally introduced through the characters, making the character an indispensable medium instead of an extra burden. Instruction of individual characters can be rendered more coherent and explanatory at the same time.

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The Development of Integrative Assessment Model for the Subject of Bahasa Indonesia in Senior High School Students

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Abstract—The purpose of this research is to develop an integrative assessment model for the subject of Bahasa Indonesia that is effective for high school students. This research was a research and development with some stages proposed by Borg and Gall & Sugiyono. Development of the model begun with preliminary studies, preparation of prototypes, validity test conducted by experts, testing of models in schools, and the analysis of testing results. The calculation for the validity of the model conducted by using Aiken analysis showed some findings. First, the validity of attitude assessment showed that 0.96> 0.83 (very valid). Second, the validity of the knowledge assessment showed that 1.79> 0.73 (very valid). Third, the validity of skills assessment showed that 0.865> 0.860 (valid). In addition, the calculation for the model performed by using Coefficient Cohen' Kappa also showed some findings as follows. First, the reliability of attitude assessment showed that 0, 87>0, 70 (very reliable). Second, the reliability of the knowledge assessment showed that 1.79> 0.73 (very reliable). Third, the reliability of skills assessment showed that 0, 71>0, 70 (reliable). The calculation for the practicality of the model conducted by five teachers proves several things. First, the practicality of attitude assessment showed that 3, 6 (very practical). Second, the practicality of the knowledge assessment showed that 3, 5 (very practical). Third, the practicality of skills assessment showed that 3, 7 (very practical). These findings demonstrate that integrative assessment model is very effective for assessing the ability of high school students.

Index Terms—integrative assessment, attitude assessment, knowledge assessment, skill assessment

I. Introduction

Student learning outcomes for the subject of Bahasa Indonesia can be known through an assessment process. If learning uses communicative-integrative approach, the assessment also must use a communicative-integrative assessment. Communicative learning means that students are required to be able to communicate using language properly. Language learning paradigm is a consequence of the implementation of language learning assessment. Language learning assessment should be performed by using integrative assessment models. Government Regulation No. 19 in 2005 on Standards Assessment of Education Article 63 Paragraph (1) states that assessment of education at primary and secondary levels consists of (a) assessment by educators, (b) an assessment by the education unit, and (c) assessment by the government. Assessments carried out in relation to the school learning activities include formative assessment and summative assessment. However, if it is associated with Government Regulation No. 19 of 2005, in addition to the two above assessment, it is also known national exam. It is the assessment by conducted by the government. Formative assessment takes place during the teaching and is used to provide feedback into the learning process. Summative assessment occurs at the end of the lesson and is used to provide information about how many students who have managed to understand how good the quality of teaching and learning that has been performed by the teacher (Gipps, 2003, p. 7). Assessment models which are used both by teachers, schools and government have not been able to provide integrated information regarding the students' learning outcome for the subject of Bahasa Indonesia in senior high school. Assessment models used by the teacher and the school do not guarantee the existence of valuation models that have the quality and characteristics of good assessment (reliability, validity, and practicality). The purpose of this research is to develop an integrative assessment model for the subject of Bahasa Indonesia that is effective in senior high school. The theoretical benefits of this research are to contribute to the development of the theory of language assessment, in particular, the assessment of Bahasa Indonesia ability in schools. The practical benefit is to

produce an integrative assessment product for the subject of Bahasa Indonesia so it can be a reference for teachers, schools, and government in carrying out the assessment.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Evaluation of Education

There are three terms that have a close relationship and are difficult to be distinguished, namely (1) evaluation, (2) measurement, and (3) assessment. According to Rashid, et al. (2009) evaluation is the process of determining the value of the performance and student learning outcomes based on information obtained through the assessment. Assessment is the process of collecting information or data used to make decisions about learning (students, curriculum, programs, and policies). Measurement is the determination procedure of the figures in a systematic way to express individual characteristics such as cognitive, affective, and psycho motor skill.

There are two types of assessments conducted in schools, namely: formative assessment and summative assessment. Cowie and Bell (1999) reveal that "formative assessment is the process used by teachers and children to recognize to pupil learning, in order to enhance that learning during the activity or task". In addition, Garrison and Ehringhaus (accessed 10 November 2012) explained that summative assessment is a means to measure the content standards achieved by learners. Summative assessment is a tool to assist in evaluating the effectiveness of the program, improving the quality of schools, aligning curriculum or placing students in a particular program.

B. The Nature of Language Learning

In essence language is a communication tool. Learners who learn a language is expected to be able to communicate with the high level of mastery and fluency. In relation to the curriculum of Indonesian subjects today, learning Indonesian conducted by some learning principles presented by Gagne (1979, p. 70), namely contiguity, repetition, and reinforcement. The application of these principles can make learners achieve the high level of mastery and fluency.

Richards (2006, p. 2) explains the aspects of language knowledge as communicative competence. These aspects are communicative aspects, social aspects, discourse aspects, and strategic aspects. Learning a language that includes these four aspects is called contextual learning and teaching (CLT).

C. Standard Assessment

Assessment standards using standardized tests such as the Test of Proficiency in Indonesia (Uji Kemahiran Berbahasa Indonesia/UKBI), Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) and International English Language Testing System (IELTS) are the reference in the development of integrated assessment models. UKBI test is a means of assessment of proficiency for Indonesian speakers. UKBI test development is intended to have the same functionality as the TOEFL test, namely as a means of assessment in language teaching. The characteristic of UKBI test is planning a test that focuses on the use of Indonesian in the realm not in the area of language use. In contrast to the TOEFL test, the test design refers to the use of English in North America (Banerjee et al., 2003). The composition of the material about those two kinds of tests is almost identical although the approach to testing communicative language is very different. The TOEFL test has been operating for 40 years without having no truck with the communicative revolution. UKBI test is influenced by the evolution of the concept of linguistic theory of communicative language pioneered by Dell Hymes in the early 1970s (Davis, 2003).

D. Communicative Assessment

Communicative competence theory is a theory of knowledge and ability. A person cannot develop language test method without defining what is meant by the language. Furthermore, Canale and Swain in Body and Langham (2000, p. 3) describe three competencies required of a person in achieving the ability and proficiency. The first is grammar, including knowledge of lexical items and the rules of morphology, syntax, semantics and phonology. The second is sociolinguistic competence. It consists of sociocultural and discourse rules. The third is strategic competence related to the communication strategy of verbal and non-verbal that can be applied to the action in order to compensate for disruptions in communication.

Learners who have a good communicative test results are characterized by the ability of learners to use the language in real communication. Someone who has a language proficiency is not only characterized by its ability to learn the language theory but also the extent to which a person is able to communicate fluently in everyday life.

E. Thematic Integrative Assessment

Indonesian language learning in high school is a learning-based integrative thematic. Integrative term refers to two things, namely external and internal integration. External integration is learning materials of Bahasa Indonesia that are associated with other disciplines, such as environment, religion, socio-cultural, political, economic, and law. Internal integration is to integrate the four components of language skills in whole or in part of a linguistic context.

Indonesian language learning is learning that is packaged in the form of themes (thematic). Rusman (2010, p. 249) explains that the theme is a medium to introduce various concepts or competencies to students as a whole. Building thematic aims at unifying the curriculum content in an intact unit so that it makes and integrated and meaningful

learning material. In addition, it can be easily understood by students. If the Indonesian learning materials use thematic integrative principle, the implementation of assessment of student learning outcomes should also use the principle of thematic integrative.

The integrative assessment evaluates aspects of linguistics and aspects of language skills through a comprehensive assessment rather than through a separate assessment. Thus, the assessment using the integrative approach realizes the aspects of language and skills in an integrated manner (Oller, 1979). The integration is intended to test the ability of learners to use two or more language skills simultaneously.

F. Good Assessment Criteria

Abramson (1979) mentions four good assessment criteria, namely: (1) quality, (2) efficiency, (3) differential value, and (4) satisfaction. Quality is the assessment given to students to give effect to increase student motivation. The high-quality assessment gives the desired effect and erodes undesirable effects.

There are some good assessment criteria according to Anderson et al. (No Year: 9). They are (1) validity and coherence, (2) reproducibility or consistency, (3) feasibility, (4) equivalent, (5) effects of assessment, (6) catalytic effect, and (7) acceptability.

People who carry out language testing can investigate language skills through statistical analysis and through criteria related to the study to link the information produced by these tests. The use of statistical analysis in the past received less attention. In the previous approach, language testing is a test of discrete elements of the target language (lexical or grammatical item). The use of statistical perspective in language testing in the United States in the 1980s (Bachman and Palmer 1990) [4] aims at establishing validity. It was seen primarily as a matter of statistical validation whether the tests are measuring a construct on individuals regardless of other construction.

Assessment of teachers has high validity in relation to the content and construction (Gipps, 2003, p. 123). Furthermore Gipps suggested that if the teacher's assessments are used for formative purposes which then results in improving learning, the assessment can be said to have consequential validity (2003, p. 124).

In addition to the analysis of the validity, reliability analysis is very important. Assessment tools that have the principle of reliability are the assessment tools that provide a stable and consistent information (Phelan and Wren, 2005). Furthermore, although a test device is said to be valid and reliable, a number of practical considerations must be taken into account. Practical considerations that are intended are economic factors, the factors in relation to exam preparation, assessment, and interpretation.

III. Method

A. The Type of the Research

This study was a research and development (R & D) by using the stages of research proposed by Borg and Gall (2003) and Sugiyono (2008).

B. Research Design

The research design that combines the model of Borg and Gall & Sugiyono (2003) could be described as follows:
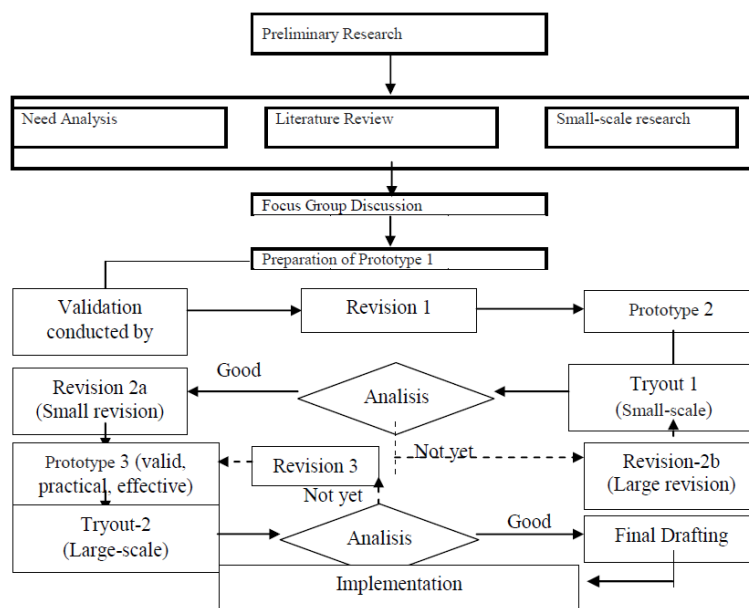
Figure 1. Research Design

C. Data and the Source of Data

Data and sources of data in this study were:

a. Preliminary research including needs analysis, literature review, and small-scale research with the source data obtained from interviews (principals, teachers, supervisors), a standard test (UKBI, TOEFL, IELTS), document assessment used by teachers;

b. Prototype I compiled based on data from focus group discussion involving teachers, principals, supervisors;

c. Validation of the model obtained through validation conducted by linguist and expert in evaluation of education;

d. The results of trying out I in which the source data was obtained through trying out the model to 75 high school students.

e. Prototype II prepared based on expert recommendations and analysis of the results of the tryout I;

f. Results of trying out II in which the source of data were obtained through trying out the model to 75 high school students.

D. Techniques of Data Analysis

a. Analysis of the validity of the model using the formula proposed by Aiken (1985), namely:

$V = S/[n(c-1)]$

b. Analysis of the reliability level of the model using the percentages of agreements proposed by Cohen's Kappa. (Mansour, 2009, p. 134), namely:

$$K = \frac{\sum f_o - \sum f_e}{N - \sum f_e}$$

c. Analysis of the level of practicality models through the opinion of five practitioners (teachers).

IV. RESULTS

A. Procedure of Developing the Model

Development of a model refers to the concept of R & D Model proposed by Gall & Borg combined with the concept of R & D Model proposed by Sugiyono (2008). The development of an integrated assessment models is through several stages that are coherent and systematic, from the preliminary study stage (a needs analysis, literature studies, and small-scale research), Focus Group Discussion (FGD), to the preparation of prototype.

Furthermore, there have been prototypes that are produced through expert validation, revision, testing, and the analysis of the effectiveness of the model. The development phase is described in the effectiveness of the model. These stages produce the final draft that then became the final model.

B. The Components of the Integrative Assessment

The involvement of teachers, principals, and supervisors in a focus group discussion (FGD) aims at building a prototype assessment of student learning outcomes at the high school level that can provide full information. In the FGD, the researchers analyzed the needs of teachers, conducted a study on the theories of educational evaluation and evaluated the learning of Bahasa Indonesia.

The results of focus group discussion produce prototype integrative assessment as illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2. The Integrative Assessment Model

Based on figure 2 above, there are some points that can be explained concerning the integrative assessment models for Indonesian subject in senior high school as follows:

1. The integrative assessment consisted of three domains, namely attitude assessment, knowledge assessment, and skills assessment.

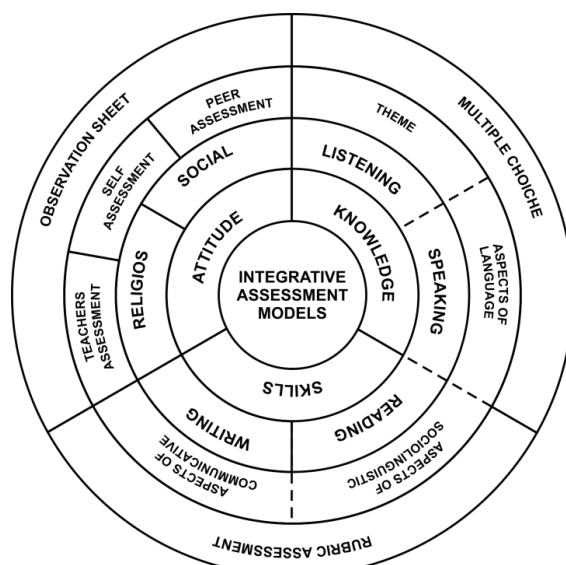2. Attitude assessment was carried out using the observation sheet to record the results of teacher assessment, self-assessment, and peer assessment.

3. Knowledge assessment is implemented using assessment tools such as tests. This assessment tool includes knowledge assessment that will assess listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

4. For listening skill, the researchers used the form of questions consisting of main idea, title, and intrinsic elements of literary works, the topic of conversation, conclusions, detailed information, suggestion, implications, assumed question, purpose, problems, and speaker's view.

5. For the speaking skill, the researchers use the form of inquiry consisting of expressing the contents of figures, tables, charts, and graphs, interviewing and making dialogue, retelling, doing a speech, concluding report, and announcing based on the given illustrations.

6. For reading skill, the researchers used the form of questions about (a) topic or theme, facts and opinions, (b) main idea, (c) detailed information, (d) conclusion, (e) purpose, (f) title, (g) tables, graphs, and charts, (h) intrinsic and extrinsic elements of literary works, (i) drama, and (j) couplets.

7. For the writing skills, researchers used a form of questions consisting of: (a) the formation of words, (b) syntax, (c) semantic, (d) paragraphs (e) syllogism, (f) constructing sentences into solid paragraphs, (g) a speech, (h) scientific papers, (i) official letter, (j) users, and (k) literary criticism.

8. The assessment of language skills was conducted by using assessment tools such as assessment rubric. The assessment rubric for each language skills consists of (a) the competence of skills, (b) the aspect of observation, (c) observation point, (d) scoring, and (e) assessment scale.

9. For the assessment of listening skills, the researchers looked at several aspects, namely: (a) the content of the response, (b) the systematic response, (c) the effectiveness of the sentence, and (d) ethics.

10. For the assessment of speaking skills, researchers observed some aspects, such as (a) the accuracy of the information, (b) the relationship of information, (c) the accuracy of the structure, (d) the accuracy of vocabulary, and (e) the style of pronunciation and fluency.

11. For the assessment of reading skills, researchers also observed some aspects, such as (a) reading techniques, (b) timeliness, and (c) the content of the text.

12. For the assessment of writing skills, researchers observed some aspects, such as (a) the content of the idea, (b) the organization of content, (c) grammar and sentence, (d) diction, and (e) spelling.

Integrative assessment model consists of attitude assessment (Wiggins, 1990); knowledge assessment (Richard, 2006, p. 2 and Bachman, 1990, p. 84) and skills assessment (Fuchler 2002 and Edelson, curtains and Pea, 1999). This assessment tool is expected to become effective assessment tool used in schools. The effectiveness of the model can be determined through expert validation, testing, and statistical analysis. The statistical analyzes provide information about the level of validation of the model, the level of reliability of the model, and the level of practicality models. Third-effectiveness analysis can be described as follows.

C. The Level of Validation

The level of validation in integrative assessment can be seen in the following table.

TABLE 1.
LEVEL OF VALIDATION OF THE MODEL AND ITS CATEGORY

No.	Components of integrative assessment	Validity Coefficient (V)	value standard V	Category
1.	attitude assessment			
	a. Teacher Assessment	0,833		valid
	b. Self-assessment	1,01	0,83	very valid
	c. Peer assessment	1,06		very valid
2.	Knowledge assessment			
	a. Listening	1,85		very valid
	b. Speaking	1,83	0,73	very valid
	c. Reading	1,73		very valid
	d. Writing	1,75		very valid
3.	Skill Assessment			
	a. Listening	0,86		valid
	b. Speaking	0,86	0,86	valid
	c. Reading	0,86		valid
	d. Writing	0,86		valid

The applications of Aiken analysis is to find out the validity of teacher assessment sheet with a total score = 58, the number of assessors = 2, the number of categories = 4. Therefore, the value of V is 58 / [2 (4-1)] = 0.833. According to

Aiken (1985) if the number of assessment item is 8, the minimum standards for validity coefficient value (V) is 0.830. The validity coefficient value (V) for all components of the integrative assessment is greater than the standard value so that all the items can be valid and very valid.

D. The Level of Reliability

To analyze the reliability, the researchers used inter-rater reliability (gwet, 2012, p. 32). The results of the analysis of the level of reliability of the three components of integrative assessment can be seen in the following table.

TABLE 2.
THE LEVEL OF RELIABILITY AND ITS CATEGORY

No.	Components of integrative assessment	Reliability Coefficient (R)	value standard R	Category
1.	attitude assessment			
	a. Teacher Assessment	0,87		reliable
	b. Self-assessment	0,87	0,70	reliable
	c. Peer assessment	1,00		Very reliable
2.	Knowledge assessment			
	a. Listening	0,80		reliable
	b. Speaking	0,87	0,70	reliable
	c. Reading	0,87		reliable
	d. Writing	0,80		reliable
3.	Skill Assessment			
	a. Listening	0,71		reliable
	b. Speaking	0,71	0,70	reliable
	c. Reading	0,71		reliable
	d. Writing	0,71		reliable

Based on the above table, it shows that all the components of integrative assessment have a value of reliability coefficient (R) that is greater than the standard value of R so that all of the components can be said reliable and the integrative assessment is highly reliable.

E. The Level of Practicality

The results of the practicality can be seen in the following table

TABLE 3.
THE ASSESSMENT RESULT OF PRACTICALITY

No.	Components of Integrative Assessment	Mean Score	Category	Scale of Category
1.	Attitude assessment	3,6	very practical	3,5 – 4,0 = very practical
2.	Knowledge assessment	3,4	very practical	2,5 – 3,49 = Practical
3.	Skill assessment	3,7	very practical	1,5 – 2,49 = quite practical 0 – 1,49 = not practical

Based on the above table, it shows that the three components of integrative assessment have a very practical category. Thus, an integrative assessment model is very practical to use at senior high schools.

V. DISCUSSION

This integrative assessment models were developed to meet the needs assessments on the subject of Bahasa Indonesia in senior high school. The approach used in language learning can influence the use of language assessment. Learning and language assessment in the 1975 curriculum for senior high school used a discrete approach. This approach considers language as the components that stand alone as revealed by Oller (1979). Discrete assessment is used by the conventional understanding of the language (Djiwandono, 2011). The 1984 curriculum used an integrative approach. This approach considered that language learning involved two or three elements of language. Assessment with an integrative approach relied on the incorporation of various types of abilities and language elements in doing language tests that are still in the area of structural linguistics (Djiwandono, 2011).

Furthermore, the implementation of the 1994 curriculum in senior high school used a pragmatic approach both in learning and in the assessment of language. In the beginning, the pragmatic approach was learning the language based on grammar ability. This approach was then developed, and it became the ability to understand the context of discourse based on linguistic context (such as sentence structure, phrases, and words) and extra-linguistic aspects (such as the shape of events, thoughts, feelings, and perceptions). The understanding of language that only relies on the ability of grammar often encounters obstacles to understanding it. Therefore, the language elements and the context of external languages need to be associated (Oller, 1979). In the 2004 curriculum, the subject of Bahasa Indonesia in senior high school uses a communicative approach both in language learning and in language assessment. This approach is focused on students' ability to communicate intelligently. Therefore, students not only know the theory of language and grammar but also can use the language in formal and non-formal communication. Implementation of the ability to

communicate in the language assessment has several elements such as linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence (Davis, 2003). Learning and assessment of language based on the 2006 curriculum and the 2013 curriculum implements Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) approach. This approach primarily relies on the use of the communicative approach.

Integrative assessment models developed by Borg and Gall (2003) and Sugiyono (2008) consists of attitude, knowledge, and skills aspect. Integrating these three elements can shape the character and linguistic competence of students. The students have not only theoretical ability and communicative ability but also speaking ethics. This integrative assessment model refers to the elements proposed by Davis (2003) and adds an element of language attitudes. Thus, this assessment model reaches the integrative, pragmatic, communicative approach, and CTL approach.

This integrative assessment model is very appropriate to be used as the assessment tool for the subject of Bahasa Indonesia in senior high school without being bound by the application of the curriculum that is always changing. It is proved by the effectiveness consisting of validity, reliability, and practicality that have been tested.

VI. Conclusion

The development of integrative assessment model has been validated by experts, tested on some high school students, and analysed by using descriptive statistics. Results of the content validation performed by experts of the integrative assessment model (attitude, knowledge and skills assessment) show a very high level of validation. The results of construction validation based on statistical analysis also show a very high level of validation. The results of reliability analysis of the integrative assessment models show a high degree of reliability. The results of the analysis of the practicality of the integrative assessment model show a very high level of practicality. Integrative assessment model that meets the requirements of validity, reliability and practicality suggests that this model is very effective to be used in senior high school.

This integrative assessment model can provide the results of objective and fair assessment for learners. Therefore, this integrative assessment model can be used as a reference for schools and government to carry out the assessment for the subject of Bahasa Indonesia in senior high school. Furthermore, the development of this model does not refer strictly to one curriculum so teachers can adjust the applicable curriculum. This model is expected to follow the development of flexible curriculum.

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Aco Karumpa, born in Wajo, South Sulawesi on 31 December 1972. He is the son of the couple, father, H. Baso Karumpa and mother, Hj. Andi Mareting. He is married with Andi Najwa and has two children, Andi Chaerul A. Fawzy and Andi Muhammad Farhan Fahrezy.

He studied at SDN 169 basis Paung (graduated 1984), continuing education at SMPN 2 Tempe (graduated 1987), secondary education in SPG Sengkang (graduated 1990). Subsequently, he continued his undergraduate education at the Teachers' Training College Ujung Pandang (graduated 1994), graduate studies in the PPs Makassar State University (graduated in 2002), and Doctor of Education at the State University of Makassar. He had the opportunity to follow the Sandwich Program at Flinders University, Adelaide, South Australia from October to December 2012.

He worked as a teacher since 1994. He became principal at SMPN 1 Sajoanging (2005-2008), SMPN 4 Tanasitolo (2008-2013), SMPN 3 Sengkang (2013), and SMPN 1 Sengkang (2013-2015). This time, he became a school inspector in the office of the District Education Office Wajo.

He was active in organizations such as KNPI, PGRI, IDI, and Karang Taruna. He is also active as a facilitator in PRIORITIES USAID since 2013 to now.

Paturungi Parawansa, was born in Takalar on February 1, 1937 from the father, I Mannaggalli Daeng Nyonri and mother, I Basse Masigi Daeng tacos. He was married to Juliana Daeng Nginna on 9 September 1957.

He attended elementary school in Volks School Takalar. Furthermore, he went on to Cursus Var Volks Onderwys (CVO) Takalar. He continued his education again to SGB Makassar (graduated 1954). Subsequently, he completed his education at the SGB. He returned to continue higher education in FKIP Hasanuddin University in Gorongtalo. He wrote his thesis with the title 'Sinrilik I Datoe Moeseng, Sebuah Epos Mangkasarak'. He was educated at the Teachers' Training College Doctoral Malang (completed 1981). He won a Professor in 1990. He got the position as Chairman of the Parliament of Gowa (1971-1976). He also got a job as Rector of IKIP Ujung Pandang for two periods (1982-1986 and 1986-1991). Furthermore, he has life experience as a member of parliament of the MPR (1999-2004). He was listed as a member of the organization 'The International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET) in the USA. He has participated in 'International Seminar on Linguistics at SEAMEO RELC, Singapore (1990). He is earned several awards, among others: (1) The Best Men Gowa (1997) and Best Men KabupatenTakalar (2000).

Mansyur, was born in Dompu, NTB December 25, 1968. He was the second child of five children with a parent, father, H. Gani Saleh and mother, St. Hajar Abakar. Sri Hastati He married and had a son, Aura Fadilah Zahra.

He attended elementary school (graduated 1980), UP (graduated 1984), and high school (graduated in 1987) in Dompu, NTB. He continued his undergraduate education at the Teachers' Training College Ujung Pandang majoring in Mathematics Education (graduated 1991). He became a mathematics lecturer at the Faculty of Engineering, University of Makassar until now. He follows the Pre-Masters in Mathematics at the Bandung Institute of Technology (1994-1995). He continued the master degree in Science of Mathematics at the Institute of Technology Bandung (completed 1998). He followed Sandwich Program to Utrecht University Netherlands for one semester (2008-2009) to explore the item response theory and statistics. He holds a Doctoral degree field of Measurement and Testing (Pscho Education) at the Yogyakarta State University in 2009. In 2010, he received the title of Professor in the field of educational research and evaluation of the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia.

Books he has written and published are: (1) Mathematics, (2) Learning Outcomes, (3) Assessment of Early Childhood Development, (4) Assessment of Learning in Schools.

Mohammed Saleh, was born in the Deep South Sulawesi dated December 31, 1975. He attended elementary, junior high and high school in South Sulawesi. He continued his undergraduate education (S1) at IKIP Ujung Pandang (completed 1999), graduate studies in the Makassar State University (completed in 2004), and Doctor of Education at the State University of Malang (completed 2009).

He worked as a lecturer at the State University of Makassar in the Department of Language and Literature Education Indonesia. During a lecturer, he writes books and articles, including: (1) Sociolinguistics, (2) Integration of the Subconscious Mind in the curriculum in 2013, (3) Linguistics Religious, (4) endeavor Establishing Religious Linguistic Paradigm.

In the course of his career, he gained several achievements and awards, such as: (1) Outstanding Lecturer Faculty Exemplary III level (2005), (2) Examiners on Doctoral Promotion Exam on behalf Kasma F. Amin and Muhammad Amin (2015).

In addition to being a lecturer, he was active in the organization, such as: (1) The Board Members of the Development Department of Language and Literature Indonesia (2000 to present), (2) The Board IKA Commissariat FBS (2005-2010 and 2010 to present), (3) Society Indonesian Linguistics (2001 to present).

EFL Acquisition External Problems and Difficulties: An Investigative Interview to Examine Saudi Students' Thoughts and Feelings

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Abstract—**This study aimed to explore and discover how Saudi students feel and think about English as a Foreign Language (EFL) acquisition and its problems and difficulties. It also aimed at sorting out the most common external EFL problems and difficulties that made most of them fail to successfully acquire English language. A sample of 300 male students was randomly chosen from level one students in their foundation year at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Those students recently graduated from secondary schools spread all over the country and so they represented the different regions of the country. Data for this study was obtained from interviews. The results of the interviews showed that students had an actual desire to learn English. The EFL external problems and difficulties were categorized into a set of four main groups: (1) Insufficient exposure to and practice of language in real life situations, (2) Teachers' lack of seriousness and training, (3) Lack of motivation and (4) Inappropriate textbooks. This study can help English teachers, supervisors, curriculum designers and education policy-makers in Saudi Arabia overcome these problems and difficulties.**

Index Terms—**EFL acquisition, external problems, difficulties, barriers, obstacles, students' thoughts, feelings**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Importance of Students' Opinions on EFL Acquisition Problems and Difficulties

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners faces problems and difficulties which should be taken into consideration when dealing with the whole process of EFL teaching/learning (Anderson's, 1995; Arshad, Attari and Elahi, 2012; Gan, 2013). Noonan (2005) states that college students in China are faced with difficulties concerning learning EFL and they always ask a reoccurring question about the way they can improve their English. In all societies where English is learnt as a foreign language there is a consensus among researchers that students encounter many problems and difficulties with EFL acquisition (Suleiman, 1983; Mann, 1985; Zughoul, 1987; Ballatine, 1993; Tanveer, 2007; Alkhawaldeh, 2010; Farooq, Chaudhry and Shafique, 2011; Tariq et al, 2013; Gan, 2013; Primlyn, 2013; Al-Nasser, 2015). While learning EFL, students try to build reading and speaking vocabulary and understand written and spoken language. Although they have the potential abilities to do so, most of them fail because they encounter some obstacles and difficulties which should be intentionally identified and recognized. The researcher believes that no one can exactly identify and precisely define these problems and difficulties other than the students themselves. To facilitate a positive learning atmosphere for students and encourage them to practice and continue learning English, these problems should be first identified and then solved with the help of those students. As students are the center and target of the learning process, they should be part of not apart from the solution.

B. Statement of the Problem

Problems and difficulties of EFL acquisition still need more efforts to be widely researched. After 12 years of learning English in private schools and nine years in public schools, most of our students in Saudi Arabia leave school and they find it hard: **to** express thanks, opinions, facts, feelings, etc., **to** communicate with an English speaker where very simple English is needed, like ordering food in a restaurant, directing a lost person how to get to a specific place, etc., **to** write two or three simple sentences about a general topic like weather, favorite food or friend, sports, etc. and for example **to** compose a short letter of complaint or thanks, apply for a post, etc. Those students encounter difficulties dealing with the previous productive skills (speaking and writing) as well as receptive skills (listening and reading). They feel lost: listening to a short conversation, trying to recognize what someone asking for, responding to a telephone call from an advertising company, etc. They also couldn't understand well simple instructions written on medicine bottles or packets, words of road signs and advertisements, basic instructions on how to operate a washing machine, a video game or an iron, etc. Educationalists, supervisors, teachers, parents and even students themselves indeed have a consensus on the problem of acquiring English language by our students.

This educational problem is one of the most scandalous worries that educators and society have controversial opinions and experiences about. Families and individuals face this problem daily; they actually want to reach an easy and absolute solution that paves the way for them to acquire this international language.

C. Significance and Aim of the Study

The researcher thinks that there is no easy answer to this problem unless the members of the society, who suffers from its effects and considers it a hard experience to emerge an answer from, are openly asked about its reasons and backgrounds. Therefore, the researcher tries to deeply go into the minds and hearts of one of the various society members to identify and explore the causes of this problem. He believes that the shortest and easiest way to investigate this problem and discover its causes is to interview those who first and last suffer from it, namely, students. This could be the first step to help educationalists, supervisors, teachers and researchers suggest and implement creative and innovative elucidations and solutions to come to possible answers to overcome difficulties facing students learning EFL. Students especially adult and mature ones can try their own suggestions to deal with this problem, which is originally theirs, and this is why the researcher assures that the straight way to approach this problem is to take into account the humanistic dimension of solving it. And this is why he is encouraged to take an investigative interview strategy to examine the thoughts and feelings of the concerned people in an attempt to discover the truth. The researcher tries not to stop on the limits of the EFL problems and difficulties, but to continue his investigation and discover and identify the worst problem and order the other problems according to their difficulty degree. This study would be useful to scholars to find solutions in order to reduce the outcomes of the problems that face EFL learners and to give priority to most difficult and frequent ones.

D. Research Questions

To explore and discover how EFL students feel and think about the problem of acquiring EFL, I addressed the following questions.
- Do you feel convinced and have an actual desire to learn English? If no, why not?
- What are the common external problems and difficulties that make most Saudi students fail to successfully acquire English language?
- Which of these problems and difficulties has the most negative effect on EFL acquisition?

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

EFL Acquisition Problems and Difficulties

The following is a brief but comprehensive literature review that concentrates on the studies that investigate the problems and difficulties confront EFL students.

Many research efforts have been carried out to find out the various difficulties and problems that badly affect EFL acquisition. Mann (1985) says that the formal research of the factors that affect EFL acquisition started in the 17th century and Ballatine (1993) states that these aspects are usually discussed under the title of demography. As stated by (Nariswariatmojo, 2011) previous studies classified these factors into two significant groups, internal factors (factors due to language itself) and external factors. According to (Farooq, Chaudhry and Shafique, 2011) the external factors may be classified as student, family, school and peer factors. They assured that home atmosphere affects the educational performance of students, namely educated parents can make available such an atmosphere that suits well for educational achievement of their children. Tariq et al (2013) stated that Pakistani students in rural areas, where all family factors to some extent are against learning, face many problems and difficulties in learning EFL. They emphasized the family factor and found out that most Pakistani parents in such areas do not have any attention to EFL learning. They concluded that parents' culture, interest, family and home environment are essential for EFL acquisition.

Rathod (2012) reports that there is a correlation between community class and foreign language achievement. Learners from poorer socio-economic clusters are less successful in acquiring EFL than learners from richer groups. Arshad, Attari and Elahi (2012) argued that parents' socio-economic rank has straight effect on their children's education in the form of offering learning resources. Primlyn (2013) reports on the difficulties faced by EFL students. He concentrates on their amalgamation of social and cultural characteristics in language learning, because every language is an combination of both. Allard, Bourdeau and Mizoguchi (2011) also address an internal problem, the cultural and native language interference problem in EFL acquisition. More particularly, they examine topics of interference that can be affected by a learner's native language and that also have an educational elements.

Gan (2012) in his paper argues that inadequate chances to use English in classroom, lack of focus on language development, and input-poor atmosphere for speaking in English outside class actually cause a range of difficulties EFL students face. Gan (2013) in another paper argues that students' perceived EFL problems are analyzed in relation to lack of language proficiency, spoken language processes, conversational skills and educational speaking conventions, emotional influence as well as lack of chances to practice English in speaking.

Alkhawaldeh (2010) studies the types of difficulties Jordanian EFL students encounter from teachers' point of view. The findings of the study brought huge difficulties such as big classroom size, students' negative attitudes towards English, lack of teacher training and lack of parental follow up. Many studies by researchers like Mukattash (1983), Suleiman (1983), Zughoul (1987) and Ibrahim (1983) find that most of the Arab students' difficulties concerning the speaking skill are due to the reasons such as: deficiency in English language curricula, old pedagogical methods, problems with appropriate linguistic environments, lack of individual momentum on the part of the students, and first language interference.

Tanveer (2007) in his dissertation addresses a specific EFL acquisition problem regarding a specific language skill, anxiety and apprehension expressed by EFL learners in learning speaking skill. He argues that such feelings may prevent learners from achieving the anticipated performance aims in the target language. According to (Bathan, Aldersi and Alsout, 2014) mastering speaking skill by EFL learners is not easy as many factors, including mother tongue interference, lack of required exposure, very restricted opportunities of practice and lack of motivation, hold back the process of mastering this skill.

In his study (Hamouda, 2013) tries to examine the listening difficulties encountered by the first year English major students of Qassim University. The results of the study revealed that intonation, articulation, pace of verbal communication, inadequate words, various accent of speakers, lack of absorption, apprehension, and bad quality of recording were the main listening comprehension difficulties faced by Saudi EFL students. According to (Chen, 2005) difficulties or barriers confronted by the EFL learners while acquiring listening comprehension are associated with factors such as learners' emotional statuses, listening practices, information processing capacities, and negative attitudes towards the listening skill.

Al-Nasser (2015) states that learning English in Saudi Arabia has many problems. According to him the problems come out of policy making and its performance, namely, dealing with English as an optional school subject, introducing English at a late stage and dealing with English language as a subject that needs passing marks not as a life skill. The problems also are related to mother tongue interference, lack of teachers' training, old-fashioned curriculum and methodology, absence of using modern technology and modern infrastructure, panic about learning in the learners' minds as classroom environment depresses student contribution of any type and natural opposition to learning English. It seems to the researcher as a specialist with a long experience in EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia that some of the points discussed by Al-Nasser (2015) needs some kind of revision and reconsideration.

The previous studies investigate the barriers, obstacles, difficulties or problems EFL students face while learning EFL in general or a specific EFL skill in particular. However, none of these studies tries to answer a big question concerning the worst problem faced by EFL learners and negatively affects EFL acquisition, or to order these problems according to their difficulty degree, which this study tries to address.

As shown in the literature review above most previous studies did not distinguish between problems due to language itself (internal difficulties) and other problems due to reasons and factors not related to foreign language (external difficulties). This study assumes that students have the potential ability to acquire EFL and so tries to look into the external barriers that hinder EFL learners in their way of acquiring English language from a comprehensive viewpoint. While most of the EFL acquisition studies have addressed a specific language skill or a specific problem and have followed quantitative approaches to address related EFL acquisition difficulties, this study tries to adopt a qualitative methodology instead of a quantitative one and tries to seek an answer to a big question about the external and general EFL acquisition difficulties and problems encountered by EFL learners. In addition, the interview as seen by the researcher is the best way to interpret these difficulties and discover what stands beyond them.

Dealing with a comprehensive perception of a problem can consequently lead to a comprehensive solution. The case is different when we deal with a single part of an entire problem and accordingly reach a smaller conclusion consistent with that single part of that problem. In the current study, the first type of problem tackling is adopted in an attempt to reach a solution suitable for the big EFL acquisition problems faced by Saudi students in their own and particular educational and cultural environment.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Informants of the Study

The sample of the study is randomly chosen from level one students in their the foundation (first) year at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Those students have recently graduated from secondary schools spread all over the country and so they represent the different regions of the country. They have been learning English for 8 to 12 years depending on the type of school they attended (public, private or international). They are adult enough to deal with the problem of the study and to give mature answers. After taking the placement test, more than 80% of those students were assigned to study level one which is the lowest level of the four levels they have to pass in their foundation year before choosing their fields of study. Being in level one means that they suffered from the problem of EFL acquisition and they consider it a hard experience that they can emerge an answer from. They were openly asked about its reasons and backgrounds. The sample consists of twelve sections, each section consists of 25 male students, a total of 300 students. The interview was implemented in the beginning of the first semester of the scholastic year 2015/2016. Those 300 students were interviewed to try to discover the causes that stand behind the problems of EFL acquisition.

B. Data Collection

Data for this study was obtained from an important source of social and interactive communication method; that is interview. The investigation represents a qualitative method that aims to explore students' desire towards learning English and elicit the common factors standing behind the difficulties of learning EFL. In this study the researcher conducted an interview to discover the real problems and difficulties Saudi students face in their way of learning EFL.

He chose the interview as opposed to the questionnaire which in this context cannot go deep into the minds and feelings of students, simply because when building a questionnaire, certain difficulties and problems are to be prepared in advance. The situation is completely different when conducting an interview and allowing students to express themselves and freely tell about their thoughts and feelings without having limits around their minds and hearts.

Interviewing is one of the most well-known and influential methods of trying to understand human thoughts and feelings. The interview is an important source of social, interactive and interpersonal communication method. There are three main types of interview: structured, semi-structured or unstructured. To answer the questions of the study, the researcher developed a semi-structured interview to try to recognize how EFL students think and feel about the problem of acquiring EFL.

A semi-structured interview is a technique used in the social studies. While a structured interview has a precise group of questions which does not tolerate new ideas, a semi-structured interview is not closed, tolerating new thoughts to be brought up as a result of what the interviewee states. This freedom can assist interviewers adapting their questions to the interview position, and to the people they are interviewing. The interviewer in a semi-structured interview generally identifies in advance a specific topic to be investigated (Edwards and Holland, 2013).

The 300 male students who were randomly chosen were interviewed. For this task I appointed 6 interviewers who tried to explore whether students are convinced and have an actual desire to learn English and to investigate the problems that most EFL students have with acquiring English language. The interview covered the following areas:
- Whether students are convinced and have an actual desire to learn English,
- The problems and difficulties that make most Saudi EFL students fail to successfully acquire EFL, and
- The problem that comes first (the worst problem faced by EFL learners and negatively affects EFL acquisition) and accordingly the right order of these problems according to their degree of difficulty.

C. Data Analysis

To study the raw data of the interview, I started with the classification of the ideas coming out of the raw data-open coding (Struass and Corbin, 1990). Similar to many other studies, the investigation in this study followed a system of coding and classifying categories based upon patterns and thoughts that came out of the raw data (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990).

IV. RESULTS

Results of the Interviews

Concerning the first question, "Do you feel convinced and have an actual desire to learn English? If no, why not?", of the 300 students interviewed, 293 were convinced and had an actual desire to learn English. The rest of the students (only seven students) didn't have a desire to learn English not because they were not convinced to learn English but because of another problems such as heavy instructional load, time restrictions and constraints and type of field of study they want to specialize in. One student said, *"I don't have time to learn English because of the heavy load I have this semester. I start my day at 8 am and finish it at 4 pm. I spend my rest of the day preparing for the next day."*

Another said, *"I want to specialize in Arabic language, why should I learn English? If I learn English, I will rarely use it and I will lose it."*

A third student commented, *"I want to study French and I am afraid I will get confused if I learn the two languages together."*

With reference to the second question, "What are the common external problems and difficulties that make most Saudi EFL students fail to successfully acquire English language?", the results of the interviews were categorized into a set of four main groups (difficulties). These four categories were: (1) Insufficient exposure to and practice of language in real life situations; (2) Teachers' lack of seriousness and training; (3) Lack of environment motivation; and (4) Inappropriate textbooks.

Regarding the third question, "Which of these problems and difficulties has the most negative effect on EFL acquisition?", of the 293 students interviewed (who were convinced and had a desire to learn English), 126 (43%) stated that the main difficulty that hinders EFL acquisition is rare exposure to and use of English in everyday life. The second main difficulty which was stated by 70 students (24%) is teachers' lack of seriousness and training. Then comes lack of environment motivation, affirmed by 41 students (14%). And not far from that is inappropriate textbooks as thought by 38 students (13%). Eighteen students, only (6%) thought that EFL acquisition difficulties belong to various problems other than the above ones. They mentioned problems and difficulties such as starting learning English at a late stage, dealing with English as a school subject that needs passing marks and absence of using modern technology to enhance learning EFL.

The most difficult problem referred to insufficient exposure to and practice of language in real life situations. The majority of students (126 out of 293) stated that this difficulty hinders their EFL acquisition. This difficulty hinders their ability to remember the words, expressions, structures, etc. they learn at school. Because of this difficulty they don't have enough authentic chances to acquire language. One more reason that makes it difficult to acquire language is the unnatural way the class introduces it and the limited time available in class to use the language. One student said,

"We study new words and expressions at school and sometimes have no chance to practice them in class and rarely have an opportunity to use them outside the class. As a result we forget them."

Another one commented,

"What kind of artificial way we follow to learn English! Although the class can help us learn English, it is not the natural place to acquire language. Language should be learned in real life situations and this is what we miss."

A third student added,

"Unless we have chances to use English outside the class, I think it is very difficult to improve our English language. We actually need such chances to help us acquire English and keep what learn in our minds."

A fourth student suggested,

"If we want to improve our English language, I think the easiest way is to create real opportunities to use it at home, with friends, on the Internet, etc. This can of course help us memorize and activate what we learn in class."

One more student proposed,

"I think there should be an action taken by the Ministry of Education to solve the difficulty of learning English students encounter. I propose that they either arrange for summer courses where we can study and use English in camps, or to support us to travel abroad and learn and use English in English-speaking countries. Otherwise, the class will fail to solve the problem because we don't have enough time and opportunities to practically use English."

The second main difficulty referred to teachers' lack of seriousness and training. This difficulty was stated by about a quarter of the students (70 students out of 293, 24%) interviewed. Students obviously wondered about the ways some of their teachers follow to teach English language and thought that they use old methods of teaching language. They also complained about the carelessness of some of their English teachers who ignore a lot of the important parts of the textbook and ask them to concentrate only on a few pages for the purposes of the exams. Two more signs that obviously indicate teachers' lack of seriousness are the number of classes they miss and the amount of class time they used to waste. One student said, *"Why such old ways of teaching still used! We feel very bored because of listening to the teacher or one of our classmates reading aloud the whole reading passage. In addition, the teacher ties to translate every single word to Arabic. It is better to have some kind of discussion so that we feel interested."*

Another stated,

"Why always focusing on grammar! What about the other language skills! It seems that our teachers don't know how to teach listening and speaking. They rarely go through such activities even though they seem attractive and interesting. They must receive periodical training in order to be able to deal with such activities and to get rid of the boredom we usually have."

A third student added,

"One of the problems students know well is the missing classes they usually have. Out of five classes a week some teachers only attend three or even two. Moreover, when attending the class, some teachers have a bad habit; they spend a lot of time doing nothing or chatting in Arabic about irrelevant issues."

A fourth student complained,

"We usually study how to use English, grammar. We need to learn how to write, read, speak and listen. And when it comes to exams a few pages are included, i.e. round up pages and we get high marks."

The third main difficulty is related to lack of environment motivation and advocated by 41 out of 293 students interviewed, 14%. Those students affirmed that they seldom receive encouragement and motivation from their parents, teachers, friends, etc. to improve their English language. They emphasized that such demotivating atmosphere is a real difficulty that delays their attempts to acquire English language. Moreover, some of them considered motivation, which they lack, an essential factor for creating a high spirit that raises their potential learning ability and engages their interest in learning English. One student said, *"I tried to use English outside the classroom, with friends, at home and even with teachers, but I received very few responses in English. They usually ask me not to use English instead of Arabic, maybe because I couldn't express myself or because they couldn't understand my messages. This demotivated and discouraged me to continue such attempts."*

Another student stated,

"Everything around holds attempts to improve my English back. I tried many times to communicate what I learned in class with others, but they rarely reply in English. This situation represents a hindrance on my way to learn English. I feel disappointed."

A third student explained,

"I feel frustrated because our English teachers never care very much about encouraging us to use English and so are our parents. I think they should always motivate us to learn and use English. I think such motivation is a crucial factor that can help us overcome the difficulties we encounter on our way to acquire English."

The fourth main difficulty Saudi students encounter in their way of acquiring English is related to inappropriate textbooks. Thirty-eight out of 293 students (13%) thought that textbooks have some problems that negatively affect their EFL acquisition. They mentioned that textbooks should concentrate on the most frequent words and expressions and review and recycle them again and again until they are able to absorb them. They complained about some odd words and expressions which are rarely used, irrelevant topics that deal with very specialized issues and going deep in explaining some grammatical points. One student explained, *"We need to learn the most frequent words and*

expressions, and in order to acquire them we should be exposed to them many times. Why should we learn words rarely used in everyday English? We learn them and never use them; they are very strange words."

Another stated, *"Some textbooks topics discussed very specialized issues such as sea animals, archeology, electricity, symbiosis, etc. Instead general topics are more beneficial to language acquisition."*

A third student complained, *"Why should we learn grammar in details? We sometimes get confused because of grammar. I think grammar should be simplified and only main and frequent grammar points are to be introduced."*

V. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of this study reveal four cornerstone pillars which could be considered the most influential external difficulties that face Saudi students on their way of learning EFL. As revealed by the results of this study, opposite to what Alkhawaldeh (2010) concludes and consistent with the researcher's assumption, our students do not have any negative attitudes towards learning English; although they complained about some difficulties and problems, all the interviewees expressed their willingness and readiness to learn this language. In comparison with Al-Nasser's study (2015), there are some common agreements between the findings of this study and his. However, there are some other crucial difficulties absent from his study's findings, i.e. **lack of exposure to and practice of EFL** and **demotivating environment**. The four difficulties revealed by this study should be studied in details individually and in relation to each other so that possible and comprehensive solutions and elucidations could be proposed and applied in the field.

Acquiring EFL successfully is not an easy task. Many factors contribute to this difficulty. Learning EFL and achieving proficiency needs **enough exposure and practice, serious and competent teachers, well designed and organized textbooks, a motivating environment** and many other factors. All these factors and difficulties are concluded and discussed in Gan (2012), Gan (2013) and Bathan, Aldersi and Alsout (2014) who investigate EFL speaking difficulties. However, this study investigates EFL acquisition in general, arranges these difficulties according to their degree of difficulty and gives priority to exposure to and practice of EFL. Such relative weights of difficulty degrees should be taken into account when designing and building up EFL curricula and textbooks. For example, initiatives such as launching English school clubs and English learning camps should be considered so that students have opportunities to be exposed to and use English naturally not artificially. More and more ideas can be created to overcome the other factors or difficulties, i.e. Rewards can be used to increase motivation.

Unfortunately, most of these factors are partially or even completely absent from the EFL learning environment. Consequently, this absence creates difficulties and problems that hinder and delay foreign language acquisition. Each of these difficulties has its own reasons and effects as revealed in the results of this study. Moreover, the interrelation between these difficulties and problems adds more complexity to them and as a result finding possible solutions needs serious efforts and exertions and creative and innovative initiatives. Giving priority to the four cornerstone factors mentioned above could cover the various dimensions of EFL learning process and lead to better results of mastering English language.

The **insufficient exposure to and practice of language** in real life situations could hinder or hold back students' remembrance ability, the availability of authentic chances to acquire language, the natural way of language acquisition and the availability of enough time to use the language. The **teachers' lack of seriousness and training** could be related to the old and traditional methods teachers follow, the ignorance of important parts of the textbook, the exam oriented teaching/learning strategy and the waste of class time. The **lack of environment motivation** pertain to the demotivating atmosphere which causes some kind of disappointment and frustration. Some of the **textbooks defects** are the lack of concentration on and recycling of the most frequent words and expressions, the odd words and expressions and the irrelevant topics and grammatical points. These four critical problems and related factors form a mixture of elements that should be well considered when designing, building up, evaluating and developing EFL curricula and textbooks.

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Morphosyntax of Tae' Language (*Morfosintaksis Bahasa Tae'*)

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Abstract—**This research aims to convey the morphosyntax in Tae' language. This is descriptive qualitative research supported by library and field method. The library and field research method aims to find the detail and complete data. Moreover, the research analyzes words, phrases, clauses, and sentences in Tae' language as primary data. The results show that there are some features that mark morphosyntax in Tae' language. They are reduplication process, derivational affixation, and sentence structures that describe the word orders of Tae' language. Reduplications of Tae' language are containing of full and partial reduplication. Whereas, the derivational affixations of Tae' language are containing of prefixes and suffixes. The form of prefixes is *ma-*, *ku-*, *na- di-*, and *si-*. And, the form of suffixes is *–i*, *- ko*, and *–mu*. Those affixes are derived from derivation process namely the basic construction or sentence structures.**

Index Terms—**morphosyntax, the qualitative method, and Tae' language**
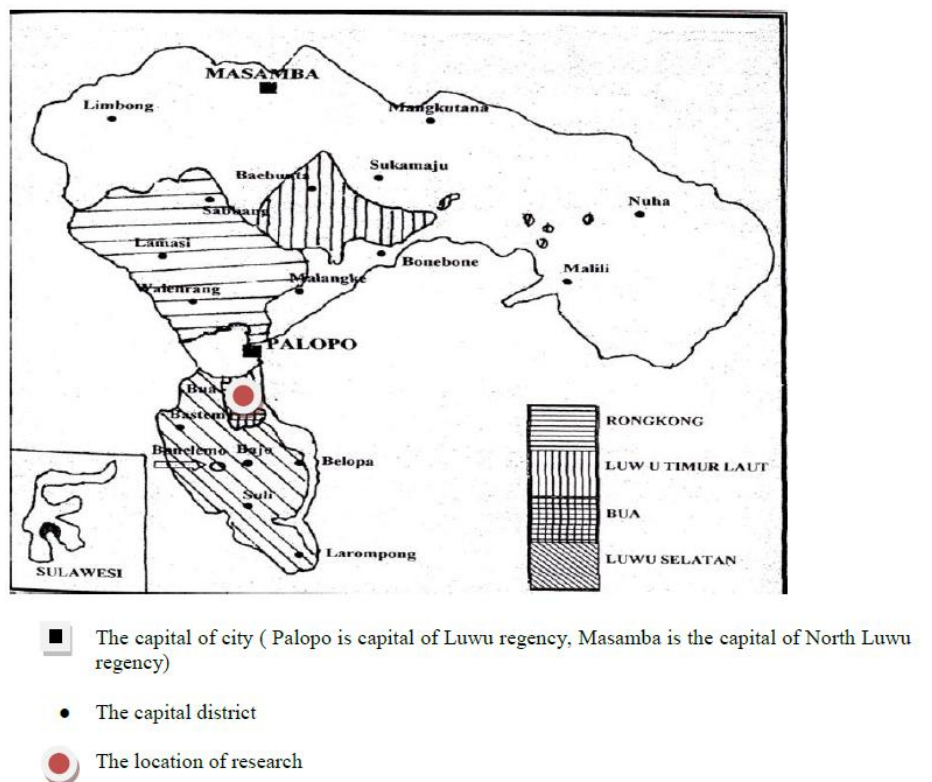
I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a communication tool used for expressing feelings, thoughts, and ideas by humans in social communities. Language that is used in this society must be appropriated with the correct structure. Correct structure will result in a good communication and prevent us from misunderstanding when we do communication each other. Here, the function of language is really needed by people to avoid errors when use a language. Language function also requires a user to have the ability for doing communication, both formal and informal. As a user of language, we are charged separately to master a language properly, so that the purpose of a good communication can be achieved. Based on the argument, language as social media for doing communication, has important role. Language characterizes a culture and as a symbol of national identity. Indonesian language, especially, functions as a national language in Indonesia, while local languages function as a symbol of regional identity. In this case, Tae' language is one of local language which has unique characteristics in the formation of linguistic structure.

Tae' language as object of this research and it has many interesting features that we should know. Tae' language belongs to the group of Austronesian family language. The genetic affiliation of this language is Malayo polinesian (Wikipedia). Tae' language itself is located in South Sulawesi, Indonesia, particularly in Luwu regency. Actually, Indonesian has a nationality language namely Bahasa Indonesia. Bahasa Indonesia is a tool of language that mostly people use it very well for communicating each other. Furthermore, Bahasa Indonesia becomes as one of curriculum that is taught in all level of schools in Indonesia. It means that Bahasa Indonesian is obligatory for Indonesian to learn it besides their local languages as first language of them. Around 700 over local languages spread in every island of Indonesian. Those local languages are used by Indonesian citizens in their daily communication, especially, those who live in district or region of Indonesia. Uniquely, they have different accents and forms. In South Sulawesi particularly, there are three major languages are well known to the people in this area. Those are Buginese language, Makassarese language, and Torajan language. Those languages have own accent or style in speaking. For instance, Toraja language is famous with using phoneme *e'*, whereas Makassar and Bugis language are famous with using suffix *-ng*.

Tae' language itself is a minor language in South Sulawesi and it has similarity with Toraja, particularly at lexical aspect. The similarity can be seen at 92% among dialects (Rongkong, Northeast Luwu, South Luwu, Bua, Toala', Palili') and 80% with Toraja Sa'dan. The vocabulary of Tae' language is around 65% from Malay language. (Language centre, Jakarta, Indonesia). However, in general Tae' language is totally different with other languages in South Sulawesi. The speakers of this language are about 250,000 (1992 SIL). Tae' language is located in Luwu regency. Luwu is divided from three regencies and one city. Those regencies are named South Luwu (Belopa), North Luwu (Masamba), East

Luwu (Malili), and Palopo city. Tae' language is used by people in this regency as their daily conversation starting from the border southern of Buriko (Wajo regency) until in the east of Luwu regency called Malili. It means that Tae' language is the first language (L1) for those who live in the regencies. Fortunately, this language is still used by Luwu community until now. So, this language can still survive nowadays. Following the map of location of Tae' speakers.

This map is quoted from Ian W. Vail (without year) in Ibrahim. A.Gufran (dissertation, 1997). This map is also based on the explanation of Grimes 2001 of *Ethnologue: Language of the world.*

■   The capital of city (Palopo is capital of Luwu regency, Masamba is the capital of North Luwu regency)

●   The capital district

●   The location of research

Overview of Study

This research presents of morphosyntax features in Tae' language. As a main feature of this analysis reminds me of what exactly distinguishes between morphology and syntax. Morphosyntax is derived from morphology that looks about word formation and syntax that looks about how words are combined into large unit such as phrase and sentence. In other words, morphosyntax is combination of morphology and syntax. They are combined because they have very close relationship. According to Cristal (1980) morphosyntactic is a term in linguistics used to refer to grammatical categories or properties for whose definition criteria of morphology and syntax both apply, as in describing the characteristics of words. Cristal (1980), further gives an illustration that the distinctions under the heading of number in nouns constitute a morphsyntactic category (p. 234). On the other hand, number contrasts affect syntax (e.g. singular subject requiring a singular verb); and they require morphological definition, such as add –s for plural).

Kridalaksana (2001) argues that morphosyntax is 1) language structure of morphology and syntax as one organisation (these two fields cannot be separated), 2) the branch of linguistics that investigate of the field is grammatically, 3) description about rules that govern morpheme combination in units larger, and the inflection affixes in conjugation and declination (p. 143). In further, Kridalaksana explains that morphosyntax is alloying term between morphology and syntax. Morphology is linguistic study of the morpheme formation (word), while syntax is linguistic study of phrase formation, clause, and sentence.

Morphosyntax has become an issue recently particularly the connection between morphology and syntax. Some linguists say that morphology is strictly separated from syntax and is governed by different principles altogether (see, e.g. Lieber (1980), Sciullo & William in Ackema, P (1999)). Otherwise, according to Drijkoningen (1994), Bok-Bennema & Kamper-Manhe in Ackema, P (1999), morphological operations take place in syntax and are governed by syntactic principles. Based on these views of morphology and syntax, it can be concluded that morphological constructions are not formed in syntax, but they are governed by the same principles that govern syntax. It means that morphology is part of syntactic result.

Furthermore, morphology is one of disciplines that review of constructions of sentences itself. How the sentence is formed and what are the rules of the sentences. The area of grammar concerned with structure of words and with relationship between words involving the morphemes that compose them is technically called morphology (Carstairs & Carthy, 2001, p. 16). Otherwise, the morpheme is the smaller parts of words. The morpheme can function as a

morphological argument. At the level of morphology theory, we know that there are many parts that build the construction of sentence itself, i.e. pronouns system, derivational affixes, and the basic constituent of languages. These parts seem work in Tae' language.

In detail, the pronoun systems have a role in syntactic mechanism. It means that, the pronoun systems contribute in formulating a sentence of the language. In Tae' especially, the pronoun systems are divided into first singular marker, second singular marker, and third person marker. Moreover, derivational affixation at the level of morphosyntax can be seen at derivative affixes in Tae' language. Actually, there are two forms of affixes in Tae' language. These two affixes are (1) prefixes and (2) suffixes. Those constructions are contributing in finding the result of this research. Interestingly, the basic structure of word orders in Tae' language has different with Indonesia language. Bahasa Indonesia has word orders namely SVO. Hence, in Tae' language has VS/VAO of word orders. The writer supposes that, it is caused by the presence of verbs and subjects that are united with a phrase by using affixes (prefix and suffix) in Tae' language. For instance,

(1) *mattolena*
    ma-   tole   -na
    INT.STAT   smoke   - p1s.ABS
    'I smoke'

Actually, the basic word is *tole* (smoke) as a noun, added by affixes *ma-* and *-na*. The prefix *ma-* is an intransitive stative and the suffix *–na* is an absolutive marker that describes as first person singular. The affix *ma-* marks a verb which expresses doing a thing (smoking). Otherwise, the suffix *–na* as first person singular (absolutive marker) marks a subject which emphasises the verb. Thus, the basic constituent of this language based on the above example is VS. The function of prefix *ma-* and suffix *na-* will be discussing in the result.

The writer thinks there is an interesting features that we should know, specifically, how the constructions of this language itself and how those constructions are generated. That's the reason for the writer to examine the features in Tae' language concerning of morphosyntax features. Based on the background above, the main focus in this research is how the constructions of morphosyntax of Tae' language?

II. RESEARCH METHODS

This research uses qualitative descriptive. Data are collected by given the questionnaire to the native speakers of Tae'. The questionnaire will be distributed to the native speakers of Tae'. The native speakers certainly are fluent in oral and written of Tae' language. In further, the primary data are containing the lists of sentences, phrases, and words of Tae'. Besides, data are also collected by study literature related with this topic.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The construction of morphosyntax in Tae' language can be seen at the following explanation:
Reduplication
Formally, there are two forms of reduplication in Tae' language. Those are full reduplication and partial reduplication. Full reduplication generates faithful copies of the base (Goetama, 2001). We can see the form of full reduplication following, for example, *bintueng-bintueng* means 'stars' < *bintueng* 'star', *pini-pini* means 'mists' < *pini* 'mist/spotty', *baju-baju* means 'clothes tiny' < *baju* 'clothes', *bo'-bo'* means 'books' < *bo'* 'book', *mesa-mesa* means 'one by one' < *mesa* 'one', and *bajo-bajo* means 'shadows' < *bajo* 'shadow'. The function of full reduplication in this language is noun pluralisation. In other words, in Tae' language the full reduplication can be interpreted into the plural.

Another pattern of full-reduplications is derivation of adverbs, i.e. *tongang-tongang* 'truly', *tiba-tiba* 'suddenly', *bulang-bulang* 'monthly', and *jarang-jarang* 'seldom'. Those words are basic of adverbs. Additionally, the full-reduplication of adjectives can be seen of the following sentence:

(2) *Melok-melok tapi massarang*
    Melok-melok   *tapi* *massarang*
    Beautiful-RED   but   fierce
    'Although beautiful, but (she is) fierce'

Otherwise, the partial reduplication occurs at verbs in Tae' language. It is generated by affixes. The type of affixes is prefix and suffix. The prefix is formulated by the initial word, whereas, the suffix is formulated by the final word. The partial reduplication forms can freely occur with grammatical affixes. It could be occurred in active and passive prefixes. The active prefixes can be seen at following examples "*kabuto-buto*" means 'lie'. The base word is *buto* 'lie' added by prefix *ka-* becomes *kabuto* and it will be repeated by *kabuto-buto*. The prefix *ka-* is an intransitive marker. It is same with *kamanjo-manjo* means 'likes to go' < *manjo* 'go', *kasua-sua* means 'likes to command (bossy)' < *sua* 'command'. Similarly with prefix *min-* of *mintiro-tiro* 'look around' has base partial of reduplication at *tiro* 'look'. The prefix *ka-* and *mi (n)-* are an intransitive constructions because those prefixes are clustered by basic word. Otherwise, the passive prefix is *disua-sua* means 'command', added by prefix *di-* becomes *disua-sua*. Furthermore, partial reduplicated forms can also occur in derivational affixes, that is in suffix, such as *rampo-rampoang* 'coming' < *rampo* 'moody' with the

suffix *–ang*. Another form of reduplication in Tae' language is *kapuji-pujiang* 'coquettish'. So, the prefix *ka-* and the suffix *–ang* at *kapuji-pujiang* emphasize a thing which is done intentionally and repeatedly.

Interestingly, a reduplication of indefinite pronouns is also known in Tae' language, i.e. *umba-umba* 'whatever, everywhere, anywhere,' and *benda* 'who' > *benda-benda* 'whoever'. However, those forms can't collocate with affixes like *di-*, *ke-*, and *–ang* even with the prepositions like *jio* 'in', *sule* 'from', and *lako* 'to', such as *jio umba-umba* 'everywhere' (locative) or *lako umba-umba* (directional), and *sule umba-umba* (from everywhere).

Derivational Affixation

Derivational affixation defines the possible word-affix combination, where the affix is derivational. In Tae' language derivational affixation can occur at prefixes and suffixes. Prefixes of Tae' language are divided into two kinds of voices. Those two voices are Actor Voice (AV) and Object Voice (OV). As known, most of Austronesian languages have transitive verbs. It indicates from the morphology aspects. Tae' language has the actor voice (AV) as the main verb followed by prefix and suffix that explain the subject as a topic argument. As the writer says before that Tae' language is constructed by prefixes and suffixes which unite with the verb. Those prefixes and suffixes are such as *mi-, ma-, ku-, di-* and *-i*. Those affixes are assimilated by consonants. It can be seen at the following constructions:

Root	Actor Voice	Object Voice
tana 'ask'	*ming-kutana*	*di-kutana-i*
mande 'eat'	*ku-mande*	*di-kande*
baca 'read'	*mam-baca*	*di-baca*
uki 'write'	*ma-ruki*	*di-ruki*
kiring 'send'	*ma-kiring*	*di-kiring*

Those prefixes as actor voice have a meaning as 'do something'. Otherwise, the prefixes of the object voice have a meaning as passive form. Most of verbs in Tae' language is compounded by affixes. Those affixes also emphasize the subject. It depends on the sentence, for instance;

(3) *mambacai* (Toni)
   maM-   baca -i
   INT. STAT read   p3 ABS
   'Toni is reading'

This construction is called as an intransitive construction or known as a topic-locational hybrid (Stassen in Typology Theory). It is called by intransitive construction because it contains of affixes (*maM-* and *-i*) that integrate at the verb. This construction declares circumstances and emphasizes the subject. Moreover, the prefix *maM-* can be analogues as intransitive zero (IZ) without affixes, for instance, *baca*, 'read', *mamma* 'sleep', *cado* 'seat', and *torro* 'stay'. Semantically, those constructions are an experiencer. Another construction of affixes can be seen at the following sentence;

(4) *kumandei (Linda) jio kamarana*
   kumande   -i   jio   kamara -na
   eat   p3.ABS   at (LOC)   room   p3 ABS
   'Linda is eating at her room'

The suffix *–i* serves as absolutive marker and emphasizes the subject (Linda). Actually the verb *mande* 'eat' can be converted into *kande* 'eat'. The initial *m* can be transformed into the initial consonant *k* or the nasal *m-* can be changed by allomorph *k-*. This is called by prenasalization. The prenalization process is the assimilation of the nasal to the initial consonant of the base of the word. In other words, the nasal assimilates to base-initial voiceless stops (Goetama, 2001, p. 23). Here, the word of *mande* (4) and *kande* (5) 'eat' as a basic verb is marked by the prefix *na-* and the suffix *-i*. Following the sentence;

(5) *nakandei (Linda) to' roti*
   na-   kande   -i   to'   roti
   p3.ERG   eat   p3. ABS   DEF   bread
   'Linda ate that bread'

This sentence has basic constituent VAO. The verb *kande* 'eat' is the basic verb. This is the result of assimilation of *mande*. Actually this verb can be standing alone without affixes or intransitive zero (IZ). However, adding affixes (prefix and suffix) can be a transitive construction because it emphasizes the object (bread). Otherwise, the prefix *na-* as an ergative marker explains the subject as third person. It is also known by proclitic. Moreover, the suffix *-i* that clings at the verb *kande* serves as an absolutive marker or as an enclitic marker that describes the actor. Interestingly, this sentence could be a passive construction. See the following sentence;

(6) *dikandemi to' roti*
   di-   kande -i   to'   roti
   PAS   eat   p3.ABS   DEF   bread
   'Eat that bread'

The subject (Linda) at sentence (5) is deleted and the object is promoted to the transitive clause subject derivative as a non-actor that serves as single argument. Otherwise, the verb is integrated by affix *di-* at sentence (6) serves as passive construction. Further, the prefix *di-* also can be subtituded with prefix *to-*, as the following construction;

(7) *tokandemi to' roti*

 to kande –i   to' roti
 People eat p3.ABS DEF bread
 'Eat that bread'

Prefixes *di-* and *to-* at the above constructions function to respect people who are older than us. So, this is a kind of the politeness meaning. Actually, the passive constituent is same with the intransitive clause in Tae' language. So, the basic constituent regarding with this sentences is VS. Furthermore, another construction in Tae' language can be seen at the following sentence.

(8) *sitammui Elvis jio kampus*

 si-   tammu -i   jio   kampus
 INT ACT met   p3 ABS at (LOC) campus
 'She met Elvis at Campus.'

The position of prefix *si-* is an intransitive active. This prefix is derivative from IZ *tammu* 'met'. It is known also as antipassive structure. The antipassive *si-* derivates to peripheral function as preposition object by using preposition *jio* 'at' and it is not as a core argument anymore. Whereas, the affix *–i* emphasizes as absolutive marker. Syntactically, Tae' language has a basic VAO word orders based on this sentence.

Additionally, the antipassive is marked by reduction of transitive object clause into peripheral function. That is the affix *ma-,* for instance;

(9) *mabicarai (Elvis) {sola, lako} solana*

 ma-   bicara -i lako sola -na
 INT.STAT talk p3.ABS to friend p3.POS
 'Elvis is talking to his friend'

Semantically, the relation of derivation subject clause at this antipassive is an experiencer and dealing with the nature of stative verb *bicara* 'talk' which is only needed one core argument, that is the subject (experiencer). The constituent *sola/lako solana* can't be considered as core argument because it has derived to peripheral function. Thus, these constructions of sentences above are generated by prefix *ma-, ku-, na- di-,* and *si-* which are derived from derivation process namely the basic construction. Those derivations can change the status of arguments into the basic structure becomes new arguments. They also serve as an ergative marker. Whereas, the suffix *–i* derivates from the basic construction which explains the actor. The function of the suffix *–i* in those constructions is an absolutive marker. Those affixes constructions may occur at the stative, active, and passive forms. Additionally, those affixes can be used by an intransitive and transitive clauses, it depends on the sentence that follows it. Another suffixes of Tae' can be seen at possessive sentences. Following the sentence;

(10) *nabawai (Andy) bo'ku*

 na-   bawa -i(Andy) bo -ku
 P3.ERG took p3.ABS book p1.POS
 'Andy took my book'

The interesting feature of this sentence is located in the object. The suffix *–ku* that clings at the object has a meaning as *'my/mind'*. It is clear that Andy takes the book which does not belong to him. The suffix *–ku* emphasizes a noun. Interestingly, the suffix *–ku* can serve as pronoun. It can be the first person singular, see the following sentence;

(11) *soromi kukiring to' doi sammai*

 soromi ku-   kiring to' doi sammai
 already p1s.ERG send the money yesterday
 'I had already sent the money yesterday'

So, based on the two sentences above, concluded that the suffix *–ku* at the sentence (10) functions as possessive, otherwise, the prefix *ku-* at the sentence (11) functions as first person singular marker or as an ergative marker.

Another features in Tae' language is the affix *-na.* This affix is functioned as conjunction, for instance;

(12) *serre na balao*

 serre na balao
 cat CONJ mouse
 'Cat and mouse'

(13) *passe na sia*

 passe na sia
 chili CONJ salt
 'Chili and salt'

Interestingly, sentence (12) has meaning as a contrast, however, sentence (13) has a meaning as a coordination in Tae' language. Additionally, the personal pronouns are also known in Tae' language. The construction of the personal pronoun is also marked by affixes. The construction of the first person singular and the third person marker can be seen at the following sentences;

(14) *lamanjona lako kampus masiang*

 la- manjo -na   lako   kampus masiang

     will   go   p1s. ABS to (LOC)   campus tomorrow

     'I will go to the campus tomorrow'

Compared

(15) *naalli to' beppa*

     na-   alli   to' beppa

     p3s.ERG buy   the   cake

     'She bought the cake'

It is clear that those two sentences above have different personal pronouns marking. The suffix *-na* at sentence (14) describes the first person singular which emphasizes the verb, whereas, the prefix *na-* at sentence (15) describes the third person which serves the subject. Interestingly, the suffix *–na* as an absolutive marker at sentence (14) can be placed in front of like at sentence (15) and it becomes an ergative marker. Additionally, another suffix that is used to express the third person in Tae' language is the suffix *–i*. The suffix *–i* means 'she/he'. The suffix *–i* as an absolutive marker emphasises the verb. It can be seen at the following sentence;

(16) *maggurui bahasa Inggris*

     magguru   -i   bahasa   Inggris

     study   p3.ABS   language English

     'She/he is studying English'

Furthermore, another suffixes that use to express the second person singular is the suffix *–mu* and *–ko*. Suffixes *–mu* and *–ko* are functioned to indicate 'you'. Specifically, the suffix *–mu* and *–ko* are used for people who older than us, see the following sentences;

(17) *biluamu maballo santa*

     bilua -mu   maballo   santa

     hair   p2s.ERG beautiful   very

     'Your hair is very beautiful'

(18) *manjoko lako passikolang*

     manjo   -ko   lako   passikolang

     go   p2s.ERG to   school

     'You go to school'

Suffixes *–mu* and *–ko* serve as the second person singular as an ergative marker. The suffix *–mu* at sentence (17) emphasises a noun. Otherwise, the suffix *–ko* at sentence (18) emphasises a verb as order sentence. It means that suffix *–mu* and *–ko* function as a noun and a verb.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion, concluded that the process of morphosyntax of Tae' is divided into three categories. The first category is explained by reduplication of Tae'. The second category is explained by derivational affixation of Tae'. The third one is the sentence structures that describe the word orders of this language. Specifically, reduplication of Tae' language contains of full-reduplication and partial reduplication. Whereas, the derivational affixation of Tae' language contains of prefixes and suffixes. The prefixes in Tae' language are *ma-, ku-, na- di-*, and *si-*. While, the suffixes in Tae' language are *–i, - ko,* and *–mu*. Those affixes are derived from derivation process namely the basic construction. Those affixes may occur at the stative, active, and passive form whether in an intransitive or transitive clause. It depends on the sentences that follow it.

Syntactically, the personal marker of Tae' language functions as cross-references with the argument of transitive and intransitive clause subject, then transitive clause object. Notably, the personal marker has two functions in Tae' language. The first function is as an ergative marker and the second one is as an absolutive marker. Additionally, the basic constituent of Tae' language is VS/VAO. It can be seen at the position of verb towards arguments that accompany it. It means that Tae' language has the initial verb. Typically, the word order of the basic construction of Tae language is preceded by intransitive clause verb by using the ergative and absolutive marker then followed by noun phrase.

APPENDIX ABBREVIATIONS

ABS: absolutive
AV: actor voice
CONJ: conjunction
DEF: definitive
ERG: ergative
INT.STAT: intransitive stative
INT.ACT: intransitive active
LOC: locative
OV: object voice
POS: possessive

p1s: first person singular marker
p2s: second person singular marker
p3: third person marker
RED: reduplication

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2008 (chair-person)	Analisis Wacana Tuturan Bahasa Bugis Pendekatan Etnografi Komunikasi.
2009 (chair-person)	Pelatihan Penulisan Karya Tulis Ilmiah Bagi Mahasiswa Jurusan Bahasa Dan Sastra Indonesia Dan Daerah Fakultas Bahasa Dan Sastra Universitas Negeri Makassar
2011 (chair-person)	IBM Guru Sekolah Dasar Kecamatan Lamuru Kabupaten Bone.
2011 (chair-person)	IBM Tutor Warga Belajar Buta Aksara Di Kecamatan Lamuru Kabupaten Bone.
2011 (chair-person)	Nilai Pendidikan Dan Budaya Cerita Rakyat Putri We Taddampilie.
2013 (chair-person)	Ibm Guru Bahasa Indonesia Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan Di Sulawesi Selatan.
2015 (chair-person)	IBM pelatihan penulisan karya tulis ilmiah bagi Guru sekolah dasar negeri romang polong Kec. Sombaopu Gowa

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Cross-linguistic Variations of *pro* Licensing Conditions

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Abstract—**Null subject languages are generally called *pro*-drop languages. According to the generative syntactic analysis, languages can be divided into *pro*-drop and non-*pro*-drop languages. Subject Agreement (AgrS) is argued to be the licensing condition for the null subject languages. Nevertheless, *pro*-drop licensing conditions may vary in different languages. This paper analyzes various null subject languages with different *pro*-drop licensing conditions from cross-linguistic perspective.**

Index Terms—***pro*-drop, null subject, partial *pro*-drop, discourse-based *pro*-drop**

I. PRELIMINARY

Null subject phenomenon is universal in many languages. For example, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and Brazilian Portuguese etc. allow null subjects. According to the research, Subject Agreement (AgrS) in INFL licenses null subjects, while English and French disallow null subjects for the lack of AgrS. Chinese, Korean and Japanese etc. also allow null subjects even though there isn't AgrS. Therefore, Agreement is not the only standard in showing distinctive features of null subjects. In this paper, the author will discuss the conditions of null subjects, focusing on the Chinese null subjects.

Generally speaking, null subject phenomenon is divided into two subcategories according to the occurrence of Agr. One is null subjects with Agr in finite clauses called *pro*-drop (Italian and Spanish etc.), the other one is null subject without or with meager Agr called non-*pro*-drop. The former is subdivided into full *pro*-drop and partial *pro*-drop languages according to the degrees of richness of the AgrS. In this case, null subjects are recoverable according to the form of the verb which is based on the Agreement. The latter case includes the null subjects in the imperatives, truncated subjects in informal expression and PRO, which often occur in non-finite clauses etc. The most typical example is English. Languages of these types of null subjects are not to be considered as *pro*-drop languages.

Actually, there is one more type of *pro*-drop languages without Agr in which Chinese is the most typical representative. Chinese allows *pro*-drop though there is no Agr. It poses problem for the criteria of licensing *pro* which is based on the Agreement. It is reported that there also exist similar pro-drop phenomena in Korean and Japanese.

A. Null Subject Languages

Null subject language refers to the *pro*-drop (pronominal drop) in the subject position in finite clauses, such as Italian and Spanish. Therefore, it is also called as a *pro*-drop language. "*pro*-drop languages refer to those which allow a pronominal subject to be left unexpressed, they 'drop' the subject pronoun." (Haegeman, 1994)

Null pronominal subject (*pro*) is allowed in finite clauses because there is AgrS in INFL which licences *pro*. In other words, the AgrS is rich enough so that the null subject can be recovered by the verbal inflection (Agr). This is the condition which licences *pro* confirmed by many researchers. Examples (1)-(3) show that the form of null subject is recoverable because of the richness of AgrS in INFL. Therefore, we can infer the number, gender and person etc. according to the verbal inflection. Example (1) and (2) show the null subjects in finite clauses, while in (3) the null subject refers to the matrix subject *Gianni* which is in the discourse (It is also influenced by the Agr).

Italian:
(1) Lui ha telefonato[1]
 he has telephoned.
 he has phoned.
(2) Ha telefonato.
 Has telephoned.
 *(He) has telephoned.
(3) (a) Gianni ha detto che lui ha telefonato
   Gianni has said that he has telephoned
 (b) Gianni ha detto che ha telefonato
   Gianni has said that has telephoned

In addition to the full *pro*-drop languages mentioned above, there are certain numbers of languages that are partially *pro*-drop, i.e., they partially have verbal inflection which will lead to *pro*-drop. According to Platzack (1987), languages

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[1] Examples (1)-(3): Introducing Transformational Grammar from rules to principles (Ouhalla, 1994, P275).

like German and the Scandinavian allow only expletive *pro* (non-referential, subjects to be non-overt). It implies that "INFL in these languages is richer than that of English, but poorer than in Italian". (Haegeman, 1994)

According to Borer (1989), not all types of inflection are strong enough to allow *pro*-drop. He relates *pro*-drop option in Modern Hebrew to the richness of inflection. "In the present tense, only gender and number are overtly realized, person is not. The third person is the unmarked form in the other tenses too."

Furthermore, Slavic languages and American Sign Languages also exhibit frequent occurrence of *pro*-drop feature. For example, Croation which is one of the Slavic languages shows *pro*-drop features in (4). Turkish, which is one of the Altaic languages is also a partial *pro*-drop language. For instance,

Croation
(4) Vidim ga. Dolazi.
    See-1st PERS-SING he-ACC. Come-3rd PERS-SING.
    (I) see him. (He) is coming.

Turkish
(5) Geldiğini gördüm.
    Coming-POSSESSIVE saw.
    (I) saw (you/him/her/it) come.

In (5), the verb *gör-mek* is declined in the first person simple past tense form. The object pronoun can be deduced from the context though it is not clear enough.

Esperanto, which is a constructed language sometimes also exhibits *pro*-drop phenomena in certain context where the pronoun has been used before. The dropping of the subject-pronoun equivalent *li* in the subsequent sentence is syntactically correct in (6).

Esperanto
(6) Ĉu vidas lin? *e* Venas nun.
    Question-particle see him? (li) Comes now.
    Do (you) see him? (He) is coming now.

Besides, Brazilian Portuguese, Finnish, and Marathi are also partial *pro*-drop languages in certain discourse or context according to the research of Holmberg (2005). According to the research statistics, among the 847 sample tokens from rural variety of Brazilian Portuguese, there are about 46% null subjects and 54% of non-null subjects concerning with undetermined reference, taboo reference, referent in the border of definition, generic collective as a referent and defined reference etc. (Holmberg, 2005). Therefore, *pro*-drop may also be influenced by the discourse or the context. For instance,

Brazilian Portuguese
(7) (a) Pedro disse que *e* ganhou na loto.
        Pedro said that   won on the-lottery
        Pedro said that (he) won on the lottery.
    (b) Aqui não   pode nadir.
        here not   can swim
        (One) can't swim here.

Finnish
(8) (a) Pertti sanoi että *e* voitti lotossa.
        Pertti said that (he) won on-lottery
    (b) Täällä ei   voi uida.
        here   not can swim
        (One) can't swim here.

Marathi
(9) (a) Ram mhanala ki   *e* lotteri jinkla.
        Ram said   that (he) lottery won
    (b) Hya khurchiwar aaramani   bushushakto.
        this chair-on   (one)   comfort-with sit
        (One) can sit comfortably in this chair.

From the analysis on the full *pro*-drop and partial *pro*-drop, we can conclude some common features of *pro*-drop languages. 1) There is Agreement which makes subject recovered. 2) Dropped subjects are pronominals. 3) They occur in finite clauses. It is reported that many Romance languages (except French) etc. also partially show *pro*-drop features. They are Occitan, Catalan, Portuguese, and Romanian etc. To sum up, we can categorize various types of *pro*-drop languages chiefly depending on the richness of the Agreement as the following table. Group A refers to full *pro*-drop language and Group B refers to partial *pro*-drop languages. These two groups of *pro*-drops are possible because of the AgrS in INFL though there are differences in the sufficiency of richness. Group C refers to different types of *pro*-drop phenomena from what we have discussed and this is to be discussed in part III by focusing on the Chinese null subject phenomenon.

Group	pro-drop languages	Agr
A	Itlian, Spanish etc.	++Agr
B	German, Scandinavian, Modern Hebrew, Turkish, Esperanto, Occitan, Catalan, Portuguese, Romanian (except French), Croation, Brazilian Portuguese, Finnish, Marathi etc.	+Agr
C	Chinese, Korean, Japanese etc.	-Agr

B. Non-null Subject Languages

Some non-null subject languages such as English and French have meager verbal inflection that it is hard to differentiate person, number and gender by the Agr in INFL. It is disallowed to drop the *pro* in the subject position in English. However, sometimes we can encounter the null subjects in English as well as in other languages. It is also one of the null subject phenomena, but they are essentially different from what we mentioned above. As a matter of fact, the null subject is truncated informally under certain circumstances for various reasons. It is very common in informal or spoken languages such as in English. (PRO is also one of the null subject, but it occurs in non-finite clauses.)

English
(10) *Has spoken.
    *John has said that *e* has spoken.
(11) A: Where did you go last night?
    B: (I) Went to see the movie.
(12) A: (You) open the window.
    B: Yes, Sir.

II.   ANALYSIS ON PRO-LICENSING CONDITIONS

Why is it possible to drop the pronominal subject in the sentences? We have mentioned that Italian type languages can drop pronominal subjects in finite clauses. The reason is that there is overt AgrS in INFL. It means that the dropped pronominal subjects can be recovered according to the verbal inflection, i.e., "*pro* is licensed by an overt Agr category co-indexed with it". (Ouhalla, 1994) In other words, *pro*-drop must have a co-indexed Agr category which governs it and makes *pro* recovered.

According to Chomsky (1981, 1982), one of the main features of *pro*-drop languages is recoverability. This condition also emphasizes the function of Agr. Following this rule, *pro*-drop in Italian is recoverable because of the overt AgrS in INFL. Because there is no overt lexical antecedent in Italian type *pro*-drop languages, syntactic feature of *pro* is [-anaphoric, +pronominal]. In contrast, in English type languages, *pro*-drop is disallowed because the pronominal subject is irrecoverable according to the agreement.

Spanish:	French:	English
(13) (a) *pro* Vimos a Juan.	(14) (a) **pro* Voyons Jean.	(15) (a) **(I) see.
(we) see Juan.	(we) see Jean.	(b) **(we) see.
(b) *pro* Baila bien.	(b) **pro* Danse bien.	(c) **(you) see.
(he/she) dances well.	(he/she) dances well.	(d) **(you) see.
(c) *pro* Estamos cansadisimos.	(c) **pro* Sommes tres fatigues.	(e) **(he/she)sees.
(we) are very tired.	(we) are very tired.	(f) **(they) see.

Recent years, more attention is focused on the conditions of null subjects. It is proved that not all the *pro*-drop languages have overt Agr in INFL. Chinese is one of the most typical examples. According to Huang (1984), Chinese is a *pro*-drop language even if there is no overt Agr. It implies that there might be some other factors licensing null subjects. Detailed analysis on the conditions of null subjects in Chinese will be elaborated in the following section.

III.   DISCOURSE-BASED PRO-DROP LANGUAGE—CHINESE

We have seen that *pro*-drop languages largely depend on overt Agr in INFL. According to James Huang (1984), "*pro* is possible either in languages with rich agreement (AgrS) or no agreement at all" (e.g. Chinese, Japanese and Korean etc.). Unlike typical *pro*-drop languages such as Italian and Spanish which are based on agreement marking, Chinese *pro* has no overt Agr which can make the dropped subject recovered.

Chinese has no verbal inflection. Huang (1984, 1989) proposes a generalized control theory and argues that "identification hypothesis is essentially correct, but that it must be more broadly interpreted than is assumed in the agreement-based theory".

Chinese has no overt agreement to recover the form of the subject. However, it is a *pro*-drop language. What licenses *pro*-drop in Chinese? Let's look at some of the examples in detail.

Chinese:
(16) Speaker A: Zhangsan kanjian Lisi le ma?
           Zhangsan see Lisi ASP Q?
    Speaker B: (ta) kanjian (ta) le.
          (he) saw (him).

(17) Zhangsan shuo [*e*   hen xihuan Lisi].
     Zhangsan say   (he) very like   Lisi
     Zhangsan said that (he) liked Lisi.

In (16), the null subject refers to *Zhangsan* which is mentioned in the discourse. In speaker B, the subject position can be null or non-null. If it is non-null, the subject could be *Zhangsan* or the pronominal *he*. That implies it is the place where case can be assigned by government (case filter). In (17), the null subject in the embedded clause refers to either the matrix subject *Zhangsan* or other lexical subject. (*say* is not an obligatory control verb) It also implies that the position of embedded subject is governed and assigned case. Therefore, we can prove that null subject of Chinese is a governed *pro*.

Generally speaking, finiteness of Chinese sentence is determined by the occurrence of element of AUX such as aspect marker such as *le* or modal etc.(Huang 1989). However, it is not an obligatory factor deciding finiteness. In many cases, the element of AUX doesn't occur as in (17). In addition, Huang argues that Chinese *pro* has similarities with PRO because it is anaphoric as in (17). In the light of similarities between PRO and *pro* in Chinese, Huang put forward Generalized Control Rule[2]. In (17), we can find that the null subject is controlled in its control domain[3] and has [+anaphoric, +pronominal] (PRO) syntactic feature. Therefore, we can conclude that Chinese *pro* has the feature of PRO. More precisely, Chinese *pro* is controlled in its control domain. Huang argues that "PRO and *pro* are instances of the same category, and that the properties of PRO/*pro* fall under a proper theory of generalized control."(1989). In (18), subject of the sentential complement is controlled by the matrix subject within its control domain and the embedded subject can be null.

Chinese:
(18) Zhangsan shefa [PRO bangmang wo].
     Zhangsan try   help   I
     Zhangsan tried to   help   me.

Chinese *pro* is controlled within its control domain. As a matter of fact, control domain is closely related to the discourse as in (19).

(19) Zhangsan qi ma   qi de [*pro* hen lei].
     Zhangsan ride horse ride till   very trired
     Zhangsan rode a horse until he got very tired.

However, not all the *pro*-drop in the control domain is controlled properly in Chinese. It is closely related to the matrix control verbs. According to Huang (1989), verbs in Chinese *try, manage, fail, condescend,* and *decide* etc. require obligatory control, while *say, ask,* and *wonder* etc. don't require obligatory control especially when it is followed by a sentential complement or contained in a sentential subject. Therefore, *pro* has optional control as in (20).

(20) Zhangsan shuo [*pro*/PRO mingtian bu bi lai].
     Zhangsan say   tomorrow not need come.
     Zhangsan said that (he/she/we one…) need not come tomorrow.

To sum up what has been stated above, Chinese *pro* is different from agreement-based *pro* in Italian. It is not only governed, but also controlled in its control domain like PRO. Therefore, Chinese *pro* is similar to PRO.

We also can find from the examples that Chinese *pro*-drop occurs in control domain which is in the scope of discourse. In many cases, matrix subject serves as the antecedent of *pro* and *pro* is anaphoric. Chinese *pro* is also governed for the reasons of case theory. We can infer from the perspectives of Huang that control domain is a crucial concept in defining Chinese *pro*. Generalized Control Rule (GCR) provides the rationale for analyzing Chinese *pro*. Huang's analysis is essentially based on the relationships between the syntactic categories. Admittedly, Huang's theory provides a good approach in explaining the special case of Chinese *pro*.

In addition to the syntactic relationship between categories, we also can consider it from pragmatic aspects. Let's go back to the very beginning and start from the analysis on the agreement-based *pro*. We have seen that Italian type *pro*-drop languages have sufficiently rich agreement in INFL which licences *pro*. This type of *pro* is available whether there is discourse or not. In Chinese, pronominal subjects without discourse(viz. no control domain) can't be dropped because of the arbitrary references. Unlike typical *pro*-drop languages such as Italian, Chinese lacks Agreement. To have discourse for *pro*-drop is basically consistent with Huang's GCR theory. Compared with Italian *pro*, Chinese *pro* requires discourse. Therefore, it is plausible to define this type of languages as discourse-based *pro*-drop languages.

Chinese   Italian:
(21) (a) *(wo) kanjian le.   (22) (a) (io) mangio   'I eat'
     (b) *(women) kanjian le.   (b) (tu) mangi 'you eat'
     (c) *(ni) kanjian le.   (c) (lui/lei) mangia 'he/she eats'
     (d) *(nimen) kanjian le.   (d) (noi) mangiamo 'we eat'
     (e) *(ta) kanjian le.   (e) (voi) mangiate 'you eat'

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[2] Generalized Control Rule (GCR) An empty pronominal is controlled in its control domain (if it has one).
[3] According to Manzini (1983) and Nishigauchi (1984), α is the control domain for β iff it is the minimal category that satisfies both (a) and (b):
a. α is the lowest S or NP that contains β or the minimal maximal category containing β.
b. α contains a SUBJECT accessible to β.

(f) *(tamen) kanjian le.   (f) (essi) mangiano 'they eat'

When there is discourse, Italian *pro* also can be recovered (e.g. (3)). This is because they are syntactically in the control domain and pragmatically confined in the scope of discourse which determines what the dropped *pro* is. As a whole, without the implication of discourse, it is very hard to tell the phi-features of the pronominal subjects such as, person, number or gender etc. Therefore, Chinese *pro* is allowed in the discourse/control domain. For example, in (23), *pro* is governed because it is assigned case via case filter and anaphoric because it has an antecedent *Mary* in the matrix clause. The matrix clause serves as the discourse and forms control domain with the embedded clause.

(23) Mali jueding [e likai] (le).

Mali decide (she) likai (ASP)

Mary decided to leave.

We can extend this analysis to the other *pro*-drop languages. Italian and other partial *pro*-drop languages also show similar pragmatic features as in Chinese. Common feature of null subjects in full and partial *pro*-drop languages is that *pro*-drop is not only allowed in the case of Agreement, but also in the case of discourse.

Generally speaking, Chinese allows *pro*-drop quite naturally and frequently. Chinese *pro* is inferable depending on the discourse or context. There is one more evidence which supports the perspective that Chinese *pro*-drop requires discourse or context.

According to the "hot-cool" division of media,[4] languages also can be divided into "hot" languages and "cool" languages. "hot" languages don't need any conscious participation of the readers because all the syntactic categories are to be elaborated clearly such as English, while "cool" languages need more readers' participation to extract the value. Chinese type languages belong to "cool" languages because the omitted syntactic categories are inferable through the discourse or the context (relevant knowledge of the world or the common topic shared by the speaker and the listener). It is reported that Korean and Japanese also belong to "cool" type languages. In contrast, in English type "hot" languages syntactic categories including pronominals in the subject position can't be omitted even there is discourse or the context. The following example is about Chinese *pro*-drop and all the answers provided by B are possible because the null subjects are all inferable in the discourse (Actually, null objects are also inferable in the discourse).

(24) A: Zhangsan kanjian Lisi le ma?[5]

Zhangsan see Lisi LE Q

B: a. ta kanjian le.

he saw *e*.

He saw [him].

b. *e* kanjian ta le.

saw him

[He] saw him.

c. *e* kanjian *e* le.

saw

[He] saw [him].

We have discussed that null subject is not only allowed by the agreement, but also by the discourse. We also find some other cases in Chinese, viz. pragmatically context-based null subjects. By depending on the extra knowledge of the speaker and the listener (particularized conversational implicatures), we allow null subjects in Chinese. For example,

(25) A: xiansheng, [nin] laidian shenme? (Sir, what (do you) want to eat?)

B: [wo] yao yibei kele. ((I) want a cup of Coke.)

(In the restaurant, A is a waiter and B is a customer.)

(26) A: [ni] shenme shihou laide? (When did (you) come?)

B: [wo] ganglai. ((I) arrived just now.)

A: [ni] deng le hen chang shijian ma? (Did (you) wait for me for long time?)

B: [wo] meiyou. (No. (I) didn't.)

(A is late after making an appointment with B to meet at the school gate.)

To summarize what have been illustrated above, Chinese allows *pro*-drop phenomenon. However, the licensing condition is rather different from the subject agreement-based *pro*-drop. Chinese *pro* is much subject to the inference by an antecedent in its control domain/discourse or context. Therefore, Chinese *pro*-drop is allowed when there is discourse or context. Whether Chinese is a full *pro*-drop or partial *pro*-drop needs further verification. Syntactic and pragmatic distribution of *pro* in various languages can be generalized as follows.

Italian type: [+finite clause], [+discourse/control domain], [-anaphoric, +pronominal], [++Agr]

German type: [+finite clause], [+discourse/control domain/context], [-anaphoric, +pronominal], [+Agr]

Chinese type: [+finite clause], [+discourse/control domain/context], [+anaphoric, +pronominal], [-Agr]

Syntactic and pragmatic features of null subjects in different languages can be observed from the above distributional features. Critically speaking, the agreement-based condition of licensing *pro* doesn't have the distinctive feature to

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[4] *Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man* (Mcluhan, 1964)

[5] On the distribution and reference of empty pronouns, *Linguistic Inquiry* 15: 531-574. (Huang, 1984)

explain null subject phenomena, because it can't explain diversified situations of licensing *pro*. From the fact that Chinese also allows *pro* without agreement marking, we can conclude that *pro*-drop is also licensed by discourse or context.

IV. CONCLUSION

According to the research above, we conclude that there are various conditions in licensing null subjects. Null subject languages can be divided into three types on the basis of different *pro*-licensing conditions. Italian type *pro*-drop languages are licensed by strong subject agreement in INFL. Partial *pro*-drop languages like Turkish, German and Esperanto etc. have meager agreement and they show dependence on the discourse or the context to some extent. Chinese type *pro*-drop languages without subject agreement (either strong or meager) completely depend on the discourse or the context. Cross-linguistic variations in *pro*-licensing conditions display idiosyncratic features of individual language.

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An Eco-feminist Reading of *Love Medicine*

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Abstract—**Louise Erdrich is one of the most prolific, important and successful contemporary native American writers. *Love Medicine* is her representative work. And it represents the lives of Chippewa Indians in reservation. This paper aims to analyze traditional Indian women's relationship with nature from the perspective of eco-feminism. Both the Indian women and the living environment in reservation are persecuted by the patriarchy and they are deprived of voice. In men's eyes, women and the nature are just something inferior and attached to them. However, the Indian women don't yield. They unite together and make the best use of their close relationship with nature, rebuilding the harmony between men and women, man and nature, thus gaining more freedom and power and elevating their social status.**

Index Terms—*Love Medicine*, eco-feminism, female, nature, harmony

I. INTRODUCTION

Louise Erdrich, a Native American writer of novels, poetry, and children's books featuring Native American characters and settings, grew up in North Dakota. She earned her B.A. in English of Dartmouth College in 1976. At Johns Hopkins University, in 1979, she acquired her Master of Arts in the Writing Seminars. Actually, she is one of the most prolific and successful contemporary American writers.

Love Medicine, published in 1984, is Louise Erdrich's first novel. In 1984, It won the National Book Critics Award. This novel represents the lives of Chippewa Indian in Turtle Mountain Reservation. The novel begins with June's death on her way back to the reservation. Even though she dies at the very beginning, June holds the novel together. Meanwhile, the Marie-Nector-Lulu's love triangle is also a link in this novel. And each chapter in *Love Medicine* is a vivid tale that stands alone, even though characters who are grandparents in one story are wild youngsters in another story.

Eco-feminism describes movements and philosophies that combine feminism with ecology. MacGregor (2006) holds that the men's domination of land, a fundamental principle of eco-feminism, has led to a dominator culture, showing itself in food export, over-pasturing, the tragedy of the common people, exploitation of people, and an abusive land, in which animals and land are valued only as economic resources. Eco-feminists consider there is a strong parallel line between the women's oppression in society and the nature's degradation. And they also think that women have a closer relationship with nature than men.

Louise Erdrich has the similar standpoints. In *Love Medicine*, the female characters such as Marie and Lulu, have an intimate relationship with nature. This paper aims to analyze the eco-feminist consciousness of female characters in *Love Medicine*.

II. PATRIARCHY—ROOT OF OPPRESSION OF NATURE AND WOMEN

The definition of patriarchy, in the dictionary, is a form of social organization that father is the supreme authority in the household, clan, or tribe and blood lineage is calculated in the male line, with the children belonging to the father's clan or tribe (Mahon, 2011). Actually, patriarchal system is the source of all oppressions. The oppression of nature and women also blame for the patriarchy. Patriarchal system treats nature and women as objects, which brings about the domination and rule. In this system, nature is in the position of having no voice and always is repressed by men at random. Apparently, nature is an appendant in patriarchal system, so are women who are regarded as subordinate too. Women are always described as silent and passive objects that are attached to men.

Since women and nature are dominated by men under the influence of patriarchy, they have been wrecked terribly. In *Love Medicine*, the land and female characters are both persecuted by patriarchy, in other words, patriarchy is the original cause of oppression of nature and women in reservation. The following part will give a detailed analysis.

A. Deteriorated Environment in Reservation

The living environment in reservation is gradually deteriorating. When Albertine hears the death of June, she returns to the reservation and she describes the beautiful scenery: "all along the highway that early summer the land was beautiful. The sky stretched bare. Tattered silver windbreaks bounded flat, plowed fields that the government had paid to lie fallow." (Louise, 1993, P11) But when she drives close to reservation, she describes the wild and shabby sights of reservation:

At the end of the big farms and the blowing fields was the reservation. ··Even in the distance you could sense hills from their opposites---pits, dried sloughs, ditches of cattails, potholes and then the water. There would be water in the

hills when there wasn't any on the plains, The highway narrowed off and tangled, then turned to gravel with ruts, holes, and blue alfalfa bunching in the ditches. Small hills reared up. Dogs leaped from nowhere and ran themselves out fiercely. The dust hung thick.

From the depictions, it is easy to find the living environment in reservation is really terrible. Compared with the outside world, reservation is just like a hell.

In *Love Medicine*, Erdrich gives a vivid and exact description of the living situation in reservation. The white replaces farms and pastures in reservation with factories and mines. Fields and air in reservation are heavily polluted, and the rich lands become barren after giving way to factories or mines. The white wants to change Native Americans into farmers and imposes their rules on them. It is not very hard to see this point from the policy of allotment mentioned in *Love Medicine*. As Erdrich states, the land policy in reservation is a joke. In reality, this policy is the cause of the land loss in reservation, and finally their loss of home. This policy intends to congregate the Native Americans in reservation away from encroaching settlers, but it causes considerable sufferings and many deaths. And it is responsible for the Native Americans' more and more serious poverty. The white government nibbles Native Americans' territory and gains a lot of benefits from making use of their land. Before the white came, the Indian reservation was pastoral, picturesque and peaceful; however, the policy destroys the landscape and breakdowns the natural beauty. The white should admit that they do cause serious sabotage to Native Americans' survival areas.

From these sentences, the author of this paper realizes that the policy of allotment has passive effects on Native Americans in reservation, as it terminates their communal possession of property by which they ensure that everyone have a home and a place in reservation. This policy is the climax of Americans' attempting to destroy tribes and open Indian land to put down roots by non-Indians. Also, it imposes a patriarchal nuclear family onto many maternal Native societies, in which property and descent are dominated by women.

B. *Persecuted Women in Reservation*

Androcentrism, which favors men over women, makes women subservient to men. In reservation, women have no freedom and rights, and the status of women is much lower than that of men. Women cannot escape from their tragic fate and they are thought that they should be inferior to men. After the invasion of the whites, Indian women are also affected by the religious persecution of the white.

In *Love Medicine*, many female characters are persecuted by patriarchy, such as June, Marie, Lynette and so on. They are always in the position of having no voice and are described as silent and passive objects that are attached to men.

Love Medicine begins with June's death on her way back to the reservation. Even though she dies at the first chapter, June holds the novel together. In *Love Medicine*, June is a major female character. She is fostered by Great-uncle Eli. He takes her in when June's no-good Morrissey father runs off to a big city. When she grows up to be a adult, she begins a romantic relationship with Gordie. However, their marriage turns out to be an off-and-on marriage and June finally leaves the reservation. When June lives in the white world, she is always ridiculed and treated unequally by the white. She often has no money for foods and doesn't know exactly when she ate last time. Her clothing often itches. She really has a hard life in white world. So when she is ridiculed by a customer just because of her race, she purposely dyes the customer's hair stiff green with chemicals to abreact her anger. After experiencing the failed marriage with Gordie, she also wants to find a good white man to rely on, but the white men she turns to think that "an Indian woman was nothing but an easy night". So she makes up her mind to go back to the reservation. Unfortunately, she is frozen to death in the storm.

Marie is a great mother and wife in the novel. When Marie appears first in *Love Medicine*, she is devoutly pursuing her dream of becoming a Christian saint. Marie imagines the holy scene when she becomes a saint some day: "Plumes of radiance had soldered on me (Marie). No reservation girl had ever prayed so hard. …And they never thought they'd have a girl from this reservation as a saint they'd have to kneel to." (Louise, 1993, P43) Marie fancies when she becomes a saint, she will be carved in pure gold with ruby lips and people have to stoop down off their high horse to show respect for her. This description fully shows Marie's piety and confidence. However, when she marries Nector, she becomes less and less confident. Her husband, Nector, betrays her. When Marie fags away at supporting family, Nector has an extramarital affair with Lulu. And Nector even wants to abandon her and their children so that he can live with Lulu together. Beyond expectation, Lulu doesn't accept Nector, so he has to return home. Even though Nector does so, Marie still forgives him and does her best to help him to be something big on reservation. Her life is centered on Nector and she is proud of Nector's achievements. She loses herself and all she concentrates on is Nector and everything around him.

Lynette is the wife of King, son of June. She is also a female character persecuted by men's domination. Her life is so hard not because she has a terrible living conditions, but because she is in the position of having no voices in her family. She must obey King and listen to his advices for everything in life. As Erdrich's depicts, Lynette is weary, eyes watery and red. Her tan hair, caught in a stiff club, looks as though it has been used to drag her here. From Lynette's appearance description, it is not very hard to find that Lynette has a life without any motivation. She spends the whole day just for the purpose of keeping alive.

To sum up, all these three female characters are persecuted by patriarchy. An Na (2009)argues that they are dominated by men and have no voice in daily life. The men in reservation just think women as something attached to them. Even though these women sacrifice their whole life to serve men, they still are ignored.

III. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NATURE AND WOMEN

Cui Tian (2012) thinks that in the progress of a society, women are always the first to notice the negative effects of environmental pollution. Eco-feminists also say that women have a closer relationship with nature than men. This closeness, therefore, makes women more nurturing and regardful of nature. However, this closeness isn't recognized by men. Women's voices are often ignored. Together with women, nature is also viewed as an exploitable resource that is significantly undervalued. Both of them are in the position of being dominated by men. Some eco-feminists gradually realize that the exploitation of nature and the oppression of women relate to each other closely. And they also believe that women and nature need freedom, respect, care and love.

In *Love Medicine*, Louise Erdrich also depicts some female characters that have a close relationship with nature. Even though they don't have a happy life under the domination of men they still relate themselves to nature closely. They are proud of their inherent closeness with nature and strive to protect nature.

A. June's Thirst for Freedom and Equality

June is frozen to death in the storm when she comes back to the reservation in the first chapter. Even though there is no direct depiction about her, June's desire for freedom and equality still can be felt in *Love Medicine*. Albertine retells June's daring experience in the white society: "When June was studying to be a beautician, I (Albertine) remember, word came that she had purposely burned an unruly customer's hair stiff green with chemicals. And other secretaries didn't like her. She reported drunk for work in dime storms and swaggered out of restaurants where she'd waitressed a week, at the first wisecrack." (Louise, 1993, P9) From these descriptions, it is clear to see June's thirst for freedom and equality. June leaves the reservation to earn her life through her own hard work; obviously she is independent and self-motivated. Being a strong independent woman, she can't bear others treating her unequally just because of her race. So she vents her anger by intentionally dying an impolite customer's hair green and stiff with chemicals, being drunk for a work in dime stores and swaggering out restaurants. Being an independent woman, different from other Indian women, June wants freedom and equality on tiptoe, which nature expects too under the domination of human beings.

June has a happy life when she lives with Eli. They suck on pine sap and graze grass and nip buds like a beer. They always have an intimate relationship with nature. They treat nature as their old friends. June thinks that she has a closer relationship with nature than others especially men. In June's eyes, the nature is equal to her, and there is no hierarchy between human and nature.

These vivid descriptions show June is brave and dares to love, protest and hate. However, in the white society, her way of gaining independence turns out to be wrong finally. Being a member of Native Americans, she can not avoid being ridiculed by others, especially the white. After the failure of trying to be independent through her efforts, she wants to try her luck by finding a good man to rely on, but the white men she turns to for dependence consider her as an easy night. She finally loses herself and dies on her way back to reservation.

B. Lulu's Intimacy with Nature

Lulu is described as a powerful protector of nature in *Love Medicine;* she is charming and wins Nector's heart. But she falls into love with Moses living along in an island. And she decides to begin a romantic relationship with him regardless of the oppositions of her families. When she goes back to reservation many years later, she has an extramarital affair with Nector and different relationships with different men so that her boys vary greatly in appearances. After being treated unequally, Lulu fights for female's freedom and rights with the other women in reservation together. What's more, Lulu is a strong-minded girl. She loves nature so deeply that she spends her lifetime protecting the land from being destroyed by the white. Her love for nature can be illustrated exactly by her words in *Love Medicine*:

"When I came back to the reservation after my long years gone, I saw the leaves of the poplars applaud high in wind. I saw the ducks barrel down, reaching to the glitter of the slough water. Wind chopped the clouds to rolls that rose and puffed whiter, whiter. Blue June berry, tough diamond willow. I watched my own face float over the grass, traveling alongside me in the dust of the bus window, and I grinned, showed my teeth. They could not cage me anymore." (Louise, 1993, P69)

It is no doubt that Lulu has an intimate relationship with nature from the above sentences in the book. After being separated from nature for so many years, her love for nature is beyond words. She wants to returen to the embrace of the nature.

On the other hand, there is another signal of Lulu's love for nature. It is her marriage to Moses. After their marriage, the couple develop a close relationship with nature. For example, they prefer to live in their cave, eat rosehip and raw potatoes. They take a bath in the lake even though the water is freezing. When on the shore, they hug each other for warmth. To some degree, Lulu's love for Moses is another indication of her love for the nature.

Besides these, Lulu holds the opinion that her innate wildness is the cause of her sexual relationship with different men. Lulu Lamartine says in *Love Medicine,* "There were times I let them in just for being part of the world." (Louise, 1993, P273) So she makes love with different men, and her children cannot know their fatherhood clearly. Lulu lives her life in this wild way regardless of rumors about her in the tribe. She confesses frankly: "No one ever understood my wild and secret ways. They used to say Lulu Lamartine was like a cat, loving no one, only purring to get what she

wanted. But that's not true. I was in love with the whole world and all that lived in its rainy arms." (Louise, 1993, P272) Even though no one comprehends her, Lulu never regrets or minds living her life following her heart.

In a word, Lulu is a representative of outstanding women. Lulu believes that she belongs to nature and opens herself to it both physically and spiritually. She tries to help people who are confronted with loss of land and home, which shows Lulu's affinity with nature. And her sense of embracing nature corresponds to the traditional Indian belief that all things in the nature have interconnection with each other. They can't live alone because they are a unified entirety.

C. Marie's Feminist Consciousness

Marie Lazarre is one of the main female characters in *Love Medicine*, and she gives readers with deep impression. Ever since Marie was young, she has been searching for her subjectivity through her striving to be Saint Marie. However, when she realizes the Christian belief is not her Indian religion and will do her no good, she comes to know that it is foolish of her to rely on the white. So she never prays. If she wants something she gets it by herself. She goes to church only to show the old hens they haven't got her down.

Marie is optimistic and loves nature deeply. What is more, Marie is a representative female figure with talents and a strong will. She reflects the innermost world of strong women, who are conscious of the intelligence of themselves. She knows from the beginning that she has married a man with brains. However, she also knows that the brains wouldn't matter unless she keeps her husband, Nector, from the alcohol. And Marie decides that she is going to make her husband into something big on the reservation.

Marie also tries hard to maintain the daily needs of the big family without any complaint. She tries her best to take care of household and handles family affairs well. She is in charge of her family in a good condition without Nector's help. She tries to make butter, pieces quilts, and sews other people's clothes, whatever she can do to get by without Nector. She earns more money than her husband, Nector, later she even provides financial support for him. She shows people that women could have her own life and her own realm in family like men.

Although Marie fails to come into her husband's world, she realizes her desire and power in her own sphere. In her own realm, she releases stress, realizes her potential and talents. She is such a great woman as to be able to unite her enemy Lulu together to fight for the Indian people's right. She takes on the responsibility to revive the whole tribe. Marie is a powerful survivor whose strength is closely connected to nature. It is this strength that allows Marie to gain her confidence in the reservation.

IV. DECONSTRUCTING PATRIARCHY

To eliminate hierarchies and dismantle the logic of domination of patriarchy is one important task for eco-feminists. Eco-feminists emphasize the relationship between all life forms rather than hierarchies or ranking. For eco-feminists, the deconstruction of patriarchy is in accordance with the essential assumption of traditional women, which clarifies the intimate relation between nature and human. Women determine to unite together to change their fates (Fricker, 2000). They stick at controlling the deteriorating living environment and proposing solutions to the environmental problems. Women and nature, the subordinate other in patriarchy, are also independent like all the other life forms, interconnected with each other in the ecological wholeness. Such ideas of eco-feminists will deconstruct patriarchy.

In *Love Medicine*, the patriarchal domination is deconstructed. To Marie, nature is her soul mate that comforts and empowers her to overcome constraining social structures and win herself social equality with men. Marie respects nature and takes care of nature as her child. Both nature and women realize their creativity and possess great productivity. They have proved that they are the independent self with intrinsic value.

A. The Sisterhood: The Unity of Lulu and Marie

Lulu and Marie are two major female characters in *Love Medicine*, especially Marie who not only brings up her own children but also nurtures those who are discarded and homeless. Lulu and Marie are rivals because of their relationship with Nector: one is wife and the other is mistress. What is most surprised is that after Lulu has an operation on her eyes, Marie comes forward to take care of her. They start to communicate, understand and appreciate each other. In the chapter "The Good Tears", Louise Erdrich writes:

I (Lulu) thought her voice was like music in itself, ripe and quiet… I gave her a pillow I'd made out of those foam rubber petals they sell in kits.

"This is real nice," she said, "I never learned how to do this kind of thing."

…

"I appreciate you coming here to help me get my vision," I said. "But the truth is I have no regrets."

"That's all right" … Her voice had lightened. "There's a pattern of three lines in the wood."

I didn't understand, so she put it another way.

"Somebody had to put the tears into your eyes. (Louise, 1993, P293)

The dialogue depicts a warm picture of Lulu and Marie who help and care about each other even though they were rivals before. After Nector whom they both love deeply dies, they become ally to look after each other and fight against the white government to protect their Native Americans' rights together.

B. The Harmonious Relationship between Men and Women

Since the emancipation of women, the relationship between men and women has become more and more harmonious and the values of women have been recognized gradually. The role of women in daily life becomes more and more vital. The female and male gradually live a harmonious life together. They commence helping and appreciating each other. Women gradually are in the position of having voice in society. They begin to wield their rights and power to make a better life with men and nature.

In *Love Medicine*, Lulu helps Moses regain the ability of speaking, walking and living. Before Lulu comes to the island, Moses speaks in the old language and uses words that have lost for a long time. When Lulu comes to the island, she always tries her best to help Moses regain the ability of living as a normal person. "Lulu turned Moses to the front with her gaze, put his clothes on right. She pulled him into the circle of her arms the way a mother encourages her child to walk. Touch by touch, she took down his grave house. With her kisses, she placed food for living people between his lips. He told her his real name. Not the name that fooled the dead, but the word that harbored his life." (Louise, 1993, P81)

Thanks to Lulu's help, Moses finds his voice again and tries to say something in a whisper. He gradually becomes a normal person with no problems in communication. When Lulu is pregnant, he even visits Nanapush alone, retrieves her clothes and private things. He uses her twelve nickels for clothes, green coffee beans to roast, canned milk, and the peaches she carves. From the Moses's regain of the abilities as a normal person, the women's power is clearly stated. Actually, women start to take a more and more significant role in daily life, such as Marie. Marie handles family affairs alone. She earns money by her own hands to support family. And later she even provides financial support for Nector. Her contributions in Nector's success can't be ignored. Women and men begin to live together in harmony in *Love Medicine*.

V. CONCLUSION

The land and living environment in reservation is deteriorating day by day because of the policy of allotment. Similar with nature, women in reservation are also oppressed. Under the oppression of patriarchy, women in reservation lose themselves and they have no freedom and voice (Sanders, 1998). What they can do is adopting children and handling family affairs. However, women never give up themselves in such terrible situation. They never yield to the power of men under the domination of patriarchy even though they suffer a lot from it. They always keep the thinking of eco-feminism in their minds. They always connect themselves with nature closely and devote themselves to protecting nature. The female characters in *Love Medicine* take a vital role in protecting their home and nature in reservation. At the same time, they also fight for their own freedom and rights. They unite together to fight for it even though some of them were rivals once such as Marie and Lulu. Through their striving, women in reservation have gained rights and can speak their voice loudly. The role they take in tribal society becomes more and more vital. Meanwhile, their relationships with men have been improved and they begin to live together in harmony.

Ecological crisis is a pressing issue besetting the whole world. Eco-feminism centers on the deteriorating environment and exhaustive exploitation. It deems the combination of nature and women, which tells human they should hold together to solve the ecological crisis (Dobscha, 2001). Eco-feminists hope that the men's domination of nature will end, the alienation from nature will be eliminated and finally nature and human beings will live in harmony (Crook, 2012). With the development of eco-feminism, more and more people commence realizing the vital role that women play in protecting environment. Meanwhile humans begin to realize the development of society can't be separated from the harmonious relationship with nature. Humans and nature gradually become a whole and this world become more and more harmonious.

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A Comparison of Vocabulary Learning Strategies among Elementary Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—A multitude of factors are involved in learning a second language, among which knowing ample vocabulary plays a crucial role. Despite many efforts for vocabulary learning, one of the first problems of foreign language learners, especially Iranian EFL learners, is how to commit lots of foreign words to memory. The present study aimed to compare three vocabulary learning strategies (flashcard strategy, sentence writing method, and vocabulary notebook strategy) with the traditional way of vocabulary learning (repetition) among Iranian elementary EFL learners to find out which one was the most efficient approach to vocabulary learning and best increased long-term retention of meaning. To do this end, four groups (three experimental groups and one control group) were chosen to take part in the experiment. The groups were all homogenized in the wake of administering a vocabulary pretest, and then each of the experimental groups was exposed to its pertinent treatment. After the completion of the experiment, and in the light of a vocabulary posttest, the results showed that there existed differences among the four strategies in terms of vocabulary learning and retention. In terms of vocabulary learning, the difference among the four groups was significant, but the difference on posttest which examined the long-term retention of the new vocabularies was not statistically significant. The study revealed that flash card strategy was the best strategy for vocabulary learning process among elementary level learners.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning strategies, flashcard strategy, sentence writing method, vocabulary notebook strategy, repetition

I. INTRODUCTION

A wealth of factors are involved in learning a second language, among which knowing lots of vocabulary plays an important role. Vocabulary is "a set of lexemes (the smallest unit in the meaning system of a language that can be distinguished from other similar units), including single words, compound words and idioms" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 580). Vocabulary is the base of any language and learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a language. The more words one possesses, the more s/he will be able to understand what s/he reads and hears, and the better s/he will convey his/her messages when speaking. However, in Asian countries, vocabulary seems to be given little emphasis in the university curriculum (Fan, 2003). The main obstacle in learning another language is limited vocabulary size. If students do not have a base vocabulary to work with, they cannot study grammar, they cannot do spelling or pronunciation exercises, and also they will not be able to read and write. If one spends most of his/her time studying grammar, his/her English will not improve enormously; much improvement is attained if one learns more words and expressions; little can be said without grammar but almost nothing without words (Thornburry, 2002). Laufer (1997) argues for the fact that vocabulary learning is at the heart of any language learning and language use. There are many methods and strategies for vocabulary learning, but based on the learners' levels, styles, and interests, teachers should choose the best ones.

The motivation to perform this study was in discovering what worked best in teaching English vocabulary to students at elementary level by comparing four methods; in addition, the findings were assumed to provide some recommendations for future beginner teachers. The key to teaching learners vocabulary is to let them make use of the words. Without practice and creativity in the learning process, students will simply memorize the words for a few days and then forget them by the end of the learning course. Even though researchers, teachers, and materials writers agree on the importance of vocabulary knowledge for a second language acquisition, they still do not know the best methods that help learners acquire vocabulary. According to Mak (2009), in vocabulary teaching, the use of teaching aids will enable the students particularly for elementary levels to increase their vocabulary mastery.

Among the different methods and strategies of vocabulary learning, flash cards are simple and smart resources. For most students at elementary levels, teaching aids will be more important to be developed as a way to bring the students into active learning (Clarke, 2009). Learning vocabulary should also be a fun experience for elementary level students. One important means to focus on vocabulary is exercise. Exercise has a beneficial effect on vocabulary learning. Chastain (1988) believes that new information should be related to old information. In order to connect new information to the existing one, sentence writing method is a good exercise. Making sentences with words is not only a valuable tool

to learn words for use in a specific class, but it is also useful in expanding one's own vocabulary and therefore seems more intelligent. Another strategy for vocabulary learning is making a vocabulary note book. Vocabulary notebooks are frequently advocated as a way for students to take control of their vocabulary learning (Fowle, 2002), with the added benefit of improvements in vocabulary learning (Laufer & Nation, 1999; Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995). This study is designed to compare three methods and strategies of learning vocabulary, which include flash card strategy, sentence writing method, and making vocabulary notebook with the traditional way which is repetition to investigate their influence on learning and retention of vocabularies among Iranian EFL learners at elementary level.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Many students think that knowing vocabulary is only knowing its form and translated meaning. Due to complexity of vocabulary acquisition, classroom teachers must take a more comprehensive approach to vocabulary development in order for students to reach a higher quality and quantity of second language output (Sanaoui, 1996; Swain, 1996). S ŏkmen (1997) describes that vocabulary learning strategies are basically actions made by the learner in order to help them to understand the meaning of words, learn them and remember them later. According to Nation (2001), learners should be able to choose from available vocabulary learning strategies. Flashcards are mainly used as a learning drill to aid memorization by way of spaced repetition. Lynch (2008) says that a flashcard is a card which has a picture on one side and the word on the other side, or the picture and the word on one side, and its translation/explanations on the other. Some researchers demonstrate that working with flash cards helps learners in acquiring vocabulary more effectively than some other strategies (Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994; Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995). Crookall's study (1990) revealed that flashcards use was one of the most widely-used vocabulary learning strategies. Al-Shuwairekh (2001) concluded that using flashcards was a helpful strategy for both auditory and visual learners. Regardless of whether it is a native, second, or foreign language, language learners often use flashcards to either learn new words or test themselves (Kornell, 2009) regarding the retention of new or difficult words.

Another way to learn new words is to continuously practice their usage. Writing sentences with new vocabulary after understanding the words is helpful. The Sentence Writing Method (also known as the Sentence Generate Method) is recommended by reading researchers as a way to increase vocabulary learning, and involves having learners make a sentence containing the target word to be memorized (Dale, O'Rourke & Bamman, 1971; Gipe, 1979 – cited in Pressley et al. 1982). Some research studies suggest that sentence writing is an effective method for facilitating memorization of words (Coomber, Ramstad, & Sheets, 1986; Laufer, 1997). Another strategy for vocabulary learning is vocabulary notebook, which is a form of note-taking that students carry out with elements that improve the learning of new and useful vocabulary items (Fowle, 2000). It is defined as a kind of notebook used for the recording of new and useful words and several additional information related to those words (McCrostie, 2007). By making vocabulary notebooks, students become autonomous (Thornbury, 2002). It can be said when students take notes on a lesson, they are developing their own independence, which could build their confidence in their ability to act independently of the teacher (Schmitt, 1997).

Despite many efforts for vocabulary learning, One of the first problems a foreign language learner encounters is how to commit a large number of foreign words to memory and the first and easiest strategy people choose and use naturally is, simply, repeating new words until they can be recognized (Gu, 2003). Crothers and Suppes (1967) in one of their research studies working on repetition discovered that almost all of their participants remembered all 108 word pairs after 7 repetitions, and about 80% of 216 word pairs were learned by most participants after 6 repetitions. It was suggested that students should start repeating newly learned words immediately after the first encounter. It also was found that, repeating words aloud helps retention far better than silent repetition.

To recap, all the four vocabulary learning strategies of flashcard, sentence writing, vocabulary notebook, and repetition have been shown to be fruitful. What has remained unearthed so far is which of the four strategies best suits the needs of elementary Iranian EFL learners. That is why the present study embarked on an investigation to find answers to the following research questions:

Research Question 1: Is there a significant difference among flash card strategy, sentence writing method, and making a vocabulary notebook in comparison with repetition in learning new vocabularies by Iranian EFL learners at elementary level?

Research Question 2: Is there a significant difference among flash card strategy, sentence writing method, and making a vocabulary notebook in comparison with repetition in retaining new vocabularies by Iranian EFL learners at elementary level?

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was carried out to see if there was a significant difference among flash card strategy, sentence writing method, and making a vocabulary note book in comparison with repetition in learning and retention of new vocabularies by Iranian EFL learners at elementary level.

A. Participants

This study was conducted at Khuzestan Language Institute in Ahvaz, Iran. The participants were four classes, each of which consisted of 10 EFL learners with the age range of 13 to 15 all of whom were female students. Three of the classes were experimental groups and one of them was the control group. The groups were chosen nonrandomly. The samples were selected by the researcher herself by means of convenience sampling, because the samples were easily accessible to her. The teacher herself assigned a strategy for each group. One of them received flash card strategy (class A), the second one received sentence writing method (class B), and the third one received making vocabulary notebook strategy (class C) as treatment. The fourth class with repetition method (class D) was the control group.

B. Materials

In order to conduct the present study, three instructional materials were used. The primary material was a course book named Hip Hip Hooray 6, the vocabularies of which were taught to all the four groups. Another one was a package of flash cards related to the book for class A and the third one consisted of some researcher-made papers including new words of each session which were delivered to class B to write sentences with them. The group members of class C themselves prepared a notebook for new vocabularies.

C. Instruments

Three measurement instruments were used in this study. In order to find out whether the groups were homogenous in terms of vocabulary knowledge, a Nation Level Test was administered at the beginning of the experiment. The other two instruments were multiple-choice test and posttest prepared by the researcher based on the students' course book. The researcher-made test was designed to see if there was a difference among the four groups in learning new vocabularies and the researcher-made posttest was prepared to see if there was a difference in the retention of vocabularies among them. These researcher-made tests were piloted by a group similar to the participants of this study (elementary female students) before starting the procedure in order to examine the reliability of them. The obtained reliability indexes, calculated through the split-half method, were .84 for the test and .87 for the posttest.

D. Procedure

There were three stages in this research. At first, in order to find out whether the groups were homogenous in terms of vocabulary knowledge or not, a Nation Level Test was administered to all of them. For teaching new words, the teacher utilized repetition at the beginning of each session because repetition was necessary for elementary learners in order to master the oral form of the lexical items (Gairns & Redman, 1986, as cited in Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004). Then for the last 15 minutes, the experimental groups received their treatments: class A received flash card strategy, class B received sentence writing method, and class C received making vocabulary notebook strategy as treatment. Class D was the control group with repetition method.

In Stage Two, after covering two units in six sessions, which took about two weeks, an unannounced researcher-made multiple-choice test was carried out for each groups including 20 multiple-choice items in order to examine which way was the most efficient one for vocabulary learning. If the students were aware of the test, they might use the common way of learning vocabulary to prepare themselves for the test, so the test was unannounced. Each unit covered 16 new vocabularies; overall, 32 words for two units. In Stage Three, after a week, the participants received an unannounced posttest including 30 taught words to test whether the four vocabulary learning ways had different effects on the retention of learners. It should be noted, "the bound between short-term memory and relative long-term memory was considered as a week according to the Forgetting Curve" (Baddeley, Eysenck, & Anderson, 2009).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

First of all, to make sure that the participants of the study (Groups A, B, C, and D) were homogenous, a one-way ANOVA was used. Descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted to discover if there were any differences among the four groups in terms of their vocabulary knowledge. To see if there was a statistically significant difference between control group and experimental groups after the intervention, the researcher used one-way ANOVA again twice: once for analyzing the scores from the test and once for analyzing the posttest scores.

A. Results of the Nation's Level Test

Descriptive statistics were calculated to make sure that the participants of the study were homogenous in terms of vocabulary knowledge.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING THE FOUR GROUPS ON THE NATION'S LEVEL TEST

| Maximum | Minimum | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | *Std.* Error | *Std.* Deviation | Mean | *N* | |
		Upper Bound	Lower Bound					
20.00	16.00	18.4686	16.5314	.42817	1.35401	17.5000	10	FCS
19.00	15.00	18.0803	16.1197	.43333	1.37032	17.1000	10	SWS
20.00	15.00	18.2159	15.7841	.53748	1.69967	17.0000	10	VNS
19.00	15.00	17.6568	15.7432	.42295	1.33749	16.7000	10	Rep
20.00	15.00	17.5295	16.6205	.22471	1.42122	17.0750	40	Total

The mean of four groups, that is flash card strategy ($M = 17.50$), sentence writing method ($M = 17.10$), vocabulary notebook strategy ($M = 17.00$) and repetition ($M = 17.07$) were close to each other (all in range of 17). Nevertheless, to prove the groups' homogeneity, a one-way ANOVA was used to check the p value.

TABLE 2.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS COMPARING THE FOUR GROUPS ON THE NATION'S LEVEL TEST

Sig.	F	Mean Square	df	Sum of Squares	
.671	.521	1.092	3	3.275	Between Groups
		2.097	36	75.500	Within Groups
			39	78.775	Total

The *Sig.* value in Table 2. (.671 > .05) shows that there were no differences among the four groups on the Nations' Level Test.
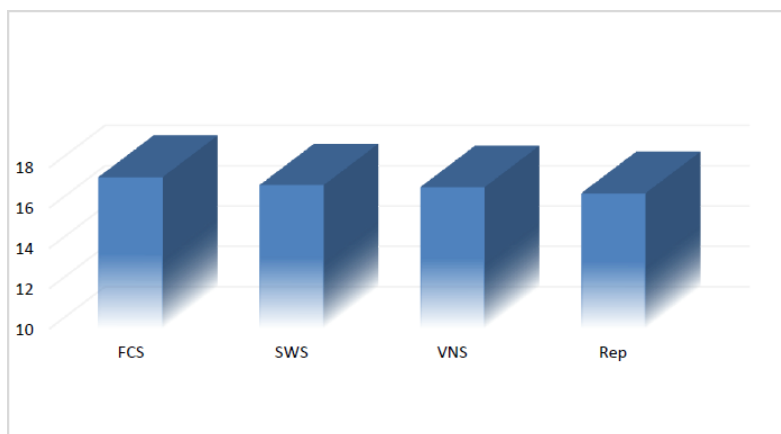

Figure 1. Comparing the four groups on the Nation's Level Test

As it can be seen, the difference between the experimental groups and control group on Nation's level test was very slight and this implies that the groups were all homogenous.

B. Results of the First Research Question

The first research question of the study was: Is there a significant difference among flash card strategy, sentence writing method, and making a vocabulary notebook in comparison with repetition in learning new vocabularies by Iranian EFL learners at elementary level? To find the answer to this question, descriptive statistics of the vocabulary test of four groups were calculated.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING THE FOUR GROUPS ON THE VOCABULARY TEST

Maximum	Minimum	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	
		Upper Bound	Lower Bound					
20.00	15.00	19.2557	17.1443	.46667	1.47573	18.2000	10	FCS
20.00	15.00	18.8210	16.5790	.49554	1.56702	17.7000	10	SWS
19.00	13.00	17.4250	14.3750	.67412	2.13177	15.9000	10	VNS
19.00	14.00	17.9584	15.6416	.51208	1.61933	16.8000	10	Rep
20.00	13.00	17.7496	16.5504	.29645	1.87494	17.1500	40	Total

As it can be seen in this table, there exist differences among the groups. The mean scores of the flash card strategy group ($M = 18.20$), sentence writing strategy group ($M = 17.70$), vocabulary notebook strategy group ($M = 15.90$), and repetition group ($M = 16.80$) were more or less different from one another on the vocabulary test. Based on the obtained statistics, flash card strategy group with mean score of 18.20 performed best in comparison with repetition group with mean score of 16.80 on vocabulary test. After flash card strategy group, sentence writing strategy group with the mean score of 17.70 performed better than repetition group and finally, vocabulary notebook strategy with the mean score of 15.90 had a poor performance in comparison to the control group and the other two experimental groups. To find out whether the differences among these mean scores were significant or not, one had to examine the p value under the *Sig.* column in the ANOVA table below.

TABLE 4.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS COMPARING THE FOUR GROUPS ON THE VOCABULARY TEST

	Sig.	F	df	Sum of Squares	
.025	3.492	10.300	3	30.900	Between Groups
		2.950	36	106.200	Within Groups
			39	137.100	Total

Since the *Sig.* value in Table 4 was found to be less than the alpha level (.025 < .05), it could be argued that there was a significant difference among the vocabulary test mean scores of the four groups. A post hoc Scheffe test was run to go back through the data and shed more light on these differences.

TABLE 5.
POST HOC SCHEFFE TEST COMPARING THE FOUR GROUPS ON THE VOCABULARY TEST

(I)Groups	(J)Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	*Std.* Error	*Sig.*	95% *Confidence Interval*	
					Lower Bound	*Upper Bound*
FCS	SWS	.50000	.76811	.935	-1.7524	2.7524
	VNS	2.30000*	.76811	.044	.0476	4.5524
	Rep	1.40000	.76811	.359	-.8524	3.6524
SWS	FCS	-.50000	.76811	.935	-2.7524	1.7524
	VNS	1.80000	.76811	.159	-.4524	4.0524
	Rep	.90000	.76811	.714	-1.3524	3.1524
VNS	FCS	-2.30000*	.76811	.044	-4.5524	-.0476
	SWS	-1.80000	.76811	.159	-4.0524	.4524
	Rep	-.90000	.76811	.714	-3.1524	1.3524
Rep	FCS	-1.40000	.76811	.359	-3.6523	.8524
	SWS	-.90000	.76811	.714	-3.1524	1.3524
	VNS	.90000	.76811	.714	-1.3524	3.1524

Pair-wise analyses in the table above revealed that there existed a significant difference between flash card strategy and vocabulary notebook strategy; it was found that among the four compared strategies, flash card strategy had the strongest power in helping elementary level students learn vocabulary. The table indicates that it was better (though not significantly) than common way of vocabulary learning (repetition), and that there was a slight difference between flash card strategy and sentence writing strategy. The bar chart below also illustrates this.
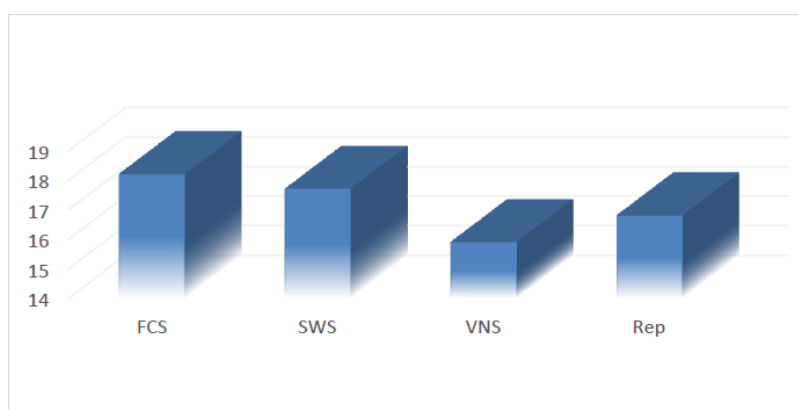

Figure 2. Comparing the four groups on the vocabulary test

C. Results of the Second Research Question

The second research question of the current study was formulated to compare three experimental groups with the control group to see whether there existed significant differences among them in retention of the new words. To this end, descriptive statistics were analyzed, as shown in table below:

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING THE FOUR GROUPS ON THE VOCABULARY POSTTEST

Maximum	Minimum	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		*Std.* Error	*Std.* Deviation	Mean	*N*	
		Upper Bound	Lower Bound					
20.00	15.00	19.2899	16.9101	.52599	1.66333	18.1000	10	FCS
19.00	14.00	18.2899	15.9101	.52599	1.66333	17.1000	10	SWS
19.00	13.00	17.4677	14.7323	.60461	1.91195	16.1000	10	VNS
19.00	14.00	17.9584	15.6416	.51208	1.61933	16.8000	10	Rep
20.00	13.00	17.6021	16.4479	.28530	1.80438	17.0250	40	Total

It can be seen that there is a difference between flashcard strategy group ($M = 18.10$) and repetition group ($M = 16.80$), and there is also a slight difference between sentence writing strategy group ($M = 17.10$) and repetition group ($M = 16.80$). It can be understood that flash card strategy had a better effect on vocabulary retention than repetition and the two other strategies. After that, sentence writing strategy appeared to be more effective than repetition, but no difference was found between vocabulary notebook strategy ($M = 16.10$) and repetition ($M = 16.80$) in retention of vocabularies on the posttest. Here a one-way ANOVA shows whether these differences are significant or not.

TABLE 7.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS COMPARING THE FOUR GROUPS ON THE VOCABULARY POSTTEST

Sig.	F	Mean Square	df	Sum of Squares	
.090	2.334	6.892	3	20.675	Between Groups
		2.953	36	106.300	Within Groups
			39	126.975	Total

The *p* value under *Sig.* column is larger than the alpha level (i.e. .09 > .05); therefore, it shows that the groups were not significantly different from each other.
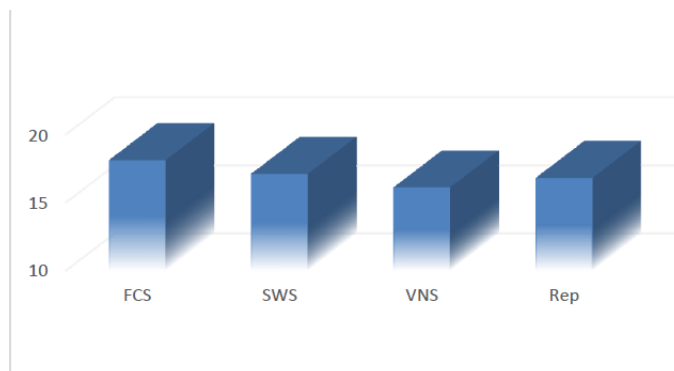

Figure 3. Comparing the four groups on the vocabulary posttest

To summarize, the results of the data analysis showed that the four groups were homogenous in terms of vocabulary knowledge at the outset of the study, but there were differences among the groups on vocabulary test and posttest in terms of vocabulary learning and vocabulary retention. The obtained results showed that the differences among the four groups on the test were significant (with flashcard group outperforming the other groups, followed by sentence writing group, repetition group, and vocabulary notebook group), but there were not significant differences among the four compared groups in terms of long-term retention of newly learned vocabularies.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Research Question One

By comparing the findings of the first research question of the four groups, it was found that there existed a significant difference among four groups in vocabulary learning. In comparison to repetition, at first flashcard strategy group and after that sentence writing strategy group performed better than repetition. Vocabulary notebook strategy was a little weak in comparison to repetition. The results of the study indicated that though the four methods had positive effects on vocabulary development of the learners, among the experimental groups, flashcard strategy seemed to be better than the control group and the other two strategies. It might be because of elementary level student's interest in fun experiences and joyful classroom environment. The results revealed that there was a difference in the efficiency of flash card compared to traditional teaching method, i.e. repetition. It was confirmed that learning vocabulary through flash card would lead to better learning than traditional method (Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994; Nakata, 2008; Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995), so this study was in line with their statement and findings.

Waltes & Bozkurt (2009) studied the effect of sentence writing on vocabulary learning. They found that students used target words more effectively through writing. Therefore, their findings were similar to the results of the present study, which revealed that after flash card strategy, sentence writing method is more effective than repetition and vocabulary notebook strategy.

B. Research Question Two

Again based on the results achieved by descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA for the second research question, concerning with retention of newly learned vocabularies, the mean scores of flash card strategy and sentence writing method in sequence were a bit more than the mean score of repetition. Thus, this indicated that flashcard strategy had more effect on retention of newly learned vocabularies, and after that sentence writing method, which connected the previous knowledge with the new one, was better than repetition. The study indicated that no difference existed between vocabulary notebook strategy and repetition in terms of retention. The results showed that somehow there existed difference among groups on posttest but the difference however was not statistically significant.

It was found that the utilization of vocabulary flash card in teaching vocabulary to students at elementary level not only led to a high level of vocabulary improvement, but also resulted in greater long-term retention, too. After flash card strategy, it was sentence writing method that presented better results in vocabulary learning and retention of those new vocabularies.

Vocabulary notebook strategy was found to be the weakest strategy for elementary learners, both in learning and long-term retention of the words. This might be because of the lack of motivation which is an important factor in

language learning. For example, elementary students do not like looking up in dictionary and searching for meanings and new information related to new vocabularies all the time. All the learners at this level are not eager to learn extra information than their books. This strategy is suggested to be suitable for learners at intermediate and upper-intermediate level, because they are interested in learning more information than the ones in their books.

VI. CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

The results of the study indicated that there existed a significant difference among flash card strategy, sentence writing method, and vocabulary notebook strategy in comparison with repetition in vocabulary learning, but in terms of long-term memory retention, the difference among the four strategies was not significant. It was found that among these compared strategies, flash card and sentence writing strategies best suited elementary level student's vocabulary learning processes, but vocabulary notebook strategy is not a suitable strategy for learners at this level. The implications for teaching are clear: Based on the findings, if teachers want their students to be able to recognize and use the vocabularies they teach them, flashcards and sentence writing papers are useful tools in addition to the language classroom routine, particularly for motivated students. In specific, these strategies can pave the way for vocabulary learning and retention.

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The Impact of Teacher Education on In-service English Teachers' Beliefs about Self

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Abstract—This was a qualitative study carried out in the context of 2013 National Teacher Training Program for Junior High School English Teachers in Chongqing China, intending to reveal the impact of the program on four in-service English teachers' beliefs about self (*i. e.*, about English teachers). Rich data were collected throughout the process of training which lasted for 100 days, including semi-structured interviews, teachers' class analysis reports, professional development plans, periodic summaries and so on. The findings were interpreted with the help of the classification framework of teacher belief change proposed by Cabaroglu and Roberts, which showed that the impact of the program on these four in-service English teachers' beliefs about English teachers' roles, excellent English teachers and English teachers' professional development was considerable, however, the degree, the nature and the sources of the impact varied across individual teachers.

Index Terms—qualitative, in-service English teacher education, impact, beliefs about English teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, teacher education programs have been prevalent around the world. In china, National Teacher Training Program has aroused public attention for its large scale, wide coverage, long duration, sufficient funds and professional trainers. However, how much it has actually improved teachers' practice still remains an unstudied question. Borg (2011, p. 370) points out that "teacher education is more likely to impact on what teachers do if it also impacts on their beliefs". Unluckily, research on the extent to which teacher education has actually changed the beliefs of language teachers has also been unexpectedly scarce, especially in in-service contexts.

This study was conducted in the context of 2013 National Teacher Training Program for Junior High School English Teachers in Chongqing China, intending to reveal the impact of the program on four in-service English teachers' beliefs about self (*i. e.*, about English teachers).

As this study is not aimed at exploring the nature of teacher beliefs, the working definition of beliefs proposed by Borg (2001, p. 370-371) in a similar study is adopted, which is "beliefs are propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action and are resistant to change".

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Even though the number of studies on the impact of teacher education on language teachers' beliefs is quite limited (Borg, 2011), the findings of them are still found to be inconsistent.

Foreign researches can be classified into the following three categories according to research contexts and results: those which identified few or limited changes of beliefs (pre-service: Borg, 2005; Peacock, 2001; Pennington & Urmston, 1998; in-service: Lamb, 1995), those showing positive evidence of considerable impact (pre-service: Debreli, 2012; Yuan & Lee, 2014; Busch, 2010; Mattheoudakis, 2007; in-service: Lamie, 2004; MacDonald, Badger & White, 2001; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000), and those which found that belief changes took place in various ways across individuals and areas of belief (pre-service: Löfström & Poom-Valickis, 2013; Özmen, 2012; Liu & Fisher 2006; Richards *et al.*, 1996; Urmston, 2003).

Compared with foreign researches, domestic researches on the impact of language teacher education on teachers' beliefs have been scarcer, most of which focused on the changes of pre-service English teachers' beliefs during the practicum, such as Zhang (2013), Zhai (2011), Kan (2012), Chen (2011) and Pan (2013). Different from these researches, Yang (2006) and Huang (2012) focused on the impact of language learning courses required for prospective English teachers on their beliefs and identified belief changes in some areas as well as belief stability in other areas.

The inconsistency among the findings of these researches (both foreign and domestic) can be attributed to the variations in the following four factors.

1) The nature of the language teacher education programs

The quality of trainers, the length and structure (for example, the ratio of theoretical courses to practical courses, the contents and schedule) of the particular program, would all certainly affect the extent to which the program would impact on teachers' beliefs.

2) The research approaches and instruments adopted

The differences in the nature of the research (qualitative, quantitative or mixed), and the rich and diverse instruments adopted in these foreign researches would naturally result in greater inconsistency in the results.

3) The areas of belief under investigation

Rokeach (1980) claimed that there was a belief system, shaped like a concentric circle, in which beliefs are positioned from the periphery to the core according to its importance, and assumed that the core beliefs would be more resistant to change, but the change of which would also influence other beliefs more greatly. Thus, the variability of certain beliefs varies according to their positions in the belief system and naturally leads to different research results.

4) The working definition of "impact"

Whether the "impact" was defined to be deep and radical changes or just something that promotes belief development would lead to different interpretations of the results and thus inconsistent findings.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study attempted to fill in the gap in the literature by adopting a qualitative approach to reveal the changes of individual in-service teacher' beliefs throughout the National Teacher Training Program. As the training contents covered in this program were quite comprehensive, this study only focused on teachers' beliefs about self and chose the following three sub-dimensions as the main research contents based on literature review, which included beliefs about English teachers' roles, beliefs about excellent English teachers and beliefs about English teachers' professional development. It should also be noted that in this study, "impact" was defined to be something promoting belief development, and the classification framework of teacher belief development proposed by Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) were referred to when analyzing the specific nature of the belief impact.

The research questions are: To what extent did the program impact these four in-service English teachers' beliefs about self? What was the nature of the specific impact? What factors could be attributed to the impact?

A. Context and Participants

This intensive 100-day training program was divided into five main stages as follows.

1) 1st concentrated learning (32 days)

Trainees attended to lots of lectures delivered by professionals, discussed over various topics with peers, observed and analyzed real classroom cases under the guidance of experts.

2) Shadowing learning (30 days)

This stage was called shadowing learning because the trainees followed the practical instructors every day, just like shadows of them. Specifically speaking, in this one-month shadowing learning stage, each trainee stayed at a first-grade middle school in Chongqing and followed the assigned practical instructor (an excellent teacher in this middle school) to observe his or her daily work to identify the connection between theory and practice.

3) 2nd concentrated learning (18 days)

This stage was similar to the 1st concentrated learning, in terms of the training forms. However, the main aim of this stage was to help the trainees solve the problems they had encountered in the shadowing learning stage.

4) Back-to-work practice and research (16 days)

Trainees went back to their original schools to try to put what they had acquired in the previous stages into practice in real teaching situations.

5) Demonstration and reflection (4 days)

At the end of the program, trainees were able to demonstrate their achievements through the training program, by means of presenting a lesson plan, delivering a lesson, evaluating a lesson as well as having paper oral defense.

Throughout the training, practical courses accounted for 50% of the total courses. Besides, reflection was required throughout the process of training. At the end of each day, trainees were asked to discuss and reflect on what they had learned that day in groups and report the results to the whole class.

In the first and second concentrated learning stages, topics that involved English teachers themselves included: *Pronunciation Training for Junior High School English Teachers*, *Classroom Language Training for Junior High School English Teachers*, *Plan for and Discussion over Junior High School English Teachers' Professional Development*, *Scientific Research and Academic Writing of Middle School English Teachers*, *Action Research of Junior High School English Teachers*, *Pursuit of Excellent Teacher Qualities*. Besides, the shadowing learning stage was also important for the development of teachers' beliefs about self as they had observed those excellent teachers as role models.

There were 50 trainees in total, coming from various regions of Chongqing, mainly rural areas. They were all junior high school English teachers and were backbone teachers of their schools, or even their regions. The principle of "purposeful sampling" (Patton, 1990), which refers to selecting information-rich cases "from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research" (Patton, 1990, p. 169) was followed when selecting the participants. More specifically, among the 16 types of "purposeful sampling" identified by Patton (1990), the strategy of "maximum variation sampling" was adopted, which involves picking a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest. The criteria used in the process of "maximum variation sampling" included: professional titles and years of teaching, school levels or school types, educational backgrounds, and training experiences. In addition, as

Wen (2004) suggested, the attitudes of research objects should also be taken into consideration while sampling. Therefore, after selecting a few qualified candidates by using "maximum variation sampling" strategy, the researcher explicitly explained the contents and requirements of the study to the candidates to consult whether they were willing to take part in the study. Finally, four teachers responded quite positively and became the participants of the study. Table 1. presents the profile of the participants.

TABLE 1.
THE PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Teacher	Gender	Age	Title	Years of teaching	School	Educational backgrounds	Training experiences
A	female	33	Level 2	12	key school of the city	Normal English	rich
B	female	31	Level 2	9	key school directly under the city	Non-normal English	lacking
C	female	34	Level 2	14	ordinary school	Normal English	lacking
D	female	41	Level 3	19	foreign language school	Normal English	rich

B. Data Collection and Analysis

Sources of data in this qualitative study included two main types.

1) Semi-structured interviews

Each participant was interviewed for three times (each time lasted for about half an hour), respectively, at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the training program. The process was recorded and further transcribed.

2) Written and visual materials

Participants' course work during the program was all collected and analyzed carefully, including learning plans, professional development plans, lesson plans, course wares, classroom observation records, class analysis reports, teaching reflection reports, periodic summaries and final papers.

Among them, interviews were the major sources, while those written and visual materials were mainly for the purpose of "triangulation" (Patton, 1990), which refers to "the process of collecting data from several different sources or in different ways in order to provide a fuller understanding of a phenomenon" (Richards, Schmidt, Kendrick & Kim, 2005, p. 725-726).

Data collection and data analysis alternated with each other, forming a cyclical process, and thus were closely related with each other. To be specific, the researcher made the outline for the first interview based on literature review, in which the questions were centered around English teachers' roles, excellent English teachers and English teachers' professional development. Then, the questions for the second and third interviews were proposed after a process of "progressive focusing" (Woods, 1985) according to the results of the analysis of previous data. This is the first level of data analysis — "cyclical analysis" (Borg, 2011; Xu, 2003). The second level is "summative analysis" (Borg, 2011; Xu, 2003), consisting of within-case analysis and cross-case analysis, which refers to the process of first analyzing the belief development of each participant throughout the training program and then comparing the belief development across four participants.

Besides, the belief change categories proposed by Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) were referred to in the process of analyzing the nature of the impact, which included: awareness/realisation, consolidation/confirmation, elaboration/polishing, addition, re-ordering, re-labelling, linking up, disagreement, reversal, pseudo change and no change.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results are presented in the following with discussion. Data cited here carry the following codes: I1, I2, I3 = the first, second, third interview respectively; PDP = professional development plan; CAR = class analysis report; S1, S2, S3, *etc.* = summary of the first, second, third stage respectively, *etc.*; FS = final summary; FP = final paper. Information in [ ] is added by the researcher as explanation.

A. Teacher A

"A teacher's job is to motivate and inspire students to learn" (I1), Teacher A generalized so when talking about English teachers' roles. After shadowing learning, she came to realize that English teachers should also play another two roles. One is emotional educator: "She [the practical instructor] really integrated emotional education into her daily teaching. Honestly speaking, I had usually ignored this aspect" (I2). The other one is cultivator of students' habits: "There's one thing that I admired her [the practical instructor] very much, that is, in pair work or group work, when one student was reporting, all the other students were listening carefully, no one was talking at that time. It seemed to be a pattern or habit, and this was really really rare to see in others' classrooms. That's when I began to realize that it's necessary to cultivate students' habit of listening to others" (I2). Besides, she deepened her understanding of English teacher as a facilitator: "Most of the time she [the practical instructor] was guiding students to learn. She provided them with lots of opportunities to speak in class. Her practice reflected the new curriculum concept [student-centred teaching] well" (I2).

It can be seen that Teacher A views English teachers more as "educator" who focuses on the cultivation of students' interests, potential, habits, emotions, etc., rather than "subject instructor" who focuses on the teaching of the contents of a certain subject (Beijaard *et al.*, 2000). After training, Teacher A has expanded her beliefs about English teachers' roles. On the one hand, she added two new roles — emotional educator and cultivator of students' habits, both of which are teachers' explicit roles, different from those implicit roles she mentioned in the first interview (motivator and inspirer). On the other hand, it can be seen that even though before training Teacher A had approved teacher's role as a facilitator, after shadowing learning during which she observed the instructor's teaching practice, she further consolidated and affirmed the new curriculum idea, that is, return time to your students to make your class student-centered.

As for excellent English teachers, compared with the four measurement criteria put forward by Teacher A in the first interview: "great language competence", "advanced teaching methodology", "ability to motivate, facilitate and instruct students" and "care about students like a mother after class" (I1), she added two new standards later. One is "classroom management ability" (I2): "A teacher should have strong abilities to manage the classroom when organizing teaching. In fact, the same class delivered by different teachers will produce completely different results" (I3); "She [the practical instructor] showed very strong classroom management abilities" (CAR); "She could always aroused students' enthusiasm. The classroom atmosphere was quite good and the effects of interaction turned out to be great" (I2). The other one is "personal charm" (I2): "Her [the practical instructor's] great personality attracted the students a lot. She brought the students positive energy. I have realized that maybe for a teacher, it's important to transmit knowledge, but the most important thing is to influence your students with your personal charm" (I2).

Among the four participants, Teacher A seems to have been affected by the practical instructor in the shadowing learning stage most significantly, claiming that "She has interpreted what an excellent English teacher and head teacher should be like and shown me how to become such an excellent teacher" (FP). Thus, the two new standards added were both put forward in reference to her practical instructor. First of all, she noticed the positive impact on teaching effect exerted by the instructor's great classroom management abilities. Then, different from the other three teachers, Teacher A not only observed the instructor's class but also extended her visions towards the instructor's practice outside the classroom because she believed that the positive influence after class could also be transferred to the classroom learning.

As regards professional development, Teacher A explicitly pointed out that she did not think too much about this aspect, even during the program, thus she did not talk much on this topic. However, the researcher thought that the practical instructor's great influence during the shadowing learning stage would certainly enlighten her on her own professional development in the future.

B.   Teacher B

When asked about teachers' roles, Teacher B stated that "An English teacher should first be a guide. His main duty is to open the door of English for children and then stimulate their interests in English. Secondly, he should be a companion, that is, once he has led children to the main road of English learning he then becomes a companion and witnesses their progress. Later, children may find it harder to follow the teacher, at this time, the teacher should provide mental guidance to encourage them and ask them not to give up" (I1).

Teacher B then went to a foreign language school for shadowing learning, where class hours for the subject of English were more than those in ordinary schools and different teaching materials were also adopted. Due to the differences, Teacher B came to realize that a teacher should play another role as "lubricant" (I2), which referred to that a teacher should consciously re-arouse and maintain students' interests when they were found to become bored of English learning: "The lesson types in this school were comparatively unitary while the time for English learning every day was quite long. I had expected that students would easily get bored, but it didn't happen. Students were still enthusiastic. I found that the instructor would seize every opportunity to re-motivate students. I was deeply impressed by this. Then I realized that a teacher should also play the role as lubricant or condiment when students were tired of studying English" (I2).

It can be seen that Teacher B's understanding of teachers' roles was characterized by being staged, which was different from the other three teachers. More specifically, she believed that a teacher should play different roles in different stages of students' development, at the mean time, he should stimulate and maintain students' interests throughout. This understanding reflected that Teacher B considered it important to change roles according to students' conditions.

In contrast, Teacher B's view about excellent English teachers showed no differences before and after training. She consistently believed that if a teacher could motivate students to learn and produce certain teaching effects, he could be considered as an excellent teacher.

What's worth mentioning is that Teacher B's understanding of professional development was reversed. She mentioned that "I was really puzzled about my professional development before" (I3), however, after training, she described her change as "being brainwashed" (I3), that is, she began to have the desire to do scientific research. Such a significant change might be attributed to her non-normal education background and her puzzles about English teaching in all these years.

To be specific, though Teacher B worked in one of the best middle schools in Chongqing and had quite excellent qualities in herself, she thought she lacked theories related with English teaching and learning due to her non-normal

educational background. Besides, her teaching results turned to be great, thus she did not think about doing research and considered herself "unable to do this" (I2): "Because of the lack of theoretical knowledge, I always thought that scientific research was quite far from me" (FS), "However, after training, I found that maybe I could try to do something, such as the action research introduced by Dr. Zhang. I never dared to think about this before" (I2), "Thanks to the training, I have gained more profound understanding of my profession and have started to make plans for my future professional development" (PDP). In the final summary Teacher B re-emphasized that "Because of the training program, I have finally believed that front-line teachers can also do research and have known about how to do research. This idea is very meaningful and helpful to my future teaching and research" (FS). It can be concluded that Teacher B has figured out new directions for her professional development due to this training program.

C. Teacher C

Teacher C's beliefs regarding teachers' roles remained almost the same during the process of training. She consistently considered teachers as guides, providers of learning methods and strategies and cultural disseminators.

While regarding excellent English teachers, Teacher C listed the following standards at the very beginning: "precise professional knowledge and systematic theories", "well-prepared English lessons which can attract students and make students persistently like him or her" and "good morality" (I1). After comparing teachers in her own school with those in the shadowing school which is a key school, she found that "What amazed me was that these teachers [teachers in the shadowing school] showed a greater degree of dedication to work than our teachers working in normal schools, even though their students were so excellent. They did not get slack at their teaching, research and self-learning. I found that their teaching benefited both students and themselves" (I2). It can be seen that after shadowing learning, Teacher C came to realize that excellent teachers were those who kept pursuing sustainable development, instead of staying on the same level on the fixed standards. Besides, in a class analysis report of one lesson delivered by the practical instructor, Teacher C summarized that what impressed her deeply was that an excellent English teacher must possess "good spoken English", "careful thinking which can be reflected in his or her ways of dealing with the teaching materials" and "harmonious teacher-student relationship". Thus it can be seen that the standards adopted by Teacher C to judge whether an English teacher is excellent or not have become more diversified due to the observation of the practical instructor's classes. For Teacher C, the instructor was considered as a "mirror" of excellent teachers.

What's more, the training helped Teacher C to elaborate the connotations of English teachers' professional development. That is, she realized that the professional development of an English teacher not only included improving teaching skills but should also cover these two aspects: research-oriented learning and promoting language competence.

In terms of research-oriented learning, Teacher C stated that such an impact on her belief about professional development could be attributed to her own self-learning during the training program: "I have realized that there is a need to research on something for a long time. I think this is the biggest change I have experienced in this stage. Maybe I used to be slack on study previously, thinking that it was not necessary to do research. But after this stage, I have started to think that the more you learn, the more shortcomings you will realize. Therefore, extensive and in-depth research-oriented learning and reading are essential" (I3).

As far as promoting language competence, Teacher C was obviously impacted by other trainees: "Talking about professional development, I have realized that as an English teacher I used to have neglected some basic things such as English pronunciation and thinking in English before. In this training, I came to know teachers from foreign language schools. They seem to pay more attention to the English language competence while I didn't train myself in this aspect. This is what has impressed me most about professional development" (I3). This also demonstrates that the impact of the training program not also came from experts' lectures, practical instructor's demonstration, but could also come from other aspects such as interaction with other trainees.

D. Teacher D

At the beginning of the training, Teacher D mentioned that the primary roles of a teacher should be "guide, facilitator and organizer" (I1), while after the shadowing learning stage, she added another one — "checker": "in the end, the practical instructor had a test. I think he played the role as a checker. He played a teacher's roles in a very good way" (I2).

Then, Teacher D proposed three standards to judge whether an English teacher is excellent or not and ranked them according to its importance, including: "responsibility and love", "advanced teaching philosophy", "solid language qualities" (I1). Even after the training, the standards didn't change much.

As regards teachers' professional development, Teacher D claimed that through this training "I now have a more explicit idea about the ways to promote the professional development as a foreign language teacher, improve my own professional skills in the future and facilitate teaching by doing research. I have learned about 'action research' which I believe will benefit my teaching and research a lot" (S1).

During the three interviews, Teacher D repeatedly used words such as "I always believe that …" and "I consistently think that …" which could reflect her firm beliefs. For those training contents which might be new to the other three teachers, she usually said "I have known about this before this training". This could be attributed to her 19 years' teaching experience as a senior teacher. As the rich teaching experience had already helped her to form comparatively

firm beliefs before training, even though she received the same external stimulus as the other three teachers during the training program, the impact was comparatively small.

Table 2 presents the research results, i.e., the changes of the four teachers' beliefs. The belief change classification framework proposed by Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) has been referred to when analyzing the nature of the specific belief change. The number of the mark "*" demonstrates the degree of the belief change (that is, "*" refers to a small change while "*****" refers to a radical change). In the table, the factors contributing to the belief change are also given. Thus, the three research questions mentioned earlier are all answered explicitly.

TABLE 2.
THE BELIEF CHANGES OF THE FOUR PARTICIPANTS

Teacher	Dimension	English teachers' roles	Excellent English teachers	English teachers' professional development
A	Nature of change	addition; consolidation	addition	no change
A	Degree of change	****	****	
A	Facilitating factors	the practical instructor	the practical instructor	
B	Nature of change	addition	addition	reversal
B	Degree of change	***		*****
B	Facilitating factors	the practical instructor; the shadowing school itself		experts' lectures
C	Nature of change	no change	addition	elaboration
C	Degree of change		***	****
C	Facilitating factors		the practical instructor; the shadowing school itself	self-learning; interaction with other trainees
D	Nature of change	addition	no change	elaboration
D	Degree of change	**		**
D	Facilitating factors	the practical instructor		experts' lectures

The results reveal that the impact of this particular training program on the four teachers' beliefs about self varied across individuals. More specifically, addition was the most common type of belief change, which could possibly be due to the belief dimensions being investigated. As beliefs about English teachers' roles and about excellent English teachers could be reflected in the standards listed by the teachers, teachers' addition of new standards could reveal the addition of new beliefs. In terms of the degree of change, only Teacher D experienced comparatively small changes, while the other three teachers all underwent considerable belief development. As far as the facilitating factors, there were explicit factors including: the practical instructor, the shadowing school itself (the teachers naturally compared the shadowing school with their own schools), experts' lectures, self-learning and interaction with other trainees which were all explicitly mentioned by the teachers in the interviews or course work. However, there were also some inexplicit factors such as teachers' pre-existing beliefs before training (Borg, 2005), teachers' individual characteristics (Lamie, 2004) and so on, which might not have been perceived by the teachers themselves.

V. CONCLUSION

The research results show that teacher education programs can influence teachers' beliefs. Despite that the degree, nature and way of the impact varied across individuals, the impact in general was considerable.

Nevertheless, a further question can be proposed, that is, how can teacher education programs facilitate the development of teachers' beliefs in a greater way? Based on the results of this research and extensive literature reading, the following suggestions are provided.

1) Conduct a detailed analysis of teachers' pre-existing beliefs before training so as to target those beliefs which need to be developed through the training program in advance and improve the effectiveness of the training.

2) Raise teachers' belief awareness at the beginning to enable them to reflect on their own beliefs throughout the program.

3) Increase belief development opportunities by assigning reflective course work such as weekly journals and summaries, delivering lectures on teachers' beliefs, organizing teachers to discuss about beliefs explicitly, requiring teachers to read literature extensively and observe excellent classes to confirm or elaborate old beliefs and add new beliefs.

What's more, with reflection on this particular research and extensive reading about other relevant researches, the following issues are considered as worth carrying out further investigation.

1) Research on implicit factors influencing teachers' belief development such as teachers' pre-existing beliefs, training experiences in the past, motivation to participate in the training and attitude towards it, teachers' personality characteristics and abilities and so on.

2) Research on the sustainability of the impact, that is, how long the impact will last for or how much of the impact will be sustained after the trainees get back to work in real teaching contexts.

3) Research on the impact of a particular course (such as a course on professional development) or stage (such as the shadowing learning stage) to get more in-depth findings.

4) Research on the impact on more specific beliefs (such as beliefs about English teachers as facilitators) or on other dimensions of belief (such as beliefs about English teaching).

All in all, teacher belief is a topic worth investigating into, because teacher cognition is the core of teacher development and teacher belief is the core of teacher cognition, which plays a significant role both in teachers' cognition and behavior.

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An Empirical Study of Process-oriented Intercultural Teaching in Chinese College English Classroom

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Abstract—The cultivation of students' intercultural communicative competence (ICC) is one of the main objectives of College English teaching in China. The present study aims to construct the Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode for promoting college students' ICC grounded in the current reality of cultural teaching in Chinese College English course and presents an empirical analysis of the effects of Process-oriented intercultural teaching in Chinese College English classroom. The results of the analysis indicate that the Process-oriented intercultural teaching is more effective than the traditional cultural teaching in enhancing the students' affective and behavioral dimensions of ICC and gained significantly higher satisfaction among teacher and students.

Index Terms—intercultural communicative competence, process-oriented intercultural teaching, Chinese College English classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

The reality of globalization, the increasing interconnection among countries, cultural diversity, and the establishment of English's status of becoming the world's universal language have advanced new requirements for College English teaching in China toward fostering and promoting students' intercultural communicative competence(ICC). College English (CE) is an English-language course offered to non-English majors in 1,983 universities in mainland China. As of 2004, there were about 50,000 Chinese English teachers teaching CE to an estimated 19,000,000 students (Du, 2012). The Chinese National Curriculum of College English Teaching (2007) issued by Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) indicates that one of the important goals of CE teaching is to improve college students' general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges. Yet earlier studies (Chen Guiqin, 2014; Shen Yue, 2014) have found that although many scholars and Chinese university EFL teachers have realized the importance of integrating ICC with the CE classroom, Chinese college students are found far lag behind in their ICC in contrast to their linguistic competence. Intercultural teaching in Chinese CE course is a long-term extension of the traditional system of a linguistic knowledge-centered teaching mode, focusing primarily on imparting cultural knowledge and the ICC-related activities in class usually serve as the aid to teach basic language skills. In this approach to teaching, teachers are primary information givers of target cultural contents, whereas students are passive recipients of the information.

Many Chinese scholars and EFL teachers endeavor to change the status quo of cultural teaching: Hu wenzhong (2013) points out the cultivation of ICC requires work both on and off campus and direct contact with foreign cultures. Zhang weidong (2012) constructs a systematic framework of ICC for foreign language teaching (FLT) in China. Liu Xuehui (2003) suggests that an explicit approach and an implicit approach from the constructive perspective should be combined in the cultural teaching. These research reports provide in-depths insights with regards to the cultural teaching in China, but they still have been confined to the theoretical perspectives and inductive methods, which failed to address the issues of intercultural teaching in CE classroom. International researchers utilize various teaching approaches and strategies to improve cultural learning in students. Several case studies were conducted (Otten, 2003; Smith 1997) in classroom with a mix of domestic and international students enrolled to explore the students' intercultural learning experience. Byram & Zarate (1994), Kramsch (1998) and Byran et al. (2001) stressed a process-oriented pedagogy for intercultural learning. The cultural portfolio project also has been conducted and implemented in Korean, French, German and Taiwan language classrooms, which is considered as the practical and meaningful way to improve the learners' intercultural understanding (Byon2007; Allen 2004; Abrams 2002; Su 2011). However, how is the process-oriented pedagogy incorporated in the Chinese CE intercultural teaching and will it be effective in the Chinese classroom settings? The current study aims to answer the question and fills the gap in this respect.

II. PROCESS-ORIENTED INTERCULTURAL TEACHING

A. Theoretical Framework

The triangular model of ICC developed by Chen and Starosta (1998&2000), Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory and constructivism frame the research study and prove to be the theoretical foundation of Process-oriented Intercultural teaching mode.

Chen and Starosta (1998, p.4) define ICC as "the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behaviors to elicit a desired response in a specific environment". They highlight the importance of intercultural speakers' ability to communicate effectively and appropriately with people from other cultures and behave in negotiation with their cultural identity. Although other researchers put forward different definition of ICC, this study employed Chen & Starosta's framework of ICC for the following two reasons. First, their opinions of the objectives and assessment of ICC in the FLT classroom have great pedagogical significance and provide enormous guidance for researches that attempt to find effective methods of ICC cultivation. Plus, the scales of ICC based on this conceptual framework show good validity and reliability. According to Chen and Starosta (2000, p3), "ICC is comprised of cognitive, affective and behavioral ability of interactants in the process of intercultural communication". To be specific, the cognitive aspect of ICC refers to "the understanding of culture conventions that affect how we think and behave" (Chen&Starosta, 1998, p.9). The affective dimension of ICC means the subjects' "active desire to motivate themselves to understand, appreciate and accept differences among cultures" (Chen&Starosta, 1998, p. 231). And the behavioral aspect of ICC refers to "the ability of get the job done and attain communication goals in intercultural interactions" (Chen&Starosta, 1996, p. 367). Kolb(1984, p.41) proposes that learning is "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience." It is a combination of both how learners approach a task and how learners respond to and assimilate the experience.

B. Construction of Process-oriented Intercultural Teaching Mode

The limitations and problems of traditional intercultural teaching in CE classroom can be easily detected in the light of the above mentioned discussions which emphasize the significance of students' positive experience and construction their own knowledge structures. First, the traditional knowledge-centered teaching mode puts emphasis on the intercultural knowledge infusion whereas how to raise students' cultural sensitivity, how to develop students' positive emotion and communication skills in the intercultural interactions are generally passed over. Cultural teaching is still subordinate to language teaching in CE classroom. Another drawback to this passive cultural teaching is that great attentions are paid to teaching target cultural facts while the home cultures teaching are absent in the teaching practice. In comparison to the traditional teaching, Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode encourages students to critically and actively engage in classroom activities and motivates them to explore different cultures so as to develop their cultural awareness and communication skills through their own work and cooperative learning with peers. In the Process-oriented mode, home cultures and target cultures are given equal importance.

Based on the previous analysis of existing researches and theoretical support, this study constructs Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode in accordance with the actual CE teaching in China. It consists of three parts-experiencing cultures authentically, exploring cultures comparatively and rethinking cultures critically. Unlike the traditional teaching procedures in linear and sequential way, the three parts interplay and compose a dynamic and systematic teaching model. In the section of experiencing cultures authentically, students are encouraged to be immersed in the natural cultural setting through the use of a variety of authentic materials. They are inspired to identify the culture issues with their own life experience based on the topics of the textbook. Experiencing cultures emphasizes the personal involvement and immersion in cultural issues of China as well as English speaking countries. Exploring cultures comparatively is a crucial part in helping students to present research questions after reading research-based materials and form their own independent perception. The purpose of rethinking cultures is to encourage students to break or modify the cultural stereotypes and correct or intensify their understanding of western and Chinese cultures after reflection and interaction based on the peer and teacher assessment.

III. METHOD

A. Research Questions

This study is supported by a semester-long teaching experiment designed to examine the effectiveness of Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode in Chinese CE class on the basis of the case study of Shanghai Dianji University. Three research questions are posed: 1.Is Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode effective in the improvement of students' ICC in cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains? 2. What are the students' and teachers' opinions about the Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode in CE class? 3. What improvements could be made to CE course so as to better cultivate students' ICC?

B. Participants

This research is conducted in two first-year classes of Shanghai Dianji University and all participants major in International Economics and Trade in their second semester. According to College English Curriculum Requirements (2007), students with this major are required to complete 4-semester's college English course with 16 credits. The two classes were randomly divided into experimental class (EC for short) and control class (CC for short) respectively.

In order to ensure the reliability of the research, the following measures were taken: First, the two classes have almost the same overall English proficiency on the final test at the end of the first semester with the average score of 78.3and 79.1 respectively. The mean age of two classes is 18.3 and 18.5, which is not significantly different. The number of both classes is almost the same with 38 students in EC (16males, 22 females) and 39 students in CC (13 males, 26 females). Second, both classes were taught by the same English teacher and used the same textbook: 21 Century College English published by Fudan University Press. Third, both groups had the same number of teaching hours: there were altogether 72 periods distributed in 18 weeks, that is, 4 periods per week.

C. Procedures

In the experimental class, the Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode was employed. During the first class, the teacher described the research by explaining the purpose of study and informed the students of the objectives, contents and assessment of the course. The teacher created a web group discussion forum with QQ and provided the students a list of readings and internet resources. The learning strategies and methods were introduced to the EC students in class. Students were randomly divided into different study groups of 4-5 students during every unit study. In the stage of experiencing cultures, theme-related materials including videos like movie clips, Ted talks and reading materials were given in order to provide students with opportunity to observe and experience the authentic cultural contexts. In the second phase, each study group was required to choose a particular research problem related to the topic in each unit. The research can either make a comparison of Chinese and western cultures or give an in-depth exploration of Chinese traditional culture. For example, when students studied the text of unit 2 "Why They Excel", different research questions were raised with the teacher's help-" What are differences between American and Chinese parenting styles?", "What the U.S. and Chinese school systems have in common?","Are Chinese more family-oriented than Americans?","How has Confucianism influenced Chinese society?" etc. Students are encouraged to use different approaches to form their opinions and insights with a variety of perspectives through personal involvement and keen observation. Some of them conducted online questionnaires or interviews with Americans. In the reflection stage, students presented research reports online or gave oral presentations in class, and the rest of students brainstormed and discussed in class or posted a response online on discussion forum. Students' roles varied from stage to stage within different activities. At the end of each unit students were graded through peer and teacher assessments.

D. Instruments

Data were collected through qualitative and quantitative methods and four instruments were administered to the respondents in order to examine the effectiveness of Process-oriented intercultural teaching.

1. Pre and Post Tests

All the students from EC and CC were required to take the socio-cultural tests at the beginning and the end of semester. The tests were 50 minutes long and the first 25 question items were designed to evaluate student's command of Chinese cultural knowledge and another 25 questions were concerning the cultural knowledge of English-speaking countries, which covered many aspects of cultures that college students are supposed to be familiar with. The total score of the test paper was 50 points. The tests were designed based on the "Culture Test Model" proposed by Valette (1977), the "Social-Cultural Test" proposed by Wang Zhenya (1990) and the "English Pragmatic Competence Investigation" by He Ziran's (1988).

2. Self-report Scales

The self-report scale was derived and adapted from the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale designed by Chen and Starosta (2000), Intercultural Effectiveness Scale by Portalla and Chen (2010) and ICCSRS developed by Zhong Hua(2013), which aimed to measure students' ICC from the perspective of affect and behavior. It should be noted that some of the statements were rewritten for better use in accordance with actual situations in China. Given the impact of language barrier, statements were written both in Chinese and English. The first 20 items were designed to measure intercultural sensitivity while the rest of 20 items were used to determine students' ICC from behavioral dimension. The 40-item scale utilized a 5-point Likert-type rating scale with responses ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). They were conducted in both classes before and after the study.

3. Satisfaction Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interviews

Satisfaction questionnaire was implemented at the end of the semester and distributed to EC. The semi-structured interviews were conducted among the teacher of this course and 15 students chosen randomly in EC. The main focus of student interviews was to obtain a deeper understanding of how the students think about the Process-oriented intercultural teaching they were engaged in and how it influences their English learning. The interview questions for teacher mainly focus on the comparison between the two different teaching modes, the problems he encountered during implementing the mode and his suggestions on how to improve it.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to the aforementioned research questions, the results are displayed in two parts: 1. the changes of students' ICC from the cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions; 2. students and teacher's views towards the Process-oriented intercultural teaching and reflections on improving the teaching practice.

A. The Change in Cognitive Aspect of ICC

From the descriptive statistics in table 1, you can see that there is no significant difference between these two groups on the cognitive ICC achievements. That is to say, compared with the traditional teaching mode, the Process-oriented intercultural teaching is not clearly more effective to increase students' cognitive dimension of ICC in a certain time. Perhaps this is because question items in the pre and post tests are based on rote memorization instead of comprehension and application level questions. And the Process-oriented intercultural teaching emphasizes the process of inquiry and cooperation in learning and encourages students to gain a deep insight into cultural phenomena through active engagement, in-depth exploration and critical thinking. The result indicates that this teaching paradigm is not more efficient in obtaining factual information in comparison with traditional direct instruction teaching, which should be improved in the future.

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENCE T-TEST RESULTS OF PRE AND POST-TESTS BETWEEN EG AND CG

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of variances	t-test for Equality of Means
						Sig.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pre-test Cognitive	EC	38	38.1316	3.71390	.60247	.321	.869
	CC	39	38.2821	4.26089	.68229		
Post-test Cognitive	EC	38	39.8421	4.20120	.68152	.453	.387
	CC	39	38.9487	4.77906	.76526		

However after analyzing the online discussion forum posts and oral presentations in class, we found that the students have expanded and deepened their understandings by modifying or eliminating cultural stereotypes, and this result is in agreement with previous findings (Byon, 2007; Su, 2011). Admittedly, cultural stereotypes are helpful in shaping attitudes and behaviors toward other races and cultures in some respects, but more often than not it involves false or misleading generalizations which would have detrimental effect on social interaction and communication. At the early phase of the research, students seldom realized the diversity and complexity of culture and the specific communication situations in the real interactions were always ignored. The incorrect and inadequate perception may be generated due to the knowledge from the outdated textbooks or the distorted vision of the reality gained from the TV series. In the Process-oriented intercultural teaching paradigm, students began to have conscious awareness of the existing or potential subcultures and sense the media and popular culture within a large complex culture. Meanwhile they paid closer attention to role of the concrete communication situations in cross-cultural interactions. The following quotations show specific example of the cognitive change before and after the research.

1. Group A Research question: What a typical American breakfast like?

We interviewed 20 Americans online and they gave me a huge variety of answers. After summarizing their answers, we found that cereal, bacon and eggs are maybe the most common breakfast food. The interviewees told me that lots of young folks always skip their breakfast…lots of people buy their breakfast on their way to work, for example muffin, burger, donuts, croissant, biscuit or something similar and coffee. Lots of people have turned to eating fast food for breakfast and they hit the drive thru for breakfast. That's why there are a lot of popular fast food breakfast chain stores like McDonald, subway, Chick-fil-A, Burger King, Donut King, Jack in the Box etc. …Meanwhile, we realize the breakfast foods vary wildly from region to region. For example, we are told that southerners like grits, ham and eggs. Some of them prefer Mexican food like taco, burrito. While West coast people are into granola, fruit and yogurt. A friend I surveyed is from New York, and he told me that in New York, a typical breakfast may consist of eggs, toast (white, rye or wheat), home fries (potatoes fried on a griddle with onions and sometimes peppers) and breakfast meat (bacon, ham or sausage). They all love pancakes, French toast, waffle etc. and some immigrant families still continue the kinds of eating that they ate in their country of origin. …(Oral report)

2. Student A

I have always thought that Chinese college students have higher academic pressure than American counterparts and college life there is relaxing and lazy. Li kai's presentation lets me realize that American college students also experience high level of academic stress due to challenging courses, peer competition, parents' expectation and self-esteem etc... (Response post online)

These above excerpts demonstrate that students reconstructed their existing knowledge and realized the dynamics and complex dimensions of cultures through exploration and communication.

B. The Change in Affective Aspect of ICC

It can clearly been seen from the table 2 that students' ICC on affective domain was not significantly different before the study between the two classes while the post-test result was significant. It indicates that the Process-oriented intercultural teaching has significantly contributed to the promotion of affective aspect of ICC.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENCE T-TEST RESULTS OF SELF-REPORT SCALE BETWEEN EG AND CG

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of variances	t-test for Equality of Means
						Sig.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pre-test Affective	EC	38	56.8421	18.15776	2.94558	.534	.958
	CC	39	57.0513	16.69218	2.67289		
Post-test Affective	EC	38	70.1053	14.60061	2.36853	.944	.004
	CC	39	59.8205	15.79452	2.52915		

Fred Jandt (2013) argues that people normally can have no direct knowledge of a culture other than their own. Their experience with and knowledge of other cultures are limited by the perceptual bias of their own cultures. People tend to use their own culture as a benchmark or lens to evaluate others, which sometimes pose barriers to intercultural interactions. The oral and written reports revealed that at the early stage of the study, some students showed negative attitudes towards different aspects of target culture and lacked of tolerance for conflicting views. After exploration and communication with native speakers, they have become more willing to recognize, accept and appreciate diverse views and gradually developed a more positive emotion towards understanding and appreciating cultural differences, which promotes appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication (Chen & Starosta, 1997). Some students told me during the interviews that "I now realized that it is inappropriate to say a culture is superior or inferior to ours." "In the past, I focused too much on cultural differences rather than similarities, now I gradually realized that there are more similarities than differences across many countries".

ICC emphasizes the mediation between different cultures and requires the ability of interacting with people with multiple identities and their own identity. That is to say, students should be mindful of the cultural differences and gain a deeper understanding of both their own and target cultures (Bryam, M., Gribkova, B., & Starkey, H, 2002). Fantini (2000) describes intercultural experience as a "'double-edged' nature" because "the development of competence in another culture and proficiency in its language provide the opportunity for powerful reflections into one's own native world view. (p.26)" However, a large number of students suffered from a serious "aphasia of Chinese culture" (Cong, 2000). They were unfamiliar with Chinese traditional culture and also found it difficult to express Chinese culture in English. Some of them even looked down upon Chinese culture and unconditionally accepted and admired the "beautiful" and "exotic" characteristics of a foreign culture. During the interview, teacher confessed that "I seldom introduce the Chinese culture knowledge in traditional class because the textbook does not contain any Chinese cultural materials and contents." However, the results from the students' interviews and students' oral and written report suggest that through gathering information from library, internet and native speakers, they have increased their understanding of Chinese culture and showed more confidence in expressing Chinese culture in English.

C. The Change in Behavioral Aspect of ICC

As shown in the table 3, there is a significant difference within EC before and after the study while there is no significant difference within CC. The statistical significance between EC and CC illustrates that there is a significant increase in students' ICC on behavioral perspective under the Process-oriented Intercultural teaching paradigm.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENCE T-TEST RESULTS OF SELF-REPORT SCALE BETWEEN EG AND CG

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of variances	t-test for Equality of Means
						Sig.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pre-test Behavioral	EC	38	38.6053	4.04394	.65601	.133	.749
	CC	39	38.8718	3.19687	.51191		.750
Post-test Behavioral	EC	38	42.4211	4.05124	.65720	.665	.002
	CC	39	39.5128	3.91940	.62761		.002

Traditional cultural teaching focused more on the target cultural contents rather than the process of constructing meaningful knowledge. However, in many cases, cultural knowledge that students acquired cannot be automatically and directly transformed into ICC. In Process-oriented intercultural teaching approach, students take for their own responsibility to collect and share information, report and exemplify cultural behaviors. Initially, most of students were in extreme need of instructional scaffolding and helps from teacher. Later, they became more confident in carrying out intercultural tasks. By going through the process of specifying, exploring and analyzing their research questions, students actively constructed their own profound and long-lasting understanding of the culture. Students are not passive recipients of knowledge and teaching content any longer, but active constructors of knowledge; and teachers have changed from knowledge imparters to the assistants and guides that focus mainly on counseling and helping students to construct meaning. Through interactions with teacher, classmates and native speakers, students enhanced their language proficiency and reduced the anxiety and psychological distress in intercultural encounters. They also acquired and honed good communication skills which help to overcome the difficulty that sometimes arises when interacting with people from different cultures.

The post-questionnaires, written reports and students' reflective postings online reveal that students show more empathy than before and they are more sensitive to others. They are more willing to recognize, accept and appreciate diversity. They are more receptive to interacting with culturally different. A student's post online said that he felt curious and inspired by talking with people with different cultural background. Another student mentioned that she realized that contents of cultural learning should not be confined to only inner circle countries, she once met a friend from Norway but her limited knowledge about this country hindered their communication. It proves that Process-oriented Intercultural teaching helps stimulate their interest in real communication and as a result improve their communication skills.

D. Students and Teacher's Attitudes towards Process-oriented Intercultural Teaching

Through data statistics of interviews and the satisfaction questionnaire, we can conclude that both the teacher and the EG students have positive attitudes towards Process-oriented Intercultural teaching.

The teacher affirmed that in Process-oriented intercultural teaching, students' enthusiasm for learning English was greatly increased by the cultural exploration activities and students were given more chance to express and exchange their own opinions so as to improve their written and oral language proficiency. But the teacher claimed that the rigid College English syllabus, lack of suitable textbooks, limited teaching hours and large classes, insufficient language environment resources or opportunities like fieldwork all stand in the way of effective business English teaching, which need to be refined or modified in the next round of teaching.

As for the students, 86% of them (43/50) are content with the process-oriented intercultural teaching with 56% extremely satisfied and 30% satisfied. The findings of interviews are consistent with—but more extensive than—the result of post-questionnaire. During interview, 12 students deem that "the teaching method helps them to construct their own meaning", "classroom activities and discussions online is interesting and rewarding". During interviews, 2 students expressed concerns and doubts. 1 student showed concern over the CET-4 test result, because the course did not touch upon the test-taking strategies. Another student felt uncomfortable with this new method, because "his English is not good enough for the course and he found it difficult to discover the research topics independently". It reflects that teacher must adopt systematic and structured approach and help learners to express and respond to their cultural learning experiences (Choudhury, R. U., 2014). It can be seen that teacher's role is more crucial rather than diminished in the new teaching paradigm.

V. CONCLUSION

The study constructs the Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode for promoting college students' ICC grounded in the current reality of cultural teaching in Chinese CE course and has implemented a comparative experiment in Shanghai Dianji University. According to the previous statistics and analysis, we can summarize that Process-oriented intercultural teaching is comparatively more effective than traditional teaching in the context of CE classroom and does make significant difference to the students' ICC on affective and behavioral perspectives in the Experimental Class after the study. In addition, Process-oriented intercultural teaching urges students to be more active, interested and confident in learning English than before and it gains significantly higher satisfaction among teacher and students. As this study intends a tentative study on the application of Process-oriented intercultural teaching mode in CE class, the research was only conducted on a small scale. In order to provide sufficient and more convincing data on the positive effects of Process-oriented intercultural teaching, more research work on a larger scale is expected in the future.

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Iranian English Teaching Applicants' Request and Apology Speech Acts: Special Focus on Language Proficiency

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Abstract—Considering speech act formulas as one tenet of pragmatics has been one primary aspect of research domain in the recent years. The current study probes whether proficiency level plays any part in implementing request and apology speech acts, with special focus on Iranian English Teaching Applicants (ETA). To calculate participants' pragmatics performance, two Discourse Completion Tests (DCT) were administered, i.e. a multiple choice (MDCT) and a written form (WDCT), each of which was comprised of 10 request and 10 apology situations. MDCT was adopted from Birjandi and Rezaee (2010), and WDCT was adopted from Jianda (2006), and Olshtain and Cohen (1990). Participants of the study were 157 (81 males and 76 females) English teaching applicants studying in several language centers in Iran. After homogenizing the participants, Pearson product moment correlation was run to detect the relationship between two proficiency level groups' (i.e., high-score and low-score) proficiency scores and their request and apology realization. The resulting data revealed that different proficiency level did not produce any significant differences in request and apology speech act production. Accordingly, proficiency level may not be an influential variable in request and apology realization. The results of this study can inform English instructors and practitioners.

Index Terms—speech acts, request, apology, proficiency score, high-score, low-score, English Teaching Applicant (ETA)

I. INTRODUCTION

Up to the recent decades, language teaching pedagogy considered grammatical and vocabulary knowledge as the major substance for an L2 curriculum. Accordingly, cultural and sociolinguistic aspects of language, presently termed as pragmatics, were not a basic concern in language programs. The present era, however, has witnessed a widespread quest over the significant role of pragmatic competence in language teaching and learning (Kecskes, Majeed & Janjua, 2014).

Pragmatics covers a vast area; for instance, conversational implicature, deixis, conversational structures, and presuppositions (Mey, 2009), all of which open new lenses in second language acquisition settings. Numerous studies have reported the importance of having pragmatic competence in learning a second or foreign language (see for example, Aksoyalp & Toprak, Naghavi & Razavi, 2015; Newokolo, 2014).

The role of speech acts, as one tenet of pragmatics, in language perception and production in particular, is recognized as an indispensable part of linguistic studies in inter-language settings (Aksoyalp & Toprak 2015; Naghavi & Razavi, Nakhle, 2015). The existing literature embraces a plethora of research on this issue including: Alcon Soler & Martinez Flor, 2008; Birjandi & Rezaei, 2010; Cohen, 2010; Kuhi & Jadid, 2014. Recognizing speech act as one of the cornerstones in pragmatics was firstly introduced by Austin (1962) and was discussed by his student, Searle, later on (Searle 1969). Cohen (2008, p.2) defined speech act as:

The patterned, routinized language that natives and pragmatically competent nonnative speakers and writers in a given speech community (with its dialect variations) use to perform functions such as thanking, complimenting, requesting, refusing, apologizing and complaining. (Cited in Zayed, 2014)

Meanwhile, selection of appropriate linguistic forms for the intended speech act with regard to power and distance has received considerable attention in recent years, yet still awaits further research to explore determining variables in this respect.

Literature is filled with the studies inspired by speech act theory (e.g., Aksoyalp and Toprak, 2015; Gaily, 2014; Halupka-Resetar, 2015; Saleem and Azam, 2015; Scherbakova, 2010; Zayed, 2015) and the impact of participants' proficiency knowledge on their pragmatic competence (e.g., Hamidi and Khodareza, 2014; Rattanaprasert and

Aksornjarung, 2011; Tabatabaei and Farnia, 2015; Taguchi, 2011). In particular, it seems that there is a tangible lack of research merely focusing on request as well as apology speech acts. That is, some researchers have conducted on these mentioned speech acts together with acts such as, refusal, complaint and the others (Aminifard & Safaei, 2014; Behnam and Niroomand, 2011). Meanwhile, there are no research studies specifically targeting the performance of applicants for teaching English. Consequently, the current research project aims to fill this void in pragmatics.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES

A. Theoretical Background

Recently, the application of pragmatics in educational programs has attracted lots of attention. Considering Pragmatics definition, Yule (1996) stated that "it is the study of speaker and contextual meaning". Elsewhere, he added that "it is about how more can get communicated than is said" (p.4). On the other hand, Wales (1989) pinpointed that the primary target of pragmatists lies in "functions, intentions, and goals of utterances"(p. 369). In addition, it requires a kind of "linguistic competence" which is vital while using language in specific contextual situations.

In line with this issue, Bachman and Palmer (2010) stated that being linguistically competent awaits having both organizational and pragmatic competence. As for the former, i.e. the organizational competence, it necessitates interlocutors to have the knowledge of "producing grammatical sentences, understanding the propositional meaning, and ordering the sentences in the correct way to form a text"(p. 86). That is while, pragmatic competence deals with "the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts".

Considering specific perspectives presented in this model of language competence, its two dimensions (i.e., organizational and pragmatic competence) should be considered equally important. Hence, the current study aims to shed more light on the latter dimension, which is the most problematic issue in the educational and teaching context.

On the other hand, considering communication as a central target for learning a language (Afghari, 2007) necessitates English learners to use English speech acts communicatively with the aims of fulfilling their basic requirements (e.g., requesting other people, and/or apologizing them for their mistakes or misbehaves). The importance of this issue can be felt by pondering deeply on the Iranian learners' cultural background which prevents them from using specific speech acts, e.g. apology or request, while communicating (see Afghari, 2007; Witczak, 2012)..

B. Empirical Studies on Request and Apology Speech Acts

Among studies conducted on speech act formulas, some focused on examining different languages within various contextual situations. For instance, Halupka-Resetar (2015) investigated the type and frequency of internal and external request speech act production of 37 ESP students in Serbia. To establish participants' request performance, a modified version of WDCT was implemented to them. The findings revealed that request production of intermediate ESP learners with respect to both internal and external type of modification and frequency of utilization was very low. As for another finding, it was concluded that the participants' request production was due to pedagogical instruction which was significantly in a lower level than linguistic development of the participants.

On the other hand, Jordian EFL learners and instructors' practice of five speech act types (viz., apology, request, compliment, thanking, and greeting) were investigated by Zayed (2014). To conduct this research project, 30 female EFL instructors and their students were selected as the participants of the study. A classroom observation checklist was used to investigate their practice of the above-mentioned speech acts in the classroom. The researcher cited that the participants had no proper practice of any kind of these speech acts. In this study, the teachers practiced three speech acts of request, thanking, and greeting better than compliment and apology. However, results proved that the students implemented the greeting speech act better than the other acts.

Another research project was conducted by Gaily (2014) who attempted to assess the way programmed pedagogical sessions of English speech act instruction could affect Sudanese EFL learners' pragmatic performance. Accordingly, he investigated four types of speech acts, viz. request, apology, complaint, and refusal. One type of DCT and a Multile choice pragmatic comprehension test were used as pretest and post-test in that study. The findings revealed that after the instruction phase, participants' performance of the above-mentioned speech acts confronted a tangible development.

Another study is Aksoyalp and Toprak (2015) which dealt with the extent EFL course books address speech acts. To this end, the way EFL course books includes apology, complaint and suggestion formulas was investigated. Several books with different language proficiency level were chosen as the instruments of the study. At last, results indicated that pragmatic knowledge did not receive the deserved attention from course book writers and material developers. Consequently, some suggestions were presented to this problem.

Saleem and Azam (2015) also conducted a research project considering the socio-pragmatic appropriateness in apology strategies and pragmatic transfer in English. The participants were EFL University students of Pakistan whose pragmatic performance was analyzed according to group discussion questionnaire. According to the participants' reports, they used apology strategies by considering interlocutor's social norms and not translating apology strategies of their L1 cultural norms. Findings revealed that Urdu-speaking learners of English used these speech act strategies according to the severity of the offence. That is to say, intensifiers and indirect apology strategies were used by the participants when the situation was severe. However, when the situation was not severe, explicit apology strategies were utilized.

C. Studies on Iranian Context

Among studies on speech acts, some were conducted in Iranian context including Salehi (2013). He examined the effect of implicit vs. explicit teaching of apology and request speech acts. To this end, he gave a DCT to 40 university students and the results were compared with their midterm scores. The objectives of the study were to investigate the relationship between pragmatic and grammatical competence of the participants. The participants were divided to two groups and underwent two instructional procedures of implicit and explicit nature. Findings revealed that instruction was effective regardless of assignment of the students into the mentioned groups.

In another study by Mirzaei and Esmaeili (2013), the impact of planned instruction was investigated on Iranian L2 learners' interlanguage pragmatic development. Accordingly, participants' awareness and production of three types of speech acts (e.g., apology, request, and complaint) were explored. The other aim was to determine whether language proficiency plays any role in incorporating pragmatic instruction into the L2 classroom. The results were compared on the basis of participants' performance on pre- and post-test types of MDCT and WDCT. Findings indicated that explicit instruction facilitated the development of pragmatically appropriate language usage, however, the level of language proficiency had no significant role in incorporating instruction into actual use.

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

Considering all these studies, the current research is designed to investigate the relationship between Iranian ETAs' proficiency knowledge and their pragmatic performance. To this end, two speech acts of request and apology were investigated. The primary reason for choosing these speech acts is that they are both mostly used in everyday conversational situations, and social settings. Furthermore, other speech act types have already been studied in Iran context by different scholars (see for example, Meinl, 2010; Sadler and Eroz, 2001).The foremost objective of this study is to lead interlocutors to the best level of language competence with regard to its basic dimensions of organizational and pragmatic competence. Consequently, the following research questions were presented:

A. Research Questions

As to reach the above-mentioned ends in this study, the following research questions were posed:

1) Does proficiency level have any significant relationship with pragmatic performance of English teaching applicants, concerning request and apology speech acts?

2) Does high-score proficiency level have any significant relationship with pragmatic performance of English teaching applicants, concerning request and apology speech acts?

3) Does low-score proficiency level have any significant relationship with pragmatic performance of English teaching applicants, concerning request and apology speech acts?

B. Method

Participants and Setting

Participants of this study were 157 applicants for teaching English in several language centers, Hezareh Danesh and Novin, located in Jam, Shokuh and Modarres institutes, in Shiraz, Iran. The participants included 59 male and 51 female with an average age ranging from 25 to 30. For homogenizing the participants, Oxford Quick Placement test (OQPT, 2001) was administered. Afterward, the participants with advance proficiency level classified into two groups of high-score and low-score.

As to survey their demographic information, most of them had the experience of learning English as their field of study at university, and some studied other fields at university, computer engineering, agriculture, biology, information technology, and the others. Among them, some were familiar with other languages, i.e. Arabic, French, Turkish, and/or Germany. The participants' first language was mostly Persian and a very small number of them, i.e. less than four percent, had the experience of living abroad, however, none had studied English language abroad.

The chief reason for selecting this sample size as the participants of the current study was that according to Morgan (1970) Population sample chart, the sample required for 270 population members is 157. Accordingly, the results of the present study can be generalized to 270 participants within similar contexts.

Instrumentation and materials

Three standard types of instruments were employed in this study, Oxford quick placement test as for homogenizing the participants, one type of MDCT conducted by Birjandi & Rezaee (2010), and two types of WDCT(administered as one test) for request and apology speech acts. The request and apology WDCT forms were adopted from Jianda (2006) and Olshtain & Cohen (1990), respectively. The MDCT for the current study encompasses 10 different situations of request and 10 others for apology speech acts. That is, each of WDCT forms encompassed 10 items for either mentioned speech act types. Prior to administering the questionnaires, participants were asked to reply each situational item regarding contextualized conditions. In the meantime, personal information was recorded regarding the participants' gender, general experiences of learning/teaching other languages, and their fields of study. To ascertain the validity of the tests, the researcher asked for the judgment of five experienced EFL professors at the University of Zanjan.

Data collection Procedure

For collecting data, Firstly, to ensure the homogeneity of the participants and in the meantime measuring their general English proficiency, oxford quick placement test (2001) was administered. After that, one week later, the research objectives were explained to the advanced proficiency level participants by the researcher. Then, they were asked to fancy themselves in different situations of the questionnaire. Following that, the MDCT and WDCT were given simultaneously to them as the instruments for measuring their command of speech acts.

Data collection and analysis

Consequently, the MDCT responses were analyzed on the bases of Birjandi & Rezaee's (2010) answer keys. In addition, as for rating the participants' production on WDCT, their responses were rated on the bases of a 6-point Likert scale adopted from Taguchi (2006). As for assuring the validity of the ratings, the participants' responses to WDCT were judged by three M.A TEFL students at the University of Shiraz as well as the researcher of the current study. Taguchi's Likert scale ranged from 0 to 5, as shown in table 1 below.

TABLE 1.
APPROPRIATENESS RATING SCALE

Ratings	Descriptors
0	No performance
1 Very poor	Expressions are very difficult or too little to understand. There is no evidence that the intended speech acts are performed.
2 Poor	Due to the interference from grammatical and discourse errors, appropriateness is difficult to determine.
3 Fair	-Expressions are only somewhat appropriate. -Grammatical and discourse errors are noticeable, but they do not interfere appropriateness.
4 Good	-Expressions are mostly appropriate. -Very few grammatical and discourse errors.
5 Excellent	-Expressions are fully appropriate for the situation. - No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors

The gathered data from the WDCT forms were judged according to the above-mentioned rating criteria and added to the MDCT scores for request and apology speech acts production. Hence, two groups of high-score and low-score performances on request and apology speech acts were investigated using SPSS procedure. Next, descriptive statistics of the speech act types along with participants' proficiency scores were presented. Consequently, Pearson Product moment correlation was implemented to detect the strength and direction of the relationship between the aforementioned variables of the study.

IV. RESULTS

As previously mentioned, research questions of the current study tackle on the issue that if there is any association between proficiency level, for high-score and low-score proficiency level, and pragmatic performance of Iranian applicants for teaching English. In order to answer these questions, firstly, descriptive statistics of the variables, including minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation were calculated. Hence, it follows with correlation procedures in order to detect the kind and degree of the relationship between dependent and independent variables of this study.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR WHOLE SUBJECTS, LOW-SCORE GROUP, AND HIGH-SCORE GROUP (N=157)

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Whole subjects (n=157)	Request	157	40.00	95.00	75.94	.907	11.369
	Apology	157	26.00	98.00	77.67	1.058	13.260
	Proficiency	157	78.00	99.00	87.78	.493	6.181
Low-score (n= 87)	Request	87	40.00	95.00	71.57	1.277	11.908
	Apology	87	26.00	95.00	70.36	1.336	12.458
	Proficiency	87	78.00	93.00	82.85	.313	2.924
High-score (n= 70)	Request	70	65.00	95.00	81.36	.939	7.854
	Apology	70	71.00	98.00	86.76	.869	7.270
	Proficiency	70	90.00	99.00	93.90	.318	2.660

As previously mentioned, 157 participants of this study were classified into two groups of high-score and low-score proficiency level, on the basis of their proficiency scores. Table 2, displays descriptive statistics concerning participants' (i.e. the whole subjects, low-score, and high-score group) proficiency knowledge and their performance on request/apology speech acts. Regarding the descriptive statistics, table 3 represents the Pearson product-moment correlation (hereafter Pearson's correlation) for the pair variables of pragmatics and proficiency knowledge in three groups of low-score, high-score, as well as the whole subjects. The reason for choosing this kind of statistical procedure among other correlational formulas was about its nature which measures the strength and direction of linear relationship between pairs of continuous variables.

To interpret the outcomes of inferential statistics, Cohen's (1988) criteria was used to determine the strength of the relationships between various variables in the current study. Cohen (1988) suggested that, a correlation of 0.10 to 0.29

regarded as small, 0.30 to 0.49 regarded as medium, and 0.50 to 1.0 considered as large (as cited in Pallant, 2005, p.126).

TABLE 3.
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCORES ON PROFICIENCY, AND REQUEST/APOLOGY
SPEECH ACT TESTS OF WHOLE SUBJECTS (N=157)

			Proficiency
Whole subjects (n=157)	Request	Pearson Correlation	.482
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	Apology	Pearson Correlation	.597
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

A Pearson correlation was run to assess the relationship between ETAs' scores on proficiency, and request/apology tests in whole subjects (table 3). The data showed no violation of homoscedasticity, linearity, or normality. Hence, it was found that there was a medium, positive correlation between the two variables of request and proficiency, r = 0.482, n = 157, p < 0.05 (p= 0.00). Concisely, the significant level is 0.00 which is less than 0.05 (p value < 0.05). On the other hand, r= 0.482 is positive and ranges between 0.30 and 0.49. Therefore, it can be interpreted as a medium, positive relationship between these two variables, i.e. scores of proficiency and request speech act. Hence, a higher pragmatic score was consistently associated with greater proficiency level and vice versa. On the other hand, there was a strong, positive relationship between the two variables of apology and proficiency, r = 0.597, n = 157, p < 0.05 (p= 0.00). That is, the significant level is 0.00 which is less than 0.05 (p value < 0.05). In addition, r= 0.597 is positive and a little over halfway between 0.00 and 1.00. Therefore, it can be interpreted as a strong, positive relationship between scores on proficiency and apology speech act.

TABLE 4.
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCORES ON PROFICIENCY, AND REQUEST/APOLOGY SPEECH
ACT TESTS OF LOW-SCORE GROUP (N=87)

			Proficiency
Low-score (n= 87)	Request	Pearson Correlation	.249
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	Apology	Pearson Correlation	.175
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.104

As illustrated in table 4, there was a small, positive correlation between the two variables of request and proficiency in the low-score group, r = 0.249, n = 87, p < 0.05 (p= 0.002).Concisely, the significant level is 0.002 which is less than 0.05 (p value < 0.05). On the other hand, r= 0.249 is positive and ranges from 0.10 to 0.29 which is regarded as small. Therefore, it can be interpreted as a small, positive relationship between these two variables, i.e. scores of proficiency and request speech act. In contrast, there was no correlation between the low-score group's total scores of proficiency and apology speech act, r = 0.175, n = 87, p> 0.05 (p = 0.104). The significance is 0.104 that is more than (0.05) (p value > 0.05). Therefore, proficiency level and apology speech act had no statistically significant association with each other in this group.

TABLE 5.
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCORES ON PROFICIENCY, AND REQUEST/APOLOGY SPEECH
ACT TESTS OF HIGH-SCORE GROUP (N=70)

			Proficiency
High-score (n= 70)	Request	Pearson Correlation	.239
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.046
	Apology	Pearson Correlation	.070
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.710

Table 5 indicated that there was a small, positive correlation between the high-score group's performance on proficiency and request speech act, r = 0.239, n = 70, p < 0.05 (p= 0.046).Concisely, the significant level is 0.046 which is less than 0.05 (p value < 0.05). In addition, r= 0.239 is positive and ranges from 0.10 to 0.29 which is regarded as small. Hence, it can be interpreted as a small, positive relationship between scores of proficiency and request speech act in the high-score participants. Considering the relationship between proficiency and apology scores in this group, no correlation was found, r= 0.070, n=70, p> 0.05 (p= 0.710). The significance is 0.710 that is more than (0.05) (p value > 0.05). Therefore proficiency level and apology speech act had no statistically significant association with each other in the high score group.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The fundamental concern of the current study was to probe the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables of proficiency score and pragmatic performance, focusing on request and apology speech acts. To this end, descriptive and inferential statistics were presented separately for groups of low-score, high-score, as well as the whole subjects. As a result, it was confirmed that, the whole participants' request and apology competence had a positive association

with their proficiency knowledge. In addition, both low-score and high-score groups' request realization had a small, positive correlation with their proficiency scores. However, apology speech act was not significantly correlated with proficiency scores in both groups. Findings of the current study may indicate that the Iranian ETAs' proficiency knowledge play a significant role in their request realization. However, there was no association between their proficiency knowledge and apology competence.

The relationship between two variables of pragmatic competence and language proficiency was a fascinating topic of research for numerous scholars (e.g. Ashoorpour & Azari, 2014; Behnam 7 Niroomand, 2011; Rattanaprasert & Aksornjarung, 2011; Tabatabaei & Farnia, 2015; Tajeddin & Tayebipour, 2015) which implied the importance of this issue. As there were lots of inconsistencies in relation to the influential effect of proficiency level on pragmatic performance of the participants, the current study was presented to tackle on the issue more decisively. In addition, no research studies has already probed this subject on non-native applicants for teaching English, the void which aimed to be filled in the current study.

The results of the present study confirm the findings of some researches (e.g., Hamidi & Khodareza, 2014; Rattanaprasert & Aksornjarung, 2011; Taguchi, 2011) in that proficiency knowledge is significantly correlated with pragmatic performance. For instance, Taguchi (2011) explored whether proficiency level and having the experience of studying abroad have any effect on the participants' speech act production. To this end, 25 English native speakers and 64 Japanese English learners were selected as the participants. Then they were classified into three groups of low-proficiency level, high-proficiency level, and high-proficiency level based on their experience of studying abroad. Finally, it was concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between proficiency level and participants' speech act production.

The results of the current study were in contrast with the findings of some scholars who concluded that there was no significant relationship between pragmatic competence and language proficiency. For instance, Ashoorpour and Azari (2014) conducted a study on the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' proficiency knowledge and request speech act production. Consequently, it was indicated that there were no significant relationship between these two variables in pre-intermediate and intermediate level students.

In the same vein, Tabatabaei and Farnia (2015) conducted their research project considering the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' English proficiency and their refusal speech act acquisition. The results indicated that there was no correlation between language proficiency and pragmatic performance. That is, language proficiency could not be considered as a determining factor in the appropriateness and degree of pragmatic competence.

In addition, the findings of the current study were in contrast with Rattanaprasert and Aksornjarung's (2011) findings as they found a negative relationship between language proficiency and pragmatic performance. They investigated 62 first year medical students' vocabulary and grammatical knowledge and their pragmatic performance. Findings indicated that participants with high scores of vocabulary and grammar performed poorly on the bases of their pragmatic performance and vice versa. Hence, these two variables were negatively correlated in first year medical students in Thailand.

In conclusion, it can be inferred that Iranian ETAs' proficiency knowledge played a significant role in their request realization. However, there was no association between their proficiency knowledge and apology competence. Therefore, investigating a few specific speech act realization may not be a beneficial predicator of the participants' pragmatic performance, as a whole. That is, pragmatic performance should be judged more meticulously.

This study has important implications for foreign language learners, and instructors. They would be assured that having a high language proficiency does not necessarily imply having a better performance on speech act types. Therefore, other effective procedures should be explored to increase this vital communication competence, i.e. pragmatics. Also it is suggested that EFL learners should be provided with pragmatic functions in addition to the target language norms.

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An Analysis of Phonetic Formation in English Euphemism

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Abstract—In daily life, people often use euphemistic terms or expressions to replace those unpleasant, rude, and offensive things or taboo subjects, to make them sound more considerate and implicit. With the rapid development of science and the progress of human civilization, euphemism, as one of the most important components in English language, is a lubricant in linguistic communication and has the tendency of multiplying. This paper discusses the phonetic formation of English euphemism as well as its characteristics and significances. The detailed analysis of phonetic formation of euphemism can help people use euphemism more flexibly in daily life and promote the efficiency and quality of communication.

Index Terms—English euphemism, phonetic formation, significances

I. INTRODUCTION

Languages play different roles in different social communications and bear their unique features on different levels of languages (Feng Dongli, 2015). As a tool of communication, language is transferred by pronunciation. Speakers are supposed to use correct pronunciation during interactive communication. The interpersonal function reflects the social relationship between the speakers and listeners concerned with the situation, or it reflects the relationship of the roles played by speakers and listeners in the communicative process (Huang Ying, 2009).

Euphemism, as both a linguistic and a social phenomenon, plays the role of lubricant in communication, avoiding the embarrassment of the listener caused by the straightforwardness of the speaker. Nobody can refuse the use of euphemism, which exists in almost every known language, every speech community, or every social class, for almost all cultures seem to have certain notions or things that people try to avoid mentioning directly (Shu Dingfang, 2008). People are supposed to use euphemism to show politeness when talking with others.

Actually, every type of English euphemism has to change part of the original pronunciation, whether it is common euphemism or typical phonetic formation euphemism. The common euphemistic descriptions always have something to do with lexical replacement. Therefore, the phonetic characteristics of the descriptions would change. For typical phonetic euphemism, it is more obvious and more understandable in phonetic changing.

Phonetic euphemism has great relationship with interactive communication, because people use language to transmit what they want to say. Therefore, the use of phonetic euphemism is pervasive in people's daily life.

II. EUPHEMISM

With the development of the society, euphemism has already permeated into almost every field of people's daily life. In order to know more about English euphemism, it is necessary to know the definitions, and functions of English euphemism.

A. Definitions of English Euphemism

Euphemism comes from the Greek word εὐφημία. The prefix "Eu" means "good", and the stem "phemism" means speech. So the literal meaning of "Euphemism" is "word of good omen" or "good speech". Generally speaking, euphemism is a way to use indirect words or phrases to replace direct ones to make the words or phrases more acceptable (Chen Jiayu, Li Wenwen, 2012).

Neaman defines "euphemism" as "substituting an inoffensive or pleasant term for a more explicit, offensive one, thereby veneering the truth by using kind words." (Lu Xiaoji, 2011)

Longman Contemporary Advanced Dictionary (the 2004 edition) gives a definition to euphemism as "a polite word or expression that you use instead of a more direct one to avoid shocking or upsetting someone." (Lu Xiaoji, 2011)

Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (the 7th edition) defines "euphemism" as "an indirect word or phrase that people often use to refer to something embarrassing or unpleasant, sometimes to make it more acceptable than it really is".

All of the four definitions are from the pragmatic category of euphemism, which caters to the function of the polite expression of euphemism. However, the definitions don't concern themselves with the formation methods of euphemism.

In short, when a word or phrase is used as a euphemism, it becomes a metaphor whose literal meaning is often hidden

or dropped. Euphemisms are also used to hide unpleasant ideas even when the literal term for them is not necessarily offensive (Jiang Liping, 2013).

B.   Functions of English Euphemism

Euphemism is a reflection of social psychology (Howard F. Stein, 1998). A number of direct expressions would make people feel embarrassed, unhappy, or even frightened in communication. The euphemistic expressions would enable people to circumvent some unpleasantness and embarrassment in daily life. The use of phonetic euphemism is essential in interactive communication. There are four main functions of phonetic euphemism:

First is taboo avoidance. This is the main psychological origin of euphemism. The original purpose of euphemism is the avoidance of offensive and unpleasant things that ancient people did not want to mention. When ancient people were trying to evade or avoid mentioning those taboos, they had to find substitutions, and euphemism was the optimum option. Taboo avoidance is an important function of euphemism. For example, death is a taboo for human beings, and the ancients used "go to heaven" to allude to it.

Secondly, it is a courteous expression. During interactive communication, speakers can show their politeness by using diplomatic euphemisms (Wang Xiaoyan, 2014). Because of the polite principle, speakers should avoid referring to not only taboos but also matters that may offend the listener, for example, the listener's private matters. Thus, people use "recycler" to replace "junkman", "footwear maintenance engineer" to replace "people who are washing shoes as a career", "hair beautician" refers to "barber" and so on. Therefore people who are socially inferior would feel they are respected by their society, and the atmosphere of the communication would be polite and harmonious.

The third one is the concealment of truth, which is typically used in politics and media broadcasting. The politicians and broadcasters always use euphemism to cover and conceal the harsh truth so as not to bring in wrath and panic. For instance, American politicians used "air support" instead of "bombing", and "civilian causalities" instead of "collateral damage" during the Vietnam War to protect the reputation of the American government. Also in media broadcasting, reporters often use "recession" or "depression" to replace "economic crisis", and "the increasing of tax" to replace "revenue enhancements". So the civilian audience can hardly get the true information from the media when it comes to some sensitive matters or destructive items.

The last function is humor. The euphemistic expressions of some taboos and rough things not only conform to the polite principle but also can bring about the humorous effect. For example, nowadays, people use "the battle of the bulge" to describe women who try hard to lose weight. Actually, the phrase "the battle of the bulge" comes from the WWII. The original use of the phrase was to describe the last war launched by the German Army in 1949. It is very humorous to use such a serious phrase to describe those women who lose weight to be slim especially those who hardly win. With the same purpose, the use of "in one's birthday suit" or "in Adam's and Eve's togs" to describe naked ones is also very humorous (Wang Jiayi, 2003).

C.   Formations of English Euphemism

The formation methods of euphemism are also quite important in euphemism learning. There are five main formation methods of euphemism: lexical formation, grammatical formation, slang, rhetorical formation, and phonetic formation. (Table 1)

Firstly, the lexical formation methods of euphemism mainly include borrowing, antonyms and the use of fuzzy words. For instance, the use of French word "abattoir" to replace "slaughter house" in English, "unwise" to replace "stupid", and "growth" to refer to "tumor".

Secondly, the grammatical formation of English euphemism includes five detailed methods: using past tense, "I wondered if you could give me a hand?"; using subjunctive mood, "we would rather you went there."; using tag questions, "Lift the box for me, will you?"; using passive words as well as using negative sentences.

Thirdly, using slang to transmit the similar meaning. For instance, "screwed up" is a euphemism for "fucked up", or "laid" for sexual intercourse. There is some disagreement over whether certain terms are or are not euphemisms. For example, sometimes the phrase "visually impaired" is labeled as a politically correct euphemism for blind. However, "visual impairment" can be a broader term, including, for example, people who have partial sight in one eye, or even those who wear glasses, a group that would be excluded by the word "blind".

Fourthly, there are three main rhetorical ways to form euphemism, in other words, by using figures of speech including the use of metaphor, for example, someone who has died is said to "have passed on, checked out, cashed in their chips, kicked the bucket, keeled over, bit the dust, popped their clogs, pegged it, carked it, was snuffed out, turned their toes up, hopped the twig, bought the farm, got zapped, written their epitaph, fallen off their perch, croaked, given up the ghost, gone south, gone west, gone to California"(Zhou Lina, 2015); using substitution, people use "the big house" to refer to "prison"; and using analogy, "house maker" or "household" to refer to "house wife".

The phonetic formation is an important method to form euphemism, which changes the original pronunciation of some offensive expressions and taboos to be elegant and polite. When it comes to the phonetic formation of euphemism, there is more than one particular formation.
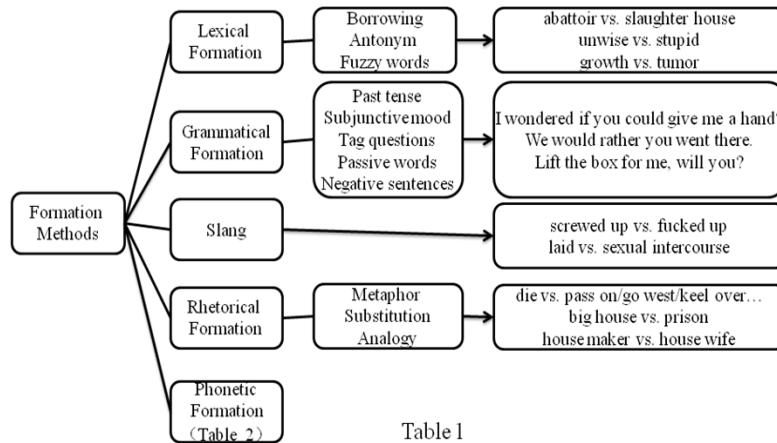
Table 1

III. PHONETIC FORMATION OF ENGLISH EUPHEMISM

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that comprises the study of the sounds of human speech. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds or signs, their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neurophysiologic status. Phonology, on the other hand, is concerned with the abstract, grammatical characterization of systems of sounds or signs (Naghmeh Mirzaie Hosseinzadeh, 2015). The field of phonetics is a multilayered subject of linguistics that focuses on speech. In the case of oral languages, there are three basic areas of study: (O'Grady, 2005) Articulatory phonetics: the study of the production of speech sounds by the articulatory and vocal tract by the speaker; Acoustic phonetics: the study of the physical transmission of speech sounds from the speaker to the listener; Auditory phonetics: the study of the reception and perception of speech sounds by the listener.

The phonetic formation of euphemism is to change the original speech sounds of words, phrases, or some other language forms to make the expressions more mild, proper, and polite (Yang Xinzhang, 2005). The phonetic formation of English euphemism can be achieved in the following ways (table 2):
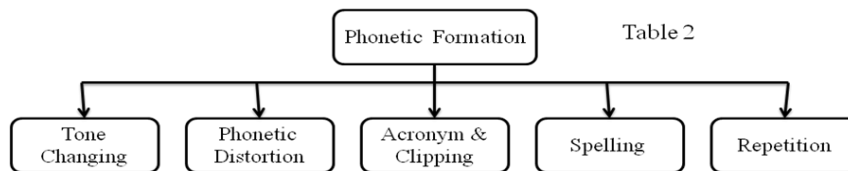

Table 2

A. Tone-changing

In English, the changing of intonation can form euphemism. For example, the fall-rise tone or low tone will give the hearer more space and freedom. For example, if someone uses the falling tone to say the following sentence, "open the door(↘)," it would give an impression of commanding, ordering, and the hearer would feel that he is not respected. However, if the same sentence, the speaker utter it in a fall-rise tone, "open (↘)the door(↗)", it would give an impression that the speaker is asking for the opinion of the hearer. The implied meaning of this sentence is "would you mind opening the door?" The hearer would be willing to open the door. At the same time, if the speaker uses a very quick and high tone to say "open the door", the hearer would also think that the speaker is giving an order, so it may offend the hearer. If the speaker uses a gentle and low tone instead, it would make the hearer more pleasant to hear.

When one is using tag question during interactive communication, he can use both rising tone and falling tone. However, different tones can change the meanings of the same utterance. The falling tone shows that the speaker has already known the answer of the question or the speaker expects to get the answer he wanted. The rising tone would give the hearer more space to think and decide, so it is more polite and mild. For example, if someone says "You will come with me, won't you? (↘)" It has the implied meaning of "you have to come with me," or "I know that you will come with me." Whereas, if the speaker uses the rising tone "You will come with me, won't you?(↗)" it would give the hearer chance to think whether he will come or not. It is more polite and the hearer would feel he is expected and respected.

That is to say, the tone-changing not only includes the changing of tone such as rising tone and falling tone but also the different intonations of expressions. In a word, gentle voice and rising tone would make the hearer feel more comfortable and respected.

B. Phonetic Distortion

The phonetic distortion is to distort some syllables or stress in some words or to find a word with similar pronunciation to replace the original offensive one, thus, the use of new description can avoid taboos and some religious

beliefs as well as some embarrassing things (Kenneth L. Pike, Charles C. Fries, 2011). For example, the westerners believe in god, so things about god are often avoided directly. They distorted "God [gɔd] to "Gad [gæd] ", "Gosh[gɒʃ]" "Goodness ['gʊdnɪs]" "Golly ['gɒlɪ]", "cripes [kraɪps]" to repalce "Christ [kraɪst]", "darn [dɑːn]" "dash [dæʃ]" to replace "damn [dæm]". Westerners prefer saying "my goodness" "my gosh" "gad darn you" to saying "my god" "god damn you".

What's more, the distortion of stress also can form euphemism, a typical example is the pronunciation of "laboratory", the original phonetic symbol of this word was ['læb(ə)rə,t(ə)rɪ], it is similar to the phonetic symbol of "lavatory ['lævət(ə)rɪ]"which means toilet. In order to distinguish the two sounds and avoid embarrassment, people change the stress of laboratory to [lə'bɒrə,t(ə)rɪ].

Actually, phonetic distortion is an efficient way to form English euphemism; almost all the improper descriptions can be changed to be more euphemistic. When it comes to certain occasions, the speaker just needs to distort part of the pronunciation to make it sounds better. Phonetic distortion is not as fixed as others, and it can be created by people according to the need of situational context.

C. Acronym and Clipping

An acronym word in euphemism is formed from the first letters of the words that make up the name of some taboos and something that are rude or offensive, and clipping is to cut out part of some taboos and embarrassing words to be a new description. Both methods can form euphemism and lead to phonetic change, this kind of phonetic change belongs to phonetic ellipsis.

Firstly, acronym is often used in taboo words or diseases as well as things that people don't want to mention (Hayes School, 2013). For instance, "T.B" is for "tuberculosis", "M.D" is for "mental deficiency", "B.M" is for "bowel movement", "the big C" is for "cancer", "A.D" is for "drug addict", "J.C" is for "Jesus Christ" "B-girl" is for "bar girl", "J.D" is for "juvenile delinquent", and "W.C" is for "water closet". The use of acronym is concise and euphemistic to express things that would be rude when described directly. Just imagine the situation, if one day you met one of your acquaintances who forgot to check his zipper, would you choose to say "you forgot to examine your zipper" or "you forgot to Z."? I believe most people would choose the second one to avoid causing embarrassment to you both, with the exception of those attempting to cause deliberate embarrassment.

Secondly, clipping is often used when the original descriptions are quite long and inelegant if mentioned in public directly. Here, the use of clipped words can not only convey the meaning but it is also more euphemistic than the original description. For instance, speakers prefer to say "bra" than "brassiere" when they have to mention it. Also, if one talks about a sexual pervert directly in conversation, the hearer would feel uncomfortable and frightened while the problem would be settled if we clip it to "vert". There are many other similar descriptions in English, such as "cow" for "cow dung", "ladies" for "ladies' room", "gents" for "gentlemen's room", "homo" for "homosexual" and so on.

All in all, both acronym and clipping can avoid the impression of roughness and impoliteness when it comes to some expressions which are improper to mention directly. Although the acronym and clipping descriptions are not so formal, they are more concise and casual.

D. Spelling

Sometimes it is hard for a speaker to avoid saying some offensive or improper things during interactive communication. However, spelling can make it possible to be more euphemistic and polite. For example:

A: He is not smart, I think.

B: Well, S-T-U-P-I-D, actually.

If B says "stupid" directly, it not only would hurt the person who is referred to in the conversation, but also show the impoliteness of the speaker. Thus, spelling the word "stupid" not only transmits the information the speaker wants to say, but gives others an impression of humor and politeness.

What's more, when it refers to some rude expressions, people can choose to spell them to avoid embarrassment and impoliteness, such as "f-u-c-k" to replace "fuck", "d-a-m-n" to replace "damn", "s-h-i-t" instead of "shit".

Spelling is somehow similar to phonetic distortion, because both are very flexible (Harry Johnston, 2013). That is to say, the speaker can create new description to be more euphemistic in different situations. For example, different people may use different euphemistic ways to describe "damn", some use "darn"; some may choose "D-A-M-N". However, spelling is easier than phonetic distortion since the speaker hasn't to think too much and just spell the expression. Spelling is often used to replace words that are not too complicated but offensive if stated directly.

E. Repetition

Repetition is often used when the speaker refers to something about secretions and excretions. Obviously it is rough to mention these things directly especially for adults. Thus, on these occasions, a more euphemistic way is to talk about them like children do, because little children always repeat part of the pronunciation of those words and it is more euphemistic than describe them directly. For instance, they use "pee-pee" "wee-wee" or "sis-sis" refer to "urinate", "poo-poo" or "doo-doo" refer to "defecate". Nowadays, more and more adults are using these expressions to avoid embarrassment.

Repetition has many more limitations than other formation methods of phonetic euphemism, because not every rough

expression can become more euphemistic in a childish way (Peter Ladefoged, 2003). This way is often used when communicating with young children. Otherwise, it would not be more euphemistic but bring other embarrassment. For example, if an adult says to his friends, "I have to go poo-poo." Others would think the man is abnormal. So, it is important to choose the right method when forming euphemism, because the wrong ways would not only fail to avoid embarrassment but bring other troubles.

Actually, the phonetic formation methods are very flexible. The speakers can form euphemistic expressions by themselves when facing some improper expressions through tone-changing, phonetic distortion, acronym and clipping, spelling and repetition. Compared with euphemism used in literature books, phonetic euphemism is more available and useful in daily life. In the civilized society, phonetic euphemism plays an important role as lubricant.

IV. THE CHARACTERISTICS AND SIGNIFICANCES OF PHONETIC EUPHEMISM

It is clear that English euphemism can be achieved through changes in phonetics. How about the characteristics and significances of phonetic formation of English euphemism?

A. Conforming to the Speaker Himself

The psychology of the speakers is very important during interactive communication. As the initiator of the conversation, the speaker is always saying something to conform to the listener. At the same time, he tries to reach an agreement between himself and the listener. In this way, the speaker can carry on the conversation successfully. In other words, the interactive communication is the communication of psychology.

It is well known that interactive communication affects the speaker in many aspects. For example, rough, jarring and some direct expressions would not only bring a sense of nervousness to the speaker, but also hurt the affection of the listener. If one speaker talks in a rough or jarring way, he may often be refused by others, which would undoubtedly hurt his self-esteem. One of the important characteristics of human beings is getting along with the rest of society. Self -esteem is very important for a human being. Thus, in daily life, people try to do many things to protect their self-esteem.

Phonetic euphemism would protect the self-esteem of human beings in an efficient way. In order to conform to social niceties, people have to use euphemism during interactive communication to protect the self-esteem of others. For example, during an interactive communication, if the status of the speaker is lower than the listeners, he would try his best to use some elegant and euphemistic expressions to avoid being looked down upon or being found faults by others.

B. Conforming to the Society

According to the origin of euphemism, it has a huge correlation to society. Ancient people couldn't resist natural disasters and man-made calamities as well as disease and death, so they refused to mention them. However, they had to refer to those things although they didn't want to. Therefore they used other more euphemistic words to replace those things. That is to say, the origin of euphemism has a direct connection with the society. And the use of euphemism also conforms to the polite rules of the society. Speakers are supposed to be polite in their society especially during interactive communication. However, people can't avoid mentioning something that doesn't obey polite rules. When it comes to those occasions in which the speakers have to talk about some impolite things, phonetic euphemism plays an important role. People can use some more euphemistic expressions to replace those rough and embarrassing things. Thus, the use of euphemism conforms to the necessity of the society well.

C. Conforming to Interactive Communication

The intentions of interactive communication are very important. On some occasions, euphemism can help others accept the ideas of the speakers in a more comfortable way. At least, euphemism can help to give the listener an impression of politeness and make them willing to listen to more of the speakers' ideas. This is essential, because interactive communication normally accompanies some other intentions, such as making friends, getting the support from others, introducing something to others and so on. People are always trying to build good relationship with others through interactive communication. What's more, language is the most efficient method to achieve the intention. Thus, the speakers should try to find the most proper language to express what they are intending to covey.

Euphemism would make interactive communication more efficient as well as successful. The use of euphemism caters to not only the politeness necessity of interactive communication but also the necessity of humor and elegance.

D. The Significance of Using Euphemism

Euphemism is a common figure of speech in English, and it exists in every aspect of people's daily life. It is not only used to replace those rough and vulgar taboos, but also used in some other occasions to beautify the speech so as to be more and more proper. The famous American linguist Enright once said that nobody in society can refuse the fascination of euphemism. Euphemism always keeps the characteristics of being euphemistic, being pleasant to listeners as well as to the speakers themselves, and it gives others an impression of comfort, elegance, innovation and politeness. What's more, euphemism is continuing to develop and innovate to cater to modern society. Whatever society develops, euphemism will always follow the needs of the populace.

Also, the purpose of euphemism has changed from taboo avoidance and polite expression to multiple functions such

as humor and concealment. English euphemism has already permeated every aspect of daily life. The formation of euphemism has also developed to keep up with the society, for example, some new expressions on the Internet. The definition of euphemism has also broadened with the development of the society. Nowadays, euphemism has included almost all the implicated expressions that conform to the occasions.

As euphemism is continuing to develop to be more useful and proper to extensive situations, human beings have more opportunities to use it. Because the society is changing to be a more civilized one, there must be more improper expressions that should be replaced by more euphemistic ones. Thus, euphemism is sure to be more and more popular, which is not only the symbol of politeness, respectfulness and attainment of the speaker, but also the inevitable trend of the society.

V. CONCLUSION

Phonetic euphemism as a communicative tool is applied everywhere in all human societies and used in all human interactions. The phonetic euphemism is efficient and useful when it comes to those considered unpleasant, rude, or offensive. In fact, no matter what kind of euphemism, when it is uttered by speakers, it has some relation to phonetic changing.

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Emotional Intelligence and Self-efficacy of Iranian Teachers: A Research Study on University Degree and Teaching Experience

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Abstract—**This study evaluates the level of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy to investigate whether a relationship exists between these two attributes or not, also, the role of years of teaching experience and teachers' university degrees in their emotional intelligence. To this end, 70 teachers were asked to complete The Assessing Emotions Scale Questionnaire (Salovey and Mayer, 1990) and Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), regardless of their English teaching experience. The aim of this study was to represent the importance of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and in teachers for having an effective teaching. The results indicated a significant relationship between teachers' EI and their self-efficacy. Moreover, the findings showed that there was a significant relationship between teachers' EI with their years of teaching experience, in a way that more experienced teachers can benefit their low experienced colleagues with their emotional experiences. Meanwhile, no significant difference was found between teachers' EI in terms of different university degrees. The research results also proved a positive relationship between EI and self-efficacy.**

Index Terms—**University degree, teaching experience, Emotional Intelligence (EI), self-efficacy, EFL teachers**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

Emotions are an integral part of organizations, including educational ones. The results of considerable research have most frequently pointed to a combination of knowledge, skill, and genetic traits (such as overall intelligence) as the best indication of individuals' performance.(Rastegar & Masumi, 2009)

Recent studies conducted in the field of education showed that possessing the required knowledge and skills is not sufficient for effective teaching. Teachers' traits, attitudes and beliefs make contribution to their effectiveness as educators. (Orta ¢tepe, Denİz, and Ayşe S. Akyel, 2015). Emotional intelligence (EI), as one of these traits, was first described by Peter Salovey and Jack Mayer in 1990 while each was searching for factors of what was important for functioning in society. Salovey and Mayer described "emotional intelligence as a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to distinguish among them, and use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.189). Daniel Goleman (1995) brought the theory of emotional intelligence to the public in his book, *Emotional Intelligence.* Goleman's (2000) research found that high levels of emotional intelligence create climates for improving data offering, trust, healthy risk taking, and learning. Emotional intelligence is not an innate talent, but a learned ability, which has a unique contribution to the effectiveness of teachers.

Schutte and Malouff (1999) argue" that Goldman's view of the adaptive nature of emotional intelligence is nicely understood by this notion that cognitive intelligence may help individuals gain admission to setting, but that emotional intelligence determines how successful they are within these settings." Kremenitzer (2005) believes that an important factor for effective and successful teaching is being able to regulate and manage emotions within the classroom. He argued" that unlike other skills that a teacher has, the ability to respond to unanticipated and difficult spontaneous situations is perhaps the most challenging of all." Another important attribute of effective teachers is self-efficacy, which as one of the cognitive factors, need stirred extraordinary enthusiasm toward the field about training and potential educational implications of the theory and has led to many other studies. Teacher efficacy is a major application of Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory to educational settings. Bandura (1997) in his book, *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*, distinguished self-efficacy from "the colloquial term *confidence*" (p. 382). He expressed that "confidence is an unclassifiable word that refers to strength of belief but does not necessarily specify what the certainty is about" (p. 382) while "perceived self-efficacy [refers] to belief in one's power to create given levels of achievement" (p. 382). Of course, he states that such a difference between self-confidence and perceived self-efficacy does not seem to hold a strong stance.

The present study also follows the convention of using them interchangeably. According to Bandura (1997), having the knowledge and skills required to act does not guarantee that an actor will perform effectively, but rather, effective action also depends upon the personal judgment for properly utilizing such knowledge and skills to perform an act successfully under various circumstances.(G Soto,1997).

Bandura (1997) named this judgment as perceived self-efficacy and when applied to educational contexts takes the form of teacher efficacy, which is defined as teachers' beliefs in their ability to influence student outcomes (Tournaki & Podell, 2005) and which has been discovered to be straightly related to many positive teacher behaviors and attitudes (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Yost, 2002) as well as student achievement and attitudes (Henson, 2001). (Orta çepe, Denİz, and Ayşe S. Akyel, 2015).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) also define" teacher self-efficacy as a teacher's judgments of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those pupils who may be hard or unmotivated." Bandura (1994) believes that people with a strong sense of self-efficacy have several positive characteristics including having a high confidence in their capabilities to approach difficult tasks, staying involved in activities, setting challenging aims and keep going a strong commitment to them, having a heightened and sustained effort after failures and obstacles, and then quickly recovering their positive self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). On the other hand, people who doubt their capabilities or have a low self-efficacy may trust that things are harder than they really are, a belief that increases stress, depression, and a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem (Pajares & Schunk, 2001).

However, it is interesting to note that such an association is assumed without empirical data (Nunan, 2003) and assuming such an association is questionable until we can establish the relationship by an empirical study on teachers' confidence in teaching English in their specific contexts. The present study investigated the EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and its relationship with their perceived self-efficacy.

B. Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

Working toward achieving the definite objectives is the main goal of every organization. School, as a purposeful organization, has a major goal at any level which is attainment of academic excellence by the students and fulfilling the desired and intended outcomes in education, that is, the emphasis is placed on the educational achievement. The extent of achieving this goal depends principally on the work force, especially the teaching personnel. Then, for actualization of this goal and with respect to the improvement of education in general and teacher education and in-service training in particular, it is necessary to know how great classroom practice can be expanded and which attributes of teachers are identified with viable classroom rehearse. Then paying attention to teachers' attitudes, traits and personalities is part of this process for improvement. Exploring the teachers' level of emotional intelligence and their efficacy perceptions which are dealt with in this study are among the main variables which may expand our understanding of the issue. Accordingly, the main objective of the present study is to determine the level of teachers' emotional intelligence, and sense of efficacy in teaching English. This study evaluates the level of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy to investigate whether a relationship exists between these two features or not. Moreover, the above variables, and as a secondary objective, the study examines the role of years of teaching experience and teachers' university degrees on their emotional intelligence.

C. Research Questions

This study intends to provide answers to the following research questions:
Q1: Is there any vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy?
Q2: Is there any vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and years of teaching?
Q3: Is there any vital difference(s) between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their university degrees?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Introduction

This section provides a review of literature about emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and also reviewed the literature which studied these variables in relation to teachers. In addition, the literature about relationship between teachers' EI and their self-efficacy is also presented.

B. Emotional Intelligence

Currently there are three popular theories of emotional intelligence. Reuven Bar-On (1988) was introduced the first theory by as Emotional Quotient (EQ) even before this term be popular and was used by Salovey and Mayer in 1997. EQ was viewed by Bar-On (2000) as an integration of interconnected emotional and social competencies and skills determining "how successfully we comprehend and convey ourselves, understand others and correspond with them, and manage the day by day necessities and problems (Bar-On, 2000"). In this concept, the emotional and social capabilities and skills include the five main constructs and each of these constructs consists of a number of related parts as follows: (1) Intrapersonal (Emotional Self-Awareness, Self-Regard, Independence, Assertiveness and Self-Actualization), (2) Interpersonal (Social Responsibility, Empathy and Interpersonal Relationship), (3) Stress Management (Stress

Tolerance and Impulse Control), (4) Adaptability (Reality Testing, Flexibility and Problem Solving), and (5) General Mood (Optimism and Happiness). Agreeable to this model, someone who is emotionally and socially intelligent is a person who is aware of and can express himself/herself effectively, understand and communicate efficiently with others, and deal well with daily problems, necessities and pressures. This is indeed the manifestation of one's intrapersonal capability to recognize about oneself, to know one's potencies and weak spots and to convey one's emotions and thoughts non-destructively (Bar-On, 2006).

To characterize a structure of emotional intelligence that reflects the success of an individual, Goleman (1998b) represented an individual's potential for mastering the skills to four main emotional intelligent constructs of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and connection management (Goleman, 1998b). The first concept, self-awareness, is the ability to comprehend own's emotions and recognize their effects while utilizing internal feelings to guide decisions, knowing what one feels. Self-management, the second construct, includes checking one's emotions, adapting to changing circumstances and inhibiting emotional indifference. Social awareness as another cluster includes the competency of empathy, the ability of feeling, understanding, and reacting to others' emotions while comprehending social networks and reading nonverbal cues. Finally, relationship management, the fourth cluster, is defined as the ability to inspire, affect, and help others while managing conflict (Goleman, 1998b). Goleman (1998b) supposes that these four domains are as competences that depending on the important strength of each relevant EI domain can be learned. Despite the arguments over an integrated definition or model for EI, there is a general agreement that emotional skills are associated with success in many areas of life.

In educational settings, it is widely accepted that to create opportunities for effective learning, students not only need content area knowledge, but also abilities associated with social and emotional competencies. Empirical studies demonstrated "that emotional intelligence is positively correlated to academic achievement and other affective, cognitive and meta-cognitive features conducive to learning (Ream, 2007)". The major concern of these studies was a need to integrate emotional literacy, and emotional learning into the educational curriculum. The main expectation of programs is to help students managing their emotions appropriately and effectively, shift undesirable emotional states to more productive ones, and understand the link between emotions, thoughts, and actions (Ream, 2007).

C. Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

There is conflicting evidence that the concept of EI might be relevant for the training profession. Although the thought that the traits associated with high EI are necessary for teachers to possess, Byron (2001) found "that pre-service teachers in her sample did not score differently in EI from the norm sample. On the other hand, Walker (2001) found "all the classroom teachers taken as her sample had above average emotional intelligence scores."

Teachers are aware of the great role emotions play in their daily efforts. Emotions and skills for coping with these emotions affect learning processes, mental and physical health, the quality of social relationships and academic and work performance (Brackett & Caruso, 2007). Teaching is considered to be one of the most stressful occupation, especially because it involves daily work based on social interactions where the teacher must make great effort to regulate not only his or her own emotions, but also those of students, parents, and colleagues, etc. (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Training in emotional competencies is necessary so that both children (future adults) and instructor can successfully modify. This is very important, not only for developing such competencies in the students and for preventing mental health subject in instructors, but also for creating favorable conditions for learning (Palomera, Fernández-Berrocal, 2008).

In another study conducted in Spain, the relationship between perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction in university teachers was examined (Landa, Lopez-Zafra, De Antonana, & Pulido, 2006). To assess the nature of these relationships and to predict the factors implied, life satisfaction, positive and negative effect, and work satisfaction measures were used. Their results yield a strong correlation between these selected factors and EI. They also found that emotional intelligence was important and predictor construct to state distinction on life satisfaction, alone from personality traits and mood states constructs. The relationship between emotional intelligence and teachers' performance also indicated that these two variables are related and EI could predict teachers' performance and had a statistically significant association with some individual aspects of teachers' performance, but stress management and adaptability were not related to their performance (Drew, 2006). Another variable that was investigated in relation to emotional intelligence was job satisfaction in public school teachers (Cobb, 2004).

The results of this survey are in accordance with Naderi's (2009) study in Iran. She investigated the relationship among teachers' emotional intelligence, job enjoyment and organizational obligation and found that emotional intelligence is correlated to job satisfaction and organizational commitment in teaching career in the context she studied. Several studies have been conducted on the relationship between teachers' EI and their satisfaction in the workplace. Among these studies we can mention Aphshari, Kiamanesh, and Naveh Ebrahim's (2011) and Jorfi, Bin Yaccob, and Mad Shah's (2011). In the first study, the researchers found similar results to Naderi's (2009) research and in the last study, the relationship between teachers' EI and their motivation for teaching, teachers' EI and their job satisfaction as well as teachers' EI and their communication effectiveness were investigated.

Teachers fall into Holland's "Social Type." Social types prefer "activities that entail the manipulation of others to notify, instruct, develop, put right". (They keen to be useful and forgiving and they see themselves as being understanding (Holland, 1997). The main characteristics of this social type are "agreeable, unified, empathetic, friendly,

generous, useful, idealistic, kind, patient, effective, responsible, sociable, tactful, understanding, and warm" (p. 25), all of which are qualities associated with high emotional intelligence. It may mean that teachers with high emotional intelligence may have all or some of these traits. If, according to Holland's theory, teachers holding these qualities are likely to be satisfied and succeed vocationally, then EI is likely to be predictive of teacher performance as well. However, more research is needed for confirming this fact.

D. Teacher's Self-efficacy

Bandura (1994) defines "self-efficacy as peoples' beliefs and attitudes about their abilities to produce intended levels of performance to exert more influence over events that affect their lives." Similarly, he defines "teachers' self-efficacy as the degree to which teachers believe they have the ability to affect students' performance." Thus, Bandura in his social cognitive theory emphasizes "more on people's perceptions of their capabilities rather than real/actualized capabilities because people's beliefs and perceptions greatly influence how their potential is realized and utilized." Effective teachers believe that they can make a difference in student learning and their teaching demonstrates that belief (Gibbs, 2002). Teacher effectiveness is affected by their levels of self-efficacy, that is, the opinion teachers have about their teaching capabilities (Gibbs, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998).

(Ashton & Webb, 1986), the goals they specify" for learning tasks in their working context and the amount of effort and persistence they exhibit in doing the task (Bandura, 1995; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998). Also, it has been found that, compared to low self-efficacy teachers, teachers with high efficacy beliefs determine higher goals for themselves and their students, and try harder to achieve those goals and persist through obstacles (Henson, 2001)." In addition, they are more emotionally intelligent (Penrose, Perry & Ball, 2007), generate stronger student achievement (Goddard, Hoy & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2004; Ross, 1998; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998), use more effective instructional strategies in teaching mathematics (Swars, 2005), show extra-role behavior towards the team and the organization (Somech & Zahavy, 2000), tend to accept innovations more easily, and apply a more considerable variety of instructional strategies (Riggs & Enochs, 1990)". Furthermore, efficacious teachers are confident that they can successfully deal with even the most difficult students if they exert extra effort; but teachers with lower self-efficacy feel a sense of helplessness and weakness when it comes to dealing with difficult and unmotivated students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

E. Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Self-efficacy

Salovey and Mayer (1990) proposed "the concept of emotional intelligence as the ability of people to deal with their emotions." They define EI as the ability of monitoring emotions, discriminating among them and using this information for leading thinking and action. This management of self-awareness is essential in regulating emotions. There is a strong connection between self-awareness and self-efficacy, as self-efficacy highlights self-awareness and self-regulation as factors influencing the development of self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Emotional intelligence and self-efficacy are assimilated whenever an individual interprets organizational realities by using self-awareness, regulation, and control for recognizing thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Bandura, 1997). Emotional skills have recently received considerable research interest in the field of education and psychology and many studies pointed "to the facilitative and helpful role of self-efficacy beliefs in various academic and educational contexts" (Pajares, 1996; Schunk & Meece, 2005; Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2011).

Previous research demonstrated "that emotional intelligence is associated with success in many areas, including effective teaching (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2010), student learning (Brackett & Mayer, 2003), and academic performance (Gil-Olarte, Palomera, & Brackett, 2006)". Feelings can affect the cognitive processes of self-efficacy as "feelings left uncontrolled can interfere with the cognitive processing of information that can be important to task acting" (Douglas, Gundlach,, 2003, Martinko, p. 234). An individual with low emotional intelligence and self-efficacy will likely struggle in maintaining order in his/her daily tasks. Emotional intelligence's effect on self-efficacy can also impact important workplace outcomes through causal reasoning processes and emotions (Gundlach, Martinko, & Douglas, 2003), and also influencing on a person's ability to control his self-efficacy beliefs. Gundlach, Martinko, and Douglas (2003) summarized the connection of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy as follow: Research studies have explored the connection of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among teachers. Chan (2007) and Mikolajczak and Luminet (2007) found that individuals who exhibited high emotional intelligence had high self-efficacy. Penrose, Perry, and Ball (2007), and Rastegar and Memarpour (2008) revealed a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in teachers. Many other studies also found the same results in their investigations (Salami, 2007; Penrose, 2007; Gűrol, Gűher Ozercan, & Yalcin, 2009; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009; Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2009).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A group consisting 70 Iranian EFL teachers from high schools and universities in Zahedan and Mashhad cities participated in this study. The teachers were Ph.D., M.A. or B.A. holders in EFL. The age range varied from 21 to 62. Among the selected teachers about 63% were females and 37% males. The present study adopted a convenience sampling method in which "a certain group of people was [is] chosen for study because they were [are] available"

(Frankel & Wallen, 2003, p. 103). This sampling method was chosen for the purpose of having as many EFL teachers close to the researchers' living place as possible. As a result, the researchers gained access to in-service teachers in two cites, Zahedan and Mashhad. Finally, majority of the EFL teachers working in the high schools and universities in these two cities were requested to answer the questionnaires, regardless of their English teaching experience.

B. Instrumentation

Several means of data sources were used to provide answers to the research questions:

1. Emotional Intelligence Test

The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (appendix A) is based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model of emotional intelligence. The original model is a self-assessed model and consists of an appraisal of emotion in self and others, expression of feeling, regulation of feeling in self and others, and utilization of feeling in solving problems. The AES (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2007) is a thirty-three-item self-report inventory which focuses on typical emotional intelligence and attempts to assess characteristic or trait of emotional intelligence.

In this study, the subjects rated themselves on the items using a five-point Likert-type scale which could be completed in approximately five minutes. The responses included 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (somewhat disagree), 3 (neither agree nor disagree), 4 (somewhat agree), and 5 (strongly agree). Total scale scores were calculated by reverse coding items 5, 28, and 33 and then summing all items. The scores ranged from 33 to 165, with higher scores indicating emotional intelligence at a greater level. The Assessing Emotions Scale had a two-week test-retest reliability reported at 78 for total scale scores (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998). The information about teachers' years of teaching experience and their university degrees were also asked in this questionnaire.

2. Teachers' Self-Efficacy Scale

The second instrument used in this survey was a Modified version (for the purpose of reducing ssthem into a smaller set of derived components that retain the maximum information in the original set of variables) of Teacher sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) (appendix B). This modified version consisted of 12 items and three subscales: efficacy for engagement, efficacy for management, and efficacy for instructional strategies. The items adapted a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= nothing to 5= a great deal. The reliability for the 12-items scale was 0.90 (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001).

C. Procedure

To obtain measures of teachers' emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, the questionnaires of Emotional Intelligence Test, and Teachers' Self-Efficacy Scale were given to the teachers to fill out during their free time. Each participant was shortly introduced to the purpose of the research and was provided with some brief oral instruction on how to complete the appraisal forms. Having collected the data, the researcher set off on data analysis to answer the research questions as to whether EFL teachers' emotional intelligence can be related to their self-efficacy as well as demographic factors such as their university degrees and the years of teaching experience.

D. Data Analysis

The data of current study were collected through research questionnaires administered on participants of this study. In data analysis, the researcher utilized the following statistics:

1. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted for determining the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy, as well as teachers' emotional intelligence

2. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was done for examining the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their years of teaching;

3. Additionally a one-way ANOVA was run for finding the difference(s) between teachers' emotional intelligence with different university degrees. The first, second, and third research questions are correlative in nature. The first research question asked if there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of teachers. Overall scores of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy were compared for finding this relationship. The Pearson *r* was tested for significance. For assessing the relationship between teachers' overall emotional intelligence and their years of teaching experience the researcher also calculated a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, and finally ran a one-way ANOVA for finding the difference(s) between teachers' EI with different university degrees (B.A., M.A., and Ph.D.).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings of the Study

A quantitative design was employed using two instruments: The Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2007), Teachers' Self-Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001), Data analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.0.

The following research questions were included in the current study:

Q1: Is there any vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy?

Q2: Is there any vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their years of teaching?

Q3: Is there any vital difference(s) between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their university degrees?

1. Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

Response scores from the AES were entered into version 18.0 of SPSS. The AES has a possible total scaled score ranging from 33 to 165. Higher scaled scores indicate characteristic emotional intelligence at a greater level. A total scaled score was also developed from the responses of each participant. Table 4.1.1 reflects the total scaled score for all teachers (*M* = 122.97, *SD = 15.26*) out of 165.

TABLE 4.1.1:
MEAN AND SD IN TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE LEVEL

Teachers	Mean	Std	Min	Max
Emotional Intelligence (Total)	122.97	15.26	77	154

2. Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale is a twelve-item measure which was used to assess teachers' self-perception of their capability to affect students' performance (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Three subscales were coded with four items, each including efficacy for management, efficacy for engagement and efficacy for instructional strategies. Table 4.1.2 indicates the level of self-efficacy competencies.

TABLE 4.1.2:
LEVEL OF SELF-EFFICACY COMPETENCIES IN TEACHERS

	Mean	Std	Min	Max
Efficacy for Engagement	3.89	0.66	2.25	5
Efficacy for Management	3.89	0.74	2	5
Efficacy for Instructional Strategies	3.95	0.74	1.25	5

This table shows that for all three subscales of efficacy (engagement, management, and instructional strategies) the mean is above 3 and this means that the teachers appraised their self-efficacy in teaching English at the moderate level in the perspective purpose of Instructional Strategies, Classroom Management, Student Engagement and (Table 4.1.2). In other words, they believed that they could have some impact on the three measurements. The teachers addressed that they felt more certain for instructional techniques (M = 3.95) than in any of alternate measurements. Meanwhile, it was found that the teachers felt sure at the same level in their efficacy for engagement and management (*M*=3.89). It should also be noted that in examining the teachers' self-reported efficacy or confidence levels in teaching English, the present study did not report the general teacher adequacy level by gathering the three components.

3. First Research Question

Addressing each hypothesis, the relevant data are reported to support or reject it. The first research question was:

Q1: Is there any vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy?

This research question was converted into the following null hypothesis:

H01: There is no vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy.

A Pearson product-moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between Total Assessing Emotions Scale and total Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy. A positive correlation was found, r (68) = .67, p < .001, indicating a vital linear connection between the two variables. Higher scores on one scale seem to suggest a higher score on the other scale. Table 4.6 represents the obtained result.

TABLE 4.1.3:
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THEIR SELF-EFFICACY

	Teachers' Self-Efficacy	N	Sig
Emotional Intelligence	0.67	70	<.001**

**SIGNIFICANT AT THE LEVEL OF .05 AND .01(2-TAILED)

The data from the survey reflected that there is a positive correlation between emotional intelligence scores and self-efficacy scores. The relationship of both emotional intelligence and self-efficacy is reflected in the data. The results of calculating a correlation coefficient between emotional intelligence and each of the three self-efficacy competencies (efficacy for management, efficacy for engagement and efficacy for instructional strategies) indicated that there were positive relationships between EI and each of the three competencies, thus rejecting the first null hypothesis stating that there is no significant relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy.

4. Second Research Question

In second research question we have:

Q2: Is there any vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and years of teaching?

To provide answers to the second research question, it was converted into the following null hypothesis:

H02: There is no vital connection between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their years of teaching experience.

According to teachers' demographic information, the data about their years of teaching experience are as shown in the table 4.1.4.

TABLE 4.1.4:
FREQUENCY OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Years	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-6	25	35.7	35.7
7-12	20	26.6	64.3
13-18	10	14.3	78.6
19-24	8	11.4	90.0
25 and above	7	10.0	100.0
Total	70	100.0	

As presented in the above table, nearly 35% (25 persons) of the teachers were novice and had teaching experience between 1 to 6 years, about 26% were in the range of 7 to 12 years, 10 teachers (about 14%) had 13 to 18 years of experience as teachers, 11% (8 persons) 19 to 24 years of teaching experience and, finally, 10% (7 teachers) were experienced teachers and had an experience of 25 years and above. The results of calculating a correlation coefficient between teachers' EI and their years of teaching experience indicated that the two variables are positively correlated (r (68) =.32). This means that there was a positive vital connection. Furthermore, through increasing the years of teaching and getting more experience, the teachers" emotional intelligence showed a higher scale, that is, higher emotional intelligence accompanies with having more years of teaching; thus, according to the achieved results, the second null hypothesis is also rejected. Table 4.1.4 represents these results.

TABLE4:
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THEIR YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Teachers'	Teachers' Years of Teaching Experience	N	Sig
Emotional Intelligence	0.32	70	<.005**

5. Third Research Question

The last research question which was investigated in the present study is:

Q3: Is there any significant difference(s) between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their university degrees?

The third null hypothesis states that:

H03: There is no vital difference(s) between EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their university degrees.

The analysis of demographic information of teachers as shown in table 4.12 indicates that among 70 respondents who filled the questionnaires, the highest degree attained by the participants included 34 (reported their highest degree to be bachelors' degree (48%)). Twenty-six teachers (37%) reported that a master's degree was their highest attained degree and 9 (12%) held a doctorate. One person did not answer this question (see Table 4.1.5.1).

TABLE 4.1.5.1:
UNIVERSITY DEGREES OF TEACHERS

Education	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
B.A.	34	48.6	49.3	49.3
M.A.	26	37.1	37.7	87.0
Ph.D.	9	12.9	13.0	
Total	69	98.6	100.0	
Missing	1	1.4		
Total	70	100.0		

To see whether there is any difference(s) between teachers' emotional intelligence and different university degrees, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The results of the analysis indicated no significant difference between the emotional ability of teachers holding different university degrees. That is, teachers' emotional intelligence is not influenced by their university degrees. Results in this study provide evidence to support the last null hypothesis. Table 4.5.1.2 represents these results.

TABLE4.5.1.2:
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THEIR UNIVERSITY DEGREES

source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Between Groups	1.06	2	0.53	2.80	0.068
Within Groups	12.59	66	0.19		
Total	13.65	68			

As it is seen, the significance level is .068 which is more than 0.05. This is not significant at p<.01 and p<.05 (F (2, 66) =2.801, p>.05); therefore, there is no difference between teachers' emotional intelligence and their university degrees (B.A., M.A., and Ph.D.).

B. Discussions

Three research questions were proposed in this study. The first research question investigated the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy. Conducting a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, it was found that there is a positive significant relationship (r=.67) between these two variables. It means

that higher score in teachers' emotional intelligence is correlated with higher total self-efficacy. The mean of emotional intelligence of teachers in this study (M=122.97) provides the evidence that they may be on the verge of being highly emotionally intelligent and this means that they may be intelligent in perception of emotion, managing their own emotions, managing others' feelings, and utilization of feelings.

As Baundra (1997) believes emotional intelligence and self-efficacy merge as an individual interprets organizational realities by the ability to recognize thoughts, feelings, and behaviors through self-awareness, regulation, and control. Chan (2007) and Mikolajczak and Luminet (2007) found that individuals who exhibited high emotional intelligence had high self-efficacy. A stronger relationship could be achieved with more awareness and training teachers in preparation and mentoring programs. The teachers in the present study feel a moderate confidence in carrying out their teaching tasks. They believed they may have some influence on student engagement, class management, and applying instructional strategies. The degrees of the teachers 'sense of efficacy here seems to indicate that there is a need to enhance the teachers sense of efficacy in teaching English given the powerful impact of the teacher's efficacy beliefs on various aspects of teaching and learning (Tschannen- Moran, et al., 1998; Woolfolk-Hoy, et al., 2006). In this study, two other factors were also investigated in relation to teachers' emotional intelligence: their years of teaching experience and their university degrees.

The present study found a moderate positive connection between teachers' EI and their years of teaching (r=.32). This connection indicated that those who were more experience in teaching English tended to have stronger EI than those with a lower experience as English teachers. The results of this study support the work of previous researches who found similar results (Penrose, Perry, & Ball, 2004; Mayer et al, 1999; Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2010), but are not supported in Cobb's (2004), and Rastegar and Memarpour's (2009) studies. Through analyzing the difference(s) between teachers' EI and their university degrees, the data showed that there is not any difference between teachers' EI in terms of their university degrees. This means that having a higher university degree is not accompanied with a higher emotional intelligence. In other words, a teacher may have a B.A. degree but enjoy a higher emotional intelligence than instructors holding an M.A. or Ph.D.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to evaluate the importance of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in teachers for having an effective teaching. Findings of the study indicated a significant relationship between teachers' EI and their self-efficacy, so that the results of the present study might help researchers and teacher educators focus more on enhancing pre-service teachers' emotional intelligence and sense of efficacy. In addition, according to Chan (2007), emotional intelligence and self-efficacy are traits which are developmental and can be learned, then, the training programs can be provided for teachers for the aim of developing their emotional intelligence and self-efficacy.

Moreover, the findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between teachers' EI with their years of teaching experience, namely more experienced teachers can benefit their low experienced colleagues with their emotional experiences. But no difference was found between teachers' EI in terms of different university degrees. As we see in this research results, there was a positive association in scope of EI and self-efficacy. This discovering gives us the above all else suggestions that upgrade and improvement of each of these builds may prompt the improvement and advancement of the other. Along these lines, there is a need to consider them as critical components amid educator instruction programs both in pre-service and in-service teacher preparation. Teachers' preparation programs should embed emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in their curriculum in an effort to develop the necessary practices to prepare their students to be effective individuals. Programs whose objective is to improve quality of teaching in schools should invest in improving emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. Last but not least, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy can be enhanced through preparation, induction, and mentoring programs.

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An Attitudinal Analysis of English Song Discourse from the Perspective of Appraisal Theory

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Abstract—**Appraisal theory is a new development of the interpersonal meaning in systematic functional linguistics. In recent years, the appraisal theory has been widely used in different genres to study whether and how slightly different appraisal methods are used in them. However, analysis of English song discourse with the appraisal theory is rare. Therefore, based on the attitude meaning in the appraisal theory the author analyzes several English song discourses. Through analysis of characteristics of the distribution of attitude resources in the English discourse it aims to find language feature in the English song discourse so as to make readers understand the emotion expressed by the author of the song discourse and the importance of the attitude meaning of the appraisal theory in building interpersonal relations between the author of the song discourse and readers.**

Index Terms—**appraisal theory, attitude meaning, English song discourse, interpersonal relations**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Introduction of the Appraisal Theory

Appraisal theory is developed by Martin in the theoretical basis of interpersonal systems of Halliday. It concerns a variety of negotiate attitude in discourse. They define the appraise as judgment of evaluation and it is the type of negotiated attitude in the discourse, involved the strength of feeling, the source of value, and approach of classification of the reader. Appraisal theory is defined by Martin that appraisal theory is about the evaluation, the type of attitude in discourse, the strength of emotion, traceable manners of value, and ways of coordinating readers. Overall, the appraisal system is to use the language to express resources of attitude including a large master system: attitude, engagement and graduation.

B. Introduction of the Attitude System in the Appraisal Theory

We focus on attitude resources in the appraisal theory. The attitude refers to the judgment and appreciation to the human behavior, the text or process and the phenomenon after psychological attitude is influenced. The attitude resource is divided into three subsystems: emotional expression to the human, namely the affect system; human assessment of the human's character and behavior, that is the judgment system; evaluation of the value of things, that is the appreciation system. The center component of the attitude system is the affect system, and the judgment system and the appreciation system are based on the affect system. Affect system is the psychological reaction to the behavior, the text or process, and the phenomenon; the judgment system is based on ethics and moral criteria to evaluate the behavior of language users; the appreciation system is the evaluation of the text or process, and the phenomenon. More simply, the whole attitude system the evaluation of human's character or. Among the whole attitude system the affect system and the judgment system are resources of of human's character, while the affect system and the appreciation system are resources of the evaluation of the value of matter. After the appraisal theory put forward, it has been widely applied to literature, academic, media and other different discourse analysis to help readers better understand the speaker or writer's position, outlook and attitudes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many previous scholars make a study about appraisal theory. Wang Zhenhua in his paper "Appraisal System and Its Operation" (Wang, 2001) gives a systematical introduction of the background, and demonstrates the framework and operation of AS and predicts its outlook. Later, in his doctoral dissertation (Wang, 2003), he makes a detailed explanation of the Engagement system and gives an analysis of the Engagement rules of language users in both Chinese and English discourses and attempts to build a model for the engagement. Yang Xinzhang (Yang, 2003) tries to probe into the ways the speaker/ author shows his/ her Attitude and Judgment towards events and entities in the world. He holds that the sum of evaluative devices in a text can note the degree of the speaker/author's desire to show his/ her personal attitude, judgment and idea. Peng Xuanwei (Peng, 2004) makes a study of "Appraisal System in modern Chinese words". Later, Peng(Peng, 2010) systematically analyses the Engagement and Graduation resources in Chinese

discourses, conducts a deep research on the Graduational phenomena realized in the Attitudes resources, and summarizes a model for the Graduational Attitude. Tang Liping(Tang, 2004) studies rhetorical strategies and textual strategies towards academic reviews. Li Zhanzi (Li, 2004) summarizes the application of AS (appraisal system) in genres such as historical discourses, commercial discourses and investigation problems: interpersonal nature of attitudes, contextual elements in favor of distinguishing the Appraisal resources, division of ideational and interpersonal meaning, and the relationship between evaluation and genres. Liu Shizhu and Han Jinlong (Liu&Han, 2004) discuss AS and its features in news discourse, meanwhile they recommend a new way of reading news discourses: evaluative reading. With the help of 10 English and Chinese editorials, Chen Xiaoyan (Chen, 2007) makes a contrastive analysis of attitudinal realization. She intends to unveil the distribution of attitudinal resources and find similarities and differences between English and Chinese editorials. All the above studies demonstrate that AS has been applied in many fields. but still there is no attempts to probe into features of the English song lyrics within AS, and how the interpersonal relationship is constructed between authors and readers.

III. THEORETICAL REVIEW

Attitude is concerned with people's feelings and their character and evaluation of things. As the central part of the Appraisal System, Attitude, which attends to gradable resources for construing evaluation, and it can be divided into three sub-systems: Affect, Judgment and Appreciation. Affect deals with registering positive and negative feelings: people feel happy or sad, confident or anxious, interested or bored. Judgment is concerned with people's attitudes towards behavior, which people admire or criticize, praise or condemn. Appreciation deals with evaluations of natural phenomena, according to the ways in which they are valued not in a given field (Martin & Rose, 2008).

IV. THE PRESENT STUDY

Application of attitude meaning contains a very rich pragmatic content and artistic charming. This is particularly prominent in the literature. In this thesis through the analysis of attitude meaning in some English song lyrics the author explores the effects of attitude meaning and the highlights of the expression of emotion and interpersonal relationship between authors and reads produced by the analysis of the realization and distribution of the attitude meaning in the appraisal theory. The present study attempts to examine the features of attitude meaning within English song lyrics.

A. Research Design

Sampling

Four research examples will be randomly selected from the English song internet. These examples will be used as data for the analysis.

Instrument and rationale

This thesis stresses the analysis of actual linguistic data in English song lyrics. It attempts to analyze the attitude meaning from perspective of appraisal theory in English song lyrics. Accordingly, the primary approach for the present study is inductive rather than deductive. Several examples are drawn from English song discourse as evidence for the subject under discussion. In every following English song discourse the attitudinal resources are indicated by the striking black words. The table is used to indicate the distribution of the attitude resource.

B. Data Analysis

Following English song lyrics will be made a detailed analysis under the attitude meaning within appraisal theory. Something important in this domain should be emphasized. Through the attitudinal analysis of following English song lyrics under three perspectives of affect, judgment, and appreciation. We will attempt to find out how it demonstrates the emotion of authors and how it constructs interpersonal relationship between authors and reads through the analysis of the realization and distribution of the attitude meaning within appraisal theory.

*An Attitude Analysis of the English Song **Let's talk about love*** (Celine dion,1997)

Everywhere i go, all the places that i've been. Every smile is a **new** horizen ,on a land i never see there're people around the world, **different** faces **different** names. But there's **true** emotion that reminds me we're **the same.** Let's talk about **love**. From the **laughter** of a child , to the **tears** of a **grown** man. There's a thread that runs right through us all help us understand. As **subtle** as breeze that fans a flicker to a flame. From **the very first sweet** melody, to **the very last** refain. Let's talk about **love**. let's talk about us. let's talk about life. let's talk about **trust**. let's talk about **love**. It's the king **of all who live** and the queen **of good hearts.** It's the ace **you may keep up your sleeve**, till the name is **all but lost. As deep as any sea with the rage of storm,** but **as gentle as a falling leaf on an autumn moon.** let's talk about **love**. let's talk about us. let's talk about **trust**. let's talk about love. It's all **we're needing** (let's talk about us). It's the air **we're breathing** (let's talk about life). I wanna know you (let's talk about trust). And i wanna show you (let's talk about love) (Celine dion, 1997)

TABLE I.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE RESOURCES IN ABOVE SONG LYRICS

Attitude	Features	Amount	Frequencies
Affect (8, 32%)	Happiness	2	8%
	Securities	2	8%
	Satisfaction	4	16%
Judgment (1, 4%)	Normality	0	0%
	Capacity	0	0%
	Tenacity	0	0%
	Veracity	1	4%
	Propriety	0	0%
Appreciation(16, 64%)	Reaction	4	16%
	Composition	8	32%
	Valuation	4	16%
Total Amount		25	100%

From above table we can see that it reveals the general and remarkable tendency of attitude resources in this English lyrics. The frequency of Judgment is the lowest (4%), followed by affect (32%) and appreciation is the highest (64%). The linguistic devices of judgment are far outnumbered by affect and appreciation. The reasons may be as following: affect deals with people's emotional states and reactions, while judgment attends to the normative assessments of people's behavior. Values of appreciation are properties, which relates to the phenomenon under evaluation rather than the participant who does the evaluation. Therefore, such appreciation resource as "**subtle**" in the sentence "as **subtle** as breeze that fans a flicker to a flame", "**deep**" in the sentence as **deep** as any sea with the rage of storm, and "**gentle**" in as **gentle** as a falling leaf on an autumn moon.(Celine dion,1997). Under these appreciation resources the author gives the feature of figurative objects through three figurative sentences. He explains his understanding of love profoundly and gives love implications. Further it narrows the distance with the reader so that make the meaning of love richer and more active again on the basis of the literal meaning. In this condition readers not only feel the implication of love and explore the author's inner world but also make the reader to engage in dialogue with the author's soul. The appreciation resources such as "**the very first**" "**the very last**" in the sentence "from **the very first** sweet melody, **to the very las**t refain, through these two resources the author wants to explain that love is a complete process and it has not only a beginning but also an end. The process is not going well, we have to not only experience the happiness but also experience the sadness and it is like melodies, which not only has a sweet melody but a sad melody. The another understanding of love is explained though these two resources, which can make readers to have strong emotion.

An Attitude Analysis of the English Song I get lonely (Janet Jackson, 1998)

I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. Sitting' here with my **tears.** All **alone** with my **fears** I'm wondering if I have to do without challenge. But there's no reason why I feel asleep late last night. Crying' like a **newborn** child. Holding' myself **close.** Pretending' my arms are yours. I want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I still remember to the day. In fact is was a 3rd Monday. You came along to be the one for me. And now I'm so all **alone.** I'm sitting here by the phone. Called that say that your okay. So that I have the chance to beg you to stay. I want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. Gonna break it down break it down break it down. Gonna break it down break it down break it down. You know that I know that I get so **lonely** thinking of you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. (Janet Jackson, 1998)

TABLE II.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE RESOURCES IN ABOVE SONG LYRICS

Attitude	Features	Amount	Frequencies
Affect(14,87.5%)	Happiness	13	81.25%
	Securities	1	6.25%
	Satisfaction	0	0%
Judgment (0, 0%)	Normality	0	0%
	Capacity	0	0%
	Tenacity	0	0%
	Veracity	0	0%
	Propriety	0	0%
Appreciation(2, 12.5%)	Reaction	1	6.25%
	Composition	1	6.25%
	Valuation	0	0%
Total Amount		16	100%

From above table we can see that there is no frequency of judgment. Affect is the highest (87,5%), followed by appreciation(12,5%). The linguistic device of appreciation is far outnumbered by affect. From the whole song discourse the emotion of lonely is throughout the whole discourse. The affect resources such as the word " **lonely**" appears eleven times in this song discourse, and the author aims to express the emotion of lonely through the high frequency use of the word "**lonely**". Besides the affect resources "**alone**" in the sentence all **alone** with my fears, and "alone" in the sentence and now I'm so all **alone.** Through these words the author also expresses the emotion of lonely. Because affect deals with people's emotional states and reactions. The readers can understand the author's emotional states of lonely well and it can arouse the reader's sympathy.

An Attitude Analysis of the English Song Lemon Tree (Fool's Garden, 1995)

When I was just a lad of ten, my father said to me, "Come here and take a lesson from the **lovely** lemon tree. Don't put your faith in **love**, my boy." My father said to me, "**I fear** you'll find that love is like the **lovely** lemon tree." Lemon tree very **pretty,** and the lemon flower is **sweet**, but the fruit of the **poor** lemon is impossible to eat. Lemon tree very **pretty**, and the lemon flower is **sweet**, but the fruit of the **poor** lemon is impossible to eat. One day beneath the lemon tree my love and I did lie. A girl so **sweet** that when she smiled, the stars rose in the sky. We passed that summer lost in love beneath the lemon tree. The music of her **laughter** hid my father's words from me. One day she left without a word, she took away the sun. And in the dark she'd left behind, I knew what she had done. She left me for another; it's a common tale but **true**. A **sadder** man but **wiser** now, I sing these words to you. (Fool's Garden, 1995)

TABLE III.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE RESOURCES IN ABOVE SONG LYRICS

Attitude	Features	Amount	Frequencies
Affect(4, $\frac{4}{15}$)	Happiness	2	$\frac{2}{15}$
	Securities	1	$\frac{1}{15}$
	Satisfaction	1	$\frac{1}{15}$
Judgment (2, $\frac{2}{15}$)	Normality	0	0%
	Capacity	1	$\frac{1}{15}$
	Tenacity	1	$\frac{1}{15}$
	Veracity	0	0%
	Propriety	0	0%
Appreciation(9, $\frac{9}{15}$)	Reaction	7	$\frac{7}{15}$
	Composition	0	0%
	Valuation	2	$\frac{2}{15}$
Total Amount		15	100%

We can see that in this song discourse the attitude resource appreciation is in high frequency, which is the highest ($\frac{9}{15}$), followed by affect($\frac{4}{15}$)and judgment($\frac{2}{15}$). The linguistic device of judgment is far numbered by affect and appreciation. In this song discourse on the one hand the author wants to express his own feeling, on the other hand the author wants to do the evaluation to Lemon Tree so as to express his good feelings to Lemon Tree. Appreciation is properties, which relates to the phenomenon under evaluation rather than the participant who does the evaluation.   In this song discourse the most important is that the author further expresses his own views of value to love. Therefore, such appreciation resource as the word lovely, pretty, and sweet. These three appreciation resource are positive, which demonstrates the the author's yearning for love and a pertinent suggestion of love for young people. The linguistic device of appreciation and affect are used more to make the distance of the author and the reader closer. It establishes a interpersonal relationship between the author and the reader.

An Attitude Analysis of the English Song Yesterday Once More (The Carpenters, 1973)

When I was **young**, I'd listen to the radio, waiting for my **favorite** songs. When they played I'd sing along. It made me **smile**. Those were such **happy** times, and not so long ago. How I wondered where they'd gone. But they're back again, just like a **long-lost** friend. All the songs I loved so **well**. Every sha-la-la-la, every wo-wo still shines. Every shing-a-ling -a-ling, that they're starting to sing, so **fine.** When they get to the part where he's breaking her heart, it can really make me **cry**. Just like before, it's yesterday once more. (Shoo-bee-do-lang -lang, shoo-bee-do-Lang-Lang) Looking back on how it was in years gone by, and the good time that I had, makes today seem rather **sad**; so much has changed. It was songs of **love** that I would sing to them, and I'd memorize each word. Those

old melodies still sound so **good** to me, as they melt the years away. All my best memories come back clearly to me; some can even make me **cry**. Just like before, it's yesterday once more. (The Carpenters, 1973)

TABLE IV.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE RESOURCES IN ABOVE SONG LYRICS

Attitude	Features	Amount	Frequencies
Affect(5, $\frac{5}{13}$)	Happiness	5	$\frac{5}{13}$
	Securities	0	0%
	Satisfaction	0	0%
Judgment (0, 0%)	Normality	0	0%
	Capacity	0	0%
	Tenacity	0	0%
	Veracity	0	0%
	Propriety	0	0%
Appreciation(8, $\frac{8}{13}$)	Reaction	5	$\frac{5}{13}$
	Composition	1	$\frac{1}{13}$
	Valuation	2	$\frac{2}{13}$
Total Amount		13	100%

From above table we can see that the frequency of appreciation is the highest ($\frac{8}{13}$), followed by affect($\frac{5}{13}$). There is no linguistic device judgment. Through the song the author expresses his memory to the old scenes in which he listened to the favorite songs when sitting on radio in childhood. The author remembers his good days before, but it makes him feel sad now. In this song discourse there are feelings of happiness and sorrow mixed. The attitude resource of affect and appreciation is frequently used to emphasize this emotion in author's deep heart. The frequent use of linguistic devices of affect and appreciation not only aims to express the author's feeling but also create a harmonious atmosphere between the author and the listener.

C. Discussion of Features of the Attitude Resource in English Song Discourse

Through the analysis of the linguistic data above we can see that in the four English song discourses the attitude resources affect and appreciation are frequently used to demonstrate the emotion of the author and the interpersonal relationship between the author and the listener. English culture is more focused on personality, so the thought and emotion of human basis is deep-rooted in English culture. Under the influence of English culture the attitude resource affect and appreciation are mostly used in the English song discourse to emphasize not only the author's intense emotion but also the author's role as a behavior subject. In the long-term development English-speaking peoples have formed a national spirit of independent personality, love of freedom, respect for the individual value. Of course the national spirit is also reflected in the English song discourse. As an important symbol of expression of personal emotion and views of value the attitude resource affect and appreciation are frequently used in the English song discourse to make the personal emotion sufficiently demonstrated, and also make the emotion understood by listeners better.

V. CONCLUSION

This thesis presents the features of the distribution of attitude resources in the English song discourse, that is, the attitude resources affect and appreciation are frequently used in the English song discourse. In order to make listeners understand the English song better, the mastery of features of the distribution of attitude resources in the English song discourse is quite necessary. From the perspective of appraisal theory the use of the attitude resources affect and appreciation is an indispensable ingredient in English song discourse. The frequent use of the attitude resources affect and appreciation in the English song discourse reflects the Western humanistic thought. Of course, there are also some disadvantages in this study, such as the selection of the corpus is small, so in an objective way, further study can enlarge the data. The limitation calls for more efforts in establishing a more comprehensive appraisal framework based on English song discourses. Because the realizations of emotion and interpersonal meaning are multi-level, the study should shed light on the emotion and interpersonal meaning in English song lyrics in consideration of other attitude resource as engagement and graduation. Therefore, a more objective research based on larger data is another orientation for the further study.

APPENDIX. FOUR ENGLISH SONG DISCOURSE IN THIS PAPER

*A. The Lyrics of English Song **Let's Talk about Love** (Celine Dion, 1997) <<Falling into You>>*

Everywhere i go, all the places that i've been. Every smile is a **new** horizen ,on a land i never see there're people around the world, **different** faces **different** names. But there's **true** emotion that reminds me we're **the same.** Let's talk about **love**. From the **laughter** of a child, to the **tears** of a **grown** man. There's a thread that runs right through us all help us understand. As **subtle** as breeze that fans a flicker to a flame. From **the very first sweet** melody, to **the very last** refain. Let's talk about **love**. let's talk about us. let's talk about life. let's talk about **trust**. let's talk about **love**. It's the king **of all who live** and the queen **of good hearts**. It's the ace **you may keep up your sleeve**, till the name is **all but lost. As deep as any sea with the rage of storm,** but **as gentle as a falling leaf on an autumn moon.** let's talk about **love**. let's talk about us. let's talk about **trust**. let's talk about love. It's all **we're needing** (let's talk about us). It's the air **we're breathing** (let's talk about life). I wanna know you (let's talk about trust). And i wanna show you (let's talk about love) (Celine dion, 1997)

*B.   The Lyrics of English Song **I Get Lonely** (Janet Jackson, 1998)<<**The Velvet Rope-Virgin**>>*

I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me.You are the one that lives in me my dear.Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you.Sitting' here with my **tears**. All **alone** with my **fears** I'm wondering if I have to do without challenge. But there's no reason why I feel asleep late last night. Crying' like a **newborn** child. Holding' myself **close**. Pretending' my arms are yours. I want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me.You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I still remember to the day. In fact is was a 3rd Monday.You came along to be the one for me. And now I'm so all **alone.** I'm sitting here by the phone. Called that say that your okay. So that I have the chance to beg you to stay. I want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you.I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear.Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me.You are the one that lives in me my dear. Want no one but you. Gonna break it down break it down break it down. Gonna break it down break it down break it down. You know that I know that I get so **lonely** thinking of you. I get so **lonely** can't let just anybody hold me. You are the one that lives in me my dear. (Janet Jackson, 1998)

*C.   The Lyrics of English Song **Lemon Tree** (1995, Fool's Garden) << **Dish of the Day**>>*

When I was just a lad of ten, my father said to me, "Come here and take a lesson from the **lovely** lemon tree. Don't put your faith in **love**, my boy." My father said to me, "I **fear** you'll find that love is like the **lovely** lemon tree." Lemon tree very **pretty,** and the lemon flower is **sweet**, but the fruit of the **poor** lemon is impossible to eat. Lemon tree very **pretty**, and the lemon flower is **sweet**, but the fruit of the **poor** lemon is impossible to eat. One day beneath the lemon tree my love and I did lie. A girl so **sweet** that when she smiled, the stars rose in the sky. We passed that summer lost in love beneath the lemon tree. The music of her **laughter** hid my father's words from me. One day she left without a word, she took away the sun. And in the dark she'd left behind, I knew what she had done. She left me for another; it's a common tale but **true**. A **sadder** man but **wiser** now, I sing these words to you. (1995, Fool's Garden)

*D.   The Lyrics of English Song **Yesterday Once More** (The Carpenters, 1973) <<**Now&Then**>>*

When I was **young**, I'd listen to the radio, waiting for my **favorite** songs. When they played I'd sing along. It made me **smile**. Those were such **happy** times, and not so long ago. How I wondered where they'd gone. But they're back again, just like a **long-lost** friend. All the songs I loved so **well**. Every sha-la-la-la, every wo-wo still shines. Every shing-a-ling -a-ling, that they're starting to sing, so **fine.** When they get to the part where he's breaking her heart, it can really make me **cry just like** before, it's yesterday once more. (Shoo-bee-do-lang-lang, shoo-bee-do-Lang-Lang) Looking back on how it was in years gone by, and the good time that I had, makes today seem rather **sad**; so much has changed. It was songs of **love** that I would sing to them, and I'd memorize each word. Those **old** melodies still sound so **good** to me, as they melt the years away. All my best memories come back clearly to me; some can even make me **cry**. Just like before, it's yesterday once more. (The Carpenters, 1973)

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Investigating Nonliterary Translation Shifts by Concentrating on United Nations Texts Using Pekkanen's (2010) Model

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Abstract—Translation shift especially within UN texts is a new area of interest in the field of translation studies. The concept uses linguistic translation as a tool or metaphor in analyzing the nature of transformation and interchange in the political text. The main objective of the present study was to study translation shifts in non-literary texts – those from the UN documents. The study intended to compare strategy application in translation of shifts by Pekkanen (2010), extracted from three UN documents, between two English-Persian dictionaries (one by Khiyabani (2013) and the other one by Aryanpoor (2006)). The contraction strategy was the most frequent strategy applied by Khiyabani (85 times, 56.7%) and the least frequent strategy was shift in order (11 times, 7.3%). The expansion strategy was the most frequent strategy applied by Aryanpoor (66 times, 44%) and the least frequent strategy was shift in order (6 times, 4%). The findings of the present study were in line with those reported by Pekkanen (2010). The two translators were not significantly different with regard to application of miscellaneous and shift in order strategies and were significantly different with regard to application of contraction and expansion strategies. The results obtained in this thesis could in general be useful for students of translation, instructors and university professors, syllabus designers, freelancers, book compilers and all those who are involved in one way or another in translation issues.

Index Terms—translation shifts, non-literary documents, shift strategies, political text translation, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the inevitable phenomena in translation is translation shift. Shifts are variations that happen during the process of translation from Source Language (SL) to Target Language (TL). In comparing texts in diverse languages, translation shifts are noticeable everywhere (Hosseini Maasoum & Shahbaiki, 2013). Probably for the first time, Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) tried to term the linguistic variations that happened during translation as 'translation procedures'. As cited in Cyrus (2006, p. 1):

Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), working in the field of comparative stylistics, extended a system of translation tenors. Some of them were direct or literal, but some of them were oblique and eventuate in various diversities between the source and the target texts. These tenors were called transposition (change in word class), modulation (change in semantics), equivalence (completely different translation, e. g. proverbs), and adaptation (change of situation due to cultural differences). There is an insignificant prescriptive voice in the work of Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), because they mention that oblique tenors should only be used if a more direct one would actuate to an awkward translation. Nevertheless, their approach to translation shifts, even though avant la lettre, continues to be highly influential.

As cited in Khanmohammad and Mousavinasab (2014, p. 1):

A decade later, Catford (1965) explicitly used the term 'Translation Shifts' for the same reference which he defined as departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL. This method of translation analysis was solely based on linguistics (belonging to the formalism era). He classified linguistic shifts from a very general view as 'shift of level' and 'shift of category'. Shift of level was something expressed by grammar in one language and lexis in another, and shift of category as changes which were only grammatical.

The latter was divided into five sub-categories as follows:

1) Level shift: "Expressed by grammar in one language and lexis in another" (Catford, 1965, p. 141). 2) Class shift: A shift from one part of speech to another. 3) Unit shift or rank shift: Unit shift or rank shift was defined by Munday (2008) as "Where the translation equivalence in the Target Language (henceforth TL) is at a different rank to the Source Language (henceforth SL). Rank here refers to the hierarchical linguistic unit of sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme" (p. 61). 4) Structural shift: According to Catford (1965) (as cited in Munday, 2008, p. 61), "This is the most common form of the shifts which involves mostly a shift in grammatical structure." 5) Intersystem shift: A shift that

takes place when there is an approximately corresponding system between the SL and the TL, but is not applicable in the process of translation.

A study by Vossoughi and Pourebrahim (2010, p. 81) investigated:

… the realization of Catford's shifts in Farsi translation of English psychology texts, from a product-oriented point of view, shedding light on the areas where Farsi is different from English. Inspired by a study conducted by Khorshidi (2010), the two questions raised in the study sought to detect the kinds of shifts applied in the translation of English psychology texts according to Catford's theory, and to explore the most frequently used shifts in those texts which include the normal aspects of Farsi psychology texts. To this end, five books on psychology (originally written in English) and their Farsi translations were chosen and a total of six chapters were selected randomly for the analysis. Through a contrastive analysis, 307 coupled pairs of ST and TT segments were detected and extracted from these six chapters and then tabulated and analyzed, being observed as instances of the realization of Catford's model of shifts. The obtained results of the corpora demonstrated that all types of shifts were used in the translation of psychology texts from English to Farsi according to Catford's theory. Furthermore, the results proved that structural shifts were the most frequently employed kind of shifts.

Another study intended to find the realization of Catford's shifts in the Persian translation of Charles Dickens' "A Tale of Two Cities" by Ebrahim Younesi. The aim of Hosseini-Masoum and Shahbaiki's (2013, p. 391) study was:

… to find which types of shifts the translator uses, to compare the SL and the TL versions, and to investigate how faithful the translator was to the original text. Furthermore, it intended to find the problems translators faced during the translation process. Their study analyzed different kinds of category shifts which Catford divided into four subgroups: structure shifts, class shifts, unit shifts and intra-system shifts. To this end, forty sentences of the first six chapters of the novel were selected randomly and compared with their corresponding parts in the Persian translation. Their study showed that among forty sentences that included forty-three shifts, unit shift was the most frequent − 37.5% of shifts were unit shifts, 30% class shifts, 12.5% structure shifts and 27.5% intra system shifts. It also showed that shifts were inevitable in some places in the translation process and this is because of different natures of languages and variations that exist among them, so the translator is forced to deviate from the source text.

The purpose of Khanmohammad and Mousavinasab's (2011) study was to conduct a linguistic-based investigation into the frequency of translation shifts in the process of translating medical texts from English into Farsi in Iran. Five books were sampled from five branches or sub-branches of medicine in which a large number of English-to-Farsi translations were done in Iran. Then, two chapters from each of these books were selected. Afterwards, 10% of the sentences of each chapter were sampled and the analysis was conducted on them. On the whole, from among 320 sampled sentences, most sentences had undergone structural shift, 4.06% had undergone class shift, 5.31% had undergone unit shift, and 7.81% had undergone intra-system shift. In conclusion of this study, considering the features of English and Farsi, the low number of shifts in medical texts suggested that in many cases no translation actually took place and transliteration was the preferred approach for the erudite terms.

II. QUESTIONS

The following research questions will be answered in this study:

1) Does each of the two translators use Pekkanen's (2010) four strategy types similarly?

2) Are there any statistically significant differences among the two translators in the application of each of Pekkanen's (2010) strategy types used for translation of shifts?

III. METHOD

A. Data

Since the prime objective of the present study was to study shifts in UN documents, the researchers purposefully selected all the data of the study from UN documents. Three pieces of documents, all in English, were randomly selected from the United Nations Human Rights website (http://www.ohchr.org). The three documents used were as follows: 1) "United Nations Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training" (2011); 2) "Political Declaration on HIV and AIDS-Intensifying Our Efforts to Eliminate HIV and AIDS" (2011), and 3) "Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a Communications Procedure" (2011) all retrieved from (http://www.ohchr.org). Fifty technical words and phrases from each source were selected through purposive sampling (Persian political dictionaries were used as an acid test to determine such technical terms). Besides these English sources, two English-to-Persian dictionaries of political terms (those by Khiyabani (2013) and Aryanpor (2006)) were also used as the second data source of the study. In fact, the researchers first extracted through purposive sampling the 150 political words from the three English sources and then looked up the words in the two English-Persian Dictionaries for their Persian equivalents and recorded the first Persian equivalent recorded for each term.

B. Procedure

The following steps were taken to perform the research. First, three documents, all in English, were randomly selected from the United Nations Human Rights website (http://www. ohchr.org). Further, two English-to-Persian

dictionaries of political terms (those by Khiyabani (2013) and Aryanpoor (2006)) were also used based on expert views as the second data source of the study. Then, fifty terms from each English source were selected through purposive sampling. After that, their Persian equivalents (the first equivalent recorded in each entry) were extracted from the two English-to-Persian dictionaries. Later, the English data along with their Persian equivalents were analyzed with regard to the shifts based on the model proposed by Pekkanen (2010). The data collected were then input in SPSS (Version 21) for further analysis.

C. Theoretical Framework of the Study

The model used to analyze the data in this study was that proposed by Pekkanen (2010). Accordingly, in what follows, a brief account of this model along with its four shift types (contraction, expansion, miscellaneous, and shift in order) has been provided:

Contraction Shift: It is a kind of shift where the unit from the source text is shorter or includes less information in the target text. It is classified as 'deletion' and is labeled as loss of information from the semantic viewpoint. In this abridgement, the information is not really moved out, just it is not replicated for the second time (Pekkanen, 2010).

Expansion Shift: It is a kind of shift where the source text is extended during the translation process and finally gets longer in the target text. Extension can be separated into subcategories like 'embedment', and 'augmentation'. The idea of embedment has nothing to do with addition of meaning (Pekkanen, 2010).

Miscellaneous shift: This shift encompasses three squads: tense, condition and voice (Pekkanen, 2010).

Shift in order: Pekkanen's version included four classes of sequence changes: subject, verb (and object); order of expressions of time and place; clauses and other. Based on the similar units as in extension and briefness, a various categorization is used (Pekkanen, 2010).

IV. RESULTS

A. Application of the Four Strategy Types by the Two Translators

Here, a Chi-Square test was performed for each translator separately.

-Translator 1 (Khiyabani):

TABLE 1.
THE CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR DIFFERENT STRATEGIES APPLIED BY KHIYABANI

Statistics Strategy	Observed N	Expected N	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Contraction	85	37.5			
Expansion	34	37.5			
Miscellaneous	20	37.5	87.387	3	0.000
Shift in order	11	37.5			
Total	150				

According to the above table, the Chi-Square test was significant (Sig. <0.05). Thus, the frequencies differed significantly. Comparison of frequencies showed that the contraction strategy was significantly more frequent than the other three strategies as used by Khiyabani.

-Translator 2 (Aryanpoor):

TABLE 2.
THE CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR DIFFERENT STRATEGIES APPLIED BY ARYANPOOR

Statistics Strategy	Observed N	Expected N	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Contraction	59	37.5			
Expansion	66	37.5			
Miscellaneous	19	37.5	69.573	3	0.000
Shift in order	6	37.5			
Total	150				

According to Table 2, the Chi-Square test was significant (Sig. <0.05). Thus, the frequencies differed significantly. Comparison of frequencies showed that the expansion strategy was significantly more frequent than the other strategies as applied by Aryanpoor.

B. Comparison of Each Strategy Application by the Two Translators

Unlike research question 1, in which the application of all shift strategies by each translator, was measured, here the purpose was to compare translators regarding the application of each single strategy. A Chi-Square test was performed for each translator separately.

- Contraction strategy:

TABLE 3.
THE CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE TWO TRANSLATORS IN THE APPLICATION OF CONTRACTION STRATEGY

Statistics / Group	Observed N	Expected N	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Khiyabani	85	72.0			
Aryanpoor	59	72.0	4.694	1	0.030
Total	144				

According to Table 3, the Chi-Square test was significant (Sig. <0.05). Thus, the frequencies differed significantly. Comparison of frequencies showed that Khiyabani had applied the contraction strategy significantly more than Aryanpoor. So, the hypothesis *"The two translators apply each strategy, for translation of shifts, similarly."* was rejected regarding the contraction strategy.

- **Expansion strategy:**

TABLE 4.
THE CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE TWO TRANSLATORS IN THE APPLICATION OF EXPANSION STRATEGY

Statistics / Group	Observed N	Expected N	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Khiyabani	34	50.0			
Aryanpoor	66	50.0	10.240	1	0.001
Total	100				

Based on the above table, the Chi-Square test was significant (Sig. <0.05). Thus, the frequencies differed significantly. Comparison of frequencies showed that Aryanpoor had applied the expansion strategy significantly more than Khiyabani. So, the hypothesis *"The two translators apply each strategy, for translation of shifts, similarly."* was rejected regarding the expansion strategy.

- **Miscellaneous strategy:**

TABLE 5.
THE CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE TWO TRANSLATORS IN THE APPLICATION OF MISCELLANEOUS STRATEGY

Statistics / Group	Observed N	Expected N	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Khiyabani	20	19.5			
Aryanpoor	19	19.5	0.026	1	0.873
Total	39				

In the above table, the Chi-Square test was not significant (Sig. >0.05). Thus, the frequencies did not differ significantly meaning that the two translators had applied the miscellaneous strategy more or less the same. So, the hypothesis, *"The two translators apply each strategy, for translation of shifts, similarly."* was accepted regarding the miscellaneous strategy.

- Shift in order strategy:

TABLE 6.
THE CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE TWO TRANSLATORS IN THE APPLICATION OF SHIFT IN ORDER STRATEGY

Statistics / Group	Observed N	Expected N	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Khiyabani	11	8.5			
Aryanpoor	6	8.5	1.471	1	0.225
Total	17				

Based on Table 6, the Chi-Square test was not significant (Sig. >0.05). Thus, the frequencies did not significantly differ which implies that the two translators had applied the shift in order strategy more or less the same. So,the hypothesis, *"The two translators apply each strategy, for translation of shifts, similarly."* was accepted regarding the shift in order strategy.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The first research question of the study was, "*Does each of the two translators use Pekkanen's (2010) four strategy types similarly?*" Based on the findings of the first research question, the hypothesis, "*Each translator uses the strategy types similarly*" could not be held. It meant that each translator had used the four shift strategies differently. Khiyabani and Aryanpoor used contraction and expansion strategies most frequently. In both cases, shift in order was found to be the least frequent strategy. So, the two translators were similar with regard to the application of miscellaneous and shift in order strategies and differed significantly with regard to the application of contraction and expansion strategies. The findings of the present study were in line with those reported by Pekkanen (2010).

The second research question of the study was, *"Are there any statistically significant differences among the two translators in the application of each of Pekkanen's (2010) strategy used for translation of shifts?"* Based on the findings, the two translators were different with regard to the application of contraction and expansion strategies but were similar with regard to the application of miscellaneous and shift in order strategies. The findings of the present study were in line with those reported by Pekkanen (2010).

The most important objective of the present study was to discuss the strategies used by translators in translation of shifts in political texts based on the model proposed by Pekkanen (2010). In line with the mentioned objective, the researchers conducted a descriptive-comparative study on the strategies used by translators in translation of shifts in political texts. Library review and text analysis were also applied to accomplish this research. Based on the results obtained, the following conclusions were obtained:

- The contraction strategy was the most frequent strategy applied by Khiyabani (85 times, 56.7%) and the least frequent strategy was shift in order (11 times, 7.3%).
- The expansion strategy was the most frequent strategy applied by Aryanpoor (66 times, 44%) and the least frequent strategy was shift in order (6 times, 4%).
- The two translators differed significantly with regard to the application of contraction and expansion strategies.
- The two translators were similar with regard to the application of miscellaneous and shift in order strategies.

VI. IMPLICATIONS

The findings in this thesis are significant pedagogically. In fact, translation shifts problem is a dominant one among language learners. Accordingly, since this thesis has tackled this topic and has reported the main problems authors have within this language skill, it can be very useful for language learners as well as language teachers. Language learners can realize the importance of the translation shifts and hence equip themselves with the necessary capabilities in this regard. Similarly, teachers can benefit a lot from the findings of this study. They can get familiar with the problems language learners face and hence can do their best to find solutions to the problems students have. Syllabus designers and policy makers can also use the findings of this study. They can consider revising the translation courses taught at the university level. They can give more priority to this skill. Policy makers can also introduce policies that can assign more importance to listening courses and the listening skill in general.

The results of the present study had different implications. First, it showed the applicability of the model proposed by Pekkanen (2010) for the English-Persian language pair. Second, the findings in this thesis could be used by teachers of translation studies to make students acquainted with the most applicable strategies for translation of shifts. Third, the results could be applied by students while translating political texts from English into Persian. The results could also be useful for policy makers in the area of education.

VII. LIMITATIONS

The researchers of the present study encountered some limitations during data collection. Some of these limitations were: 1) Due to time limitation, only two English-to-Persian dictionaries were used. Had the researchers more time, they would have used more translations. 2) Only 150 terms were used as data of the study, had the researchers more time, more terms could have been used. 3) Since the data collection procedure of this study was run in summer and at that time there was no classes being held in translation field at the target university, it was difficult to find the subjects of the study to fill up the translation jobs hence, the researchers decided to extract the meanings of the words from two dictionaries only.

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Digital Storytelling Approach in a Multimedia Feature Writing Course

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Abstract—**With the rapid development of multimedia technology, digital storytelling has been widely applied in education. This article argues that digital storytelling is a multimedia narrative form which involves critical thinking and creative abilities. These two elements are very important in multimedia feature writing. This article analyzes the application of digital storytelling approach in a multimedia feature writing course through a literature review and a case study. It concludes that the process of completing a digital storytelling project develops students' creativity and critical thinking. Thus, the digital storytelling approach can be seen as a positive applicable approach in a multimedia feature writing course.**

Index Terms—**digital storytelling, multimedia feature writing, creativity, critical thinking**

I. INTRODUCTION

Storytelling is a powerful way to express ideas and communicate experiences. Writing is a written form of storytelling. Storytelling has been part of teaching since the defining of subjects, as far back as Aristotle's tutoring experiences (Alexander, 2011). With the rapid development of information technology, "students live in a world that has been transformed by technology, and they are often referred to as 'digital natives' because their exposure to digital resources begins at birth" (Morgan, 2014, p.20). According to a Pew Research Center report, in 2015, 92% of teens report going online daily — including 24% who say they go online "almost constantly."[1] Alexander (2011) indicated a "disconnect as the result of poor communication between 'digital natives,' today's students and 'digital immigrants,' many adults." (p.214). Because while many adults are using mail or phones for communication, the Net generation is skillfully using Facebook, Twitter, WeChat or other social media to write their multimedia blogs. Why are digital communication and multimedia writing appealing to the Net generation? How is digital storytelling applied in multimedia feature writing? In this article, we first analyze digital storytelling and multimedia feature writing. Next, we provide a literature review that explores some of the applications of digital storytelling in different areas. We then analyze the application of the digital storytelling approach in a multimedia feature writing course through a case study. Finally, we draw a conclusion that the process of completing a digital storytelling project develops students' creativity and critical thinking.

II. CONCEPTS

Digital storytelling is an integrated application of multimedia resources within learning environments for the production by students of multimedia narrative (Barrett, 2006; Bull and Kajder, 2005; Clarke and Adam, 2010; Hung, Hwang and Huang, 2012; Mellon, 1999; Robin, 2008). Narrative is a linguistic way of representing real or imagined past experiences (Traugott and Pratt, 1980). Multimedia narrative involves constructing narratives using a range of technologies or media including voice, words, moving or still images, music, and other source. Digital storytelling is "a dynamic and beautiful marriage of narrative and technology that is proving to be a potent force in educational practice" (Rossiter and Garcia, 2010, p.37).

Feature writing is a type of "creative, subjective writing that is designed to inform and entertain readers" (Garrison, 2010, p.7). Feature writing is more often creative than nonfiction and less objective than news writing, and differs from fiction because feature writing deals with reality. Multimedia feature writing engages using multiple media and software that combines the art of feature writing and modern technologies, contributing to helping readers to better understand the author's purpose and content. Multimedia feature writing is sometimes adopted in journalism, personal storytelling and other narrative form.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Within the past decades, digital storytelling has been widely researched. The roots of digital storytelling reach back to 1980s, when Dana Atchley first used the term as he experimented with the use of multimedia elements in storytelling performances (Rossiter and Garcia, 2010). In the late 1980s, Joe Lambert and Dana Atchley cofounded the Center for Digital Storytelling (CDS) in Berkeley, California. The CDS is known for training people in creating and sharing their

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[1] Teens, Social Media & Technology Overview 2015.http://www.pewinternet.org/2015/04/09/teens-social-media-technology-2015

personal narratives and developing the Seven Elements of Digital Storytelling. After the CDS was founded, a great deal of research on digital storytelling emerged. Some studies focus on the theoretical foundations or framework of digital storytelling. Other studies focus on the applications of digital storytelling in different fields. Some even focus on the relationship between digital storytelling and technology. The following is a literature review of the aforementioned research.

A.   Theoretical Foundations

1. Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK) Theory

The term Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK) "focuses on the relationship between knowledge about content, pedagogy, and technology" (Robin, 2008, p.226). Mishra and Koehler (2006) declared that TPCK is the basis of skilled teaching through technology. It is mainly focused on how technology can be used to develop new knowledge and strengthen existing skills. TPCK theory is helpful for guiding teachers' teaching by providing "the ability to use technology in critical, creative and responsible ways" (Hicks, 2006, p.50). Digital storytelling is an educational approach that can motivate students to learn more content with the help of multimedia technology. Teachers should have deep knowledge of the teaching content, teaching methods and multimedia technology, and know how to combine the convergence of these three types of knowledge in teaching. Teachers can then motivate students to learn new content more effectively.

2. Constructivism

Constructivism is a view of learning based on the belief that knowledge is constructed by learners themselves through an active mental process. It emphasizes the learners' activeness and creativeness. Piaget (1977) stated that learning occurs by an active construction of meaning, rather than by passive acceptance. Similarly, Duffy and Jonassen (1992) indicated that learners were not just responding to stimuli passively, but engaging grappling and seeking to make sense of things. Therefore, a teacher's task is not to impart knowledge to students, but to "find ways of enriching, balancing and clarifying the students' experience, to guide them to seek new experiences when needed, and to find ways of connecting the students' experiences with the diverse ways of life in their culture" (Huttunen, 1986, p.19). The digital storytelling approach sharply embodies the constructivist theory of initiative, social and situational characteristics. By using this approach, teachers are guiding students to connect their own experiences and social life actively and creatively.

3. Transformative Learning

Transformative learning is an educational theory that aims to foster "a critical dimension of learning…that enables us to recognize, reassess, and modify the structures of assumptions and expectations that frame our tacit points of view and influence of our thinking, beliefs, attitudes, and actions" (Mezirow, 2009, p.18). It encourages students to actively immerse themselves in exploring new knowledge, generating new ideas for new conditions and endure big differences. The differences we perceive in others are largely "differences we create by viewing the other according to the rightness of our own preferences" (Kegan, 1994, p.232). The digital storytelling approach is a means of assessing students' transformative learning in and out of the classroom. Students' process of finishing a digital storytelling project helps to develop a new understanding of the world around each student by means of critical self-reflection.

B.   The Application of Digital Storytelling in Different Fields

In recent years, research about the applications of digital storytelling in different fields has gained growing attention. A large amount of literature has explored the ways in which digital storytelling is being employed in various areas including K-12 education, higher education, health care, aging, community action, and more (Rossiter and Garcia, 2010).

In terms of the application of digital storytelling in K-12 education, Mullen and Wedwick (2008) reported a rural middle school teacher's use of YouTube, digital stories, and blogs in a language arts curriculum. They found that the digital storytelling project encouraged students to critically think and express creativity. Vasudevan, Schultz and Bateman (2010) conducted a multimodal storytelling project in a fifth-grade urban classroom, and they found that extending the composing process to multimodal storytelling increased students' modes of participation and engagement within the classroom curriculum. Hung, Hwang and Huang (2012) created an experiment involving 117 Grade 5 students in an elementary school in Taiwan. Their experimental results show that "the project-based learning with digital storytelling could effectively enhance the student's science learning motivation, problem-solving competence, and learning achievement" (p.368).

Salman Khan, founder of Khan Academy created a free online education platform in 2006 that has produced over 6,500 video lessons; mainly focusing on mathematics and sciences.[2] These videos involve digital storytelling. Each video is about 6 to 10 minutes, and focuses on one knowledge point. It is not a long video, so it won't distract students' attention. After the video, students may choose to continue to practice the concept or check the answers. If they get stuck, they can click the button "I'd like a hint." The academy will even record students' progress and motivate students with badges. Students like this way of learning as they are playing digital games. In around 20,000 K-12 schools, math teachers no longer need to instruct. Instead, students will watch Khan Academy's videos and do some practice problems

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[2] Salman Khan (educator). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Salman_Khan_(educator)

online. Teachers only need to answer students' questions[3]. As of today, the Khan Academy channel on YouTube has about 2,285,000 subscribers and the Khan Academy videos have been viewed more than 658 million times.[2]

In terms of the application of digital storytelling in higher education, academics have reported using digital storytelling in courses on literary studies, creative writing, American Studies, social and cultural history, teacher training, ESL and gender studies (Ganley and Vila, 2006; Klaebe and Bolland, 2007; Oppermann, 2008, p.178-9). Clarke and Adam (2010) explored the experiences of Australian academics with the use of digital storytelling as a pedagogical tool in higher education contexts. They asserted that "digital storytelling offered great potential for higher education, especially in the arts and humanities."(p.173). Chung (2006) also did some research on digital storytelling in integrated arts education, and found that students tend to make better sense of complex ideas, concepts, or information when it occurs via storytelling.

C.   The Application of Digital Storytelling in Writing Field

Scholars have documented the development in writing through multimedia and modalities (Vasudevan and others 2010). Gakhar and Thompson (2007) demonstrated that digital storytelling can improve students' writing skills, critical thinking skills, and media literacy. Bulent Dogan and Bernard Robin (2008) reported in their research, findings that the students in classrooms where teachers implemented digital storytelling approach displayed improved technical, presentational, research and organizational skills, and writing skills.

In a program held in the University of Houston's College of Education, the students' digital stories "demonstrated creativity, thoughtful writing, organizational skill and powerful incidences of self-expression, even by students who were often reluctant to speak out in class." (Rudnicki, Anne and others, 2006, p.2) Digital storytelling has also been claimed to facilitate the learning of students who are new to academic writing and who have problems with conventions of academic writing to engage intellectually (Clarke and Adam, 2010).

In Sylvester and Greenidge's study with struggling writers (2014), they found that creating digital stories help students gain more awareness of purpose, structure and form of the story, and the use of the photographs and videos help students express themselves more easily and competently.

Although a vast body of research on digital storytelling has been reviewed, little research has been found about the application of the digital storytelling approach in a multimedia feature writing course. This paper will investigate why digital storytelling and multimedia writing are appealing to the Net generation and how the digital storytelling approach is applied in a multimedia feature writing course through a case study.

IV.   WHY ARE DIGITAL STORYTELLING AND MULTIMEDIA WRITING APPEALING TO THE NET GENERATION?

Digital storytelling attracts the Net generation for the following reasons. According to Pavio's (1986) dual-coding theory, learners can strengthen the impression and recognition of the information through both the visual and verbal cognitive systems. Given digital storytelling's reliance on visual (images) and verbal (words and audios) information, the Net generation can often memorize and recall the information released from digital storytelling easily and impressively.

The Net generation was born with the prosperity of digital resources. They have become accustomed to receiving information from all sorts of digital media, including television, Internet, radio, etc. They have easily learned to use a lot of digital devices including digital cameras, microphones, cell phones, iPads and computers. Their technical competence often enhances their ability to become digital storytellers.

The digital storytelling approach encourages student-centered learning. Students are not following teachers' instruction passively in class, but instead actively presenting their own stories through digital projects. While they are creating a digital story, they are experiencing "learning by doing" in something of an entertainment-based learning environment. In this process, they have to develop their creativity, learner autonomy (self-study) and critical thinking abilities. Making a digital story involves investigation, discovery, and creation, and students must therefore act as researchers, designers, writers, directors and media producers. They are the owners and masters in their learning process.

Multimedia writing also attracts the Net generation for a multiple reasons. First, almost everyone has stories to tell, no matter whether they are their own stories or stories heard from others. However, not everyone has the ability to tell the story in written forms. Multimedia writing may encourage people who have no interest or confidence in writing because multimedia writers may write a story through a lot of multimedia tools, such as pictures, music, animation, video, etc. According to Mayer's (2001) cognitive theory of multimedia leaning, presenting both with the images and words is superior to presenting only with words. He defines words as "printed (e.g., on-screen text) or spoken (e.g., narration)", and the pictures as "static (e.g., illustrations, graphs, charts, photos, or maps) or dynamic (e.g., animation, video, or interactive illustrations)" (Mayer, 2003, p.43).

Another appealing characteristic of multimedia writing is flexibility. In multimedia writing, writers may decide when to use words, when to use photos, graphs or maps, and when to use animation or video. The creator has the flexibility

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[3] American 39-year-old "Godfather of Mathematics". http://ehsb.hsw.cn/shtml/hsb/20150919/545201.shtml
[2] Salman Khan (educator). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Salman_Khan_(educator)

and ability to control the usage of multiple media. Blogs may provide an opportunity for those who want to share a wide range of multimedia sources from documents to pictures or videos. In particular, shy students who dare not talk in public can express themselves freely through words, images and videos in their blogs and enjoy sharing their stories online.

V. CASE STUDY: APPLICATION OF THE DIGITAL STORYTELLING APPROACH IN A MULTIMEDIA FEATURE WRITING COURSE

From March until May 2015, I had an opportunity to audit an English Professor's Multimedia Feature Writing class in a college in Pennsylvania, USA. A project-based digital storytelling approach was applied in the class. In the first half of the course, the teacher introduced some background knowledge of digital storytelling and multimedia feature writing. In the second half of the course, the teacher assigned each student a digital storytelling project about any topic on or off campus. Students were able to borrow the digital devices from the college library, including a digital camera, microphone etc. Most of the students' digital storytelling projects involved the following six steps.
1. Brainstorming to select a topic
2. Researching on the selected topic
3. Writing a script
4. Shooting a video
5. Recording the narration or voice-over
6. Editing the audio and video
When it came to the class of presenting students' first draft of their digital storytelling project, the professor chose a qualified student to be a teaching assistant and help to present all of the students' digital stories one by one. And the students were asked to write a review of each classmate's digital story according to a list of standards delivered to them by the teacher. The list of standard included four categories: story/narrative; adherence to guidelines and creative dimensions; technical; title, credits, and byline. After presenting all of the digital stories, students were asked to face each other and share their comments with the class. Thanks to the professor's permission, I had the opportunity to join their discussion and share my comments with them. Most of the students made a crafted digital story. It was hard to believe it was their first time participating in a digital storytelling project. Though overall their projects were strong, some students' videos had some minor flaws due to the imperfection of the camera or the lacking of skills in shooting a video. For example, the background music was louder than the human voice in the video, or the content in the video was not rich enough.

Students were asked to watch for the following requirements: 1) The interviewee should look at the negative space when he is being videoed. 2) The questions for the interviewees should not be too difficult for them. 3) There should not be too much motion in the video, and the scenes should not be sequenced too fast etc. A senior student's video about the sports center in the College was quite professional, including all kinds of different sports center locations and variety interviews. While the students were sharing comments, the professor gave her own timely and insightful comments. This type of class was a truly student-centered class. Students took total control over their learning by tackling a realistic situation through a creative digital story. The teacher served as a coach and facilitator.

As in a traditional writing class, some students fear multimedia writing or feel distress. But when students are using digital stories to record those valuable experiences in their life, they change their perception of writing. It seems they are not writing to finish the teacher's assignment, but to present their stories to other people or even to the world if they post the story on the social media. I felt that the students in this course had positive and active attitudes towards the digital storytelling project and they felt proud to share their stories in public. The digital storytelling approach applied in this course also helped the students to gain confidence in study, especially in writing.

When it came to the final draft of the digital storytelling project, the professor assigned groups to help the students to polish their projects from the original draft. Each group had three to four students. Each student had an independent role. Studies have proven that "students who work together on long-term projects are less likely to be absent. They also develop cooperation and communication skills, practice problem-solving and critical-thinking skills and improve their test scores."[4] This model of project-based digital storytelling approach can be described in Figure 1.

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[4] Tell a Story, Become a Lifelong Learner. http://www.learning-v.jp/dst/images/microsoft.pdf
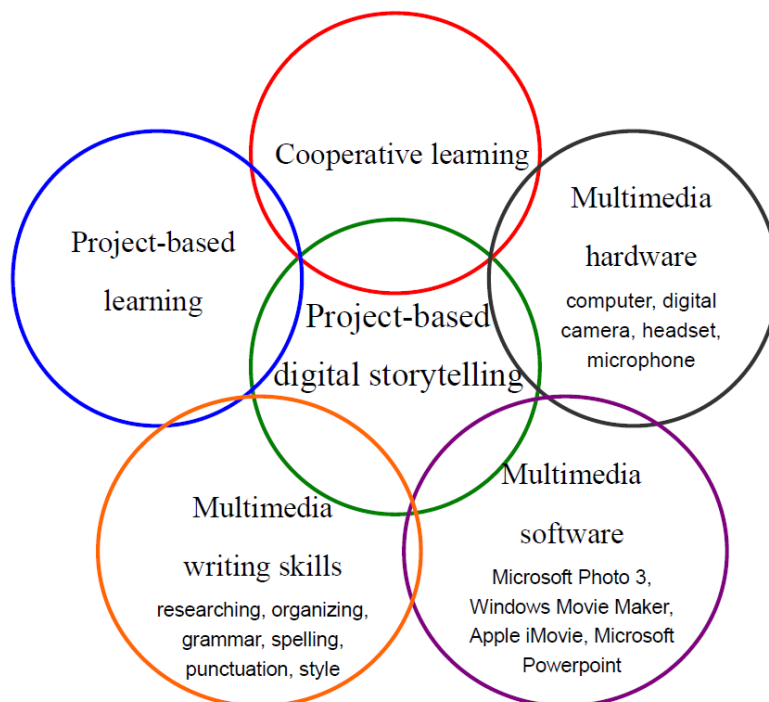
Figure 1. Model of Project-based Digital Storytelling Approach in a Multimedia Feature Writing Course

In this model, digital storytelling is a team project-based approach; it helps students to practice cooperative learning. Students in a group cooperate with each other to finish a digital storytelling project. Students have diverse skills. Some are good at writing skills, so they take the role of writing the script. Some are good at operating hardware, so they take the role of video shooting. Some are good at operating software, so they take the role of editing the video by some software. Some are good at narrating, so they take the role of narrators. In a group, students are not competitors, they are teammates. Students cooperate and discuss the project and responsibilities with each other in order to achieve the tasks without the professor's controlling the class. Students are the center of the activities while the professor is the organizer, guide, facilitator and helper. Students can learn from each other and meanwhile they feel no pressure, thus their enthusiasm, confidence and critical thinking abilities are built, which undoubtedly will motivate their autonomous learning.

When the final digital stories of students' group project were presented in class, we could see that their final products were much better than their first products. The professor gave high praise to each group of students. The professor also showed the students an excellent example of multimedia feature writing. It's an article titled with *Norway the Slow Way* on the website New York Times. In this article, the author used multiple media to present the content to the readers: words, charts, pictures, moving image/pictures, videos, animated maps, moving words and so on. Students were encouraged to learn and apply those advanced skills such as animation, moving words in their own multimedia feature writing.

VI. CONCLUSION

This article has traced the concept of digital storytelling and multimedia feature writing, the theoretical foundations of digital storytelling, and the application fields of digital storytelling. This study contributes to the literature on application in the field of digital storytelling in the multimedia feature writing in three particular ways. First, it has analyzed the reasons why digital storytelling and multimedia writing are appealing to the Net generation. Second, it has provided a practical application of the digital storytelling approach in a multimedia feature writing course through a project-based storytelling model. This article argues that a team project-based approach can foster students' abilities to search for and compile the information, analyze and solve the problem, communicate and cooperate with others. In the process of searching for the right information to suit the topic of their digital storytelling project, students have to critically assess the information they have found, rather than trust it without question. This process has transformed students to become critical thinkers and creative problem solvers.

The Net generation in the new digital age is telling their own stories in their own way by using digital cameras, pictures, music, words, and other new technologies. Thanks to Web 2.0, the Net generation can use Facebook, Twitter, Wechat to write multimedia stories and have interaction with the readers. Now professors can assign students multimedia homework, such as digital storytelling, blogs, or even web pages. In recent years, International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) standards have been widely adopted for teaching, learning and leading in the increasingly global and digital society. The ISTE standards for students include "creativity and innovation",

"communication and collaboration", "research and information fluency", and "critical thinking, problem solving and decision making".[5] These standards emphasize the importance of training students' creativity and multimedia narrative ability. To meet these standards, cultivating students' "creatical thinking" ability is very important. "Creatical thinking" is a way to "blend creativity and critical thinking" (Ohler, 2013, p. xiii). This study has asserted that the digital storytelling approach is a positive applicable approach in transforming students to become creative and critical multimedia narrators. This has great implications on establishing a new curriculum core and carrying out researching-based learning.

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An Analysis of Iranian EFL Learners' English Written Requestive E-mails

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Abstract—**Electronic mail is one of the widely used medium for institutional communication particularly in academic institutions. The main focus of this study was determining requesting strategies and mitigating elements used by the Iranians' EFL learners in English written requestive e-mails to their professors. This study also determined opening and closing strategies and supportive moves. To this aim, 61 e-mail were collected using DCT and analyzed by means of CCSARP (Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Pattern) coding scheme. The results showed that Iranian students, under the effect of L1 norms, used more direct strategies and to soften the force of requests they tended to use mitigating elements and pre-request supportive moves. It had been concluded that Iranian EFL students have lack of pragmatic knowledge; therefore, it is necessary to make them aware of norms of requestive e-mails written by English native speakers.**

Index Terms—**requestive e-mail, requesting strategies, opening and closing strategies, supportive moves, CCSARP**

I. INTRODUCTION

Internet is one of the most remarkable inventions of human beings in communication. It developed in 1960s in the USA and rapidly infuses in all domains of human life. Today internet is one of the most widely used medium of communication. It regards as a channel which moves the barriers of distance and time and facilitates people's communication. Whatever the medium of communication is it affects the way people use language to communicate. In general, discourse is affected by the medium. "Discourse in one medium may be more complex syntactically, have more words, be more cohesive or cohesive in different way and have a different kind of macrostructure, or perhaps less structure, and so on" (Johnstone, 2008, p. 209). In other words, discourse in one medium is different from discourse in another medium. Medium of communication affects the text style. With the advent of the computer technology, various medium of communication are created including synchronous (e.g. chat, instant messaging) and asynchronous mediums (e.g. electronic mail). Each of these computer- mediated communications has its own structure of text. Electronic mail (e-mail), electrically mediated modes of communication, is one of the widely used medium for both interpersonal and institutional communication particularly in academic institutions (Crystal, 2006).

Persons perform various speech acts like requests, apologies, questions, orders, and greetings in their daily life. Request as one of the realization of speech acts attracted lots of attention. The present study is an analysis of Iranians' EFL learners' English written requestive e-mails to their professors.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Communication by e-mail has become increasingly common place and important in corporate and institutional environment (Gians, 1999). As a result of increasing interest in email communication, numerous studies have been produced which have looked at emails as texts and have provided detailed descriptions of the nature and features of the language of email. Previous studies on e-mail have focused on a variety of aspects including the layout, structural components, style, and linguistics (Ho, 2010). For example, in an investigation into e-mail genre, Amirian and Tahririan (2003) found significant differences between emails and conventional letters regarding the strategies and lexico-grammatical features.

Theoretical framework of the present study are speech acts theory and politeness theory. Speech acts theory was developed by J.L Austin in 1962 and expanded by Searle in 1969. According to speech act theory, when we say something we are performing an act. Austin (1975) defines speech acts as conventional acts that we perform with language including requesting, asking, greeting, advising, thanking. J.L Searle classified speech acts into five categories. Searle proposed that all speech acts fall into one of these five main categories (cited in Saeed, p. 228).

These five categories are: representatives (e.g. asserting, concluding), directives (e.g. requesting, questioning), commissives (e.g. promising, threatening, offering), expressives (e.g. thanking, congratulating), and declarations (e.g. excommunicating, declaring, marrying).

Requesting is a common act performed by human beings. Therefore, the study of requesting behavior has attracted much attention. Request is one attempt by a speaker to get the hearer do what he wants him to do. According to Searle's (1979) classification of speech acts, requests fall under the category of directives. "These speech acts embody an effort on the part of the speaker to get the hearer to do something toward some goals" (May, 2001, p. 120). Requests are face-threatening acts (FTAs) based on Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987). In other words, requests threat the addressee's face. Politeness is an expression of the speaker's intention to diminish face threats carried by certain face threatening speech acts toward another (Mills, 2003, p. 6). According to Brown and Levinson, degree of imposition, relative power, and social distance are determining factors in the level of politeness. Indirectness in requests is related to politeness in the way that indirect strategies are used to mitigate request's face threatening effect on the addressee. Pragmatic politeness theories (e. g., Leech 1983; and Brown and Levinson 1987) suggest a correlation between indirectness and politeness. Most empirical works focus on issues of indirectness and politeness. According to Leech (1983), indirectness implies optionality for the hearer, and the degree of politeness can be increased "by using a more indirect kind of illocution" (p. 108). Blum –kulka, & et al. (1989) identified three levels of directness as followed;

The level of directness

1. Direct level

Mood derivable: utterances in which the grammatical mood of the verb signals illocutionary force

Performatives: utterances in which illocutionary force is explicitly named

Hedged performatives: utterances in which naming of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions

Obligation statements: utterances in which state the obligation of the heaven to carry out the act

Want statements: utterances in which state the speaker's desire that the hearer carries out the act

2. Conventionally indirect level

Suggestory formulate: utterances which contain a suggestion to do sth

Query preparatory: utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions as conventionalized in any specific language

3. Non-conventionally indirect level

Strong hints: utterances containing partial reference to objects or element needed for the implementation of the act

Mild hints: utterances that make no reference to the request proper but are interpretable as requests by context

Empirical research generally supports the broad distinction between three main levels of directness suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987). There has been an increasing amount of investigations on emails of L2 learners to their professors. Numerous studies applied CCSARP coding framework. Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2000) employed the CCSARP coding framework to both NSs' and NNSs' e-mail requests to faculty. The study demonstrated that both NSs and NNSs opted direct and indirect strategies for their requests and the request strategies applied by both groups were approximately similar.

Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) examined requestive e-mail messages to study how native and nonnative English speaking graduate students develop low- and high-imposition requests to faculty. The results demonstrated that more requests were attained through direct strategies while the native speakers utilized more indirect strategies and therefore more e-polite messages to their professors.

Chang and Hsu (1998) applied CCSARP coding framework to investigate the differences between requestive e-mail messages of Chinese learners of English and Native American English speakers. The results indicated that the Chinese learners utilized indirect structures in their requests, while the linguistic forms which they applied were more direct. On the contrary, the Native American English speakers applied direct structures, while their linguistic forms were indirect.

Chen (2001) studied American and Taiwanese graduate students' e-mail requests to their professors. The study included opening features (salutation, greetings and etc…) and closing features (thanks and complementary closing). Findings demonstrated that opening and closing e-mail textual features were not utilized in the same ways by the two groups. Taiwanese and American students applied request strategies in emails that were different from each other. The degree of lexico-syntactic politeness in both groups was different. Native speakers used more indirect structure in their request emails.

Liaw (1996) examined 22 university students in Taiwan to determine the communication strategies (avoidance/reduction, achievement/compensatory, time-gaining/stalling devices) utilized by EFL learners and native speakers of English in e-mail interactions. The findings demonstrated that the NNSs have used most of communicative strategies which were commonly used in verbal communication.

Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010) examined the status-unequal requests of 95 ESL learners and 92 British English native speaker students. The requests were provoked by a written discourse completion task. They observed remarkable differences in all dimensions which were analyzed: internal and external modification and perspective. The results showed that learners' overuse zero marking in internal modification and overuse preparators in supportive moves. Native speakers used more requests applying impersonal perspective and a range of mitigating, elliptical and formulaic devices.

Hashemian (2014) investigated applying requestive speech act by Iranian nonnative speakers (NNSs) of English and Canadian native speakers (NSs) of English**. CCSARP was utilized to observe the possible similarities and/or differences between the request, and the influence of the situational variables of power, distance, and etc. Findings demonstrated

that the Canadian culture is indirect and negative politeness oriented, since the Persian culture is more direct and positive-politeness oriented. The results also showed that Iranians utilized more variations in their requests and were more sensitive to power differences.

In line with the above contrastive studies, the present study takes a descriptive view. This study examines the requestive e-mail communication between Iranian EFL learners and their professors. It seeks to provide conceivable answers to the following questions;

1. What kind of level of directness is used by the students in their requestive e-mails?
2. What kinds of mitigators are used by the students in their requestive e-mails?
3. What are opening and closing strategies and supportive moves used by the students in their requestive e-mails?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

20 MA graduated students majoring in teaching English as a foreign language from the university of Guilan were recruited for this study. All of the participants were aged between 25 and 35. The participants consisted of 3 males and 17 females. They were all native speakers of Persian. The participants were selected because all of them had been sent e-mail requests to their professors.

B. Data Collection and Data Analysis

In order to collect requestive e-mails, a discourse completion task (DCT) was designed to elicit the data. Participants were asked to provide e-mail requests to their professors according to the following situations. These situations were divided to high imposition situations, asking for the bending of rules, and low imposition situations, asking for routine institutional demands (Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig, 1996).

1- You have to submit your research paper next week. However. You will be very busy this week and don't have enough time to prepare it for submission. You send an e-mail to your professor and ask for more time.

2- You are conducting a research paper. You need someone to guide you. You believe that one of the professors is the most appropriate person to advice you. So, you send an e-mail to the professor and ask for advice.

3- You need some reference books in order to complete your thesis. These books are not available on the internet and you cannot afford for them. You send an e-mail to your professor and ask for those reference books.

4- You are sick and unfortunately you make use of your possible absence. You send an e-mail to your professor and ask for a leave because of illness.

Totally 61 e-mail requests were collected from the participants. The number of e-mail letters for each kinds of requesting were as followed, requesting for an extension of paper submission day was the most frequent letters (18), following borrowing books (16), asking for extra guidance (15), and the least frequent one was asking for an absence because of illness. All the e-mail requests were made from a lower-status addressor (student) to a higher-status addressee (professor) in academic settings. In order to analyze e-mail data the typology of request patterns developed within the CCSARP project by Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) were used. The CCSARP organized requesting strategies in three categories including directness level, internal and external modifications. In the current study, first, the head acts were classified based on the levels of directness and then using descriptive statistics, the number and the percentage of request strategies used by the students were identified. After that, head acts were analyzed regarding internal modification (syntactical, lexical, and discoursal down towners) and external modification (pre- and post-request supportive moves) features. At the end, opening and closing strategies were also analyzed.

IV. RESULTS

A. Head Act Strategies

Table 1 presents request strategies used by the learners. Conventionally direct strategies were the most frequently used strategies by the learners (72.1%), conventionally direct strategies was the next frequently used strategies (27.9). None of the students used non-conventionally indirect strategies.

TABLE I.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF HEAD ACT STRATEGIES

Request strategies	Frequency	Percentage	Subdivision of request strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Conventionally Direct Strategies	44	72.1	Mood derivable	10	16.4
			Performatives	6	9.8
			Hedged performatives	16	26.2
			Obligation statements	2	3.3
			Want statements	10	16.4
Conventionally Indirect Strategies	17	27.9	Suggestory formulate	0	0.0
			Query preparatory	17	27.9
Non-conventionally Indirect Strategies	0	0	Strong hints	0	0
			Mild hints	0	0
Total	61	100		61	100

B. Mitigating Elements

Table 2 shows the frequencies and percentages of the mitigators used by the students to mitigate the imposition of requests. According to the table, syntactic modifiers had been used more often (59.0), following discoursal modifiers (31.1), and lexical modifiers (9.8%).

TABLE II.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF MITIGATORS

Mitigation elements	Frequency	Percentage	Forms of mitigators	Frequency	Percentage
Syntactic	36	59.0	Past tense modal verb forms	17	27.9
			Conditional verb forms	6	9.8
			Embedding	13	21.3
Lexical	6	9.8	Please	4	6.6
			down toners	1	1.6
			Introductory phrases	1	1.6
Discoursal	19	31.1	Apology	4	6.6
			Sweeteners	3	4.9
			Preparators	10	16.4
			Supportive reasons	2	3.3
Total	61	100		61	100

C. Opening Strategies

Table 3 presents the frequencies and the percentages of opening strategies used by the students. As can been seen from the table, 77.0% of the students wrote salutation, 18.9% wrote self introduction, 2.7% wrote phatic communication, and 1.4% wrote formal address term.

TABLE III.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF OPENING STRATEGIES

Opening Strategies	Frequency	Percentage	Forms of opening	Frequency	Percentage
Formal address term	1	1.4	Title + last name	1	1.4
Salutation	57	77.0	Dear professor	20	27.8
			Dear + title + last name	6	8.3
			Hello + Dr + last name	6	8.3
			Hello/hi dear…	23	31.9
			Others	2	2.8
Self introduction	14	18.9	Name only	0	0.0
			Name and background information	14	19.4
Phatic communication	2	2.7			
Total	74	100		74	100

D. Closing Strategies

Table 4 presents the frequencies and percentages of closing strategies used by the learners. According to the table, the most frequently used closing strategies was 39.8%, following complementary close (34.1%), and sender's name (26.1%).

TABLE IV.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF CLOSING STRATEGIES

Closing strategies	Frequency	Percentage	Forms of closing	Frequency	Percentage
Thanking	35	39.8	Thank you (very much, so much)	11	16.9
			Thanks a lot/ in advance	18	27.7
			Thank you for...	6	9.2
Complementary close	30	34.1	With best regards	8	12.3
			Sincerely	15	23.1
			Regards	5	7.7
			Faithfully	2	3.1
Sender's name	23	26.1			
Total	88	100		88	100

E. Supportive Moves

Table 5 shows the frequencies and percentages of supportive moves. As it can been seen from the table, pre-request move (4705), post request move (24.5), and both the pre- and post-request moves (27.9) were the most frequently used supportive moves respectively.

TABLE V.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF SUPPORTIVE MOVES

Kinds of Supportive Moves	Frequency	Percentage
Pre-request move	29	47.5
Post-request move	15	24.5
Both pre- and post- moves	17	27.9

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study was designed to determine the requestive strategies used by EFL learners in English request e-mails written to their professors. Head acts were being concentrated on in the study while opening strategies, closing strategies, and supportive moves were studied peripherally. The results of this study show that the most frequently used request strategies was conventionally direct strategies including hedged performatives (26.2%), mood derivable (16.4%), want statements (16.4%), performatives (9.8%), and obligation statements (3.3%). The other request strategies were conventionally direct strategies including query preparatory (27.9%). Non- conventionally direct strategies had not been used at all. Students had used mitigators in order to reduce the imposition of requests such as past tense modal verb forms (27.9%), following embedding (21.3%), preparators (16.4%), conditional verb forms (9.8%), please (6.6%), apology (6.6%), sweeteners (4.9%), supportive reasons (3.3%), down toners and introductory phrases (1.6%). As mentioned, request is considered as a face threatening act and indirectness in requests is related to politeness in the way that indirect strategies are used to mitigate request's face threatening effect on the addressee. According to Brown and Levinson, the more the degree of indirectness, the more politeness is (1987). In addition to unequal status, the relationship between the students and their professors were not so friendly; therefore it was expected that the students choose more various indirect strategies. Contrary to expectations, Iranian EFL learners tend to use conventionally direct strategies in their request e-mails (72.1%) while for native English apeakers politeness has a direct relationship with indirectness (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Using more direct strategies than indirect strategies does not mean that Iranian EFL learners are impolite in their requests to a higher-status addressee (professor). A possible explanation for this result might be that students' lack of pragmatic knowledge in addressing someone in higher status leads to the more use of conventionally direct strategies. In other words, although the requests were grammatically right, they were situationally wrong, and it may be caused by lack of sociopragmatic knowledge. Iranian EFL students may be not aware of English cultural norms when using English language. In spite of this, the students used syntactic, discoursal, and lexical mitigating elements respectively to diminish the imposition of their requests and/or to enhance politeness of their requests. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Jalilifar (2009), and Hashemian (2014) who found that Iranian EFL students tend to use more direct strategies in their requestive e-mails.

The minor findings of the study are related to opening and closing strategies and overall supportive moves. Among opening strategies, salutation (77%) was the most frequently used opening strategies followed by self introduction (18.9%), phatic communication (2.7%), and formal address term (1.45). It is notable that Iranian EFL learners did not used formal address term to address a professor that they have already knew him or her. But they may use salutation ('dear…', 'hello dear…') as a politeness strategy. In 14% of the e-mail letters, students introduced themselves and gave brief background information. Most of these letters were requests addressed unfamiliar professors; therefore, introducing themselves may be related to the degree of their familiarity with the addressees rather than as a politeness strategy. The last point is that students were not interested in the use of phatic communication inquiries (e.g. how are you?) and this is a personal preference not a strategy. Among the most frequently used closing strategies were also thanking (39.8%), complementary close (34.1%), and sender's name (26.1%) respectively. In the case of thanking, most thanks did not indicate the reason for which the students thanked the professors. At the close of 23% of request e-mails, students wrote their name. It seems that it is not an expression of politeness. Among the supportive moves, pre-request

move (47.5%), post request move (24.5%), and both pre- and post-request moves (27.9%) were the most frequently used supportive moves respectively. According to the data Iranian EFL students showed a tendency to delayed requestive purposes. In other words they used more pre-request supportive moves specially grounder (e.g. giving reason and providing explanations for requests). It seems that Iranian EFL students are affected by L1 norms in L2 request e-mails because in Persian, they use more pre-request supportive moves in letters to soften the imposition of their requests. It has been concluded that Iranian EFL learners are affected by their L1 when writing English written request e-mails. In other words, it shows their lack of sociopragmatic knowledge. Therefore, it is necessary for them to be taught about L2 socio-cultural norms used in requestive e-mails.

VI. LIMITATIONS

This study was limited in several ways. First, it was limited in scope, involving a few numbers of participants and e-mails; so the results are not generalizable. Second, the study just examined requestive e-mails and other sorts of speech acts including questioning, apologizing, thanking … were excluded. This study was also limited to one medium of communication (asynchronous medium: electronic mail). The other limitation is that, this study did not compare requestive e-mails written by English native speakers and non-native speakers (Persian speakers). Finally, although in this study there were two kinds of requests including high and low imposition requests, the relationship between the degree of imposition and the degree of directness was not considered.

For further research, it would be good to analyze more requestive e-mails in order to be able to generalize the findings. It has been suggested to analyze other sorts of speech acts in e-mails, to analyze different kinds of speech acts in different medium of communication such as chat and instant messaging, and to compare e-mails written by English native speakers and non-native speakers and find differences in details. It would be also interesting to find textual and discoursal differences in emails considering students' language proficiency and gender.

VII. PEDEGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Although the current study is based on a small sample, the findings suggest the importance of pragmatic knowledge of Iranian EFL students. Pragmatics explains the way that people use language in different (cultural, social, religious, professional etc.) context (May, 2001). Language and culture are closely related. Therefore, teaching a foreign language is not separable from teaching its cultural and social norms. Different cultures have different ways of expressing meaning. Regarding request speech act, as a face-threatening act, different cultures have different face saving strategies. According to May (2001) "… speech acts need to be put into their cultural and stylistic context in order to be evaluated properly" (p. 280). An important pedagogical implication of the study is that teachers must pay more attention to pragmatic knowledge and try to inform students about the appropriate request behaviors used by English native speakers. It is necessary for students to be aware of English socio-cultural norms of speech act realizations. As founded, Iranian EFL learners under the effect of Persian produce inappropriate request behaviors. So, teachers must concern teaching culture along with teaching language. The other pedagogical implication of the study is the importance of representing students with more pragmatic focused and culture oriented materials. Textbooks do not emphasize on pragmatic aspect of language. EFL/ESL tests also frequently emphasize structure rather than pragmatics. So, the learners demonstrate imbalance between their grammatical and pragmatic knowledge.

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Study on Factors Affecting Learning Strategies in Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—**This paper presents the literature on reading competence and analyzes the influence of factors on students' strategy use. The necessity of integrating social and individual factors in the studies of learning strategy, especially individual factors affecting the improvement of reading competence is made explicit, and this is followed by the description of situational factors and individual factors such as motivation, age, sex, personality and so on.**

Index Terms—**factors, learning strategies, reading comprehension**

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning strategies can promote student's study including reading comprehension. The reader's background, classroom tasks and strategies he employs are among the major factors. Reading is by far one of the most important means of learning a second language. The process of reading is complicated. There are many factors that affect reading comprehension. The reader's background, classroom tasks and strategies he employs are among the major factors. During the reading process, the reader uses different kinds of strategy to facilitate comprehension. This paper will discuss the factors that affect the choice of learning strategies in reading comprehension.

II. LEARNING STRATEGY AND READING COMPETENCE

Reading is probably one of the most important means by which we require knowledge or information from the world around us. Thus researchers and teachers have paid much attention to the product rather than the process of reading. That is to say, the attention has been almost exclusively paid to the language to be comprehended rather than to the comprehender. There are three elements of successful reading comprehension: conceptual understanding, automated basic skills and strategies. Conceptual understanding includes knowledge of topics, text schemata and vocabulary. Automated basic skills include word decoding skills and the ability to construct propositions from strings of words. Strategies include varying one's approaches to reading depending upon one's goal and monitoring one's comprehension.

There is such a phenomenon that even if readers occupy the same conceptual understanding and automated basic skills they have different abilities to understand the same passage. Hence, researchers begin to keep their eyes on the learning strategies in reading comprehension. Theories about reading process can be conventionally classified into three major groups: bottom-up, top-down and interactive views of reading. In bottom-up theory, the emphasis is put on the linguistic aspects of the text, including words, phrases, sentences and syntactic structures of the text, the readers' comprehending simply means recognizing each word, phrase and sentence, finally arriving at the understanding of the written text. That's to say, what they should do is build up the small units to large ones, and reconstruct the meaning of text by recognizing the printed letters and words. The shortcoming of bottom-up theory is that if the reader can't understand the meaning of the text, he may not know the meaning of a word, a phrase, etc. In a word, the reader is passively led by the text. Then comes the higher level of top-down theory. Top-down theory is the results of Goodman's famous comment: Reading is a psychological guessing game (Carrel, 1989). Reading is an active process of prediction, selection and confirmation basing on his own background knowledge and the information presented in the text, in other words, with more correct predictions the reader will require less visual perceptual information in the comprehension process, so top-down theory is criticized for causing an over-reliance on background knowledge and neglect of basic text which requires the reader in comprehending. Finally, the interactive theory or schema theory is proposed to balance the above. It combines and expands upon the features of both bottom-up and top-down theory and does this within an information processing analysis of language comprehension. Carrel (2008) suggests a simplified graphic perspective presented as follows:

TABLE 1
A SIMPLIFIED INTERACTIVE PARALLEL PROCESSING SKETCH

		linguistic aspects
		Graphic feature
		Letters
		Words
		Phrases
		Sentences
Reading	Comprehension	Local cohesion
		Paragraph structuring
		Topic of discourse
		Inferencing
		World knowledge
		linguistic aspects
		Graphic feature

However, it is still incomplete. It seems that the theory is too powerful and doesn't exclude any conceivable results. Wenden (2007) divides them into 4 types of strategies. Ellis (2004) classifies them into 4 types while Block's study is more specific, her categories are 2 levels: general strategies and local linguistic strategies.

Different researchers result in almost different finds and therefore different taxonomy of learning strategies in reading comprehension. Since the factors influencing reading are various, it's necessary to take factors into consideration.

III. FACTORS AFFECTING LEARNING STRATEGIES IN READING COMPREHENSION

This section considers the internal process. How the learner deals with input data? It looks at the internal mechanisms, or the "black box". A complete account of SLA involves showing both how the input is shaped, which is concerned about the situational factors and how the learner works on the input to turn it into intake, which is concerned about the individual factors. It's acknowledged that second language learners vary on a number of dimensions to do with school's educational style, age, sex, motivation, learning style, personality and so on. Among them, situational factors and individual factors are the two main ones. A brief introduction of them is as follows to examine the relationship between factors and the use of learning strategy in reading comprehension.

A. Situational Factors

By no means does learning task take place in a vacuum. The importance of the appropriate situational conditions for learning can't be underestimated. We are not able to assess the quality of language learner outside of the contexts in which study occurs. There is no argument that individual factors are not definitely discarded although they are less observable externally than learning situations present to researchers. Characterization of learning situations must be come from research.

a) Second Language and Foreign Language

When we mention situational factors, it is natural for us to think of traditional distinction of two main parts-------second language and foreign language. Second language means that the language is spoken in the community in which it is being learned, while foreign language is not spoken in the local community. Second language learning will refer to the language spoken in the community and will also at times serve as the generic term used to refer to both second and foreign language learning. Foreign language learning will be used to refer exclusively to a situation where the language is not spoken. Ellis also makes a distinction between second language and foreign language: second language plays an institutional and social role in the community; in contrast, foreign language plays no major role in the community and is primarily learnt only in the classroom (Oxford, 2010).

b) Situational Factors and Reading Comprehension

As the source of variation in the use of learning strategies, Situational factors include many contents among which classroom setting, teaching methods and tasks etc. are the most influential.

It is found that there are a number of differences between the learning strategies used by learners in a classroom and in a natural setting. After studying the classroom learners we find that the classroom learners mention social/affective strategies infrequently. What causes such phenomenon? It is likely that in many classrooms the kind of method affords little opportunity for the use of social/affective strategies. Another reason is maybe that learners pay more attention to metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies and that rarely use social/affective strategies.

What mentioned above has an indirect impact on learning strategy use in reading comprehension. Teachers' methodology is directly hooked with the uses of learning strategies. For example, if a teacher spends much time explaining the use of words, phrases and sentences in extensive reading class, his/her students tend to use bottom-up theory. What they learn is the meanings of words, phrases and sentences and they can't catch the veracity of content. In contrast, if a teacher tends to convey input to students with grammatical teaching method, his/her students undoubtedly make the best of translation strategy.

Research has shown that different tasks which students face decide the different uses of learning strategies. In the task of oral training, students are bound to apply all kinds of verbal strategies. There is evidence that task type has a marked influence on students' use of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies. For instance, reading task leads to

"translation", "elaboration", "inference", "imagination"as cognitive strategies, and to "selective attention", "self-management" and "advance organizer" as metacognitive strategies. The difficulty of task affects directly the learning strategy use. In daily life, when we are reading paper, magazine we needn't get more detailed information, so we needn't read one word by one word, we use skimming. But when we read a monograph on philosophy, we can't use skimming, otherwise, how can we grasp the gist?

Though situational factors don't discreetly play role, they interplay with each other. Learning strategies depend on situational factors greatly. Nonetheless, situational factors only constitute one variant influencing learning strategy use. There are such phenomena that some students learn better than others in the same learning environment and that there are still differences in strategy use in the same context. It is the individual factors that affect the students' use of learning strategies.

B. Individual Factors and Reading Comprehension

Individual differences constitute one source of variation in the use of learning strategies. Individual factors include motivation, learning style, age, cognitive style, intelligence, aptitude, personality, sex, attitude, nationality and learning belief and so on.

a) Motivation

There can be little doubt that motivation is a compelling factor in SLA. Its effects are obviously to be seen on the success of SLA. It seems easy to accept the assumption that learning is mostly likely to occur when we want to learn. However, the concept of motivation is with ease overlapped with other attributes. Thus a crucial but complicated motivation is always the object of research.

Motivation is an important factor in learning strategies. It's necessary to identify the types of motivation that assist in the successful acquisition of a second language. There are two types of motivation---integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation has been identified as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language. When someone becomes a resident in a new society that uses the target language in its social interactions, integrative motivation is a key motivation that promotes the learner to develop that language to operate socially in that society. Oxford (2010) states that integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a native-like pronunciation. Instrumental motivation is normally characterized by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (O'Malley, 2005). Instrumental motivation is a usual characteristic of second language acquisition, when there is little or no social integration of the learner into a society using the target language. Rubin makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivations are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientation strategies (Rubin, 2007).

The strength of motivation can have a conductive effect on the quantity of learning strategies they employ. Oxford (1989) find that "the degree of expressed motivation is the single most powerful influence on the choice of language learning strategies."For instance, learners with strong instrumental motivation of fulfilling course requirements and obtaining good grade in the course are likely to employ formal practice and general study strategies. If a learner learns the target language with the reasons of career, such as conversing with foreign businessmen, he/she must perform communication-oriented strategies. Wen (2001) analyzes the relationship between motivation and learning strategies. Her study indicates that motivation correlates with some strategies significantly and integrative motivation is correlated with strategies more closely. Recent researches in motivation have suggested a reciprocal relationship between motivation and strategy use. Motivation influences the choice of strategies. So in this study, we emphasize on the effects of motivation on learning strategies, especially in reading comprehension.

b) Age

Age is the variable that has been most frequently considered in discussion of individual differences. This is due in part to the ease with which age is measured. In addition to the empirical investigation of age's correlation with the route of SLA, the rate or success of SLA, there are considerable theories about the effects of age on SLA.

It's difficult to compare children with adults as second language learner because of the possible biological differences and different conditions for language learning. An adolescent or adult's formal language is related to cognitive development of an older learner's brain. Older learners are in situations which require much more complicated language. They can go about learning linguistic rules by consciously studying. They have to pay more attention to some rules when they use the language, on the other hand, meta-awareness as younger children don't wholly lack in, they often use informal language and they have little care about the correctness of language use because they think language is only a tool to convey meaning. Rosansky (1976) has debated that cognitive development accounts for the greater ease with which young children learn languages. On account of the absence of meta-awareness in their brains, they see only similarities, lack flexible thinking and are self-centered. Moreover, they have less social pressure on the misuse of language. For the above reasons they are cognitively "open" to another language without blocks. It is automated and unconscious for them to acquire the second language. Older learners are thoroughly opposite. They are sensitive to differences as well as similarities, to think flexibly and become increasingly decentral. They may hold strong social attitude to the target language use. Adults are too timid to naturalize the learning while young children are risk- takers. So there is greater opportunity for young learners to approach the target language by meaning-focused strategies and risk-taking affective strategies and they seldom compensate their inadequency of knowledge on the target language with

the help of their mother tongue. Old learners prefer to form-focused strategies-------memorizing, rehearsing and proneness to cover their weakness in the target language with more communication strategies.

All of these postulations have been substantiated. Young children have been observed to employ strategies in a task-specific manner, but older children and adults use generalized strategies, which they employ more flexibly. Young children's strategies are often simple while adult learners' strategies are more complicated and sophisticated. For example, Holec (1981) finds that "rehearsal" for children consists of rote repetition, while for adults it involves "active, systematic and elaborative procedures. Ehrman (1988) report adults using more sophisticated strategies. These differences may help explain the reason that older children and adults usually learn faster initially than young children, and also why the advantage is more evident in grammar and vocabulary rather than in pronunciation. Learning grammar and vocabulary involves many learning strategies, which are at adults' disposal more flexibly.

c) Learning style

Learning style is individually characteristic, stable and habitual. It is used to describe perceptual individual approaches to learning, i.e. how to perceive, store, retrieve, or recall information. Cognitive style is a branch of learning style. Reid (2009) identifies six major learning style preferences: visual, auditory, tactile, group and individual differences. It is clear that the learning style preferences are not fixed according to the change of teaching environment and other factors. As a result, learning is best when the learning opportunity matches the learner's preference.

Learners' style preferences will influence the kinds of strategies they choose in order to learn new material. Raskin and Karp provide the following description: a field-dependent mode of perceiving, perception is strongly dominated by the overall organization of the surrounding field, and parts of the field are experienced as "fused". In a field-independent mode of perceiving, parts of the field are experienced as discrete from organized ground. For instance, a learner with field-dependent style, when reading, must have a tendency to concentrate on the main idea of written materials, overriding words or phrases. He/she reads extensively, inaccurately answers questions about details, and likes to often learn with peers or consult teachers. On the contrary, a learner with field-independent style tends to reside at the lexical level, deferring his/her comprehension of written materials, learning alone. He/she pays more attention to the meanings of words, phrases and sentences and can't read between the lines and can't cooperate with peers and teachers.

There are another four learning styles used by adults described by Willing: concrete learning style, analytical learning style, communicative learning style and authority-orientated learning style. The description suggests that each style might be associated with different learning style.

d) Personality

It's intuitive to hypothesize the connection of personality with the choice of strategy use. In the point of many language teachers, the personality constitutes a main factor contributing to success or failure in language learning. Researchers investigate considerably the multi-faceted personality traits.

There is immense evidence to prove the close relationship between personality and strategy use. Strong supports that extroverted learners will do better in requiring basic interpersonal communication. Griffiths (1991) holds that introverted learners will do better at developing cognitive academic language ability. However, the relationship between individual traits and reported strategy use is also puzzling in some case. For example, Griffiths, (1991) finds no significant relationship between extrovertion introvertion and proficiency. Researchers have studied several other personalities: empathy, dominance, talkativeness, but they can't find a clearly defined relationship between personality and strategy use. Certainly the major difficulties in studying personality are that the identification and measurement and the test used to measure the personality trait lack validity. Such results suggest that links between personality and strategy use remain to be investigated.

e) Other factors

Variations about individual differences, except the above referred, contain aptitude, inhibition, two hemispheres of a brain, etc. The influence of these factors on choice of strategy use is not as salient as those demonstrated. O'Malley (2005) summarizes that it is not impossible that learners with enhanced decontextualized language skills as one aspect of aptitude will be better able to talk about the used strategies. Oxford (1989) discovers that learners with high conceptual level are good at describing their strategies, while learners with low conceptual levels are not. Bialystok supports that learners' beliefs are not influenced by the aptitude. It is likely that learning strategies are relevant to that part of language aptitude shared with a strong intelligence factor.

Sex differences have also been investigated. It is true in every country that the second languages are more popular school subjects among girls. Oxford (2010) finds that female perform significant better than male on listening comprehension and dialect discrimination task. Bacon shows male and female use learning strategies in reading comprehension differently, male use more translation strategies than female, while female monitor their comprehension more. Furthermore, female use conversation input elicitation strategies more frequently than male, because they were more oriented towards social interaction. Bacon, (1992) concludes that female favor greater overall use of strategies than male. This discovery implies the inclination of using form-focused strategies by female.

Apart from the sex differences, sometimes a link between intelligence and second language learning has been reported. Griffiths (1991) finds that intelligence is related to the development of second language reading, grammar and vocabulary and it is unrelated to oral productive skills, which suggests that intelligence may be a strong factor when it comes to learn less important language analysis and rule learning, while it plays a less important role of communication

and interaction. In the point of objective facts, intelligence will influence the form and the use of learning strategies. The reason is that some learning strategies require higher intelligence level, of course the lower intelligent students will try to use such strategies, finally they have to abandon the strategies because of the not-well results. Wu supports that students with high intelligence level can form simultaneously a set of valuable learning strategies by understanding teacher's explanation and summarize their own experiences, and that students with low intelligence level can obtain mechanically learning strategies through repeating teacher's definite help and explanation and can't use them effectively according to the change of learning task and environment. It is important to keep in mind that intelligence is complex and individuals have many sorts of abilities, not all of which are measured by traditional tests. For instance, when students use advance organizers learning strategies in reading comprehension, they should be so intelligent to formulate some questions before reading, which can help them understand the whole passage. In contrast, students with low intelligence only keep their eyes on the lexical items.

IV. CONCLUSION

A wide range of individual differences have been identified as factors that influence the development and use of learning strategies in reading comprehension. Researchers should take individual factors such as motivation, age, learning style, personality, sex, intelligence differences into account to probe into the nature of strategy use and development. Individual differences are the closest determinants that raise kinds of learners' response. Besides, situational factors like classroom setting, teaching method, task, and so on also contribute to the diverse use of learning strategies. Learners' characteristics are not independent of one another: learners' varieties interact in complex ways, so researchers are not getting a true measure of a factor if it is isolated from all the others. So far researchers know very little about the nature of these complex interactions. It is clear that neither factors operate exclusively nor there is any claim that individual subjective factors have a more profound or more decisive influence than social objective factors or vice versa.

As a matter of fact, the other factors--attitude, learners' belief and proficiency are testified to have association with strategy use as well. The other aim of this chapter is to supply useful insights for strategy-based instruction, for a teacher or a strategy trainer should take these factors into consideration in order to make training effective.

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A Qualitative Study of Iranian EFL University Teachers' Attitude towards Professional Development

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Abstract—Within the past few years, teachers have no longer been conceived as mere transmitters of knowledge. The image of the teacher as the exclusive holder of all the information related to teaching and learning has changed dramatically. It the new context, teachers are supposed to act as transformative agents who pay attention to new aspects of their profession in the process of developing professionally as individuals. In other words, the concept of teachers' professional development (PD) has been recently viewed as a continuous process focusing on planned and systematic activities designed to trigger and enhance their growth. The current status of professional development in Iran, however, is not satisfactory. Summarizing the findings of the interview with the small group of English university teachers, this study attempted to find out the attitudes of participants to PD and discuss the constraints they faced on their way towards PD. Results indicated that a number of impeding factors have influenced the effective implementation of PD policies which need a reoriented and revitalized perspective to make them more compatible with new requirements of the present context.

Index Terms—professional development, effective policies, teachers, constraints

I. INTRODUCTION

Professional development is an important aspect of educational environment. It has been part of teaching since the early days of formal education and refers to academic development of an individual (Trehearn, 2010). Richards (1998) believes that professional development involves teachers' preparation of their own teaching methodology that considers their beliefs, experiences and perceptions of good teaching. More specifically, in Ricahrds and Farrell's words (2005) "It often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review" (p. 4).

During the past few years, many articles have been published focusing on teachers' professional learning and its impact on teacher and students changes (Avalos, 2011). For years, professional development was only considered as "staff development" or "in-service training" programs, focused on providing teachers with suitable materials and information to enhance their teaching knowledge. However, in recent years there has been a shift towards considering professional development as a long-term process including systematic plans to help teachers grow in their profession (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Within this new paradigm, novice teachers receive support from mentors which can subsequently assists them in their problem solving situations and empower them to become reflective practitioners. Invargson (as cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003) makes a similar distinction between the traditional system of professional development known as "in-service training" and the "standard-based" systems where those who involved in professional development play significant roles for both making decisions on major goals and assisting the manipulation of models.

Furthermore, some researchers have indicated that professional development provides all active members of a system with shared activities and responsibilities in which everyone is actively involved in the process of institute or school improvement. Grant (2008) argues that it involves creating a collegial atmosphere which uncovers potential and aptitudes of all members in a supportive context. With regard to multiple roles played by teachers including researcher, administrators or leaders, professional development encompasses the needs of both teachers and students (Light & Calkins, 2008).

Petis (as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002) suggests that approaches to teaching, needs and interest of teachers must be continuously examined to equip them with necessary tools in their professional growth. Such conditions are rarely implemented in Iranian contexts (Sabzian, Ismail, Ismail, & Vajargah, 2013; Rastegar Haghighi Shirazi, Bagheri, Sadighi, & Yarmohammadi, 2013). What is often missing in Iran's educational system is a lack of critical approach toward professional development of teachers in different contexts, which is more noticeable in higher academic levels.

Professional development in Iran focuses on mere curriculum and teachers are neither accustomed to nor given the opportunity to reflect on their teaching curriculum. Richhart (ac cited in Trehearn, 2010) maintains that, "We need to design encounters for teachers in which they can develop their thinking abilities, increase their inclination toward thinking, and become more aware of thinking opportunities in the curriculum…" (p. 216). As such, this study attempts to examine professional development of teachers from their own perspectives by giving them opportunity to discuss the factors that hinder the process of their change and development.

Objectives of the study and research questions

As a major concern in teacher educational programs, professional development of teachers has not been examined sufficiently in educational context of Iran. Consequently, administrators and teachers do not have a right perception of this issue. It can been argued that even in situations where PD is well identified and known, there are certain barriers for its successful implementation. This study seeks to allow teachers a voice to express their opinions, assuming that it can glean new insights into the subject under study. Specifically, it provides insight into the following questions:

1. What are teachers' attitudes about professional development and how they define it in their own words?
2. What are the major obstacles teachers face on their way towards professional development?

Teacher professional development (TPD) has been studied from various perspectives. Many researchers have attempted to shed new light on its various aspects which open new a window to teachers, administrators and even learners. Several characteristics of the new perspective of professional development have been introduced by different studies. For instance, King and Newmann (2000) believe that professional development follows a "constructive" rather than a "transmission-oriented" model which refers to the fact that teachers play an active role by engaging in various tasks like teaching, assessment and reflection. It is also considered as a life-long process which takes place over time (Dudzinski, Roszmann-Millican, & Shank, 2000). Additionally, a teacher is regarded as a reflective practitioner who is assisted by professional development programs in constructing new instructional theories and practices (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). These authors also mention collaborative process as another feature which is attributed to professional development. Although individual work is beneficial in certain cases, fruitful outcomes can be gained when activities are done collaboratively.

Related to PD issues, a great part of the responsibility is undertaken by proper administrative policies. Trehearn (2010) believes that administrators are in charge of providing the most effective professional development plans for their teachers. Rogers and Webb (1991) maintain that, "Often teacher education focus on the set of skills to be learned and ignores the development of educational and ethical decision making, thus missing the heart of the work teachers do" (p. 176). In accordance with Rogers and Webb, Knight (2002) states that even in case of having imposed sets of policies by administrators, any PD agendas should be prioritized with teachers' needs and preferences. This is due to the fact that applicability of PD mainly relies on teachers' beliefs and values. Teachers must have a voice in their professional development and choose what to learn for their own. In this regard, the role of administrative policies is inevitable (Drago- Severson & Pinto, 2006). Administrators need to engage in an open and reflexive dialogue with their teachers as the most important factor in determining the efficacy of their implemented policies (Reeves, 2006). Furthermore, once the relationship between teachers and administrators is established, a positive attitude toward PD will be developed among teachers.

The existing literature reveals that not any learning practice results in proper development of teachers. The fundamental professional learning activities like keeping updated, experimentation, reflective practice and innovation empower teachers and allow changes more rapidly (Kwakman, 2003). Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace and Thomas (2006) state the importance of collaboration, collegiality, and shared values as cornerstones of TPD. In line with their findings, Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009) suggest a more collaborative approach toward continuous PD rather than an individual endeavor which is specially designed for promoting positive changes in teachers' attitudes, providing a means for critical evaluation, enhancing learners' understanding and promoting collegiality. O' Hara and Pritchard (2008) also argue that activities should be interactive, collaborative and motivate participants to be constructors of knowledge rather than sole receivers of information.

Guskey (2003) believes that it is not possible to apply one approach to PD that fits all situations. He states that there are differences in school administrators, teachers and students which can in turn influence professional development processes and affect the qualities that plays a role in its effectiveness. He also spotlights self-evaluation and continuous professional development as necessary requirements for analysis of students' performance.

A number of characteristics of high-quality teacher professional development have been introduced by some researchers. Briman, Desimone, Garet, and Porter (2000) suggest some features including "content-based" professional development program that considers students prior knowledge and its relationship to the content. They further emphasize the "extended" nature of PD as a continuous process that requires substantial involvement with subject of the study and creating more opportunities for active involvement in learning. Another element is the "inquiry-based" approach that refers to the consistency between professional development and teachers' goals, standards and any reforming plan. These researchers mention inquiry-based PD as a fundamental factor that promotes ongoing meaningful learning and reflection. In another study done by King and Newmann (2000), "teacher-driven" professional development has been identified as another component highlighting the importance of responding to teachers' self-recognized needs and interest which can contribute to the development of individuals and organizations.

Dunne (2002) makes another classification for effective professional development. The first idea expresses that it should be "driven by a vision of the classroom" which means that the content of such programs must consider the interrelatedness between students' learning, academic content and pedagogical practice. Additionally, it needs to examine the relevance of any new knowledge to both teacher and students' interests. The second point promotes the idea of developing "teacher leadership" which allows teachers to have authoritative role similar to administrators. Undoubtedly, this is something assumed to be attributed to those in high power positions. However, PD can play an important role in influencing and sustaining teacher leadership to a great extent. Finally, to have its positive impact, PD must have connections to the system within which it is applied. In other words, professional development plans might not bring about any effective changes unless they have "links to the system".

Villegas-Reimers (2003) believes that professional development has an impact on teachers, students' learning and the success of educational reform. In case of teachers, PD can have a crucial influence on teachers' work especially in terms of their beliefs and behaviors. Cobb (2000) indicates that teacher practice and beliefs follow a dialectic route which can be changed in the process of classroom teaching. In addition, professional development affects the way teachers decide on their classroom goals which can subsequently direct their behaviors. In congruence with Villegas-Reimers, Borko and Putnam (as cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003) state that PD can also play a crucial role in changing materials used by teachers which can affect students' learning positively. Students' learning can be promoted as a result of sufficient professional knowledge of teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1999). He further ascertains that "investments in teachers' knowledge and skills net greater increases in students' achievements [in the United States] than other uses of an education dollar" (p. 21). Related to the third factor, there is a reciprocal relationship between educational reform and professional development. However, some educational reforms neglect the impact of teachers and their professional development on the curriculum planning. They do not consider teachers' role helpful in implementing reforms or designing PD programs. In such situations, teachers feel resented and disrespectful. In fact, the changes that occur in the system act as obstacles which hinder teachers' growth and development. In spite of all the above findings which emphasize the importance of professional development program and its significant role in different aspects of educational system, Ur (as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002) argue that "English teaching has not reached the level of professionalism yet" (p. 391) and more studies need to be conducted to assist teachers to obtain the proper level of professional knowledge and also implement it in their everyday teaching practice.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Participants of the present study were 9 English faulty members of Marvdasht Azad University holding MA. or PhD. degrees in English language teaching and translation. All of them had at least eight years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language and took part in the study voluntarily to share their personal experiences on professional development of teachers.

B. Instrument

To figure out teachers' level of understanding about the phenomenon under investigation, data were collected using a structured form of interview. This form of interview was used to ensure that all interviewees were asked the same sets of questions in the same order which can also increase the reliability of the data. In fact, as stated by Lindlof and Taylor (2002) qualitative structured interview is scheduled to enhance the reliability and validity of the findings.

C. Procedures

Participants of the study were formally requested to attend the interview session which was held at the English teachers' office of Marvdasht University. The interview took place in a cite with minimal distractions. All of the teachers were interviewed separately with no time limit. They were given ample time to reflect on each research questions which were prepared in advance and express their ideas freely. It is worth mentioning that subjects of the study were assured of anonymity and confidentiality of their answers.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

All interview sessions were tape-recorded with the permission given by participants and immediately transcribed verbatim. The transcribed data were later interpreted and reduced into major and recurrent codes. The researchers used thematic analysis to develop themes and categories which were similar in meaning. After the categories had been identified, the codes were finally assigned into ten separate sets and the final themes were gained after intensive analysis and investigation.

IV. FINDINGS

After analyzing the first research question, the following categories emerged from the participants' responses.
Ambiguous nature of professional development

Participants of the study did not have a unanimous opinion of this concept. Some viewed professional development in a traditional way. It was considered as a means of increasing their competence regarding 'what' and 'how' of teaching:

"I personally think that I can develop professionally by passing some teaching courses or reading several books".

"PD means the alignment of one's own teaching with a predetermined curriculum administrated by educational authorities. It doesn't move further. My lesson plans deal with obligatory requirements (the syllabus and course book) and the sources available".

On the other hand, some teachers regarded PD as a more active process while they confessed facing certain constraints in the implementation of specific strategies in their classroom:

"To me, PD occurs when a teacher is able to match his teaching practice with learners' needs. I always take supplementary materials with me to the classroom. I feel that students need more practice for better understanding. However, this is not practical mainly because of washback effects of tests given at the end of each semester.

One of the interviewees talked about time constraint as a major barrier:

"I'm very much interested in doing extra work in the class. From my experience, I can say that never everything happens as we plan. Sometimes there is a need to adapt or even omit parts of lesson plans and adjust it to the needs of the students. However, the time allowed limits teachers' actions and decisions".

Context-bound quality of PD

Most of the participants believe that the professional development activities that yield success in foreign countries are not applicable in Iran's context:

"Teachers are not usually accustomed to adopt themselves with the latest findings and changes within professional development frameworks in other countries".

"Contextual variables that affect teaching settings are not usually embedded in professional development plans. Copying the models used in other countries, particularly the western communities, are mostly impractical, if not ineffective".

Another teacher commented:

"It's not possible to develop professionally when you teach in a context which hasn't been designed for your own students right from the beginning".

The conflict between the collaborative essence of PD and teachers' individualistic preferences

The culture of collaboration has not been given prominence by teachers. They resist anything that interferes negatively or contradicts with their classroom practices:

"I usually tend to use my own sets of principles in the class. I don't see any benefits in sharing ideas with my colleagues".

Teachers did not like to accept ideas proposed by others:

"I don't feel comfortable adopting others' ideas for my own. It usually seems subjective".

"Teachers can only share their professional learning at break times. There is no opportunity for further inquiry…and even if it is done, teachers react defensively".

The second question that focused on the barriers to the implementation of effective PD, revealed the following sets of categories:

Workshops focus on generic issues

Participants of the study did not consider workshops to be effective in their professional development:

"Most workshops I attended were run by unprofessional leaders who were not experienced enough in the subject under investigation. As a result, it wasn't possible to gain much".

Although workshops are one of the most effective forms of PD activities (Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001), they have not been practical in Iran's educational context:

"Usually a large number of participants attend a workshop which limits the active involvement of the members and their equal sharing of ideas".

Chappuis, Chappuis, and Stiggins (2009) described traditional workshops as ineffective due to the large amount of content covered, unfavorable learning atmosphere and non-reflective behavior of workshops instructors. One teacher particularly mentioned that outdated topics of workshops as their major shortcoming:

"I don't think that the topics presented in workshops are relevant to current needs of teachers and students. New ideas should be incorporated to make workshops more effective".

Lack of cooperation and collegiality

Interviewees' responses revealed absence of cooperation among colleges and teachers. This is while administrators in different educational settings have recognized that improvement cannot be attained unless the element of collaboration is included within the system (Engestrom & Danielson, 2006; Lowden, 2006).

"It is important for teachers to build community of connections. Otherwise, no goals will be achieved".

"I believe, teachers can learn from one another when a culture of collaboration exists among them".

PD can help teachers work together to improve the quality of education. This requires empowering them with enough knowledge to satisfy the ever-changing needs of both educational environments and diverse groups of students (Brand, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008).

Unfamiliarity with technology

The role of technology has been overlooked in professional development of Iranian teachers. Participants expressed their insufficient technical knowledge as an element which hampers the way to their professional development:

"Understanding technology hasn't been recognized as a necessary requirement for teachers' development and hence, it has not been prioritized".

Another teacher mentioned:

"Comprehensive tutorials on effective use of online sources can help us develop professionally and integrate more of technology into our classes".

High costs

Teachers believe that having an effective and well-organized PD costs high. As Birman et al. (2001), stated high quality professional development needs money twice as much as the districts spend for each teacher. One teacher claimed that:

"Due to the high costs of PD, sufficient budget becomes a critical issue to deal with".

According to Trehearn (2010), materials and technological equipment are expensive and it is not necessary to make the best of available facilities.

"Unfortunately, our university doesn't use its limited resources properly, let alone implementing new technological devices or instructional materials".

Absence of correlation between teachers' knowledge and their actions in the classroom

What teachers learn does not necessarily reflect in their teaching. Participants reported their dissatisfaction with the mismatch between the acquired knowledge and their actual instructional practice:

"Teachers need to be trained in a way to meet the needs of different groups of learners in various situations. Regrettably the courses that I've passed, didn't prepared me to meet unpredictable challenges of the classroom".

"My theoretical knowledge is not applicable in real situations…this is a serious threat to professional development… the information that I have gained through years doesn't help me much".

Ineffective administrative policies

Administrative policies in Iran fail to empower teachers with effective professional development activities. Chappuis et al. (2009), argue that administrators need to be trained extensively to apply the principles of PD appropriately. One of the teachers particularly commented:

"Administrators should play the role of effective experts who find and solve the problems emerged in educational environment".

Carroll (2009) suggested a more collaborative approach provided by administrators which enables teachers to form groups. This can result in better students' learning.

"Administrative policies are seldom effective in creating the culture of collegiality and cooperation among teachers".
Other participants focused on different aspects of the issue:

"Teachers need financial support given by administrators to develop professionally".

"Enough time should be allotted to different PD programs. The training courses designed by administrators should be considered as a crucial part of teachers' working hours".

"Although some training courses are predicted for teachers to attend, most of them appeared to be ineffective".

Teachers' dedicated time to PD

Teachers do not usually show any tendency to spend time for PD beyond their teaching hours (Birman et al., 2001). One of the participants stated:

"I can hardly find time to spend on PD".

Another teacher mentioned that most PD programs are long-term and usually incorporated throughout the academic year:

"I prefer to participate in short-term professional development programs, those held during summer or at the end of semester".

The categorized codings can be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 1:
SUMMARY OF FACTORS INFLUENCING TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Themes	Categories
Management issues	• Unfamiliarity with technology • High costs • Ineffective administrative policies • Teachers' dedicated time to PD
Pedagogical concerns	• Ambiguous nature of professional development • Context-bound quality of PD • The conflict between the collaborative essence of PD and teachers' individualistic preferences • Lack of cooperation and collegiality
Management/Pedagogical	• Workshops focus on generic issues • Absence of correlation between teachers' knowledge and their actions in the classroom

The relationship between the themes can be also illustrated in the following figure:
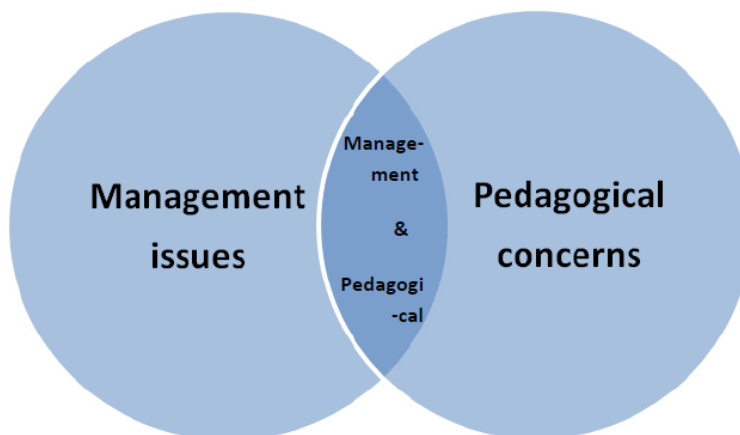

Figure 1: thematic structure that emerged from coding data

V. DISCUSSION

As indicated by the results, a few participants of the study stated prioritizing of students' needs, interests and preferences as the key qualities of good language teacher. Furthermore, they represented dominant attitude in the classroom which emerged from their own experience as teachers or students.

On the other hand, some interviewees believed that although the above mentioned factors are important for successful language teacher, there is a need to look for other ways to develop professionally. This requires showing willingness to others' views and perspectives related to the way of promoting professionally which can be achieved individually or in collaboration with a colleague. As indicate by King and Newmann (2000), "teacher learning is most likely when teachers collaborate with professional peers, both within and outside of their schools and when they gain further expertise through access to external researchers and program developers"(p. 576).

In the last few years, proper policies implemented by administrators have influenced teachers' professional development significantly (Darling-Hammond, 1996). However, this issue has not been recognized in Iran's educational context. Administrators have not realized the importance of sharing responsibilities with teachers who are considered as the most important elements within PD framework. Teachers must be encouraged and inspired to take part in professional development sessions on a continuous basis and evaluate their own understanding by sharing feedback with colleagues which can guarantee the success of PD. The findings indicated that proper administrative policies were one of the greatest desires of the participants. It is worth mentioning that administrators need to include the PD content which is in line with current needs of teachers and learners, otherwise its accountability will be under question.

Additionally, teachers' comments indicated that allotting low-budget to PD and unfamiliarity with technological advances caused certain constraints for the implementation of effective PD activities. Such issues have not been given prominence and are often ignored mistakenly in professional development activities. The traditional devices used are not updated or in line with the world innovative technology. Obviously, teachers have not been trained well enough to apply modern technological devices in their own teaching. This can be to a great extent, due to the financial problems exist in Iran's educational setting. The monetary obstacles can also affect the quality of workshops considered as an important aspect of teachers' professional development. In spite of all the problems mentioned, some workshops are still held for teachers' professional development, but they mostly underestimate teachers' thinking and consider administrators' priorities instead.

In general, a new perspective on professional development can "move teachers toward a view of teaching as a professional activity open to collective observations, study, and improvement. It invites ordinary teachers to recognize and accept the responsibility for improving not only their own practice, but the shared practice of the profession. For this new path to be traveled, however, teachers will need to open their classroom doors and, rather than evaluating each other, begin studying their practices as a professional responsibility common to all"(Hiebert, Gallimore, &Stigler, 2003, p. 56).

VI. CONCLUSION

The research questions examined teachers' attitudes towards PD as well as the barriers built up within the present context of educational system in Iran which favors the traditional perspective in teaching. Cornu and Ewing (2008) used the term "teaching practice" approach to refer to this view. Such approaches require teachers to pass certain training courses that lack any critical reflection of any kind on the learned materials. They neglect the uniqueness of each learning context. In other words, they impose pre-determined sets of packages for teachers' professional development.

Unfortunately, most of PD agendas designed for teachers come with the motto "one-size-fits-all". Furthermore, results of the study showed that teachers neither had a clear understanding of the nature of PD, nor showed strong tendency toward the incorporation of new trends in this field. Participants of the study had interesting examples to share about their experiences of PD which highlighted the fact that all the previously mentioned hindrances such as administrative policies, lack of cooperation, low budget, etc. affect teachers' professional development negatively.

Since positive changes can occur as a result of sustained and ongoing PD activities, it is highly suggested to cultivate the culture of collaboration among teachers and promote self-directed professional development which gives teachers more opportunity to improve in their profession. As Richards and Farrell (2005), stated self-directed learning can inspire teachers to explore and understand their own context of teaching more effectively.

To sum up, initial learning and training of teachers are just the beginning point of teachers' journey towards their comprehensive professional development. It is suggested that PD policy makers motivate and support teachers to use the acquired knowledge and provide them with continuous follow-up activities. This cannot be achieved unless the value of collegiality, cooperation and ongoing engagement in professional development is known to teachers.

APPENDIX

Interview Questions
A. Background Questions
► How long have you been an English teacher?
► What courses have you taught?
► What are your teaching qualifications?
B. Perceptual Questions
► Can you describe your main roles in the classroom?
► In your own words, can you describe professional development for teachers?
► How do you promote your professional development as an English teacher?
► Can we apply the PD methods used in other countries to our own context?
► Is PD a collective or individual process?
► How much time do you think should be dedicated to PD activities?
► Are you familiar with technological advances in professional development? Are they used in educational context of Iran?
► Can you name a number of obstacles you have experienced on your way to professional development?

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Lexical Ways of Expressing Interpersonal Meaning and Translation Strategy

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Abstract—In translation, the study of meaning is the key factor. About the unsatisfying translation version, usually the interpersonal meaning is not transferred probably. This paper first explored the difference usages to express mood and modality in English and Chinese, and then it studies mainly the lexical ways of expressing interpersonal meaning and translation strategy between English and Chinese. On the basis of this comparison, the paper tries to summarize the strategies in translation to use lexical ways to express interpersonal meaning.

Index Terms—interpersonal meaning, translation, lexical

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a tool, but it has the special characteristics compared with other ordinary tools. Language is not created by man deliberately. It is a social and historical development, so it entails a very complicated series of human activities but it is not a finite system. Through the study of linguistics, many of the studies deal with the field of meaning, but the complexity of language made this field very hard to give an explanation.

Because communication between people or groups or nations or other social organizations becomes more and more important, the need to study meaning of language becomes even more pressing. The study of meaning concerns many fields, so considering just one field in the study of meaning is not enough. Philosophy, psychology and linguistics all claim a deep interest in the study of meaning, so if semantics is defined as the study of meaning, there will be many different, but intersecting branches of semantics.

Existence and cognition are the most important pairs in philosophy. At first, meaning was interpreted from the dimension of existence. Matin (2003) argues that the limitation of early theories are that they consider language as static, isolated and study the meaning of language mechanically, without paying enough attention to the different factors and variation that emerged in human beings everyday life. Generally speaking, these theories tend to study language within the scope of grammar and logic and insist to get rid of the elements that are concerned with psychology. They did not realize that as a social phenomenon that is closely related to human activity, language develops as the society develops, therefore, no one can study meaning without considering the practice of human being in which language is used.

With the development of philosophy, meaning was understood from the dimension of cognition, that is, people began to associate meaning with human mind. The famous "semantics triangles" of Ogden and Richards shows a great improvement in the interpretation of meaning and shows that the psychological factors began to attract people's attention. In the triangle, the symbol of a word signified "things" by virtue of the "concept" associate with the form of word in the minds of the speaker of the language.

Later, meaning was understood from a wider dimension and the study from a context point of view came out. This study is based on the presumption by Halliday (1985) that one can derive meaning from or reduce it to observable context. The famous formula of Bloomfield, which is the representative mark of behavioral school, clearly points out the importance of the situation in which the speaker utters. Bloomfield argued that if there is not the situation, the response will not happen, and this is the function of context. In various context, or in various register in a more narrow sense, language may has different meanings and functions, for example, speaker may use language to persuade, to inform, to ask or to invite, etc. According to functional grammar, the meaning is classified into three types: experiential, interpersonal and textual functions.

Experiential meaning is the meaning about how people represent experience in language. Interpersonal meaning is a strand of meaning that is running throughout the text and expresses the writer's attitude towards the subject matter. finally, while expressing both experiential and interpersonal meaning, a text also makes what we describes as textual meaning. Textual meaning refers to the way the text is organized as a piece of writing. Halliday (2000) claims that a text can make these different meanings because units of language are simultaneously making three kinds of meaning.

Translation is the transfer of meaning from one language to the other. In order to transfer the meaning exactly, translator has to master the meaning in context. This paper will explore the lexical ways of translation of interpersonal meaning in context. During the translation process, readers always expect omniscient translators to have an ideal translation version, judging by the stands of equivalence put forward by Eugene Nida (1991). The concept of "equivalence" is not clear and cannot be applied to translation or interpretation today. In today's translation theory, "adequacy" is a criterion as to judge whether the translation is acceptable or not.

The systems of modality in Chinese and English are different, so the translation of the modality is not simply to find

the corresponding words of the original language, but to understand the meaning of the original modal operators of English and the Nengyuan words in Chinese, then to find a right way to translate the interpersonal meaning.

II. DIFFERENT VOCATIVE AND TRANSLATION STRATEGY

The vocatives are a very potent area for the realization of interpersonal meanings, an area very sensitive to these contextual constraints of tenor. Now let's look at the following examples. Although the different ways of vocative represent the same person, it is apparent that they can show quiet different interpersonal meaning.

1. My dear son, would you like to finish your homework?
2. My darling, would you like to finish your homework?
3. Sweetheart, it is time to finish your homework, please.
4. Dear, finish your homework.
5. Finish your homework, son.
6. Child, finish your homework.
7. Mike, finish your homework.
8. You little fool, go to finish your homework.
9. You fool, if you don't finish your homework, I will punish you severely.

In the above examples, all the vocatives refer to the same boy, that is to say the ideational meaning is the same, but the communication effect is quite different. In the first four examples, readers or listeners can sense the tender affection of the parent to the boy, and from the fifth example to the seventh one, the addressing have not tender love nor scolding, which is the neutral meaning, but the last two examples show that the parent starts to get angry and his patience is running out. In order to show the subtle difference of the addressing, the translation of these vocatives should also express these differences.

Now, let's examine some examples of Chinese to see how vocatives affect the interpersonal meaning of the sentence.

老伙计！最近怎样？

这能够关系到企业生死存亡，张总！

还有呢，哥哥，这是总部首长叫我送给您的。

In the first example, the vocative shows the close relationship between the speaker and the listener. In the second example, the vocative has the meaning of eagerness to persuade the person who is called, and in the third one, the vocative can attract the attention of the listener, and it tells the listener that what the speaker is going to say is very important.

The big difference between English and Chinese on the point of vocative is that Chinese vocatives often has modal auxiliary words after them. e.g.

1.老张啊，斗争很复杂！咱们可不能稍微打个盹儿，更不能当唐僧。

2.明天天亮......儿呀......你......就要离开娘！

儿呀儿呀，你听那催命的更鼓三声响，儿呀儿呀，为娘恨不能替代我儿赴刑场。

《洪湖赤卫队》

3.周总理啊，周总理，全国人民都在哀悼您，都在呼唤您，都在想念您。

《敬爱的周恩来总理永垂不朽》

In the first example, the modal auxiliary word after the vocative shows that the speaker says these words after deep thinking and he really hopes that the listener will listen to his persuasion.

In the second one, the continuous using of vocatives and modal auxiliary words shows the agony and frustration of the mother when her son will be sentenced to death by the enemy.

Usually when the speaker uses vocatives, the person who is called can be seen when the sperker talks, gut the last example is different from the other examples because the person called is not present, but in this sentence, the vocative and the modal auxiliary word "啊" still can show the deep sorrow of people on losing their beloved premier.

Translation Strategy: Because the vocative can show the strong interpersonal meaning, translators have to grasp this sentiment and transfer it into another language with vocative or other lexical ways.

e.g. "I don't have to tell you anything, Norman Page, not a single thing." She said.

The person who is talking is the lover of Norman Page. Usually she only calls him Norman, and now the vocative shows that she is very angry. Besides this vocative, an adjunct can be used "愤愤地说"

"我不需要告诉你任何事情，诺曼.佩奇，任何事情都不需要。"她愤愤地说。

III. DIFFERENT PRONOUNS AND TRANSLATION STRATEGY

The different usages of the pronouns can also show the different interpersonal meaning although in modern English, there is no difference of "tous" and "vous" like French, and similarly the difference of "您"and "你"in Chinese, the use of "we" can also show the different interpersonal meaning in various situations. Let's examine the following examples:

1 We are going to spend the winter vacation in the Hainan Island.

2. 我们明天开始放假，你们呢？

This is the usual usage of the pronoun "we". Here "we" indicates the meaning of the party of the speaker side, which is the opposite side of the listener in the conversation.

3. Shall we sit there and have a talk, John?

4. 明天我们去爬山吧。

Different from the first example, here "we" includes the speaker and the listener. It is clear that the speaker wants to sit to have a talk, and he wants to ask the idea of the listener. Here the pronoun "we" is used to indicate that there is little distance between the speaker and the listener. In the fourth example, the speaker wants to climb the mountain the next day, and he asks if the listener also wants to go with him. In order to show the close relationship with the listener, he uses "我们" instead of "你".

5. Now, we must be a good boy, and stop crying.

6. The teacher said to his class, "我们必须遵守纪律，好好学习。"

Different from the above examples, here the pronoun "we" and "我们"has quite different meaning with the traditional meaning of "we". It only represents the listener without including the speaker. This kind of usage may be found especially in the case of speaking to children and to patients. "We" indicates the meaning of persuasion or consolation, and when the listener hears the pronoun, he may have a feeling of comfort and he will have the feeling that there is little distance between the speaker and him. In this way, a friendship may be easily established.

   Translation Strategy: The choice of the pronouns can clearly shows the feeling of the speaker or writer. It is an important way to express the minute sentiment. Translator should catch this interpersonal meaning in its context expressed by the pronouns, and transfer the meaning in a corresponding context in another language.

IV. DIFFERENT VERBS, NOUNS AND TRANSLATION STRATEGY

Aside from vocatives and pronouns, there are many other very significant ways in which these dimensions of tenor impact on language usage can be found. Different choices of verbs, nouns adverbs and adjectives can also show the different attitudes of the speaker or writer. Readers can find the different verbs in the following examples.

1. No matter how you sing highly about him, I still dislike him.

2. I hate mice!

3. I really appreciate of your coming despite the hostile weather.

4. Everyone loves his motherland.

All these sentences clearly show the different attitudes of the speaker because of the meaning of these verbs. In the first two examples, the speaker shows the negative interpersonal meaning because the meanings of the verbs are derogatory, and in the last two examples, the meanings are commendatory. These examples tell us that the different choices of verbs have the function of expressing the interpersonal meaning.

There is another type of showing interpersonal meaning by using verbs. In this case, the verbs have the same ideational meaning, but the connotative meaning is different, which also has the function of expressing different attitude of the speaker.

Let's see the following examples:

5 His grandfather died martyr's death in the revolutionary war.

6. John's father has passed away before he went to school.

7. Alice died in a car accident.

8. That old guy has kicked the bucket.

Although the four expressions have the same meaning of "death", they should be used in different situations to show the different interpersonal meaning. In the first two examples, the two phrases show the respect to the people who died, and in the third one, "die" has the neutral meaning, but in the last example, the phrase can show that the person who died is not important at all and the speaker does not show any sorry to his death.

The above eight examples show the two kinds of verbs that have the function of expressing interpersonal meaning: one way is using the original meaning of the verbs, and the second type is using the different connotative meaning of the verbs or verb phrases.

Similarly, the different choices of nouns can also express interpersonal meaning.

9. I consider her a very special soul and I know the world misses her.

Here the singer of "Yesterday Once more" Richard Carpenter recalled her sister Karen Carpenter with the feeling of love, respect and regret.

10 His principle virtue is his honesty.

When readers see the word "virtue", they will have a kind of positive feeling because the noun itself carries the interpersonal meaning.

11 The accident victims were taken to hospital.

The word "victim" can clearly show the sympathetic feeling of the speaker.

12 What a mess you have made!

The word "mess" bears the meaning of dissatisfaction of the speaker towards the listener.

13. You are really a troublemaker.

The word "troublemaker" has the negative meaning, so it can express the anger of the speaker.

Translation strategy: since the verbs, nouns can express the attitudes of the writer or speaker, translators have to find out the degree of the attitude, and use the most suitable word to transfer the meaning. If the original language is positive, translators have to find the positive words to translate. If the original language is negative, translators have to find the negative words to translate. If the original language is neutral, translator should not use any word that shows the positive or negative meaning.

e.g. 1. So very much money--well over $400 billion a year--is tossed around by the federal government that is not surprised that some of it is spend foolishly.

原译：联邦政府既然每年能将远远超过 4000 亿美元的巨款随随便便地花掉，那么其中有些钱花得愚蠢就不足为奇了。

As we know $400 billion is a great amount of money, so the original sentence is showing an attitude of surprise and anger, however, the Chinese version "随随便便地花掉"cannot express the angry feeling. Now we change the translation into:

改译：联邦政府既然每年能将远远超过 4000 亿美元的巨款挥霍掉，那么其中有些钱花得很愚蠢就不足为奇了。

In the new version, the word "挥霍"can express the anger of the speaker, but "随随便便地花掉"cannot express the degree of anger and dissatisfaction.

2. "My daughter Mallika is studying sociology at Stella Maris. She is just like you, an innocent baby."

原译： "我女儿麦莉卡在斯德拉.马里斯攻读社会学，她跟你一样，是个天真的孩子。"

In the original sentence, the mother uses the word "baby" but not "girl" when referring to her daughter, which shows the tender love to her child, however, "孩子"cannot express this subtle sentiment in the translation version. This example shows that the nouns can carry interpersonal meaning. When translating, translators also should pay attention to the minute difference of the meanings of different words. As to this example, it can be changed into the following one:

改译："我女儿麦莉卡在斯德拉.马里斯攻读社会学，她跟你一样，是个天真的小娃娃。"

3. Without the bureaucracy, the relations with other nations would be difficult to maintain; international trade would become unpredictable.

The word "bureaucracy" often has the derogatory meaning "官僚作风", but in this sentence, readers should notice that it has the commendatory meaning, talking about the positive function of government, so in translation, translators have to choose a corresponding word to express this meaning. Now the sentence can be translated into:

如果没有政府机构，与外国的友好关系就很难保持；国际间的贸易情况也将无法预料。

V. DIFFERENT ADVERBS AND ADJECTIVES AND TRANSLATION STRATEGY

Adverbs and adjectives are used to stress or reduce the degree of verbs and nouns, so they tend to express the kind of feeling or emotion of the speaker or writer. When translating, translators have to find the appropriate words to transfer the same meaning. Here translator should remember that to show the original interpersonal meaning, translators don't translate the words to the same type all the time. The change of word type can also express the meaning more accurately.

e.g. 我们几姊弟和几个小丫头都很喜欢——买种的买种，动土的动土，灌园的灌园；过不了几个月，居然收获了。

My brother, sister and I were all delighted and so were the young housemaids. And then some went to buy seeds, some began to dig the ground and others watered it and, in a couple of months, we have a harvest!

In this translation, the original adverb "居然"in Chinese version means unexpectedly or surprisingly. If we use these adverbs to translate, it is loyal to the original version and it is acceptable, but this translation version uses only one conjunction "and". This conjunction connects the meaning of the sentences naturally and expresses the interpersonal meaning delicately.

VI. EXCLAMATION AND TRANSLATION STRATEGY

In conversations, especially in informal conversation, people often use mood words to show his/her feeling.

1. Well, I'm going to be his mother now.嗯，现在我就是他的妈妈了。

2. So, um, what are you gonna call it?那么，嗯，你叫它什么？

3. Shh, don't tell the kid like that.嘘，不要和孩子那么说。

4. Ah, it's right behind you.啊，他就在你后面。

5. Uh? Piranha! Wow!唔？食人鱼！啊！

6. Oh, I bet you will.奥，你一定会的。

7. Oh, Jane, oh, thank goodness.奥，简，哦，谢天谢地。

8. Good heavens! What happened?老天，发生了什么事？

9. Oh boy ...哦，天啊......

10. It is not the baronet, it is, why, it is my neighbor, the convict.这不是准男爵，这是，啊，这是我的邻居，那个逃犯！

11. Aha! I've caught you at last!啊哈！我可抓住你了。

12. There, there! don't cry! 好啦，好啦，别哭了。

Translation strategy: Grasping the sentiment of the exclamation in the original context is the first step to translate it into another. The first important step is to find out whether they are expressing the meaning of surprise, happiness or disappointment from their context. Both in English and Chinese, there are a lot of exclamatory words that can express minute difference in their sentiment, and it is very difficult to translate them into another language without considering the context factors. In order to catch the meaning of the original language, translators need to study them in their context, and it is from the context that translators can decide which word to choose.

e.g. Ah! You're back in time.

啊！你们按时回来了！Here "ah" shows a feeling of gladness.

Ah! Never have I heard of such a Mr. Green.

吭！这样一位格林先生我可从来未听说过。Here "ah" shows a feeling of surprise.

The same exclamation word "ah" is translated into different words in Chinese, which is determined by their context.

VII. CONCLUSION

In the process of translation, translators have to consider the higher levels involving entire texts in situational, social, and cultural context, and besides these, lower linguistics levels involving sentences, and even words and phrased should also be taken into consideration. According to Newmark (1981), theories based on functional linguistics have major implications for thinking that good translation should consider factors at all levels. the functional school is mostly concerned with the establishment of what context factors translators should be aware of and what guidelines they should follow. Reiss (1989) emphases the basic competences and the overall perspectives from which translators should view assignments. Translators should be aware of the context factors in all levels before they undertake an assignment.

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Comparing the Effects of L1 and L2 Definition on Incidental Vocabulary Learning through Listening to Stories

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Abstract—**Vocabulary is an essential component of language proficiency which provides the basis for learners' performance in other skills. This study investigated the effect of three kinds of definition conditions, that is L1, L2, and L1+L2 on incidental vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners. To this aim, three experimental and one control groups took part in the current study so as to examine the effectiveness of definitions with 96 target words through listening. The participants were 74 fourth-grade high school students. Eight stories with each with 12 target words (total 96 words) were given to the learners. Participants in each group listened to eight short stories under one of the three mentioned conditions for experimental groups, with no definition offered for control group. They all answered vocabulary list, eight immediate post-tests and eight delayed posttests of vocabulary. The data were analyzed using *t*-tests and one-way *ANOVA* for both immediate and delayed post-tests. The results indicated that definition groups significantly outperformed the other group in terms of vocabulary acquisition on both immediate and delayed retention of target words. However, the findings showed a significant loss from the immediate to the delayed post-tests. These findings are discussed and implications are offered for foreign language syllabus designers and instructors.**

Index Terms—**incidental vocabulary learning, L1 and L2 definition, listening comprehension, story- telling, glossing**

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary learning has been extensively researched in recent years since the fact that vocabulary plays a pivotal role in the communication and academic lives of foreign language learners is irrefutable (Al-Dersi, 2013, Belisle, 1997) and there is no doubt that learning vocabulary is a key factor for language mastery (Schmitt, 2008). Even some researchers such as Gass (1999) equate learning a second language with its vocabulary learning. Moreover, vocabulary learning is supposed to be a multidimensional phenomenon which includes the integration of different kinds of knowledge along with gaining various levels of ability to make use of that knowledge in communication (Paribakht and Wesche, 1999).

Certainly, improving a rich vocabulary is a first priority for both L1 and L2 learners without which their other language skills suffer significantly. That is why Wilkins (1972) many years ago argued that "While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p. 111).

Because of the critical role of vocabulary in learning a foreign language, learners should draw on a variety of strategies to learn vocabulary. Hunt and Beglar (1998) believe that there are three approaches to improving vocabulary learning: incidental learning, explicit instruction, and independent strategy development. Among these three approaches, incidental vocabulary learning which includes extensive reading and listening is considered as a significant part of learning vocabulary.

Most of the papers in the domain of incidental vocabulary learning (Wesche & Paribakht, 1999) have considered incidental learning as something that is learned without specific focus of attention in a classroom context. According to Paribakht and Wesche (1999), incidental vocabulary learning refers to the fact that learners concentrate on meaning of listening and reading contexts instead of focusing on intentional vocabulary learning without the learner's attempt to learn the words through methods such as guessing from context, learning through definitions, etc.

Even though there have been a growing number of studies concerning learning vocabulary through reading (Pulido, 2007), learning vocabulary through listening, is also a promising source of vocabulary acquisition. For example, some researchers have shown that students learn vocabulary through listening to stories or lectures (Brett, Rothlein & Hurley, 1996; Elley, 1989).

Generally speaking, L2 listening has received relatively little research attention (Vandergrift, 2007), and this is true about incidental vocabulary acquisition as well. Thus, fewer studies have been carried out in the context of listening as compared with reading. Some early vocabulary studies have included listening, but they explored how auditory stimuli can reinforce acquisition from reading (e.g. Kelly, 1992), rather than acquisition from listening only. Recently, a few vocabulary studies have measured learning from listening directly. Their findings suggest that listening leads to even smaller gains than reading does (Brown et al., 2008; Vidal, 2011; as cited in (Van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013).

Another common way of initially providing the meaning of lexical items is to explain them in target language. It has been argued that short, direct, unambiguous, and simple definitions (glosses) work best (Ellis, 1995; Nation, 2001). In any case, learners' interest in the aural input and the comprehensibility of that input are vital for vocabulary acquisition to occur according to these researchers. This study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of different definition types, that is, L1 definition, L2 definition, and L1+ L2 definition on incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian high school students through listening to stories.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Incidental and Intentional Learning in L2 Vocabulary Literature

Vocabulary is learned either incidentally or intentionally. While incidental learning can be applied to both abstract and factual declarative knowledge, intentional learning is only applicable to factual knowledge (Hulstijn, 2003).

Ellis (1999) describes the distinction between incidental and intentional learning as follows:

The distinction between incidental and intentional learning is based on the distinction between focal and peripheral attention. Intentional learning requires focal attention to be placed deliberately on the linguistic code (i.e., on form or form-meaning connections), while incidental learning requires focal attention to be placed on meaning (i.e., message content) but allows peripheral attention to be directed at form (p.45).

Many vocabularies are learned incidentally through extensive reading and listening. therefore, encouraging learners to read and listen extensively can provide them with great opportunities and ample input the is necessary for vocabulary learning. According to Huckin and Coady (1999) except for the first few thousand most common words, L2 vocabulary learning predominantly happens through extensive reading with guessing of the unknown words. This process is incidental learning of vocabulary for the acquisition of new words and is the by-product of reading. Gass (1999) points out that words are more likely to be learned incidentally if (a) there are recognized cognates between the native and the target languages, (b) there is important L2 exposure, or (c) other L2 related words are known.

Brown,Waring, and Donkaewbua (2008) compared vocabulary learning from reading and listening and found that the difference between reading and listening was that the former lead to significantly more vocabulary learning. Even though both Vidal (2011) and Brown et al. (2008) held a comparative analysis of learning through spoken and written input, the primary concern is the actual uptake from listening. This is important in the fact that the two tests provided by Brown et al. led to very different scores; this demonstrates that incidental vocabulary learning is more complex than could be revealed by these tests only.

The lack of vocabulary knowledge assessment in listening studies is surprising. Therefore, this study on the comparison of different gloss types aims at measuring the effect of providing definitions in listening to stories which is not investigated so far.

B. Meanings and Importance of Glosses

The concept of glossing has been largely studied by researchers in recent years. Traditionally, a gloss is a definition or meaning for L2 learners to improve reading comprehension. Nation (1983) defined glosses as short definitions. Segler (2001) pointed to them as translations or brief explanations of difficult or technical texts (e.g. unusual words) and categorized glosses into textual glosses, pictorial (visual) and aural glosses and various combinations (as cited in Jalali & Neiriz, 2012).

Roby (1991) expressed that "glosses supply what is perceived to be deficient in a reader's procedural or declarative knowledge "(p.183). Lomicka (1998) defines glosses as short definitions or explanations that are often supplied to facilitate reading and comprehension processes for L2 learners. Researchers (e.g., Yoshii, 2006; Nation, 2002) pointed to glossing as one of the most effective tools for increasing noticing that increase vocabulary learning among ESL/EFL learners.

Glossing is the easiest way for perceiving the meanings of words as they appear in context, since it does not even demand the effort of searching and then choosing the suitable meaning out of several possible ones, which is required by dictionary look-up. Researchers generally agree that glosses facilitate reading comprehension and short-term vocabulary retention (Kost et al., 1999).

C. Reasons for Using Glosses

Glosses can have at least four advantages for learning. First, readers can use glosses to understand new words more accurately by preventing incorrect guessing. Guessing meaning from context can be risky and difficult because of readers' lack of language or reading strategies (e.g., Bensoussan and Laufer, 1984; Hulstijn, 1992; Kruse, 1979; Nation, 2001; Stein, 1993). Second, glossing can reduce interruption while reading is in process. Since glossing supplies

definitions for low frequency words, L2 readers do not have to constantly look them up (Nation, 1990; Nation, 2001). Third, glosses assist readers in making a bridge between previous knowledge or experience and new information in the text. In other words, interactions among gloss, reader, and text develop comprehension and retention of the content of the text. Besides these points, glosses in key words can aid readers recall their background knowledge and connect it to the text (Stewrat and Cross, 1993). Fourth, glosses can make students less dependent on their teachers, allowing for greater autonomy. Since not all students have problems with the same words, they can look up just the words they do not know (Jacobs, 1994; Nation, 1990). Some studies have indicated that students prefer to have glosses in their L2 language reading materials (e.g., Jacobs, Dufon and Fong, 1994). In each case, the use of vocabulary glosses in L2 reading materials is a common practice (Holley and King, 1971; Jacobs, et al., 1994; as cited in Hee Ko, 2005).

D. L1 versus. L2 Gloss

There is a controversy over the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses and studies have produced conflicting results with some reporting no difference while others indicating the advantage of one gloss type over the other type (Chen, 2002; Jacob et al., 1994; Miyasako, 2002). In an early study Jacobs et al. (1994) did a study on 85 English-speaking participants who were studying Spanish as a second language compared to compare L1 with L2 glosses. The results of the immediate test demonstrated that either L1 or L2 were better than no gloss; however, no significant difference was found between L1 and L2 glosses. In a similar study, Chen (2002) examined L1 and L2 glosses with 85 college freshmen in Taiwan who were studying English as a second language in three groups - (1) L1 (Chinese) gloss; (2) L2 (English) gloss; and (3) No gloss. The findings proved that the L2 group outperformed the no gloss group, and that the difference between L1 and L2 glosses was not significant (as cited in Fahimipour & Hashemian, 2013).

Miyasako (2002)'s study found the advantage of one gloss type over the other which is contrary to previous studies. Comparing the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses, Miyasako concluded that the L2 gloss groups outperformed the L1 gloss groups. In addition, L2 glosses appeared to be more effective for higher-proficiency level learners, whereas L1 glosses were more effective for lower proficiency learners (as cited in Yoshii, 2006).

As the results of the comparisons between L1 and L2 are inconclusive, there is a need for more studies comparing the effectiveness of L1 and L2 especially in listening skill which is an under-researched area which is going to be addressed in the present study.

E. Listening Comprehension and Short Stories

Although listening was almost ignored in language learning and teaching for a long time, recently it has achieved its active and communicative value. Due to the developments in technology, these days the teachers and the researchers make a profit from several listening instruments in the classroom to hone learners' listening comprehension ability. Nonetheless, students in each level may have problems listening to audio programs. In order to enhance this skill, teachers have looked for different techniques and strategies to teach and receive requested results.

According to Ghanimi, Arjmandi, and Rahimy (2014), a very demanding listening task is audio story task, designed as supplementary material to language text books that can eliminate the students' listening problem. However, listening has remained a tough skill to teach students because setting listening task is considered time-consuming and boring. It seems that the first step in overcoming the barriers would be understanding the language spoken in a context. If the learners do not listen attentively, there will be some difficulties in understanding. Larsen-Freeman (2000, p. 148) states that, "being able to figure out the speaker's or writer's intentions is part of being communicatively competent."

Generally speaking, the focal issue of the current research project is to determine which definition condition is more effective in aiding vocabulary retention. This research will not only analyze different forms of the definitions, but also give a more detailed description of the effect of definitions on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, this study investigates to introduce audio story that can be enjoyable material for the learners into EFL classes and also can maximize the students' exposure to suitable listening program. Therefore, to clarify what is in an EFL high school context, the present research aimed to answer the following questions:

1. Do learners in experimental groups (vocabulary definition) perform better than learners in control group (no definition) on vocabulary posttests?

2. Does providing Ll, L2, and L1 + L2 definition affect immediate vocabulary retention of learners?

3. Does providing Ll, L2, and L1+L2 definition affect long term retention of learners?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

This study was conducted on seventy four (N=74) female students studying at Ansarifard high school in Sabzevar, Iran. All the students of the survey were of roughly the same age (17-18) and were studying English as a compulsory subject during guidance and high school education. All of them were native speakers of Persian and English was a foreign language for them. The class met twice a week for 90 minutes and was a requirement for graduation. They had passed grade eleven and they had the same English learning background. Hence, it was assumed that the participants formed a suitable sample for the intended experiment. This was also determined by their classwork and homework. They were randomly assigned to three experimental and one control group. Each group got on a definition condition

based on four definition types: L1 definition, L2 definition, L1 + L2 definition, and no definition. The treatment took 12 sessions.

B. Research Design

The design of this study was an experimental one with vocabulary definition being the independent variable and vocabulary learning the dependent variable. During the experiment, the students listened to eight short stories during one month in the first semester of 2014 under one of the four conditions: L1 definition (Persian language), L2 definition (English language), L1 + L2definition (Persian and English language), and no definition. The participants in three definition groups were considered as the experimental groups and the participants in no gloss group were presumed to be control group in this study. After listening to the stories, the participants were asked to answer the immediate post-tests. Then the delayed post tests were conducted after two weeks one by one. In this study different types of definitions (L1, L2, L1 + L2, and no definition) were identified as the independent variable. The dependent variable included participants' scores on immediate and delayed vocabulary posttests and the design of the study was experimental with both post- tests. The tests measured learners' receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge.

C. Materials and Instruments

To conduct the present study, four instruments were employed to collect the data. The instruments were the same for all the participants. They consisted of a vocabulary list used before treatment, immediate post- tests (Production & Recognition), delayed post-tests (Production & Recognition), and eight short stories from graded readers at appropriate difficulty levels that are explained below.

D. Vocabulary Lists

To ensure the learners are not aware of the target words prior to the treatment, a vocabulary list was administered to the learners in order to measure their knowledge of the target words. The test contained 100 words selected from eight short stories. The participants were instructed to put a check mark by any words they knew and provide a short written explanation in L1.Consequently, 96 words out of 100 words were selected. To assess students' learning of the target words throughout the study, recognition and production tests were employed.

E. Immediate Post Tests

Participants received two vocabulary posttests: one immediately after the treatment and the other two weeks later. This study used a two-week span following similar studies (Chun & Plass, 1996; Kost et al., 1999; Yoshii & Flaitz, 2002). The purpose of using immediate post-test was to measure the participants' vocabulary knowledge. The immediate post- test required the students to write down the meanings of the given English words in Persian, and make sentences with the given target words. Eight immediate post tests were administered to the participants at various stages of the experiment. Each post- test was composed of two parts: a recognition and a production test in the form of definition supply with making sentences. The format of the definition supply test was in the way that participants were asked to mark the words they remembered and provide their meanings in L1 (Persian). The recognition test consisted of the target words with four multiple choice answers for each item. The participants should select the most suitable definition of the given word through four choices written in L2 (English). Each test included a total of 12 target words, and the students received one point for each correct answer, making the maximum score of 12 points.

F. Delayed Post Tests

The same eight immediate post- tests were administered to the students as delayed post- tests two weeks after the first immediate post- test one by one. They were applied after listening and answering the immediate tests at the beginning of the session. In other words, after two weeks students should answer to two tests: a new test immediately after listening to the story and the delayed post- test of the previous tests. The purpose of using delayed post- test was to measure the participants' vocabulary retention and long term memory. Immediate post-test, on the other hand, aimed to measure the learners' target word knowledge incidentally acquired during the listening activities.

G. Short Stories

Eight short stories with 96 head words (n=96) were selected and prepared for the participants in the incidental vocabulary learning condition in graded reader form. Stories were chosen according to the proficiency level of all the participants. They were similar in length and difficulty. Although the stories' name was familiar for the participants, measures were taken to make sure that learners had not already read the stories in new version and with new vocabulary in order to minimize the effect of old vocabulary. In each story, definition of about 20-25 (new and distracter) words were given. Short stories were adapted into four different forms: a short story with no definition; a short story with L1 definition (definitions or synonyms in Persian); a short story with L2 definition (definitions or synonyms in English); and a short story with L1 + L2 definition (definitions or synonyms in English and Persian). A multiple-choice listening test consisting of eight items (four items with choices in Persian and four items with English choices) were given to the students after   listening to the stories.

H. Data Collection Procedure

Four classes of the same grade were chosen to participate in the study. One of the classes was randomly adopted as the control group and the other classes as the experimental groups. One hundred target vocabulary items from eight short stories from graded readers were considered and given to the students as vocabulary list. Among these, 96 words were covered in the stories. In attempting to ensure the target words were unfamiliar, only items that had not appeared in any of the previous course books were chosen. The students were told about vocabulary list and also about the immediate post-tests in advance but, the delayed post tests were not mentioned and participants took them unexpectedly. This was done to create conditions for incidental vocabulary learning. The students were required to listen to eight short stories during one month. The stories were told live by the teacher to the students. Before treatment, a vocabulary list was given to the students and then they were told about listening to eight short stories and answering the vocabulary tests. They took the first announced immediate post -test one week later the vocabulary list and delayed post tests were administered two weeks after the first immediate post-test.

I. Data Analysis Procedure

To test the hypotheses of the study, some descriptive and inferential data analysis procedures were performed. The data in this study was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 21).On the basis of the aforementioned research questions, the data was analyzed using one-way ANOVA for test of vocabulary in immediate and delayed post-test for research questions 3 and 4. In order to understand if three aforementioned definition conditions were more effective than no definition condition, that is to answer research questions 1, two separate independent samples t-tests were used. For all the analysis, the alpha level was .05.In all treatment sessions the effect of two strategies of learning vocabulary was measured: 1) immediately after treatment and 2) two weeks later so as to determine the long term retention effect. In this study, descriptive statistics were used to determine the mean and standard deviation of each group on posttests (immediate and delayed).

IV. RESULTS

A. The First Research Question

The first question of the current study concerned investigating whether providing L1, L2, and L1+ L2 definition (experimental groups) in comparison with no definition (control group) affect learners' incidental vocabulary learning differently As displayed in Table 1, the mean of the experimental group (*M= 63.31, SD= 13.81) and* that of the control group (*M*= 5.50, *SD*=4.560) showed that the means were quite different. In fact, the experimental group outperformed the control group on the immediate posttest of vocabulary retention.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP ON IMMEDIATE POSTTEST

	Control experimental	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
immediate	*1*	*54*	*63.31*	*13.081*	*1.780*
	2	*20*	*5.50*	*4.560*	*1.020*

Note: 1= experimental, 2= control

However, to see if this difference is statistically significant an independent sample *t-test* is used and the results are displayed in Table 4.2.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON IMMEDIATE POST 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
immediate	Equal variances assumed	7.835	.007	19.264	72	.000	57.815	3.001	51.832	63.798
	Equal variances not assumed			28.182	71.894	.000	57.815	2.051	53.725	61.904

The descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation of each group was calculated and equal variances was not assumed was reported. Results of the independent samples t-test (*t* (72) = 28.182, *P*<.05) indicated that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores on immediate post-test of vocabulary retention.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE DELAYED POSTTEST

	Control experimental	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
delayed	1	54	44.93	17.615	2.397
	2	20	4.20	3.302	.738

Note: 1= experimental, 2= control

As it can be seen in the descriptive statistic of Table 3 the mean score of the experimental group was computed (*M*= 44.93, *SD*=17.615) while that of control group was (*M*= 4.20, *SD*= 3.302). The mean score of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group. It means that the experimental group on the delayed posttest of vocabulary retention outscored the immediate post- test like what was observed in Table 2. In order to make sure the difference between control and experimental groups (the two mean scores) is statistically meaningful, an independent samples *t-test* should be consulted.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE DELAYED POSTTEST

		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
delayed	Equal variances assumed	26.193	.000	10.230	72	.000	40.726	3.981	32.790	48.662
	Equal variances not assumed			16.237	61.979	.000	40.726	2.508	35.712	45.740

The results of the independent *t-test* shown in Table 4 revealed that there was a significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on delayed posttest of vocabulary retention thus, equal variances was not assumed was reported. The experimental group after receiving treatment outperformed the control group on the immediate and delayed posttests of vocabulary, *(t* (72) = 16.237, *p*<.05). Thus the first null hypothesis as providing Ll, L2, and L1 + L2 definition (experimental group) and no definition (control group) does not affect learners' vocabulary learning differently was rejected.

B. *The Second Research Question*

The second research question was set as whether providing Ll, L2 and L1 + L2 definition affect immediate vocabulary retention of learners. The descriptive statistics for the three groups on the immediate post-test are presented in Table 5.

TABLE .5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF L1, L2, AND L1 + L2 FOR IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	18	63.4444	11.35120	2.67550	57.7996	69.0893	46.00	84.00
2.00	18	64.3889	9.54333	2.24938	59.6431	69.1347	52.00	87.00
3.00	18	62.1111	17.62982	4.15539	53.3440	70.8782	4.00	89.00
Total	54	63.3148	13.08149	1.78017	59.7443	66.8854	4.00	89.00

Note: 1=L1and L2, 2=L2, and 3=L1

The results of Table 5 show that there was no significant difference among the means of three groups on immediate posttest. The mean for L1, L2, and L1 + L2 groups were 63.4444, 64.3889, and 62.1111 respectively. Although there was not important difference between groups, L2 group performed better than L1 and L2, and L1 group. To check the homogeneity of variances, the significance value is checked and since it is .50 which is greater than (0.05), the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not violated

This result demonstrates that groups were assumed to be equivalent. To describe the statistical significance of the three groups' mean, One- way *ANOVA* was applied. *ANOVA* was employed to calculate the amount of variance between and within the groups. The results of the statistical operations are analyzed in Table 7.

TABLE 6
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	47.148	2	23.574	.133	.876
Within Groups	9022.500	51	176.912		
Total	9069.648	53			

Based on Table 6, since the probability level for rejecting the null hypothesis (.876) is larger than P> 0.05, therefore the second null hypothesis stating L1, L2 and L1 + L2 definitions do not have any significant effect on immediate vocabulary retention is not rejected. The result of ANOVA shows that there was no significant difference between the scores of the students in immediate posttest for three groups.

C. *The Third Research Question*

The third research question concerned investigating whether providing Ll, L2, and L1 + L2 definition affect long term vocabulary retention of learners. To clarify the effect of this condition descriptive statistics of the delayed posttest, which was held two weeks after immediate, are presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DELAYED POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	18	42.1111	18.10066	4.26637	33.1099	51.1124	4.00	72.00
2.00	18	51.4444	15.51933	3.65794	43.7269	59.1620	30.00	88.00
3.00	18	41.2222	18.19359	4.28827	32.1748	50.2697	3.00	71.00
Total	54	44.9259	17.61523	2.39713	40.1179	49.7340	3.00	88.00

Note:1=L1 and L2, 2= L2, 3= L1

According to Table 7, the mean in the L2 group differs from two other groups, and also the mean for L1+ L2 group shows difference to some degree from L1 group. The mean for groups were 42.11, 51.44, and 41.22 respectively. Notably the mean of the L1 group is lower than L2 and L1 + L2 means in both immediate and delayed posttests. The results of the delayed posttest do not show significant difference in the mean of scores in three groups. After the time interval, the means in two groups (L1 and L1+ L2) decreased a bit, but L2 group had the highest mean in the delayed post- test. To check the homogeneity of variances, the Levene's test results were obtained which did not indicate a significant value (p=.588) verifying the homogeneity of variances on the post-test.

To check whether there is any significant difference among the groups, *ANOVA* was run. As it is demonstrated in Table 8, there is no significant difference at the p < .05 level in posttest scores for the three groups: $F (2, 51) = 1.925$, p =.156. This result demonstrates that groups were of equal condition. To describe the statistical significance of the three groups' mean, one way ANOVA was applied, the results of the statistical operations are analyzed in Table 10.

TABLE 8
ONE WAY ANOVA FOR DELAYED POSTTEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1154.370	2	577.185	1.925	.156
Within Groups	15291.333	51	299.830		
Total	16445.704	53			

According to the results of *ANOVA* reported in Table 8, there was no significant difference between   the scores of the delayed posttest in three groups. Thus, in response to the third research question on the effect of L1, L2, and L1 and L2 on the students' performance on vocabulary delayed posttest, we can conclude that the significance value is greater than the critical value of 0.05 indicating that the test fails to reject the null hypothesis. In other words, no statistically significant differences between means of the three groups were found and the variances in all three groups were equal.

V. DISCUSSION

The present study compared the effect of different types of vocabulary definition on vocabulary learning of high school learners through listening to short stories. The results of the study proved the superiority of the participant's performance in definition groups (L1, L2 and L1+ L2) to the control group.

The reason for this finding can be that definitions provide the learners with extra information that they may need for understanding. Thus, language learning is facilitated when definitions are combined with stories in a listening context. Moreover, stories add variety to the classrooms and get learners engaged in learning leading to better achievement. It is also a novel idea for the students to hear the meaning of words, not necessarily seeing the meaning, which is highly motivating for learners.

Furthermore, the better performance of the students in experimental group is in line with Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1995) which states it is necessary to pay intentional attention to the L2 input in order to learn language successfully Therefore, this noticing may have increased the chance for learners to codify definition words in their memory (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Schmidt, 1993).

A second purpose of the study was to compare the effect of L1, L2, and L1 +L2 definition on the learners' immediate and delayed vocabulary retention. Findings suggested no meaningful difference between different definition types giving support to the studies conducted by Jacobs et al. (1994) and Yoshii (2006).

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this vocabulary teaching research project supported the idea that providing learners with definition will improve their chance of vocabulary learning during listening activities. That is the provision of definitions for the unknown words seemed to be a good technique in helping students learn unknown words incidentally.

It was also found that the majority of participants preferred to listen to stories with definition and they preferred L2 definition to L1 + L2 and L1 definitions, respectively. These findings can have some implications for language teachers and material developers. The finding that the difference between definition groups and control group was significant suggests that teachers do need to provide learners with vocabulary definitions in one way or another. Second language instructors should provide L2 learners with both oral and written definitions in texts. Furthermore, the provision of definition types reduces the burden of looking up words in dictionary and prevents L2 learners from choosing of false meanings for unknown words in a particular context.

This study investigated the effect of audio definition on EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning across short stories, other researchers can conduct study across other genres. The present study used eight audio stories, future studies with more short stories may result in more generelizable results. Additionally, researchers can examine the effects of definition in a longer time using a larger sample with different proficiency levels in other contexts.

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Investigation into and Analysis on Middle School English Teachers' Competencies[*]

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Abstract—**For teachers' competence, there is no uniform standard in domestic and foreign academic circles. Foreign scholars think that the personality of the teacher can do the performance of competence while domestic scholars believe that the professional values of the teachers, that is, personal qualities, professional ethics can be competent. The domestic and foreign scholars all agree that: the definition of teachers' competence should include the professional knowledge and professional skills related to the implementation of the successful teaching. Through questionnaire survey and interview, this paper makes a research on English teachers' conception and language skills---the core competency of middle school English teachers in Shaanxi Province. It is found that there are some disparities of English teachers' conception and language skills from the requirements of the new curriculum standards. Based on the reason analysis of disparities, the following suggestions are put forward: study the new curriculum standards seriously, strengthen the studies on education and teaching theories, strengthen the guidance on teaching practice and encourage the teachers to reflect on their teaching methods.**

Index Terms—**teachers' conception, language skills, competence, English teachers, middle school**

I. INTRODUCTION

Shaanxi province began its new curriculum reform in autumn of 2003 in Xi'an City and then further expended to Xianyang, Weinan, Baoji and other urban areas. In the practice of reform, the pilot schools are facing many problems, among which faculties are being the most prominent one. And the competence of English teachers has been an important impediment in the proceeding of new curriculum reform. Therefore, to build a qualified and professional English teachers team with advanced teaching ideas is the key to carry out the teaching of English in middle school. Through a comprehensive study on the documents, it is found that the competence of English teachers in our country is still a new topic. This paper is to investigate and analyze English teachers' conception and language skills, which are the core of middle school English teachers' competency, which not only help us understand the reality of competency of middle school English teachers systematically, but also provide an empirical basis for the research of professional development and the establishment of competency assessment system.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

"Teachers' competency" refers to a professional knowledge, professional skill and professional value which are possessed by the teacher himself /herself and are related to implement the successful teaching (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Scholars at home and abroad have carried out studies on this issue from different approaches and perspectives.

A. Research Status Abroad

Foreign teachers' competency research began in early days. Development has presented a very deep and refined situation. The research results can be divided into three categories broadly: the content, model and characteristics of teacher competency research, evaluation research. **(a) Research content.** From the competency based on teacher education, human oriented teacher education to the standard based teacher education, this process shew the changes of the content of teacher's competency from 1960s to 1980: it had gone through the transition from the technical skills to the deep level of the professional knowledge and skills, creativity, professional spirit, self-reflection, and so on. Truog, A. L surveied principals from 255primary and secondary school about their hiring new teachers and perspectives on teachers' competency: in addition to professional knowledge, there should be much higher qualities. R.J.Sternberg and others (2002) found that expert teachers have the following common characteristics: knowledge of expert level; efficient; creative; insight. **(b) Model and characteristic system.** The competency concept of American psychologist McClelland

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(1973) and the iceberg model and onion model studied by Spencer (1993) effectively promoted the study of teachers' competence. Danielson (2007), one of the representatives of Empirical modeling, put forward the teacher's four-dimensional competency model. The two-factor model of Bisschoff & Grobler (1998) and the multi-factor model of independent Australian schools association also provided the reference for us. **(c) Evaluation studies.** Many scholars believe that the purposes of teacher evaluation can be divided into two categories: summative evaluation and the formative assessment (Iwanicki, 1990; etc.). American scholars (Odden, 2000; etc.) pay mutual attention to the eight standards of teacher evaluation. The new teacher evaluation system has established the new concept of developmental teacher evaluation: Students' academic performance is an important index for evaluation of teachers. People should pay attention to the differences between individual teachers and dominant position of outstanding teachers in the evaluation.

B.   Research Status at Home

In contrast, domestic research on teachers' competency started relatively late, but realizing the importance of this topic in time, scholars have been catching up. Nowadays, domestic research also presented the flourishing scene, which can be divided into the following four aspects: (a) Review the domestic and foreign research results (Liu, 2007; Luo, 2007; Xu, 2012.), promote the development of domestic teachers' competency research. Cai Yonghong (1999, 2003) and Ceng Xiaodong (2004) cited from foreign information to point out that competency evaluation is an important category of teacher evaluation. They, from the theoretical point of view, discussed the content, the evaluation, the theoretical basis, the purpose and evaluation of the teacher's competence. (b) Make an evaluation. Having a careful study on the reality of competency evaluation is helpful to improve the competency evaluation of teachers and students in our country. Cai (2001, 2003, 2005; etc.) cited foreign information to discuss teachers' competence evaluation theoretically. Xing (2003), Liu (2009), Huang (2013) studied the teacher competency evaluation in colleges and universities in China, and Li (2006), Zhai (2010) has carried on the empirical research on middle school teacher evaluation system, which makes the evaluation content transform from a single dimension to multiple dimension. (c) The contribution of a quality structure of teachers competency and construct of building a competency model. Zhang Dajun (2005), He Xinfeng and others (2006) from different angles and contents discussed the quality structure of teachers at different levels, and proposed that teachers' quality structure is an inalienable organic unity. Xu Jianping (2004) carried out a series of empirical studies on the competency model and evaluationon teachers in primary and middle schools. The research objects have primary and secondary school teachers (Xu, 2004; Luo, 2010; Li, 2011, ect), university teachers (Niu, 2009; Lin, 2010; etc.) ,higher vocational colleges teachers (Li, 2010; etc.); private college teachers (Xie, Zhou 2010); special education teachers (Shi, 2015). The research on English teacher competence is mainly concentrated in the university teachers, such as Li (2006), Tong (2012), etc, and there are a few the research literatures about the competence of secondary school English teachers, currently only 2: Zhao (2010), Feng (2013).

C.   Viewpoints of Teachers' Competency

According to the literature research, there is no uniform standard for teachers' competence in the domestic and international academic circles. Here are three representative views: E.H. Dineke (2004) proposed that teachers' competence refers to the teacher's personality characteristics, comprehensive knowledge and teaching skills and teaching attitude under different teaching backgrounds. Xing and Meng (2003) proposed that teachers' competence refers to a kind of professional knowledge, professional skills and professional values related to the successful teaching of teachers. Ceng (2004) considered that the competence of teachers is the concrete content refers to know (knowledge), ability to do (skills), faith (values), which directly affects the teaching performances, but it does not refer to the effect of these factors. The domestic and foreign scholars agree that the point is: the definition of teacher competence should include the professional knowledge and professional skills related to the implementation of successful teaching. However, there are some disputes on competency: foreign scholars think that the performance of teachers' personality traits can appear competence; Domestic scholars argue that teachers' professional values, namely the individual characters, professional ethics can shows their competency (Liu, Ge, Liu, 2007).

D.   Research Trends

From above, domestic and foreign scholars have made a lot of theoretical and empirical researches on teachers' competency. The quality of teachers has become an important breakthrough in the research of teachers' competence and the significance is widely accepted. Generally speaking, domestic research mostly focuses on the empirical research on teachers' competence based on the referencing, combing and analysis of the foreign related theories, which has a certain positive role in the development of teachers' competence in China. However, it cannot be denied that the research has a more import idea which can be seen from the competency theory, practice and research methods; the object of study is more general, lack of subject classification; the research field more concentrated in the higher education while the research on basic education has little. There is little research done on the competency of English teachers in middle schools.

This paper investigates and analyzes the present situation of middle school English teachers' competence from the "quality based" teachers' competency. From the previous researches it is known to us that the definition of the connotation of the teachers' quality mainly focuses on two aspects: Teachers' conception and teachers' professional ability, which are the core of middle school English teachers' competence. Learning from the results above, this project will also carry out

an empirical research on middle school English teachers' competency in Shaanxi under new curriculum reform from two aspects: teachers' conception and the core content of teachers' professional competency, which are their language capabilities.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

Datas from questionnaire and interviews on teachers' conception and their language ablility are adopted. The selected 180 English teachers were from Xi'an, Xianyang, Baoji and Weinan.

A. Measuring Tools

Two sets of questionnaire were chosen for research tools.

The first questionnaire is for teachers' teaching conception research. The questionnaire was designed with reference to Horwitz (1987) and Liu Runqing 's(2003) test and further combined with Xu Jianping's(2004) *Tests for Teachers' Competency and* Tong Chengshou's *Quality Model of Adept English Teachers at Primary and Secondary Levels*. It consists of two parts: one is teachers' teaching conception, a total 25 questions, including the understanding of the concept of language, teaching, teaching strategies and methods; The other is students and learning views, a total of 20 questions, including learning views, students views, the relationship between teachers and students, learning abilities and teachers' awareness of learning strategies and methods.

The second one is for teachers' language abilities. It is selected from Y.G.Butler's (2004) "*Foreign Language Assessment Scale*". Teacher are required to evaluate their listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation abilities and each one of them has six statements to choose from, scoring 6-1.

B. Test Methods

In order to ensure the validity of the questionnaire, a pre-test was implemented on the English teachers of a certain high school, who have the similar education ground as the real targets. Interviews are applied to these teachers afterwards for a proper adjustments on the questionnaire. At the same time, the questionnaire of language ability test is done with different groups of teachers and inspections is fulfilled through the calculation of correlation. By testing, it is believed that these two sets of questionnaire as research tools on teachers' conception and language ability are of high efficiency. Then, English teachers from 12 middle schools (rural township schools, city's key schools and average ones) were interviewed and tested.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Statistical Results of English Teachers' Teaching Conception and Language Abilities

On English teachers' teaching conception, it is clear that apart from two contents of teachers' relations with the students and learning abilities that stand upon the average value of 3.00, other seven contents stay below the bar without exceptions. On language abilities, it is obviously noticed that four contents of the results, including listening, reading, writing and pronunciation in the language ability tests are above or equal to the average mean, which is 3.00, and the other three, spoken ability, vocabulary and grammar below that line.

B. Analysis

From the results of the research on the conception and language ability of middle school English teachers, it is found that there exists obvious disparity between the targeted middle school English teachers and the teaching requirements of the new curriculum. Of the two aspects carried out in the research, teachers' conception greatly lagged behind, which is characterized as follows:

1. Adhere to the traditional teaching concept and believe that language is merely a structural system, ignoring the social and functional languages.

In the teaching concept of questionnaire, nearly half of all respondents would agree that "I think the purpose of English teaching is to promote students to master knowledge, making his/her a knowledgeable person." and "I think the middle school English teaching is to cultivate students' interest in learning English and a good method of learning." There are the following three reasons. Firstly, the original middle school English curriculum objective is single, neglecting the important role in the development of students' thinking ability and the cultivation of emotional attitude values, etc in the foreign language curriculum. Therefore, the original curriculum cannot meet the needs of society and students' own development. Secondly, the original middle school English education idea is backward; the teaching content is too old and single to stimulate students' learning enthusiasm; Course designs are lack of diversity and selectivity, which cannot meet the demand of different students' learning. Thirdly, the original English teaching mode of middle school overemphasizes language knowledge teaching, and the integrity and systematicness of knowledge, while ignoring the cultivation of the actual language using ability.

New Compulsory Education *English Curriculum Standard* (2011edition) points out that "The overall goal of English course in the compulsory education stage is to make students form the preliminary comprehensive language using ability, to promote the development of the mind and improve the comprehensive cultural literacy by English learning. The formation of comprehensive language using ability is based on the overall development of language skills, language

knowledge, emotional attitude, learning strategies and cultural awareness" It reflects that the student is the main body of classroom teaching, meanwhile paying attention to the all-round development of students, which reflect not only on the knowledge and skills, but also in the process and method, emotional attitude and values, cultural awareness and learning strategies in some specific training aspects.

2. Understand traditionally learning process and methods of students; lack consciousness of imparting students' learning strategies and cultivating their autonomous learning ability.

In the "learning view" and "teachers' awareness of learning strategies and methods" parts of the teachers' concept questionnaire, it is found that more than half of respondents used learning method of acceptance too much in English teaching: the teacher lectures in the most class time, while students only listen; the teacher told students the knowledge directly, while students mechanically memorize knowledge and do the same thing uniformly according to the requirements of the teacher. Of course, this is bad for students to optimize learning style. Meanwhile it is unfavorable for students to form the ability of autonomous learning. The new English curriculum advocates interaction process between teachers and students as well as between students and students; Teachers lead students to find their target learning knowledge; Students use what they have learned to do some concrete things and achieve their learning goals according to the needs and way of their own learning. In other words, students are under the guidance of teachers in the process of English learning to construct knowledge, develop skills, active thinking, show individuality and expand horizons. If the result of the teaching is emphasized, it will focus on language knowledge which should be mastered and the development of language skills eventually. While if the teaching process is emphasized, it will pay attention to students' learning and teachers' teaching process itself.

English Curriculum Standard (2011 edition) lists the different stages of the target language knowledge, language skills and the non-language purpose, so it focuses on learning outcomes. Meanwhile *English Curriculum Standard* (2011 edition) advocates teaching approach of the language learning process, for example, the task-based language teaching, and set up some procedural targets such as analysis, reflection, discussion, decision-making, explanation, cooperation, etc., which also emphasizes the learning process.

3. Think that the education reform is only the change of method level, unaware of the profound philosophy, psychology and linguistics behind the change.

From the questionnaire "education reform" part of the teachers' concept, it is found that the understanding of the new curriculum reform of some respondents is hazy, thinking its just the change of method level without realizing the philosophy, education and so on behind the new curriculum reform. The theoretical bases of the new curriculum reform are thick and timely with global perspective and the diversity, including constructivism, postmodernism, pragmatism and Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, etc. Constructivism thinks that the knowledge is not absorbed passively, but constructed actively by the cognitive subject; Post-modernism emphasizes interaction between teachers and students, and common development；Dewey advocates learning knowledge in one's life；Gardner's theory of multiple intelligence is an important theoretical basis for the implementation of quality education； Man's all-round development theory of Marx is the policy of education which is always adhered to for a long time. These good research results all reflected the people-oriented and reasonable core, which has been and will continue to give an important influence to the new curriculum reform in our country.

4. Understand students and define the relationship between teachers and students in a traditional way.

In the "viewpoint about students" and the "relationship between teachers and students" parts of the teachers' concept questionnaire, it is not hard to find that some respondents understand the relationship between teachers and students in a traditional way. The "viewpoint about students" refers to the educators' basic views to students, which dominates the educator' education behavior and decides their working attitude and working way. In the current education and teaching practice, however, there are still many teachers who have a lot of understanding that is one-sided even mistaken, which blocks the progress of education reform and the development of students. With the continuous advancement of new curriculum reform, teachers should change ideas and set up scientific viewpoint about students, making students survey self, know self and develop self correctly and objectively.

There is an old saying in China that is "If students are close to teachers, they can believe teachers and accept teachers' instruction", which means that only if students accept and respect teachers, they can listen to teachers' edification and imitate teachers' words and deeds. For a long time, English teaching in China overemphasizes cognition, ignoring the impact of affective factors on English learning. The teaching goal is only limited in the mastery and use of knowledge, combined with the pressure and competition of tests and the entrance examination, teachers only pay attention to the activities of students' cognitive system, while ignoring the teaching emotion transfer in the teaching process. If the teachers only focus on its own professional skill and teaching content, and rarely observe the students' emotional experience, there appeared to be an invisible wall between teachers and students stopping their emotion communication. Therefore it is hard to get the essence of the teaching effect. The new curriculum standard emphasizes that the emotional attitudes of students learning should be focused on in the teaching process, and teachers should cultivate and develop students' positive emotional attitude of learning English and implement common participation involved in teachers and students and harmonious development in teaching." The current new curriculum reform advocates people-oriented teaching atmosphere that teachers only "approach" students is not enough, but should be "into" students' emotional world and the depths of the soul.

From the process and results of this research, it is known that these phenomena are mainly caused by the following: teachers don't realize that today's education is "social interactions" aimed at "cultivating and constructing people's spiritual world and enhancing a comprehensive individual growth as well as an overall development". (Zhang, 2005) In reality, teachers' conception on education is utilitarian. Education was regarded as a tool made for social needs, for which knowledge masters, rather than knowledge creators are made out of education. Due to a lack of perception and practice on the teaching theory, teachers do not have the ability to change fundamentally in the minds, therefore giving birth to a feeble and helpless teaching practice.

V. CONCLUSION

The research above tells the disparity between middle school English teachers' competency in terms of teaching conception and language abilities with the requirements of the new curriculum. Hence, we must enhance the reform of middle school teachers' teaching methods; promote the professional development of English teachers; increase the competency of middle school English teachers. Through the analysis and discussion of the features of the phenomena and the inward reasons, suggestions are proposed as follows:

Study compulsory education *English Curriculum Standards* (2011 edition) seriously, for it is a guiding document of our country's elementary education. It is the basis of textbook writing, teaching, assessment and examination proposition, as well as the foundation of the national management and evaluation course, which reflects the basic requirements of our country to students of the different stages in knowledge and skills, process and method, emotional attitude and values, which rules the nature, objectives, content framework of English course, and put forward the proposals of teaching and evaluation. It not only presents the basic principles of teaching material compilation and proper suggestions for proper handling of teaching material, but also manifests the teaching and learning theory of subject curriculum. Therefore, the new curriculum standards provide an important guidance for teaching activities from the views of methodology and epistemology.

Strengthen the studies on education and teaching theories. The formation of the new curriculum standards is the guidance result of constructivism theory, which is a sort of critical reflection of the traditional education and teaching theories. Therefore, middle school English teachers should firstly study the basic knowledge about teaching and learning theories, and understand the source of philosophy, pedagogy and psychology of the new curriculum standards.

Strengthen the guidance on teaching practice and encourage the teachers to reflect on their teaching methods. The reflection process can help teachers to realize the pros and cons of the theories when utilizing in a real teaching environment and thus making adjustments to creating teaching skills, enhancing class' practical ability and innovation ability in accordance with the ideas of the new curriculum. Only in this way could teaching theories be possibly changed into teachers' teaching conceptions and a conscious action in the future.

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Evaluation of Prospect Series: A Paradigm Shift from GTM to CLT in Iran

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Abstract—**The newly published English textbooks for Iranian students have been developed and distributed by the ministry of education of the Islamic Republic of Iran since 2012 and in this article, the researchers intend to represent the findings of a textbook evaluation over the series. This newly introduced series titled "Prospect" includes three consecutive textbooks Prospect 1 to 3 designed for grades 7th to 9th of junior high school. This series is a critical turning point from various content and methodological aspects mostly due to a paradigm shift from GTM to communicative approach. The main aim of this paper is to evaluate the English Textbook "Prospect" series from teachers' point of view and represent experts' recommendations to help the material developers in improving the series. The data of this research is gathered from English teachers working in junior high school level and the population of the research included male and female teachers teaching in capital city of Tehran. The researchers developed a questioner and distributed it among a sample of 100 English teachers (50 male and 50 female teachers). The findings of the research showed that "Prospect" series is evaluated very poor in field of shape and printing quality. Teachers believed that the main pitfall of the books is lacking high quality illustrations which foster students learning. Although many teachers and practitioners participating in the research have found the new series a considerable step forward, it seems that the series faces some serious shortcomings.**

Index Terms—**prospect series, English textbook, Iran, GTM, CLT**

I. Introduction

As Foroozandeh (2011) wrote, English has been thought in formal education system of Iran since 1939 when the first English series was published and put to use in high schools of Iran. This pioneering textbook series developed in academic year of 1938-9 included 6 books for 6 grades of high school education. Kheirabadi and Alavimoghaddam (2014) evaluated that initial series as the following: "The Iranian committee of writers of this series and a group of English speaking educators who launched and implemented this joint project under the sponsorship of the ministry of culture had adopted the Direct Method (DM) and Reading Method (RM) and the series course books were not designed based upon any official curriculum." Foroozandeh (2011) evaluates that "the 6-book series did not follow the same design and procedure in all the lessons. … The 1939 series was not accompanied by any work book or teachers' manual, but the "foreword to teachers" provided comprehensive guidelines on classroom managements, student-teacher relationship, the importance and necessity of adopting a humanitarian approach to language teaching and learning, taking account of learner factors, error correction, and dictation."

The story of formal textbooks in Iran went based on traditional methods such as GTM and Reading based approaches until the publication of the recently designed series called "Prospect" introduced by the ministry of education of Iran since 2012. In this article, we aim to report the findings of a textbook evaluation research on various aspects of this series and provide a snapshot of the on-going "communicative" movement initiated by the ministry of education of Iran. To elicit the positive and negative aspects of "prospect" series from teachers' point of view, besides reviewing the researches and articles previously published on this series, we have done a qualitative research to reflect teachers point of views by preparing and distributing a short answer and open ended questioner among a group of 100 Iranian English teachers who are busy teaching Prospect book 7 and 8 in high schools of Tehran.

II. Review of Literature

Although much has been written about the history and background of teaching English in Iran before and after the Islamic revolution of 1979, still there is no comprehensive resource which presents a realistic and holistic account of teaching English in Iran. As Foroozandeh (2011) mentioned in her leading article about the history of teaching English in Iran, the history goes back to more than seven decades ago (1939) when the ministry of Farhang (Culture) of that time, introduced the first textbooks to be taught in Iran high schools. Due to the fact that revising and updating textbooks, especially English ones has always been done very slowly, formal education system of Iran has experienced a very few number of formal textbooks since its initiation in 1939. Two of the most well-known textbook series in

education system of Iran are Graded English series and Right Path to English each of them stayed in education system of the country for many years. Graded English was introduced to the Iran high schools in 1964 and put to use until 1979 when the Islamic revolution changed the education system of the country in general. Foroozandeh writes: "The Iranian high school English course books during 1964-1978 were claimed to have followed the general trend of the time (1960s to early 1970s), specifically the SLT. They were developed in a way that the students would gain a powerful basic knowledge of English necessary for future proficiency. The reading texts were selected based on the learned vocabulary. The lessons and grammar points followed a principled sequencing and grading, and that is why this revised English series is referred to as "Graded English.""

In general, teaching English, before the victory of the Islamic Revolution of 1979 was strongly under the influence of two major powers of USA and UK. As Davari and Aghagolzadeh (2015) note: "During Pahlavi dynasty (1925-1979), Iran experienced an extensive collaboration with the West on economics, education, political and cultural affairs. Through the practical steps were taken towards establishing a modern society, the sphere of education was not an exception to this rule. In fact, in response to the needs of national economic reform agenda and the country's push for modernization, new aims for education were formulated with an orientation to outside world and the future. Undoubtedly, in such a new context, English and English education received much more attention and the use of this language to the status of Iran's number one foreign language dates back to this period."

Teaching English in post-revolutionary Iran has totally a different story which passed through a host of pros and cons. As Aghagolzadeh and Davari cited: "As Borjian (2013) notes, during the early years of the Revolution, the questions as to what to do with English and whether it stays on school and university curricula or be entirely banned were at the center stage of a heated debate among the new ruling power of the country."

The most well-known series of English textbooks which came to use during the post-revolutionary era and lasted for more than 25 years without any major modification was titled "Right Path to English". Many researches had been done and much has been published to evaluate this series. Kheirabadi and Alavimoghaddam (2014) did a comprehensive meta-analysis on the subject from both internal and external aspects and studied Authenticity, Gender parity, Cohesion and coherence and Cultural issues among internal factors and the findings of their analysis showed that among the main weak points of "Right Path to English", its traditional methodology which is mostly based upon teaching Grammar and Reading, is the most prominent one.

III. WINDS OF CHANGE: PROSPECT SERIES

Publication of new English textbooks is a radical paradigm shift in sphere of TEFL in Iran from each and every aspect. This series includes 6 books under the general name of "English for Schools" and is divided into two 3 volumes series titled as "Prospect 1 to 3" for junior high school and "Vision 1 to 3" for senior high school level. The first volume of the series distributed and put to use in 2013-2014 Academic year in all grade 7th of junior high school classes covering more than one million students annually. The series developer is Curriculum Development Center (CDC) of Organization for Educational Research and Planning (OERP) of Islamic Republic of Iran, and the authors are a group of Iranian language experts. Prospect series is thematically designed and each lesson is developed around a central idea or them. The authors referred to CEFR in Teachers' Guide of the series and apparently, in choosing the themes of the books this European Framework has been a source of inspiration. Prospect 1 has 8 lessons titled and themed as bellow:
- Lesson 1: My Nationality (Functions: Introducing yourself/Greeting)
- Lesson 2: My Classmates (Functions: Asking someone's name/Introducing others)
- Lesson 3: My Age (Functions: Talking about your age/Talking about dates)
- Lesson 4: My Family (Functions: Talking about your family)
- Lesson 5: My Appearance (Functions: Talking about appearance)
- Lesson 6: My House (Functions: Talking about Where people are / Talking about what people are doing)
- Lesson 7: My Address (Functions: Talking about your address/ phone number/ Telling the time)
- Lesson 8: My Favorite Food (Functions: Talking about your favorite food/ Making Suggestions) (Prospect 1 teachers' guide, 2013, PDF available on: http://eng-dept.talif.sch.ir/index.php?page_id=96)

To have a better understanding of the design of a lesson in Prospect 1 let us have glance at the objectives of a lesson excerpted from its official Techers' Guide.
Lesson Objectives (Lesson2 My Classmates)
Functions
Introducing others/ Asking someone's name
Literacy Skills
Identifying, saying, and writing **e, b, p**/ Spelling one's name
Key Language
Words and Expressions: boy, girl, man, woman, friend, classmate/ **Conversational Language Frames**:
Who's that (boy)? He's my (friend) ………… This is my (friend) ………….. Nice to meet you.
Nice to meet you, too. Sorry, what's your (last) name again? Can you help me, please? I can't spell …………
The teaching procedure of the lesson is as the following:
Conversation

Preparation (10 minutes)

- Describe the lesson objectives in Persian.
- Tell students to look at the picture on Page 10. Ask them some introductory questions in Persian:

Listening (10 minutes)

- Now ask the students to look at the picture again and listen to the conversation on CD.
- Play the CD two or three times.
- Now ask questions (in Persian) to check what your students have understood.

Practice 1: Introducing Others

(15 minutes)

- Tell your students that they are going to learn different ways of introducing and greeting others. Let them know what each turn means.
- Let them know what the words *classmate* and *friend* mean and ask them to repeat the words several times.
- Then play the CD two or three times and ask them to repeat the turns. You can also divide the class into two groups and ask each group to repeat one turn. This can be practiced with individual students.
- Then ask the class to introduce one student to you and you do the greeting.
- Next ask your students to work in groups of three and practice introducing and greeting others. They can refer to the photo dictionary at the end of their student books for words they don't know.
- Finally, invite groups to come to the front of the class to role play the introductions and greetings.

Sounds and Letters

Preparation (5 minutes)

- Tell your students that they are going to learn to identify, say, and write the letters **e**, **b**, and **p**.
- Tell students to look at the conversation on Page 12. Then play the CD two or three times.
- Now ask questions (in Persian) to check what they have understood.

Letter E/e (15 minutes)

- Ask your students to look at the conversation in their books and identify the letter e in the word Behparvar.
- Show the flash card for letter E/e and say the name of the letter two or three times.
- Show the flash card, say the name and ask students to repeat it.
- Using the example words on the flash card, explain the two written forms for the letter. Tell them that the upper-case forms are used at the beginning of proper names and the first word in a sentence.
- Now ask your students to find words with the letter E/e in their books.
- Then draw your students' attention to the sound of the letter: /e/. Give examples of names with the sound and ask students to repeat them.
  Example names: Behnaz, Pedram, Emad, Esmat, Sepehr, Sepideh, etc.
- Ask if there are students in class whose names include the letter E/e. Ask them to decide what the letter e in their names sounds like.
- Using the board, show them how to write the letter in the two forms. Draw their attention to the directions in shaping the letter.
- Now ask them to practice writing the letter E/e on Page 56 in the appendix at the end of their workbooks.

Listening and Reading

Preparation (5 minutes)

- Explain that the students are going to listen to two conversations in which people are greeting and introducing themselves. The students are supposed to listen carefully and (through reading) put a check mark (✓) in the box below the names (first and last) based on what they hear on the CD for each conversation.
- Ask them to use pencils rather than pens so that they can correct their answers if wrong.

Listening (15 minutes)

- Play the CD once and ask students to check the correct names.
- Play the CD again and ask them to check their answers.
- Ask them to compare their answers in pairs.
- If needed, play the CD again and check the students' answers.

Speaking and Writing

(15 minutes)

- Explain what your students are supposed to do in this part: Each student greets three other students and asks for their names. Then he/she decides on the shortest and the longest first and last names in the group and writes them in the spaces provided in the table on Page 13 in their student books.
- Tell them to use the question *How do you spell your ………. name?* or *Can you help me, please? I can't spell ………* when needed.
- Walk around the class and monitor what your students are doing and help them if needed.
- Once completed, ask students to report the names they have found.

Your Conversation
(15 minutes)
• Explain that your students are going to work in groups and practice the lesson functions using their own information.

• Remember that the incomplete conversation on Page 13 in the student book is only a model and that your students are not supposed to write anything to complete it. ***This is only an oral practice.***

• Give them enough time to practice their conversation in groups.

• Walk around the class and help them if necessary.

• Then ask them to act out the conversation for the class.

• **(Optional Activity)** Ask students from different parts of the class to do the conversation.

• **(Game)** Ask a student to spell his/her name and the class will say the name. Then ask another student to say his/her name and the class will spell the name. Continue this with several students in class. This can be a chain practice.

(Prospect 1 teachers' guide, 2013, PDF available on: http://eng-dept.talif.sch.ir/index.php?page_id=96)

This theme based design based on CLT principle is considered to be quite an achievement for the educational system of Iran which was bounded into grammar and reading based methods in field of teaching foreign languages and many teachers have found this paradigm shift a dream came true and a miracle accomplishment. For comparing Prospect series with its previous Right Path to English counterpart see Kheirabadi and Alavimoghaddam (2014)

IV. METHODOLOGY

As previously mentioned, the role of textbooks in fully centralized education system is indispensable. Nunan (1987) notice the importance of materials as an essential element within the curriculum, which do more than simply lubricate the wheels of learning. They also provide concrete models for desirable classroom practice and act as curriculum models and at their very best they fulfill a teacher development role.

Consequently, textbook evaluation can play a crucial role in improving the process. Materials evaluation plays such an important role in language teaching that its potential for influencing the way teachers operate is considerable. Materials evaluation can and should be a two-way process which enables teachers not just to select a textbook, but also to develop their awareness of their own teaching/learning situation.

Sawin [7] points that "Evaluation studies can shed light on the points of strengths and weaknesses of the syllabus" and finding these points of strength and weaknesses is exactly what we aim to do in this study. To do so, we did a qualitative research based on a researcher developed a questioner and distributed among highly experienced teachers who were busy teaching the relevant books in city of Tehran. The population of the study included all English teachers of the city of Tehran (from all municipality districts) in academic year of 2014-2015.

Prior to the data collection phase, we did a pilot administration of the research and distributed the instrument of the research, the researchers' devised questioner, among a group of 30 English teachers belonging to the population of the study. The results of analyzing the collected questioners helped us in improving the instrument and smoothing the administration phase.

We distributed the copies of the instrument among a group of 100 English teachers in May 2015. Distribution of the instrument was equally divided among four major geographical parts of the city. The respondents were a group of 100 teachers (50 males and 50 females), the most crucial including condition was teaching Prospect 1 and 2 in the relevant academic year.

In order to improve the validity and credibility of the findings, res we asked the teachers to fill out the lists either immediately or within a time span of one week. Thanks to their interest about the subject of the research and their highly appreciable cooperation, most of the lists were completed on the same day.

The questioner was including three major open ended questions:
- What are the most observable positive points of Prospect series? (Especially with an eye to the previous series).
- What are the most serious weak points and shortcomings of this series?
- What are your suggestion(s) to the authors of the books to improve the negative issues and boost the positive ones?
In the following section the analyzed findings of the research are represented.

V. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

As mentioned above, this paper is the reflections of a group of teachers about the Prospect series and findings are demarcated within this teacher-based framework. Teachers as the main stakeholders of teaching process are considered as one of the best sources for textbook evaluation. After analyzing the data derived from questioners we summarized the findings as below:

In response to the first research question, many teachers believe that the most significant privilege of Prospect (especially while comparing with the preceding series) is definitely its more updated approach as a whole. Its communicative approach is responding to highly demanded change of method from very traditional ones to modern ones. Above 85 percent of answers were centered on this feature of the book. However, this most prominent advantage of the books has simultaneously been found as the most challenging aspect of the book. As teachers mentioned, many of

their colleagues are not effectively trained for this paradigm shift and they are baffled with new theoretical concepts represented in teachers' guides. It seems that lack of realistic and relevant professional development courses is a serious shortcoming of this national program. A teacher's response is very illuminating: "it seems to us a sudden tsunami reached the calm and peaceful coasts that we (teachers) were relaxing there. Although we all support this new wave of change and find it as a necessary evolution, most of us were, and even are unprepared for it. We have some colleagues with more than 25 years of teaching experience and they had not had any in-service training during this long span of time after their recruitment, so how we can expect them to adapt themselves with this new wave?..."

The official answer of the ministry of education to this group of teachers is mainly referring them to the teachers' guide, while the circulation of this manual shows that many teachers do not welcome it warmly and a group of them are even unable to understand its content fully and truly.

The second advantage of the series is its supporting components: TG, workbook, audio CD, teachers' flashcard and teachers' video file. Almost all respondents declared that they found this series more comprehensive and supporting when comparing with its previous ancestors. Unfortunately this good point of the series is coincided with another shortcoming: poor distribution of some particles especially the teachers' guide and audio CD.

In general, our findings show that: Prospect series is evaluated as successful in its approach and methodology, its teaching aids and setting objectives and preparing content. Although, in case of content, some conversations are evaluated as very long, time-consuming and above zero beginner level needing background knowledge of students to be taught.

In terms of pitfalls and shortcomings of the program and series, in addition to what stated above, we found that:

- Many teachers have found the general shape of the books, their size, illustrations and photos, and printing quality poor and very low degree of consent came to this feature. Many of the respondents believe that the photos are both of low quality and relevance to the subject and one can easily replace them with any other photos. Choosing photos from popular web engines (mainly Google Image service) is another weak point of the series which seems to be even humiliating to some teachers!

- Above 90 percent of participants in this research feel that the time allocated to this series is too short and 80 minutes in one session weakly is almost nothing. It is evaluated as a violation of the accepted principles of CLT in their point of view.

- Lack of supplementary material, teacher training and in-service courses, some facilities and tools such as high quality audio player in some cases is reported as other pitfalls of the program in general.

As gist of the findings, it is clear that teachers are strongly supporting the program as a whole but do have many questions and ambiguities about various aspects of this on-going quest.

VI. Conclusion

The findings of the research showed that "Prospect" series is evaluated very successful in some aspects while very poor in field of others. Paying attention to modern evolution in methodology, teaching all four skills at the same time, and preparing a more communicative book which responds to students needs are among the high grounds and low quality of the general shape and printing condition of the books are the most debated weak points. The best feature of the series as evaluated by the teachers is considering students' needs and its CLT approach. Although many teachers and practitioners participating in the research have found the new series a considerable step forward, it seems that the series faces some serious shortcomings. The findings of this research can be useful for both series designers and authors and the policy makers in the ministry of the education.

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- 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.

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