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Learners' Self-perception of Target Language Study in Overseas Immersion

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Abstract—Studies have supported the belief that study abroad (SA) is more beneficial than studying domestically in developing oral proficiency (e.g., Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004). However, little research has focused on individual learner factors related to promoting learners' effectiveness in language learning abroad, such as an ideal point in target language (TL) study in SA contexts. The current study investigated the learner-perception of their preferred time in TL study for overseas immersion self-reported by students themselves. Participants ($N=125$) studying 30 languages in 32 different countries were recruited nation-wide. The results of students' self-reports revealed that participants preferred intermediate levels of TL proficiency than any other level of proficiency. Findings of this study, even though they are based on the self-reported data, make important contributions to SA research and to the field of international education.

Index Terms—self-perception, study abroad, immersion context, target language

I. INTRODUCTION

Language educators have been interested in identifying which aspects of language abilities are most improved by studying a target language (TL) in an immersive versus at-home context. At-home contexts, as defined by Serran, Llanes, and Tragant (2011), can be divided into three types: intensive programs (where students are exposed to 20-25 hours of language instruction/use per week), semi-intensive programs (students are exposed to 10-15 hours of language instruction/use per week), and regular programs (students are exposed to 2-5 hours of language instruction/use per week). The current paper has focused on the last type of program as it relates to the participants of the study.

Empirical studies have supported the view that studying abroad (SA) may result in more benefits for students than studying domestically in developing specific language skills such as oral proficiency (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004) as well as conversational (Brecht & Robinson, 1993; Freed, 1995; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004) or pragmatic (Barron, 2006) competence. Some prior studies showed that language attitudes and host families responses also affected student language learning outcomes in SA contexts (Wilkinson, 2002; Dewey, Belnap, & Hillstrom, 2013). In this paper, we define 'oral proficiency' as knowledge, competence, or ability in the use of a target language (Bachman, 1990).

Despite the positive findings above, there has been lack of research to identify individual learner factors that promote learners' ability to learn a language abroad. In fact, most of the studies are exploratory in nature and very few build up on previous research (D'Urso 1997; Knight & Schmidt-Rhinehart, 2002; Whitworth, 2006). Even though the level of students' language skills going into the SA language program is known to be an important factor for predicting language learning outcomes (Rifkin, 2005; Dewey, Bown, & Eggett 2012), the effective timing and students' proficiency level for such immersion is still relatively unknown. In addition, prior studies which investigated program gains in SA contexts often focused on students' language improvement as outcome measures, but did not necessarily look at students' cultural gains or the relationship between their overseas immersion experience and their proficiency level. Further uncertainty also remains in the relationship between students' TL proficiency and their actual SA classroom performance.

The current study sought answers to the challenges of tailoring SA language programs to various student characteristics through learners' own self-perception. The study investigated the learner self-perception of TL study in overseas immersion, by examining students' self-responses to their cultural gains, their TL classroom outcome, and the degree of their immersion in their target culture. It further linked students' self-assessment results with their proficiency levels. Although the study did not include any direct measures of learners' language gains, we believe that this self-perception approach could provide useful insights into better understanding students' needs and desires.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Attainments in SA Contexts

While the popularity of SA programs has been increasing, previous research findings may illustrate only partial aspects of SA program gains considering the complexity of SA language and culture learning. Collentine and Freed (2004) discuss various studies, which display different amounts of gain in SA and at-home (AH) contexts. Their findings suggest that the AH students increased their ability to use grammar more significantly than the SA students. DeKeyser (1991) also found that language learners in a SA context improved only equally, if not less, than their counterparts studying in an AH context in terms of their grammar usage.

Most research has demonstrated that out-of-country study programs do improve at least some aspect of the participants' language abilities. Time abroad can improve language learners' oral and conversational skills (e.g., Brecht & Robinson, 1993; Freed, 1995; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004), overall fluency (e.g., Möhle & Raupach, 1983), learners' lexicons (e.g. Milton & Meara, 1995), reading and writing complexity (Fraser, 2002; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004), and pragmatic competence (Kinginger & Farrell, 2004; Dewey, Belnap, & Hillstrom, 2013). In fact, most studies often refrain from reporting absolutely no gains from SA experiences because it is somewhat unusual for a study abroad student to register no gain at all (Davidson, 2010). This indicates that SA programs may not affect a learner's overall language capability, but rather may only improve a single aspect of their language ability.

Proficiency Threshold for SA Language Learning

The good level of proficiency and the optimal time of exposure after which such immersion programs can be undertaken are largely unknown. Freed (1995) and her colleagues synthesized various study abroad research and agreed that there may be a proficiency threshold for linguistic improvements attained from study abroad experiences. That is, a certain point in a learner's linguistic knowledge could make them best suited to advance their language abilities in an immersion setting (e.g., Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsburg, 1993). Lafford and Collentine (2006) also suggest there is a threshold of language acquisition learners must attain before they can reap the most rewards in a study abroad context of learning.

Davidson's (2010) study examined how different periods of study and different levels of pre-immersion proficiency in a study abroad context would affect students' acquisition of a TL (Russian). Gains were determined based on American Council of the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) for three skills areas: Speaking, reading, and listening. They found that there were moderate gains in speaking. Davidson (2010) added that overall learner control and awareness of language structure correlated positively with gains in all skills, and at all proficiencies, during the study abroad experience.

Although there have been many different findings in the research regarding the good time to immerse a language learner in the TL, many researchers (e.g. Collentine, 2009; Martinsen, 2008) agree that the general consensus falls in favor of beginning-level language learners gaining the greatest amount of improvement in (especially oral and aural) communication skills. This is corroborated by the findings in Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsberg (1993) study where participants made greater improvements when they were at less advanced levels of language learning. Davidson (2010), however, suggests this finding may be due to the fact that the majority of research has focused on beginning and intermediate students in 4-week, 8-week, or, occasionally, semester long programs.

The idea of a threshold for language learning can be a complicated matter. As Collentine (2009) suggests, "while the general notion of a threshold level is important...there are most likely specific domains that require a particular developmental threshold for overall gains to occur" (p. 221). In that way, each experience builds on itself. Segalowitz and Freed's (2004) study demonstrated that students would need at least a basic level of word recognition and processing abilities in order to substantially improve their oral abilities. Thus, it is possible that a certain level of knowledge of the TL's phonetics would be ideal before the learner could achieve significant gains in listening comprehension. Language learners may be at a threshold to make significant gains in one area of their linguistic competence (e.g. speaking abilities), but not as proficient in another area.

SA cultural gains and immersion

Not only does linguistic knowledge of the TL indicate the good time to immerse one's self in the TL but one's knowledge of the target culture may also be a factor. SA research studies pertinent to cultural gains have focused on the effects and expectations of culture on SA participants' experiences. They are often operationalized through exit questionnaires asking participants to evaluate the impact of their SA experience on their personal traits (Hansel & Grove, 1986). However, as Sutton and Rubin (2004) argue, such a method of reporting students' own opinion of personal growth may not speak directly to issues of academic benefit. As studying abroad can accelerate students' growth along some continua of cultural/cognitive/affective development (e.g. ethno-relativism development, inter-group tolerance, global-mindedness) (Sutton & Rubin, 2004), psycho-social attainments can certainly be a desirable assessment as part of the cultural gains in the SA contexts.

Rivers (1998) examined the impact of students' language gain by comparing two Russian SA environments: (1) a homestay experience and (2) a dormitory environment. She emphasized the importance of the quality of interaction with the native Russian hosts and argued that interactions were not enough if they were limited to a basic set of daily conversation topics and television watching, or if students spent most of their time doing homework in an isolated context. Other studies (e.g., Yager, 1998) have found that greater non-interactive language contact (e.g., reading books, watching television) correlated to less language gain, especially for beginning students of a second language. Similarly, Allen and Herron (2003) urge for increased contact with target culture members in order to stimulate linguistic gains.

However, what is still uncertain is how different levels of TL proficiency may affect learner's acquisition of culture and language in an immersion setting.

It is important to note that self-reports have been deemed to be unreliable when evaluated on their own and cannot replace more rigorous forms of assessment such as proficiency tests (Berg, Paige & Lou, 2012). However, many researchers have promoted or used self-reports in combination with other forms of data collection to acquire a more robust view of the topic (Cohen, 1987; Liskin-Gasparro, 1998; Pellegrino, 1998; Allen & Herron, 2003; Dewey, Ring, Gardner, & Belnap, 2013). Furthermore, such reports are especially important when investigating oral skills "because of the individual and contextual factors that affect language performance" when evaluating spoken data (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998, p.161). Therefore, the approach of the current study –exploring SA students' success through various learning outcomes— can help shed more light on the process of language learning so that we can ultimately better advise students about studying language abroad.

The current study sought to answer an overarching question: When is the good time (e.g. beginning, intermediate, advanced) self-perceived by students themselves in foreign language study for overseas immersion? Then, it was guided by the following sub-questions: (1) When is the learner's most preferred time to achieve positive gains when studying abroad as self-reported by students?; and (2) When is the good time self-reported by students to achieve optimal cultural and program gains when studying abroad?

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The study initially recruited 143 participants to complete the pre-survey, which was to be taken before students went abroad. Due to financial difficulty and other personal issues, eighteen participants reported that they were unable to go abroad for their SA program. Therefore, the final data set included 125 participants who had completed both the pre- and post-survey. These 125 participants included 96 females and 29 males. They were comprised of members of the following ethnicities: Caucasian (96), African-American (3), Hispanic (11), Asian American (4), and multi-racial (11). The majority of the participants (122) spoke English as their home language, while three were Spanish/English bilingual. Twenty-five of the participants had had some kind of SA experience in the past, while 100 of them had had no previous experience overseas. Participants' TLs and host countries include 44 Spanish (29 from Spain, 9 from Mexico, 4 from Costa Rica, 2 from Chile), 10 French, 1 German, 3 Italian, 5 Arabic, 6 Russian, 3 Chinese, 7 Japanese, 2 Korean, 3 Hindi (India), 2 Portuguese (Brazil), 3 Swahili (Tanzania, Kenya), 10 Marathi (India), 3 Irish (Ireland), 1 Hebrew (Israel), 4 Danish, 2 Hungarian, 2 Swedish, 2 Dutch, 1 Zulu, and 1 Icelandic. In all, 30 different languages were studied by at least one participant in 32 different countries.

Participants were recruited from all over the United States for one-academic-semester programs. We made announcements via a listserv designed specifically for Education Abroad professionals (SECUSS-L@LISTSERV.BUFFALO.EDU) to recruit undergraduate students nationwide. Additionally, we made individual contact with directors of SA programs at various state universities in the U.S. As a result, participants were recruited from 28 different statewide colleges and universities across the nation. The study included participants who took a semester long programs, but did not include students enrolled in short-term (2-6 week) SA programs.

The participants' TL proficiency was determined based upon students' self-reports in the pre-survey about their proficiency, their current TL course enrollment, and their background information provided. Initially, the proficiency was divided into 10 levels: low beginners (31), beginners (9), upper beginners (11), low intermediate (15), intermediate (24), upper intermediate (10), low advanced (15), advanced (7), upper advanced (2), and native-like (1). The study collapsed the proficiency groups for the sake of convenience: Students from lower to upper beginners (i.e., numerical values from 1-3) became one beginning level (51: 40.8%). The same process was used to create one intermediate (49: 39.2%), and one advanced (25: 20%) group. That is, students from lower to upper intermediate (i.e., numerical values from 4-6) became one intermediate level. Those from lower to native-like (numerical values 7-10) became one advanced level. Based on students' self-evaluation on their TL proficiency, solely numerical values were used for this level collapsing process. Consequently, three levels of proficiency were used for the final data analysis.

Thirty-two of the 125 participants additionally took part in online interviews, and 10 of them attended focused group meetings. Ten instructors and SA advisors provided written reflection reports. All participants were remunerated for their participation.

Instruments

The study used two (1 pre- and 1 post-) surveys. Participants were asked to complete the pre-survey before their SA experience; it consisted of 129 items in total. Upon their return to the U.S, students were asked to complete a post-survey, which included 171 items. The pre- and post- survey instruments were designed to collect information on three aspects: 1) Background information, 2) Intercultural learning outcomes (ILO), and 3) Language Immersion — the degree to which students immersed themselves in the language. Survey items were refined through several pilot phases with SA students who participated in short-term summer programs. The revised optically scanned pre- and post-surveys were adopted for the current study.

Background information. The surveys began by asking general questions about students' language learning background, their anticipated study abroad outcomes, and their impressions about their host country. The SA outcome

questions were anchored on a five-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“not at all”) to 5 (“very much”). Other questions covered prior experiences abroad and gathered basic program information such as the length of the program, the country to visit, and the TL to study. There were also open-ended questions asking participants detailed description of their SA programs.

Intercultural learning outcomes (ILO). The second part of the pre- and post- survey instruments utilized the ILO measurement (Sutton & Rubin, 2004). The ILO was created to be specific to learning outcomes derived from studying abroad. As Sutton and Rubin argue, the ILO is sufficiently generic to work across a wide variety of disciplines. The 34-item survey samples items from seven content domains with 5-point Likert scales; the content domains are: (1) functional knowledge (10 items, e.g., *I know how to use a public telephone in a foreign country*), (2) knowledge of global interdependence (5 items, e.g., *I understand how foreign manufacturing affects the prices of consumer goods in the US.*), (3) knowledge of cultural relativism (4 items, e.g., *I know enough about a foreign language and culture to compare and contrast it with my own*), (4) verbal acumen (4 items, e.g., *I know how to find different ways to express an idea that I am having trouble saying to a foreigner*), (5) knowledge of world geography (6 items, e.g., *I know the names of at least four rivers in Europe*), (6) interpersonal accommodation (4 items, e.g., *I know how to be patient when interacting with people*), and (7) cultural sensitivity (3 items, e.g., *I am sensitive to how specific settings affect my style of interacting with others*). The reliability coefficients of internal items for each of these 7 dimensions were reasonably acceptable ($\alpha > .71$).

Language immersion. The study developed the language immersion survey based upon Freed, Dewey, Segalowitz, and Halter’s (2004) Language Contact Profile. The survey form adapted for this study has evolved over the last decades through studies by Seliger (1977), Bialystok (1978), and is used extensively in a number of studies (e.g., Kohro, 2001). Note that as Freed et al.’s (2004) language contact profile was originally made for acquisition of Spanish as a second language, the current study revised the language of items so that they would apply to all foreign languages, rather than just Spanish.

The pre-Language-Immersion (17 items) mostly asked students questions about their previous use of their TL, while the post-survey (81 items) asked students to quantify the amount of TL contact using the following descriptors: (1) typically how many days per week (0-7)? or (2) typically how many hours per day (from 0-1 hr to more than 5 hours)? The pre-Language Immersion survey items were grouped into two sub-constructs (with overlapping questions combined) to produce two dimensions: Speaking for Social Purposes (7 items) and Exposure to Media in the Target Language (7 items). The internal reliability of the items for the two constructs was high ($>.85$). The post-Language-Immersion survey items were much greater in number and had to be grouped into five different dimensions: Speaking for Social Purposes (23 items), Speaking for Academic purposes (13 items), Exposure to Media (19 items), Exposure to Other Languages (16 items), and Writing in the Target Language (10 items). The internal reliability of the items for each dimension was also acceptable ($>.77$).

Data collection

Self-reports. This study relied on the students’ self-reports of their experiences studying abroad. Online surveys (e.g., learning background, the ILO, language immersion) were administered to the study abroad participants prior to departure and after their return. The study undertook quantitative data analysis of 125 student questionnaires, including surveys of SA participants during the academic years. Other forms of student self-assessment included two focus group meetings (an hour each with 5 students) involving sub-sets of the population who had recently returned from studying abroad. The focus groups were comprised of individuals who had taken both pre- and post-surveys. These group discussions were recorded and transcribed. Additionally, thirty-two participants agreed to participate in on-line interviews (e.g., Gmail Chat).

Faculty and SA adviser reports. The study also solicited written reports from seasoned faculty leaders and SA advisors. Ten faculty members ($N=6$) and SA advisors ($N=4$) provided end-of-program case reports that described their observations of the effectiveness or critical incidents of their program on and about the student participants.

Data analysis

The study aimed to answer the following research questions: (1) When is the most preferred time to achieve optimal gains when studying abroad as self-reported by students? (2) When is the good time self-reported by students to achieve optimal cultural and program gains when studying abroad? The first research question was answered through descriptive statistics at first by comparing the self-reported times provided by the students at different proficiency levels. Then, a repeated measure mixed-factorial ANOVA2 (*Time*) x 3 (*Proficiency Level*) was conducted to investigate the effect of time and proficiency levels. As for the second research question, a series of mixed factorial ANOVAs (2 *Time* x 3 *Proficiency Level*) and subsequent *post-hoc* analyses were used for each of the seven outcome variables of the ILO.

Qualitative segments of data in the study were carefully reviewed and coded; i.e., the data were organized chronologically, and written scripts and notes were reviewed multiple times. Participants’ coded data and other written documents were used as supportive evidence to elaborate and help explain the quantitative data results (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

IV. RESULTS

Self-reports on the preferred time to be abroad

In order to answer the first research question regarding students' self-perception of TL study in overseas immersion, the study started with the first sub-question, which investigated the most, preferred time self-reported by students. See Table 1. In the pre-survey, participants' preference on their proficiency level was relatively widely distributed across level. After collapsing the proficiency groupings (from lower to upper), the study yielded three levels of proficiency (the beginner, the intermediate, and the advanced). The intermediate level weighed somewhat more heavily (51.2%) in participants' preferred language proficiency for SA experiences. The intermediate level preference was followed by the beginner level (39.2%) and the advanced level (9.6%). The fewest number of participants responded that the best time to go abroad was before they studied the TL (5.6%).

On the other hand, the post-survey responses collected after participants had their SA experience, demonstrated some changes to the pattern. Less than 1 percent (0.8%) of the respondents would choose to go abroad before studying any of their TL. Only a quarter of the participants (24%) preferred the beginner levels, whereas two third of the respondents (66.4%) selected the intermediate level as the ideal proficiency to be immersed in the TL and culture. The advanced level was still the least favored (9.6%). As shown in Figure 1, while students' preference for the beginner level decreased from the pre-test to the post-test, their preference for the lower intermediate and intermediate levels increased noticeably.

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANTS' PREFERENCE ON THEIR PROFICIENCY LEVEL TO BE IMMERSSED IN TARGET LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Proficiency level	Collapsed proficiency level	Number of pre-test response (N=125)	Number of post-test response (N=125)
Before learning TL		7 (5.6%)	1 (.8%)
Low beginner	Beginner	12 (9.6%)	7 (5.6%)
Beginner		14 (11.2%)	9 (7.2%)
High beginner		16 (12.8%)	13 (10.4%)
Low intermediate	Intermediate	14 (11.2%)	26 (20.8%)
Intermediate		33 (26.4%)	42 (33.6%)
High intermediate		17 (13.6%)	15 (12.0%)
Low advanced	Advanced	6 (4.8%)	5 (4.0%)
Advanced		4 (3.2%)	5 (4.0%)
High advanced		1 (.8%)	1 (.8%)
Native-like		1 (.8%)	1 (.8%)

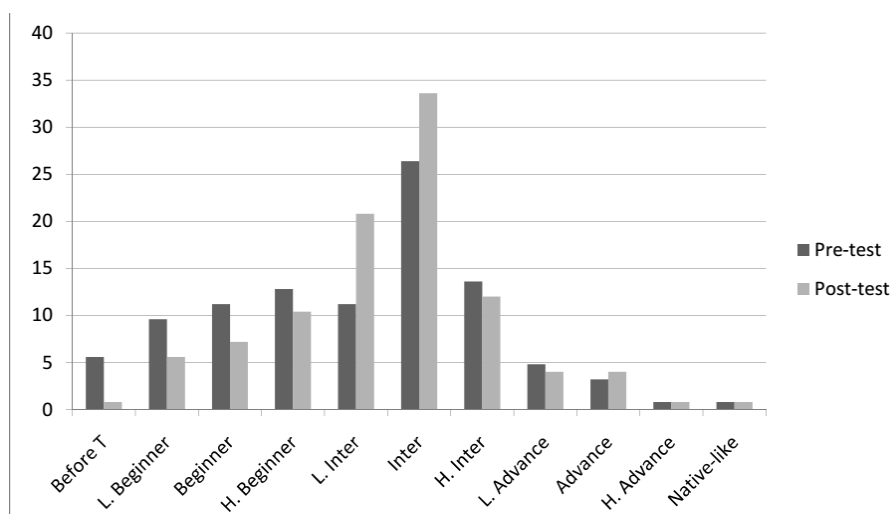


Figure 1 Percent Distribution for Participants' Preference on Their Proficiency Level in SA Immersion
Note. T=target language, L=low, and H=high.=

Participants' self-evaluated proficiency was examined for both pre-surveys and post-surveys. The study computed 2 (*Time*) x 3 (*Proficiency Level*) repeated measure mixed-factorial ANOVAs. *Time* and *Proficiency Levels* were computed as independent variables and participants' self-reports on their preferred time (1-10) were performed as a dependent variable. Participants were asked to rate their proficiency using a 10-point scale (1=low beginner and 10= native-like). Their proficiency scores were collapsed from lower to upper as one level, yielding three levels of proficiency, i.e., beginners (51), intermediate (49), and advanced (25). See Table 2 below. The means of self-reported proficiency for each level in the pre-survey were 1.60 (SD=.65) for the beginner, 3.82 (SD=.77) for the intermediate, and 5.94 (SD=1.0) for the advanced. The means of the self-reported proficiency in the post-survey were 4.12 (SD=1.75) for the beginner, 6.61 (SD=1.31) for the intermediate, and 7.67 (SD=2.05) for the advanced. There was a significant interaction effect ($F_{2, 122} = 15.35, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = 0.15$) for *Time* x *Proficiency*, and a significant main effect ($F_{1, 122} = 62.54, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = 0.49$) for *Time*. Tukey's HSD procedure was conducted to analyze the interaction between *Time* and *Proficiency Level*.

TABLE 2
PARTICIPANTS' SELF-REPORTED PROFICIENCY LEVELS OF TARGET LANGUAGE (N=125)

Proficiency level	No. of pre-test response (%)	No. of post-test response (%)	Collapsed Level	Mean (SD) of pre-test	Mean (SD) of post-test
Low beginner	31 (24.8)	4 (3.2)	Beginner (N=51)	1.67 (.89)	4.12 (1.75)
Beginner	9 (7.2)	7 (5.6)			
High beginner	11 (8.8)	14 (11.2)			
Low inter.	15 (12.0)	13 (10.4)	Intermediate (N=49)	4.94 (.77)	6.61 (1.31)
Intermediate	24 (19.2)	20 (16.0)			
High inter	10 (8.0)	20 (16.0)			
Low advanced	15 (12)	19 (15.2)	Advanced (N=25)	7.72(1.07)	7.67 (2.05)
Advanced	7 (5.6)	18 (14.4)			
High advanced	2 (1.6)	8 (6.4)			
Native-like	1 (0.8)	2 (1.6)			

The contrasts revealed that the intermediate and advanced levels exceeded the beginner level on the self-ratings of participants' own proficiency at post-surveys as well as at the pre-surveys ($p < .001$). Then, both beginners and intermediate learners perceived that their proficiency had improved significantly after their SA experience. The difference in the mean proficiency scores self-reported between participants' pre- and post-survey answers were significantly different ($p < .001$). In contrast, advanced learners did not find their proficiency in their TL changed after studying abroad ($M_{\text{pre-survey}}=7.72$ vs. $M_{\text{post-survey}}=7.67$). The self-evaluated mean scores of proficiency in advanced speakers slightly decreased, albeit not statistically significant.

Self-reports on optimal cultural and program gains

The second research question asked the good time to achieve optimal cultural and program gains when studying abroad. Using students' self-reports on their own progress in these areas, several items on the questionnaire were analyzed to answer this question. For the statistical analyses, each of the ILO criteria became a dependent variable, whereas the proficiency level and time remained as independent variables.

Intercultural learning outcomes (ILO). In order to better understand the optimal point in foreign language study for overseas immersion, the project investigated students' self-assessments on seven intercultural learning outcomes (ILO) with regard to their proficiency level: (1) functional knowledge, (2) knowledge of global interdependence, (3) knowledge of cultural relativism, (4) verbal acumen, (5) knowledge of world geography, (6) interpersonal accommodation, and (7) cultural sensitivity. Participants' ILO scores were shown in Table 3. Mixed factorial ANOVAs (2 Time x 3 Proficiency Level) were performed for each of the outcome variables.

TABLE 3
GROUP MEANS OF 7 ILO FACTORS FOR PRE-SURVEY AND POST-SURVEY (5 POINT-LIKERT SCALE USED)

ILO outcomes	Pre-survey			Post-survey		
	Beginner N=51 M (SD)	Inter N=49 M (SD)	Advance N=25 M (SD)	Beginner N=51 M (SD)	Inter N=49 M (SD)	Advance N=25 M (SD)
Functional knowledge	3.27 (.85)	3.23 (.68)	4.10 (.78)	4.03 (.77)	4.10 (.58)	4.34 (.46)
Knowledge of global interdependence	3.6 (.90)	3.37 (.90)	3.55 (.89)	3.7 (.89)	3.53 (.93)	3.59 (.96)
Knowledge of cultural relativism	3.84 (.75)	3.93 (.70)	4.50 (.42)	4.21 (.63)	4.37 (.69)	4.51 (.64)
Verbal acumen	3.25 (.93)	3.43 (.69)	3.96 (.88)	3.98 (.90)	4.10 (.66)	4.50 (.46)
Knowledge of world geography	3.54 (.83)	3.86 (.69)	4.06 (.79)	3.84 (.73)	4.16 (.80)	4.04 (.76)
Interpersonal accommodation	4.05 (.56)	3.98 (.65)	4.27 (.62)	4.32 (.80)	4.44 (.50)	4.59 (.67)
Cultural sensitivity	3.94 (.91)	4.2 (.73)	4.38 (.82)	4.20 (.79)	4.30 (.79)	4.44 (.59)

Note. Levene's tests were computed for the equality of error variances

As for the *functional knowledge outcome*, a main effect for *Time* appeared to be statistically significant ($F_{1,122}=21.75$, $p = .000$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.30$). That is, participants' post-survey scores for functional knowledge ratings exceeded pre-survey scores. A main effect for *Proficiency Level* was also significant ($F_{2,122}=3.84$, $p=.004$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.09$), in that ratings of advanced students were higher than those of beginners. However, no significant interaction effect was found between *Time* and *Proficiency Level*. The mixed factorial ANOVA analysis showed no significant effect (neither main effect nor interaction effect) on *knowledge of global interdependence* and *cultural sensitivity* variables.

For the *knowledge of cultural relativism*, a significant interaction effect for *Time x Proficiency* was found ($F_{1,122}=3.24$, $p=.043$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.05$). Accordingly, Tukey HSD procedure was conducted as a *post hoc* test. At the pre-survey, there were significant differences among levels of proficiency ($p < .05$); i.e., advanced learners were more culturally knowledgeable than beginners and intermediate learners before the SA experience. After studying abroad, however, beginners and intermediate participants showed a significant improvement in their knowledge gain about cultural differences ($p < .05$). Advanced learners did not demonstrate any substantial changes in this outcome rating before and after their SA experience. Changes in the cultural gain were found to be especially high in the intermediate level. A main effect of *Time* achieved statistical significance with a medium positive effect size for this cultural relativism rating ($F_{1,122}=12.83$, $p=.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.10$). This means that participants' rating of their *cultural knowledge* on the post-survey

exceeded those of the pre-survey with all the three levels of learners combined. A significant main effect for *Proficiency Level* with a medium positive effect size ($F_{2,122}=2.69, p=.019, \eta^2 = 0.06$) also emerged.

The analysis found no significant interaction effect for the *verbal acumen* outcome variable. Main effects were found both for *Time* with a high positive effect size ($F_{1,122}=20.34, p=.000, \eta^2 = 0.27$) and for *Proficiency Level* with a medium positive effect size ($F_{2,122}=5.08, p=.004, \eta^2 = 0.09$), however. In other words, regardless of the proficiency level, the mean scores of the verbal acumen ratings in the post-survey exceeded those in the pre-survey. In addition, the mean differences were statistically different between beginners and advanced level participants in this outcome measure. Similar patterns were found in the *knowledge of world geography* outcome variable. Two main effects achieved statistical significance with medium positive effect size: *Time* ($F_{1,122}=7.96, p=.006, \eta^2 = 0.06$) and *Proficiency Level* ($F_{2,122}=4.80, p=.005, \eta^2 = 0.08$).

Lastly, the *interpersonal accommodation* outcome variable did not receive any significant interaction effects, but a main effect for *Time* appeared significant with a high positive effect size ($F_{1,122}=5.73, p=.000, \eta^2 = 0.15$). Participants' ratings of this outcome variable were higher in post-surveys than in the pre-surveys.

Qualitative responses

Thirty-two out of 125 participants took part in online interviews. These interviews included 12 beginners, 16 intermediate, and 4 advanced learners. The qualitative responses (online interviews, focus group meetings, and faculty reports) helped understand participants' SA experience as well as their preference for language and culture immersion. Most intermediate learners responded that they went abroad at the right time and at the right level of proficiency. Advanced learners were generally content with their SA experience. In contrast, some beginners in the study shared some negative SA experiences and opinions due to their lack of language ability. The following comments were excerpted from some beginner-level students:

- (1) I had zero skills of the language beforehand, and by the end I definitely felt like I had a good basing in the basic language. I think if I had gone with an intermediate level of learning, the experience would have really propelled my learning. (Online interview, female student, studying Irish, beginner)

A female high-beginner who studied Spanish in Mexico provided the following comment. This implies that a lack of proficiency hindered the student from practicing her TL in the immersion context:

- (2) ...Professors often say that...like get a boyfriend, get a girlfriend and you will become fluent. ... because I feel that I had a boy and he only spoke English with me and I was like no and it's cuz my Spanish sucked and I was like, great, you know.... (Focus-group meeting, Female student, studying Spanish, high beginner).

Participants who went abroad at intermediate and advanced levels shared their experience as well as their perspectives on language learning. Students' responses at these levels were mostly positive, indicating that their experiences were fairly satisfactory, and they seemed to have found that their overseas experience took place at the right time of their proficiency level. Some comment examples are as follows:

- (3) I was at an intermediate level before the program and came back to America being at an advanced level. I improved because we had Mandarin classes from 8am-noon MTThF and I was in a home-stay that didn't speak any English.... (Online interview, female student, studying Mandarin Chinese, intermediate)

Faculty leaders, SA advisors, and SA program coordinators expressed their opinions on the best time point in SA immersion through reflection reports. In terms of the best time point in overseas immersion, opinions varied.

- (4) I would say as a high intermediate learner would be the most appropriate level for a student to take on an immersion experience. With a lower level and with such a relatively short stay in the foreign country, a student will be learning things they could learn in the classroom at a lesser cost, and they quite frankly aren't able to fully take advantage of the time abroad. (Reflection report, faculty member, Spanish program)

- (5) I truly believe there needs to be an emphasis on language and culture immersion EARLIER. About 80% of students quit after the intermediate low level or the 2000 college level/high school Spanish 2 level. They lose motivation and an incentive to learn the language. (Reflection report, SA faculty leader)

Comments from the 10 instructors and SA advisors in this study did not show any particular patterns. Nevertheless, a majority of them stated the importance of the practical and economical benefit in which students are interested in the SA contexts. Three out of 10 faculty advisors agreed that students who went abroad without any basic skills in the TL might not fully benefit from the time abroad.

V. DISCUSSION

The project sought to answer questions regarding the learner perception of their FL study in overseas immersion, focusing on students' own self-reports on their preferred language proficiency, and the proficiency effect on students' cultural gains. The study solely focused on learners' perceptions as a starting point to better understand the complexity of language learning abroad.

Self-report on the preferred time to be abroad

Overall findings about learners' self-perception of their SA immersion revealed that although participants' responses varied and each proficiency level held its own advantages, learners found that the intermediate level appeared somewhat more beneficiary to them than other levels; accordingly this level was favored by more participants in this study. In fact, the growing consensus among researchers is that there is a threshold which learners must reach to benefit fully from the

SA context of learning (Collentine, 2009; Lafford & Collentine, 2006). In this study, two thirds of the respondents (66.4%) selected the intermediate level as the ideal proficiency to be immersed in the target language and culture after their SA experience. In the pre-survey, about forty percent of the participants chose the beginner level as an ideal stage, including those (5.6%) who chose the time of “before studying the target language”. Conversely, in the post-survey, only one quarter of the participants (24%) preferred the beginner level, having less than 1% of the participants who chose the option of “before studying the target language”.

The TL levels of proficiency particularly preferred by students were low intermediate and intermediate (See Figure 1). Note that the current study included 51 beginning and 49 intermediate students (self-reported). This suggests that beginning-level students considered the intermediate proficiency a desirable level, even though their SA time did not begin with that level of proficiency. Although the general consensus among SA scholars seems to be in favor of the beginning language level (Collentine, 2009; Martinsen, 2008), students’ own preference seemed to be somewhat differently situated.

When participants self-rated their own improvement in language learning, beginners and intermediate learners perceived that their proficiency had improved significantly after their SA experience. Nevertheless, advanced learners did not notice changes in their TL proficiency studying abroad. Findings with advanced level learners concur with previous literature (e.g., Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsberg, 1993). Advanced level students might self-perceive their language gains somewhat differently from beginner/intermediate level students. That is, their focus might be on the refinement or sophistication of their TL rather than on individual language skill gains.

The positive influence of SA on students’ language abilities has been widely documented (Brecht & Robinson, 1993; Freed, 1995; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Milton & Meara, 1995; Serrano, Llanes, & Tragant, 2011; Du, 2013; Dewey, Belnap, & Hillstrom 2013). However, these studies have often accounted for particular language improvements through researchers’ proficiency measurements, and do not necessarily relate their scores to students’ actual perception of their own language improvements. As most SA language programs do not often provide institutionalized proficiency scores at the end of the program, students’ self-judgment of their own improvement may weigh heavily in their satisfaction of SA language learning experiences.

Self-reports on the optimal cultural and program gains

The intercultural learning outcomes (ILO) were measured through mixed factorial ANOVAs (*2 Time x 3 Proficiency Level*). Five out of 7 outcome variables received significant main effects in *Time*; i.e., participants’ post-survey scores exceeded pre-survey scores for the following measures: *functional knowledge*, *cultural relativism*, *verbal acumen*, *world geography*, and *interpersonal accommodation*. These score increases were evident regardless of participants’ proficiency levels. The main effect in *Proficiency Level* was also significant with some outcome variables notwithstanding the SA experience. These variables include *functional knowledge*, *verbal acumen*, and *knowledge of world geography*. That is, ratings of advanced students were higher than those of beginners in these measures. Therefore, the best time to develop functional knowledge, verbal acumen, and knowledge of world geography would be when the student has achieved high proficiency in the TL. The *knowledge of global interdependence* and the *cultural sensitivity* variables received no significant effect in this study.

Some cultural gains were achieved differently across the *Proficiency Level*. For example, *knowledge of cultural relativism* received a significant interaction effect for *Time (2) x Proficiency Level (3)*. Before the SA experience, advanced learners were more culturally knowledgeable and more willing to accept others’ cultural practices than beginning and intermediate learners. On the contrary, after the SA experience the beginning and intermediate participants achieved a significant improvement in their knowledge gain about cultural differences between their culture and the TL culture, while advanced learners did not. Gains in *cultural relativism* were found to be especially high in the intermediate level, possibly due to pre-program levels of cultural sensitivity (Martinsen, 2008). In Sutton and Rubin’s (2004) study, when SA students were compared with domestic students in terms of their learning attainments, this knowledge of cultural relativism showed the most powerful effect on their outcomes.

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Findings of the current study can contribute to SA research and to the field of international education because they provide some insights on students’ SA learning outcomes as well as their perceptions toward SA language programs, even though findings are based on students’ own self-reports only. The generalization of the current findings should be carefully made as participants’ self-reports could have relied on their subjective self-judgment. Future research can incorporate direct measures of learners’ learning outcomes such as proficiency tests before and after their SA experience. While recognizing such limitations, however, this self-report method has been proved to be quite informative in SA contexts and has been used by many previous studies (Pellegrino, 1998; Dewey, Belnap, & Hillstrom, 2013). These findings can benefit students, parents, and teachers, as well as, governing boards, international studies specialists, higher education leaders, and SA directors and coordinators in suggesting ideas on the effective point-in-time for maximally effective SA immersion experiences.

In the field of second language acquisition, building a theory of acquisition and identifying all the factors that come into play is still in the early stages (Collentine & Freed, 2004; DeKeyser, 2007). Students may be able to take a full advantage of an SA setting only when they are linguistically prepared. Perhaps specific domains require a particular

developmental threshold for overall gains to occur, and therefore, preparedness in AH settings becomes crucial for the benefits of a SA environment to take full effect (Brown; 2009; Collentine, 2009, Dewey, Bown, & Eggett 2012). The current study attempted to investigate the learner-perceived best point in TL study for overseas immersion by collecting students' self-assessment reports for their language and intercultural acquisition, but did not investigate any direct, linguistic constructs in outcome assessment because it was not the main purpose of the current study. A future study, however, investigating threshold levels of development at which SA will be optimally beneficial through the analysis of speaking performance is recommended. Finally, the current study used a tool, called ILO to measure the intercultural learning outcome in particular. Although the validity of this ILO instrument has been tested (Sutton & Rubin, 2004), the interpretation of the ILO results should not be over-generalized.

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Multivariate Analysis of Refusal Strategies in Request Situations: The Case of Russian JFL Learners

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Abstract—Using *decision tree analysis* by SPSS Classification Trees (Version 18.0), the present study investigated the rank order of significance between the five factors (i.e., power factor, distance factor, situational factor, culture/language factor, and type of refusal strategy) when predicting the choice of refusal strategies in request situations. To examine the frequency of refusal strategies, we conducted a discourse completion test in the L1 and L2 of Russian JFL students and compared them with Russian and Japanese native speakers. The findings show that there is a hierarchical order among the factors involved in realization of request refusals. The effects of cultural and language differences are very complex and deeply intertwined with the content of refusal situations and nature of specific strategies. The results were able to demonstrate in which conditions the following occurred: the influence of L2 (Japanese) onto L1 (Russian), the maintenance of Russian national identity, and the accommodation to the target language culture.

Index Terms—decision tree analysis, request refusal, Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, Japanese language, Russian JFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Refusing is a complex issue, as the speaker directly or indirectly says “no” to the expectations and wishes of the interlocutor, thus running the risk of appearing impolite or causing offense. The speaker on the refusing side must clearly indicate the intention to refuse, and, at the same time, must use various pragmatic strategies according to the context of the situation and the status of the interlocutor in order to maintain a good relationship (Murai 2009). The expressions that show consideration toward the interlocutor in refusal situations can differ widely depending on the culture, and consequently misunderstandings may arise between native and non-native speakers. Such dissonance occurs because fundamental cultural values are not easily waived. As noted by Beebe et al. (1990), incomplete knowledge of the sociolinguistic patterns of the target language and also the social psychological motivation to draw on one's deeply held native values will always create a complex picture in non-native refusals.

Consideration toward the interlocutor when performing speech acts that require such delicate interpersonal communication as refusals usually involves indirectness. The degree and manifestation of indirectness vary across languages and cultures. In Russian, for example, a simple and clear refusal is considered to be more polite than an indirect one. Native Russian speakers learning Japanese face many differences when trying to master the indirect ways of refusing that are expected in Japanese culture. Such cross-cultural tensions provided the impetus for this study which aims to examine the differences between Russian and Japanese culture by comparing refusal strategies in request situations.

In this research, we conducted a discourse completion test (DCT) to compare the frequency of refusal strategies of the following three groups of respondents: (1) Russian native speakers who speak only Russian, (2) native Russian speaking JFL learners (3) Japanese native speakers. The purpose of the survey was to look into the following four points. First, we analyzed effects of multiple factors influencing the situation of request refusal by conducting classification tree analysis (which is one type of decision tree analysis). Second, to find out if studying Japanese influences the L1 (in this case, Russian), we compared the data of Russian native speakers who have no previous study with that of Japanese language learners whose L1 is Russian. Third, to examine whether Russian JFL learners distinguish between refusing in Japanese and Russian we compared their Japanese and Russian data. Fourth, to investigate the influence of Russian (L1) on Japanese (L2), we compared the data of the Japanese language learners' refusal strategies with that of Japanese native speakers.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: POLITENESS THEORY

Interpersonal communication can be viewed as a process of “facework” where face is constantly being threatened or saved. Following Goffman (1967), Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) assumed that the motivation behind facework behavior is universal while there are cultural differences in the ways that particular facework behaviors are realized. Brown and Levinson assume that the weightiness (W_x) of a face-threatening act (FTA) is based on the speaker's

assessment of the following three variables: Social Distance between the speaker and the hearer [D (S, H)], Power that the hearer has over the speaker [P (H, S)], and culturally influenced Ranking of Imposition of the particular act (Rx).

Brown and Levinson's (1987) claim is not that P, D, and Rx are the only relevant factors, but simply that they subsume all others that might have an effect on the assessment of FTAs' risk. The present research also used Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as the basic framework for the analysis to find out the patterns of refusal strategies in request situations. For the purpose of the analysis we assumed the Rx factor as consisting of three sub-factors: the intrinsic content of the situation (R_i), differences in language/linguaculture (R_l), and the type of refusal strategy (R_s). In the present study, we attempt to show a rank order of significance between the 5 factors (i.e., power factor, distance factor, situational factor, culture/language factor, and type of refusal strategy) from the perspective of refusal strategies. To estimate the degree of an FTA, we used the following formula: $W_x = D(S,H) + P(H,S) + R_i + R_l + R_s$.

III. METHOD

A. Subjects

In May and June of 2011, we conducted a DCT for 150 undergraduate students from Russian and Japanese universities, consisting of 50 Russian students with no Japanese language study background (32 female, 18 male; average age: 20 years 4 months), 50 JFL students whose native language is Russian (24 female, 26 male; average age: 21 years 2 months) and 50 Japanese students with no Russian language study record (26 female, 24 male; average age: 20 years 11 months). The average of Japanese language study experience was 4 years and 5 months.

B. Material

1. *Details of refusal scenarios.* To conduct DCT we set up 9 request scenarios (the English translation is given in Appendix A) to which respondents were asked to refuse. We selected situations that can occur naturally in both Japanese and Russian society. The conditions of Power were differentiated using three levels: higher, equal and lower. 3 scenarios were made for each level. Furthermore, we added a Social Distance factor to Power relations. We defined distance as "degree of familiarity" based on the frequency of interaction, differentiating between "familiar interlocutor" (one whom you talk with frequently) and "unfamiliar interlocutor" (one with whom you don't have frequent interactions).¹ We made slight changes in the Japanese and Russian version of the DCT in Scenarios 1 and 6 for the purpose of localization. In the Japanese version of Scenario 1, the request was to buy famous "White Lover" cookies while travelling to Hokkaido, and in the Russian version of the questionnaire respondents were asked to buy some green tea while travelling to China. The Japanese version of Scenario 6 took place during a traditional summer festival and the request was to lend the interlocutor five thousand yen, while the Russian version took place during the Vladivostok Port Anniversary which is held in July (the respondents were asked to lend five hundred rubles). We assumed that these differences did not influence actual perception of request situations.

2. *DCT procedure.* Data was collected using a Discourse Completion Test. As noted by Kwon (2004), DCT allows respondents to provide the prototype response occurring in one's actual speech. Therefore, DCT is more likely to trigger participants' mental prototype while natural data are more likely to bring on unpredictable and uncommon items in speech. Since the objective of this research is to obtain information about strategies that respondents use to implement the communicative act of refusing a request, and about their sociopragmatic knowledge of the context factors under which particular strategies are appropriate, we believe that DCT was a suitable instrument for this study.

Respondents were given a DCT with 9 request scenarios (as shown in Appendix A). The DCT questionnaire had an explanation of each scenario followed by the question "how would you refuse", then the actual request by the interlocutor and a space where respondents needed to write their refusal. The English translation of the DCT example (Scenario 2, Power – higher status, Distance – familiar) is given in Appendix B.

Russian native speakers filled in DCT only in Russian. Russian JFL learners completed the tests in both Japanese and Russian. To avoid influence from Russian, they first did the task in Japanese and after that we asked them to do DCT in Russian. Japanese native speakers did DCT only in Japanese. It took participants up to 30 minutes to complete DCT in the native language. The Japanese DCT took Russian students approximately 50 minutes to complete.

3. *Coding procedure.* The refusals were analyzed as consisting of a sequence of semantic formulas (see Appendix C for a complete list and examples). Considering the applicability to Russian, the coding scheme of semantic formulas (i.e., refusal strategies) is based on the initial classification suggested by Beebe et. al (1990) and also series of research on JSL/ JFL refusals (mainly Ikoma and Shimura 1993, Fujimori 1994, Murai 2009, Ito 2001). As summarized in Appendix C, 7 types of broad categories were set up: (1) reason / explanation / excuse, (2) empathy, (3) non-performative refusal, (4) apology / expression of regret, (5) statement of alternative proposal, (6) promise of future acceptance, (7) condition for future or past acceptance / reserve refusal. For example, if a respondent refused a request to lend his or her class notes, saying: "Watashi ha ashita ichi nichiju shiken ga aru kara, gomen ne. Tanaka ni tanondemitara [I have an exam tomorrow, so I'm sorry. What if you ask Tanaka?]", this was coded as [reason/explanation/excuse] [apology/expression of regret] [statement of alternative proposal]. Compared to the previous research we put semantic formulas into broader categories in this paper so that each semantic category would be filled with a sufficient number of tokens. It was quite common for our respondents to use multiple strategies in combination within a single response. The use of refusal strategy was counted as 1, even though the same type of

strategy was sometimes used more than once within one response of a given respondent. Not using a refusal strategy was counted as 0.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In order to examine the rank order of significance between the 5 factors (i.e., power factor, distance factor, situational factor, culture/language factor, and type of refusal strategies) that are influencing the frequency of refusal strategies of Japanese native speakers in Japanese, Russian JFL learners in Japanese, Russian JFL learners in Russian, Russian native speakers in Russian, we employed *decision tree analysis* by SPSS Classification Trees (Version 18.0) for our analysis. The independent variables in the present survey were arranged in a 3×3×2×4×7 design: (1) power (P) (i.e., higher / equal / lower status interlocutor), (2) content of the situation (R_i) (i.e., three scenarios for each power level), (3) distance (D) (i.e., familiar / unfamiliar interlocutor for each of the settings), (4) subject group and language (R_l) (i.e., Japanese native speakers in Japanese, Russian JFL learners in Japanese, Russian JFL learners in Russian, Russian native speakers in Russian), (5) type of refusal strategy (R_s) (i.e., 7 types of semantic formulas, shown in Appendix C). The frequency of refusal strategies was set as a dependent variable. The present survey elicits categorical data (i.e., frequency of seven types of responses), so for this type of data, chi-square values were employed for growing the decision tree and this particular analysis is called ‘classification tree analysis.’

Classification tree analysis aims to select a useful subset of predictors in descending order from a larger set of independent variables with respect to a dependent variable. This tool is built on the basis of CHAID (chi-squared automatic interaction detector) which automatically chooses the independent variable which has the strongest interaction with the next highest variable. In the tree-growing process, each parent node splits into child nodes only if a significant main effect or interaction is found among independent variables. Thus, this analysis shows the order of significance of factors that serve as independent variables when predicting a dependent variable and the results come out in the form of a dendrogram. Therefore, if the situation is like in the present research where we need to find out how 5 factors influence the frequency of refusal strategies, classification tree analysis can be considered the most suitable method of multivariate analysis (Tamaoka, Miyaoka, 2008; Tamaoka, Lim, Miyaoka and Kiyama, 2010; Kiyama, 2011; Lim, Tamaoka, Miyaoka, Kim, 2011; Kiyama, Tamaoka and Takiura, 2012).

V. RESULTS

A. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis

Overall, as shown in Figure 1, the results of the classification tree analysis showed that the type of the refusal strategy (R_s), which was assumed as a sub-factor of Rx influencing the choice of refusal strategies, ranked on the top of the classification tree (Node 0) [$\chi^2(6)=9882.105, p<.001$]. It had consistent influences on the responses of all subject groups for all the settings. The next strongest factor differed depending on the type of the refusal strategy. The whole classification tree (i.e., dendrogram) including all independent variables is too large to display on a single page, so in the following sections it was divided into seven dendrograms in Figures 2,3,4,5,6,7,8, which present detailed results of the survey.

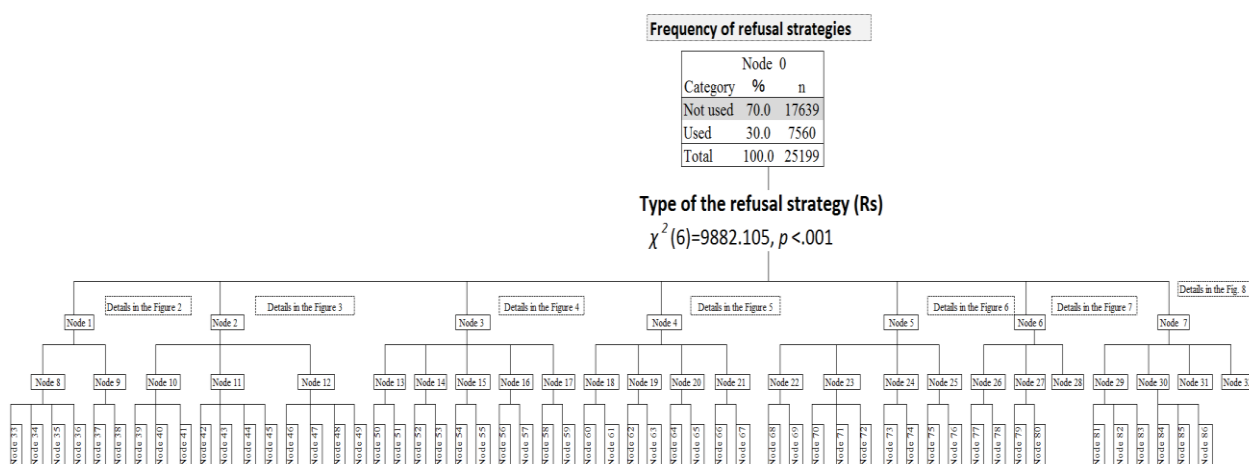


Figure 1 Dendrogram of the classification tree analysis for the frequency of refusal strategies in request situation

B. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis for the Frequency of [Reason / Explanation / Excuse]

As shown in Figure 2, [Reason / Explanation / Excuse] was the most frequently used refusal strategy (85.3%, Node 1). Node 1 generated a further split to Nodes 8 and 9, which indicated a significant effect of the social distance factor (D) [$\chi^2(1)=39.728, p<.001$]. These results showed that respondents tended to use reason more frequently when refusing

the requests of familiar interlocutors (89.0%, Node 8) than unfamiliar ones (82%, Node 9). Node 8 split into Nodes 33 – 36, representing the effect of the content of the situation factor (R_i) [$\chi^2(3)=77.462, p<.001$], the same for all respondent groups. The fact that several scenarios came out in the same node like in Nodes 33 and 34, means that there was no significant difference in the frequency of [Reason / Explanation / Excuse] for these situations. The content of the situation did not show any significant effect on using [Reason / Explanation / Excuse] when refusing the requests of unfamiliar interlocutors. It differed depending on the subject group and language (R_i) [$\chi^2(1)=43.078, p<.001$]. Russian JFL learners showed the same tendency when refusing in Japanese as Japanese native speakers (87.6%, Node 37), and when refusing in Russian had the same frequency of reason as Russian native speakers (75.6%, Node 38).

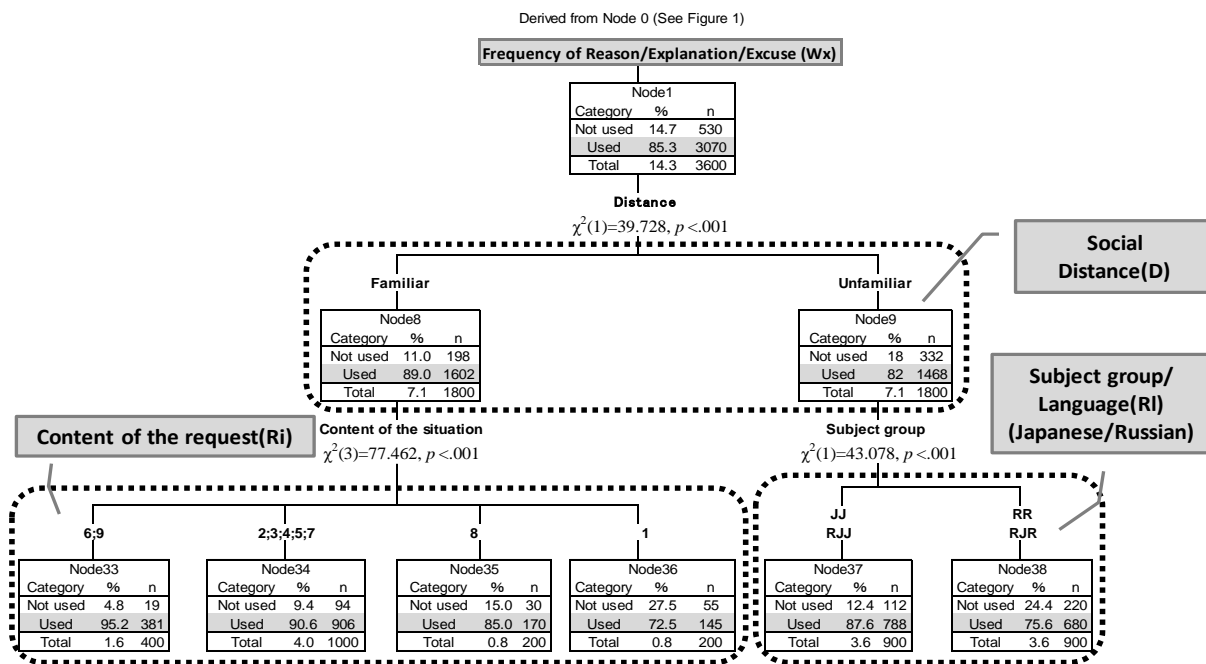


Figure 2 Dendrogram of the classification tree analysis for the frequency of [Reason/Explanation/Excuse] used in request refusals
 Note: Shaded parts indicate a higher frequency (whether the strategy is used or not used);
 JJ - Japanese native speakers, RR - Russian native speakers, RJJ - Russian JFL learners refusing in Japanese, RJR - Russian JFL learners refusing in Russian

C. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis for the Frequency of [Apology / Expression of Regret]

This was the second most frequently used refusal strategy (57%, Node 2). As shown in Figure 3, there was a significant effect of the subject group and language (R_i) on the frequency of apology [$\chi^2(2)=307.693, p<.001$]. Russian JFL learners in Japanese showed the highest frequency of apology (73.2%, Node 10). Russian JFL learners in Russian had the same tendency as Japanese native speakers (60.6%, Node 11). Russian native speakers had the lowest frequency of apology (33.6%, Node 12). Nodes 10 – 12 generated a further split to Nodes 39 – 49, representing the effect of the content of the situation (R_i) following the difference between the subject group and the language factor. All respondents showed different tendencies of using apology depending on the content of the situation.

D. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis for the Frequency of [Non-performative Refusal]

Non-performative refusals were the next most frequently used strategy after the apologies (33.8%, Node 3, cf. Figure 4 for details). Node 3 split into Nodes 13 – 17 indicating that the content of the situation (R_i) was the strongest predictor of the frequency [$\chi^2(4)=223.553, p<.001$]. The subject group and the language factor (R_i) was the next

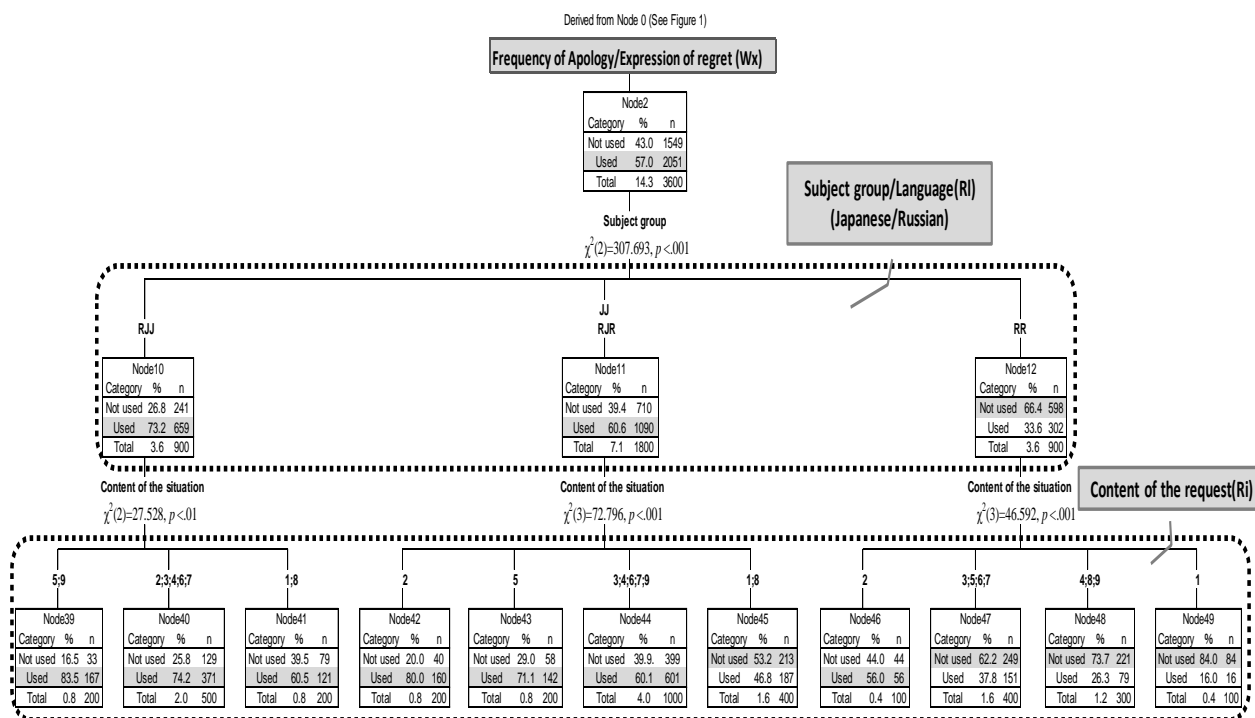


Figure 3 Dendrogram of the classification tree analysis for the frequency of [Apology/Expression of regret] used in request refusals
 Note: Shaded parts indicate a higher frequency (whether the strategy is used or not used);
 JJ - Japanese native speakers, RR - Russian native speakers, RJJ - Russian JFL learners refusing in Japanese, RJR - Russian JFL learners refusing in Russian

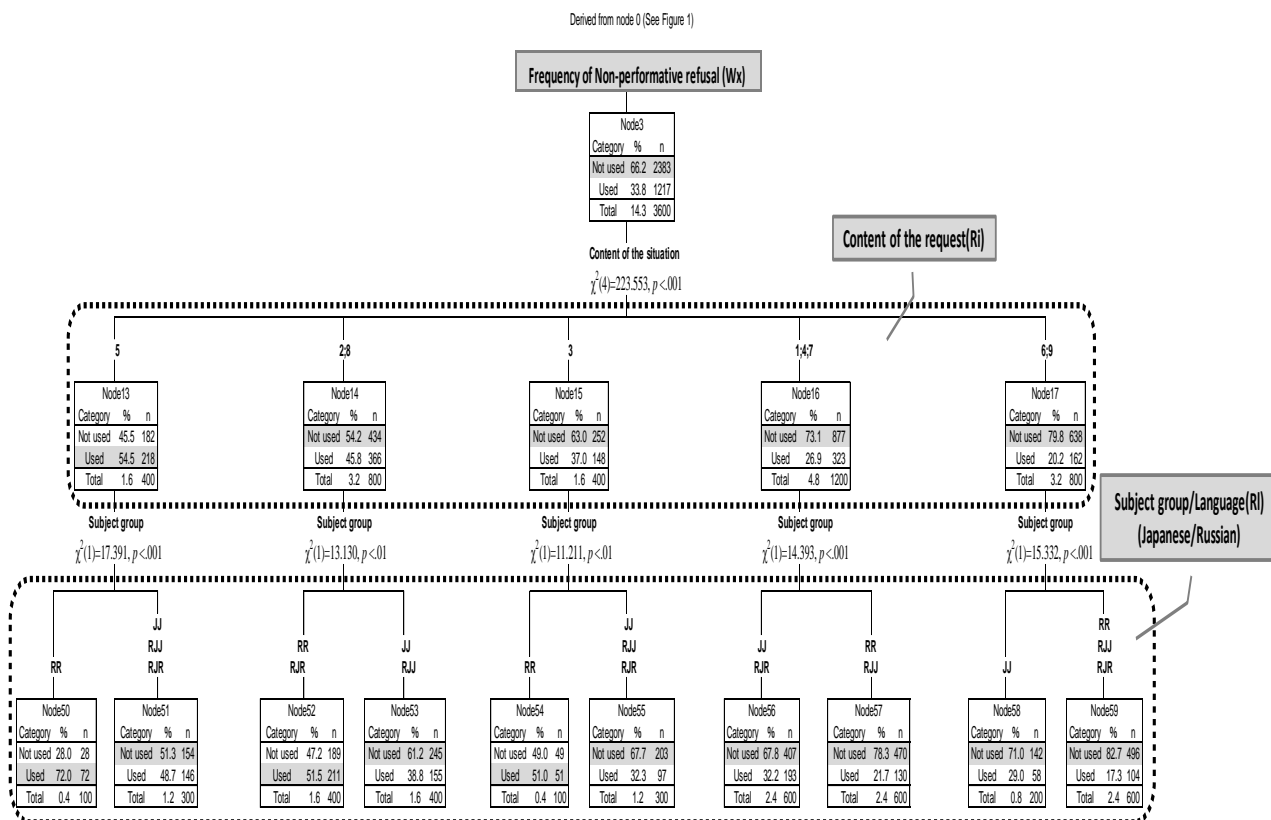


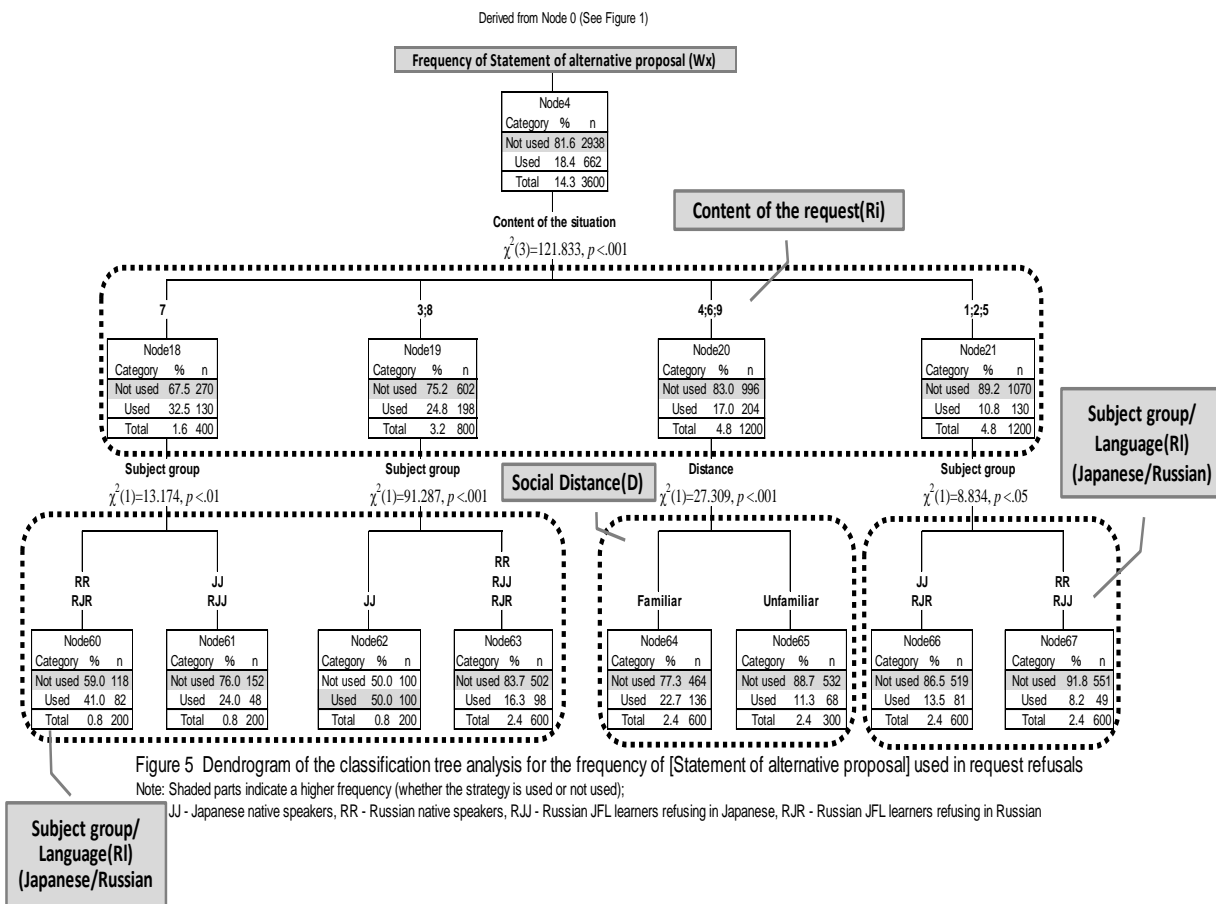
Figure 4 Dendrogram of the classification tree analysis for the frequency of [Non-performative refusal] used in request refusals
 Note: Shaded parts indicate a higher frequency (whether the strategy is used or not used);
 JJ - Japanese native speakers, RR - Russian native speakers, RJJ - Russian JFL learners refusing in Japanese, RJR - Russian JFL learners refusing in Russian

Significant factor. Russian native speakers generally had a higher frequency of non-performative refusals than Japanese native speakers (in Scenarios 5, 2, 8, 3 – given in descending order of the frequency). However, Japanese

native speakers used more non-performative refusals than Russian native speakers in Scenarios 1, 4, 7, 6, 9. Russian JFL learners (in both, Japanese and Russian) either had the same tendency as Japanese native speakers (Scenarios 5 and 3) or as Russian native speakers (Scenarios 6 and 9). Then, for the rest of the Scenarios there was a split between Russian and Japanese data of Russian JFL learners with a consistent tendency: Russian data had more non-performative refusals than Japanese.

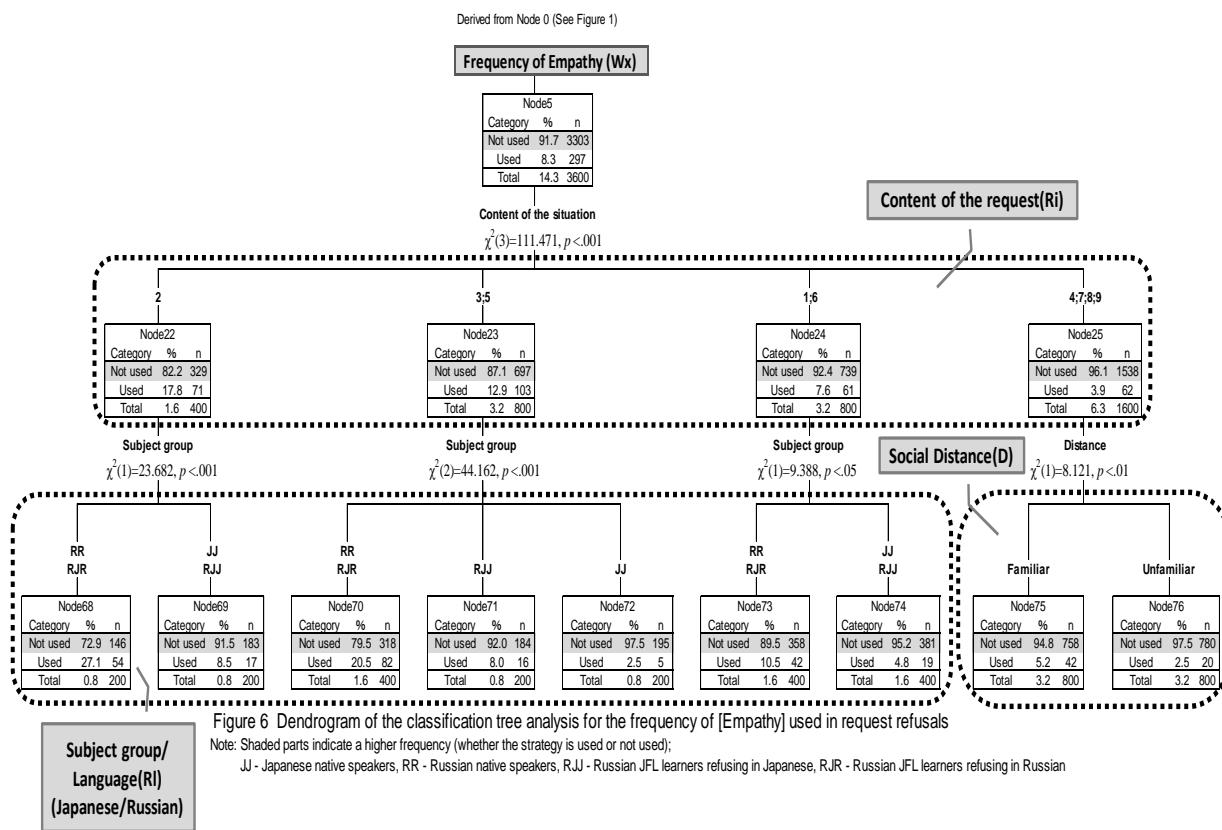
E. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis for the Frequency of [Statement of Alternative Proposal]

As shown in Figure 5, the frequency of [Statement of alternative proposal] was first influenced by the content of the situation (R_i) [$\chi^2(3)=121.833, p<.001$]. Node 4 split into Nodes 18 – 21, representing the effect. The subject group and the language factor (R_i) was the next significant factor. Scenarios 4, 6, 9 (Node 20) which contained the requests to lend several things (class notes, money, textbook) showed a significant effect of the distance factor (D) [$\chi^2(1)=27.309, p<.001$]. This result indicated that all subjects tended to use more alternative proposals when refusing requests of familiar interlocutors (22.7%, Node 64) than unfamiliar ones (11.3%, Node 65).



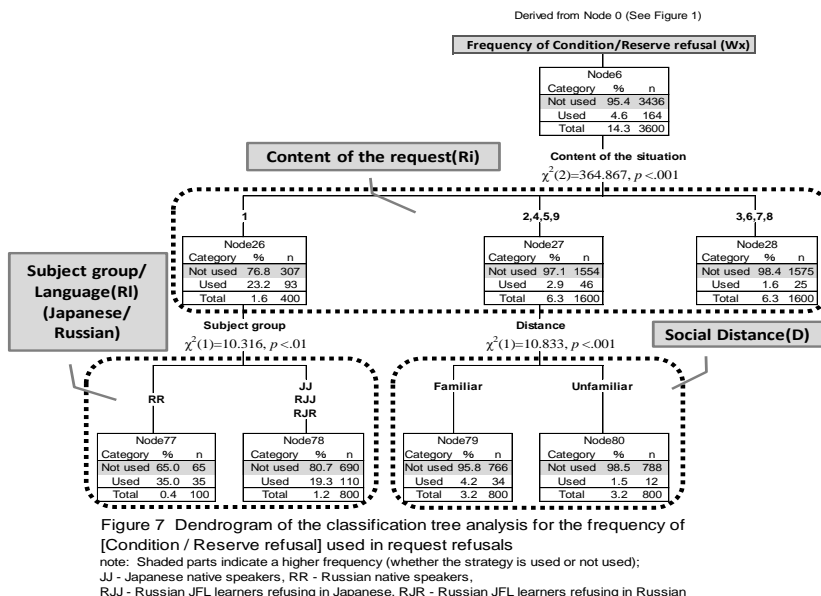
F. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis for the Frequency of [Empathy]

As shown in Figure 6, the content of the situation (R_i) was the strongest predictor of the frequency of [Empathy] [$\chi^2(3)=111.471, p<.001$]. All Scenarios were divided into 4 Nodes (from 22 to 25). Nodes 22, 23, 24 generated a further split into a third level of branches, showing the effect of the subject group and the language factor (R_i). The results showed that Russian native speakers and Russian JFL learners in Russian tended to use more [Empathy] than other subject groups. When refusing in Japanese, Russian JFL learners either showed the same tendency as Japanese native speakers or used [Empathy] more often than them. Node 25 (Scenarios 4, 7, 8, 9) split into Nodes 75 and 76, representing the effect of the distance factor (D) [$\chi^2(1)=8.121, p<.01$]. All subject groups used more [Empathy] when refusing the requests of familiar interlocutors (5.2%, Node 75) than unfamiliar ones (2.5%, Node 76).



G. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis for the Frequency of [Condition / Reserve Refusal]

Figure 7 shows a significant effect of the content of the situation factor (R_i) [$\chi^2(2)=364.867, p<.001$] on the frequency of [Condition / Reserve refusal] strategy. Scenario 1 (Node 26) was affected by the subject group and the language factor (R_i) [$\chi^2(1)=10.316, p<.01$]. Russian native speakers used more of condition statements (35%, Node 77) than other subject groups (19.3%, Node 78). Nodes 79 and 80 represent the effect of the distance factor (D) [$\chi^2(1)=10.833, p<.001$] for Scenarios 2, 4, 5, 9. All respondents tended to use more condition strategies when refusing requests of familiar interlocutors than unfamiliar ones (4.2%, Node 79 versus 1.5%, Node 80). In Scenarios 3, 6, 7, 8 no other factor besides the content of the situation was significant in predicting frequency of [Condition / Reserve refusal], as no further child nodes were generated from Node 28.



H. Results of the Classification Tree Analysis for the Frequency of [Promise of Future Acceptance]

As shown in Figure 8, the content of the situation factor (R_i) was the strongest predictor of the frequency of [Promise of future acceptance] [$\chi^2(3)=75.909, p<.001$] followed by the subject group and the language factor (R_l). In all scenarios Japanese native speakers used more of [Promise of future acceptance] than Russian native speakers, who practically did not use it (0.5%, Node 83 and 1%, Node 86). The Japanese and Russian data of Russian JFL learners fall in between the Japanese and Russian native speakers. In Scenarios 8, 6, and 9, the content of situation was the only significant factor for using [Promise of future acceptance].

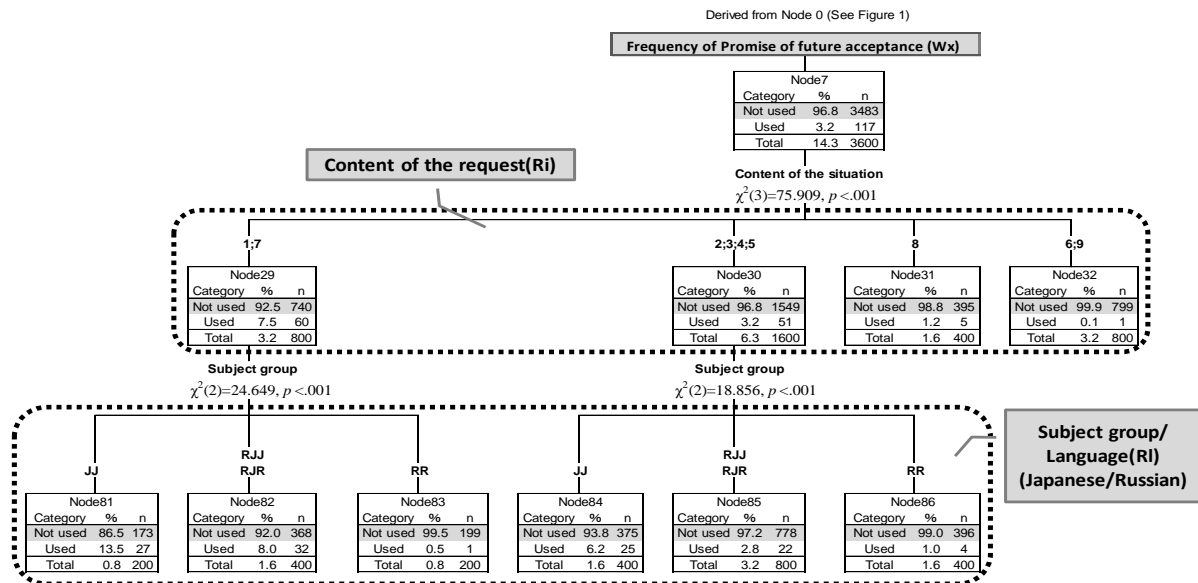


Figure 8 Dendrogram of the classification tree analysis for the frequency of [Promise of future acceptance] used in request refusals

Note: Shaded parts indicate a higher frequency (whether the strategy is used or not used);

JJ - Japanese native speakers, RR - Russian native speakers, RJJ - Russian JFL learners refusing in Japanese, RJR - Russian JFL learners refusing in Russian

VI. DISCUSSION

The present survey examined refusal strategies in request situations preferred by Japanese native speakers, Russian JFL learners in Japanese and Russian, and Russian native speakers. Using the framework of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, we conducted classification tree analysis of the DCT data to see how the 5 factors of Power (P), Distance (D), Content of the situation (R_i), Subject group and Language (R_l), Type of refusal strategy (R_s) influence the frequency of refusal strategies. The following sections describe detailed results in accordance with four objectives of the research outlined in the introduction.

A. How Different Factors Influence the Frequency of Refusal Strategies

The present survey demonstrated the effects of multiple factors influencing the frequency of refusal strategies. The results of the rank order of significance of 5 factors (i.e., power factor, distance factor, situational factor, culture/language factor, and type of refusal strategies) targeted in this research were shown in Figures 1 through 8. The results showed that the type of refusal strategy had the strongest influence on the frequency of strategies. Of the two factors regarding interpersonal relationships of power and distance, only the factor of distance showed a partial influence on the frequency of [Reason / Explanation / Excuse], [Statement of alternative proposal], [Empathy], and [Condition / Reserve refusal]. All respondents used more of those strategies when refusing the request of familiar interlocutors than unfamiliar ones. The factor of power had no effect throughout all conditions in all scenarios. Nevertheless, it would be premature to conclude that power relationships have nothing to do with refusal strategies in request situations. The present paper dealt only with the frequency of refusal strategies. We are still required to continue further investigations with focus on the effects of power on the content, order and linguistic form of refusal strategies. Factors concerning content of the request situation and subject group (sociocultural norms and language) also showed significant effects on the frequency of the strategies. The content of the situational factor was the strongest predictor of using [Non-performative refusal], [Statement of alternative proposal], [Empathy], [Condition / Reserve refusal] and [Promise of future acceptance] and the second strongest for [Reason / Explanation / Excuse] and [Apology / Expression of regret]. The subject group and the language factor had a crucial influence on the frequency of [Apology / Expression of regret]. In other refusal strategies, the effects caused by differences between sociocultural norms and language were smaller than those caused by the situational factor. In Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, all factors are treated equally. However, at least regarding the situation of request refusal, this survey explained more details about hierarchical relations between the factors. In the following sections, we are going to discuss the results related to the

effect of sociocultural norms and the language factor.

B. Effects of Studying Japanese on the L1 (Russian Language)

According to Blum-Kulka and Sheffer (1993), there can also exist a “reverse transfer” when rules of the target language influence the native language. For example, sometimes Japanese language learners are becoming excessively polite, even compared to native Japanese speakers. In this research, we conducted survey in both, Japanese and Russian, for the Russian JFL learners and compared results with the control group of Russian native speakers who have no Japanese study record. The results confirmed a possibility of a partial influence of the target language on the native. In the case of [Apology / Expression of regret], Russian JFL learners used almost two times more of apologies than Russian native speakers when refusing in Russian (60.6% versus 33.6%, cf. Figure 3), showing the same tendency in their L1 as Japanese native speakers. In case of some other strategies, the Russian JFL learners partially demonstrated in Russian either the same patterns with Japanese native speakers or close to them, though the difference was not as dramatic as it was with apologies. They used considerably less [Non-performative refusals] than Russian native speakers for Scenarios 3 and 5, less [Condition / Reserve refusal] strategy for Scenario 1, more [Promise of future acceptance] for Scenarios 1, 7, 2, 3, 4, 5.

C. How Russian JFL Learners Switch Between Japanese and Russian

One of the objectives of this research was to compare L1 and L2 data of Japanese language learners whose L1 is Russian and the results of the analysis showed that under several conditions the Russian data of Russian JFL learners were significantly different from the Japanese. When refusing in Japanese, Russian JFL learners demonstrated the same tendencies as Japanese native speakers and when refusing in Russian they had the same choice of refusal strategies as Russian native speakers. Such cases included frequency of the following refusal strategies: [Reason / Explanation / Excuse] in the situation of refusal to an unfamiliar interlocutor for all Scenarios (Japanese data had a higher frequency, Figure 2), [Non-performative refusal] in Scenarios 2 and 8 (Russian data had a higher frequency, cf. Figure 4), [Statement of alternative proposal] in Scenario 7 (higher frequency in Russian data, cf. Figure 5), [Empathy] for Scenarios 1, 2, 6 (higher frequency in Russian data, Figure 6). The results suggest that a kind of pragmatic switch mechanism was working in these settings. Russian JFL learners were aware of the differences between Japanese and Russian sociocultural norms, and when refusing in Japanese they made an effort to keep down their own national identity and represent Japanese identity.

D. Comparing Japanese Data of Russian JFL Learners with Japanese Native Speakers

There is a process of cultural accommodation involved in studying any foreign language (Kasper and Blum-Kulka 1993) and gradually foreign language learners get affected by the social and cultural norms of the target language country. All refusal strategies of Russian JFL learners partially demonstrated the same pattern of frequency as Japanese native speakers (except [Apology / Expression of regret] and [Promise of future acceptance]). We will discuss the findings regarding these two strategies after discussing the similarities with Russian native speakers. The Japanese data of Russian JFL learners had the same tendency with Russian native speakers regarding the frequency of [Non-performative refusal] in Scenarios 6 and 9, and [Statement of alternative proposal] in Scenarios 3 and 8. This could be explained by pragmatic transfer from Russian. However, as noted by Shimizu (2009), we should also take into consideration that though being aware of the pragmatic rules of the target language, language learners sometimes choose not to follow the norms of the target language because they want to keep their own national identity and be independent as foreign language learners.

In the case of [Apology / Expression of regret], Russian JFL learners had the highest frequency of this strategy when refusing in Japanese (cf. Figure 3). This important finding is different from the results of the previous research (Fujimori 1994, Ono, Mori and Yasuda 2004, Meng 2008, etc.) where Japanese native speakers had the highest frequency of apologies under any conditions in all refusal settings. The result of our research coincides with Fujiwara (2009) who compared refusals of Japanese native speakers and Taiwanese learners of Japanese. Fujiwara argues that it could be caused by ‘overgeneralization’ due to a developmental lack of pragmatic competence, because apology is thought to be one of the most important strategies in Japanese refusal. Also Olshtain (1983, 1989), in her research related to the production of L2 apologies, states that perception about language universality and uniqueness (i.e., understanding how the same speech act should be carried out in different languages) can greatly influence the way learners use apologies in their L2. The results of this study support this view. “Japanese people apologize a lot” is a common belief among JSL/JFL learners.

In the case of [Promise of future acceptance] the Japanese data of Russian JFL learners (together with the Russian data) fall somewhere between Japanese and Russian native speakers (cf. Figure 8), showing significantly different tendencies from both groups of native speakers. This result suggests that to some extent Russian JFL learners formed interlanguage culture, different from both native and target language cultures. Moreover, in Russian speech etiquette, this strategy is not used for refusals since it is considered more polite to come up with an alternative proposal or set a condition for past or future acceptance. The fact that Russian JFL learners used this strategy in both Japanese and Russian clearly demonstrates the effect of Japanese language instruction.

VII. CONCLUSION

The present study demonstrated effects of multiple factors influencing the frequency of refusal strategies in request situations. This research has proved that in refusal situations to a request, there is an order of significance among those factors when predicting frequency of refusal strategies. The results showed that the type of refusal strategy (R_s), content of the request (R_i), subject group and language (R_l), and social distance (D) were significant predictors of frequency. Absence of power (P) can be explained by the nature of the research since it is the content, order, or linguistic realization of refusal strategies that can be influenced more likely by power relations than frequency.

We also compared refusal strategies preferred by Russian JFL learners when refusing in Japanese and Russian using two control groups, one composed of Japanese and the other of Russian native speakers. The effect of subject group and language was very complex and deeply intertwined with the content of refusal scenarios and nature of specific strategies. Thus, sociocultural and language differences were not the strongest factor when predicting frequency of refusal strategies, so we can conclude that present study provides support for the universality of Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) formula and also gives us more insight into hierarchical order among the factors involved in realization of request refusals.

APPENDIX A. DETAILS OF REFUSAL SCENARIOS

#	Content of the request (Wx: Ranking of imposition)	Power (P)	Interlocutor	Distance (D)	
1	Buy a gift at travel destination		Mother	Familiar	Unfamiliar
2	Help with moving the professor's office	Higher	Teacher	Familiar	Unfamiliar
3	Become an organizer of a corporate dinner at your place of work		Job superior	Familiar	Unfamiliar
4	Lend class notes	Equal	Classmate	Familiar	Unfamiliar
5	Fill in for a colleague at work		Colleague	Familiar	Unfamiliar
6	Lend five thousand yen		Friend	Familiar	Unfamiliar
7	Help with a homework assignment	Lower	Junior student	Familiar	Unfamiliar
8	Do some shopping for a BBQ		Junior student	Familiar	Unfamiliar
9	Lend a textbook		Junior student	Familiar	Unfamiliar

APPENDIX B. DCT QUESTIONNAIRE EXAMPLE: SCENARIO 2

Professor with whom you have close relationships, asks you to help with moving his office after the class. How will you refuse?

Professor: (Your name), do you have some time today? We plan to move, and it would be great if you could help.

You: _____

APPENDIX C. CLASSIFICATION OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES

#	Semantic Formula	Example (Japanese)	Example (Russian)
1	Reason /	<i>Youji ga aru n dakedo</i>	<i>Zavtra kontrol'naya</i>
	Explanation /	[But I have something to do] / <i>Hoka no hito ni</i>	[I have a test tomorrow] /
	Excuse	<i>kashita kara</i> [Because I gave it to somebody else]	<i>Mne samomu nuzhny</i> [I need them myself]
2	Empathy	<i>Zammen desu ga</i>	<i>K sozhaleniyu</i>
		[It is unfortunate, but] / <i>Ikita kedo</i>	[Unfortunately] /
		[I want to go, but]	<i>Ya by s udovol'stvem, no</i> [I would love to, but]
3	Non-performative refusal	<i>Dekinai</i> [I can't] / <i>Sore ha muri kana</i> [This doesn't look possible] / <i>Ashita ha chiyotto</i> [Tomorrow kind of...]	<i>Ne mogu</i> [I can't] / <i>Ne poluchitsya</i> [It's not going to happen] / <i>Ner</i> [No]
		<i>Iie</i> [No]	
4	Apology / Expression of regret	<i>Moushiwake arimasen, Gomen ne, Warui kedo</i>	<i>Izvini</i> [I'm sorry]
		[I'm sorry]	
5	Statement of alternative proposal	<i>Kare ni tanondara</i> [What if you ask him] / <i>Hoka no hito ni kite mimashyouka</i> [Let's try to ask somebody else]	<i>Davai ya poproshu ego</i> [Let me ask him]
6	Promise of future acceptance	<i>Jikai ha yarimasu</i> [I'll do it next time] / <i>Mata kondo ne</i> [May be another time]	<i>V sleduyushchii raz obyazatel'no</i> [Next time for sure]
7	Condition (for future or past acceptance) / Reserve refusal	<i>Jikan ga areba</i> [If I have time] / <i>Repooto wo kaite kara</i> [After I write the report] / <i>Dekiru ka dou ka wakaranai kedo</i> [But I don't know if I can do it or not] / <i>Yakusoku ha dekinai ga</i> [But I can't promise]	<i>Esi budet vremya</i> [If I have time] / <i>Esi poluchitsya</i> [If I can make it]

NOTES

¹In the 1st Scenario the 'familiar interlocutor' is one's own mother and the 'unfamiliar interlocutor' is a friend's mother.

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Prioritizing Criteria for Evaluating Cultural Contents in EFL Textbooks through AHP

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Abstract—With the rising interest in culture and the development of intercultural approaches in language teaching, evaluating the cultural contents in EFL textbooks is becoming a great concern. The main purpose of this study is to develop a measurement model for assessing cultural contents in EFL textbooks through the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) method. Using AHP, the criteria influencing textbook evaluation are identified and their relative importance is weighted. The results show that among the 17 criteria, the six that rank the highest are intercultural attitude, communication, cultural knowledge, relevance, diversity and interest. These findings suggest that the goals given in textbooks related to promoting intercultural competence and topics with the potential to develop intercultural competence are highly valued. Additionally, the high ranking of the criterion measuring student participation underscores the importance of cultural activities in triggering learners' active learning. It is hoped that the results will provide teachers with a reference for assessing cultural contents in textbooks and offer textbook writers information that will allow them to revise contents created for the development of intercultural communicative competence.

Index Terms—cultural contents, EFL textbooks, analytic hierarchy process (AHP)

I. INTRODUCTION

Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has been recognized as an essential skill in the globalized world and regarded as a crucial instructional goal in foreign language education. In fact, it is not difficult to persuade language teachers of the importance of teaching language and culture as an integrated whole because the cultural dimension has long been emphasized within the profession even if it has not been systematically included in practice. One challenge is the lack of materials in textbooks aimed at general language development that are suitable for promoting intercultural competence (Chen, 2010; Chen, 2011; Chen, 2012; Lu, 2006; Xiang, 2007; Widdowson, 2005; Yamanaka, 2006; Young & Sachdev, 2011). The question of how teachers should use textbooks to foster intercultural competence consequently has focused on teachers' expectations of EFL textbooks (Young & Sachdev, 2011).

Textbooks profoundly influence teaching. Textbooks help in the process of lesson planning, make available a wide selection of resources and tasks and cover many topics. The great variety of textbooks has led language educators and applied linguists to suggest differing criteria for assessing them (Kilickaya, 2004; Olajide, 2003). To help teachers to select an appropriate textbook, many scholars have also proposed criteria or check lists. However, few proposals have contained a systematic method that integrates each criterion to arrive at an evaluation outcome or weighed each component in a way that would allow the evaluation to be adapted to varying teaching contexts. Some scholars (Huang, 2009; Kato, 2014; Mamaghani, 2010; Tseng, 2011) consequently have applied Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) to prioritize criteria for textbook evaluation.

General English textbooks increasingly include intercultural dimensions, and the analysis of such contents has also become a topic of interest in the EFL field (Chen, 2010; Chen, 2011; Lee, 2009; Lu, 2006; Wu, 2010; Xiang, 2007; Xiao, 2010; Yamanaka, 2006). The heightened interest suggests the importance of cultural contents in facilitating intercultural instruction. Evaluating the cultural contents of textbooks is essential because they vary greatly. Just as with textbooks, some scholars have proposed criteria or check lists to evaluate cultural contents (Byram et al., 1994; Cunningsworth, 1995; Huhn, 1978; Kilickaya, 2004; Reimann, 2009; Risager, 1991; Sercu, 1998). Building on previous studies using AHP to evaluate textbooks as a research framework, this study applied AHP (Saaty, 1980) to construct criteria to evaluate intercultural contents in EFL textbooks for general English purposes and weighed each component to adapt the evaluation to other teaching contexts. This study has constructed an evaluation model to help teachers, particularly those who lack area expertise, prioritize materials more efficiently when choosing among a wide range of textbooks. It aims to promote the continued development of intercultural competence in language education. The results should also prove useful to textbook designers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section reviews some recent studies analyzing cultural contents in EFL textbooks and looks at some scholars' proposed criteria. In addition, an overview of the application of AHP in textbook evaluation is provided.

A. Analysis of Cultural Contents in EFL Textbooks

With the rising interest in culture and the development of intercultural approach in language teaching, many scholars have concerned and analyzed cultural contents in EFL textbooks. Yamanaka (2006) studied the countries included in junior and senior high school English textbooks based on Kachru's (1992) three-concentric-circles model. The study of textbooks for young Japanese students found more focus on countries in the inner circle than in the outer or expanding circles and suggested that a better balance of countries would allow students to learn a greater variety of cultures. Lee (2009) investigated the aspects of culture included in eleven EFL conversation textbooks used in Korea. The majority of the investigated textbooks revealed a strong tendency to include big "C" target-culture learning such as facts and statistics in the fields of arts, history and customs related to the USA without any explication of the small "c" domain of a target culture. Wu (2010) investigated the cultural contents in College English, published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press in 2001. The results suggest more passages should reflect the culture of other English Speaking communities. International cultures should be included and the content of the Chinese culture should be increased. In addition, the comparisons and contrasts between different cultures should be added.

In Taiwan, Chen (2011) also examined the cultural contents in terms of countries in senior high school textbooks. The result showed increased varieties of countries included in the curriculum of year 2010. Xiang (2007) compared two senior high school textbooks published by two well-known local publishers in 2006 in Taiwan. The results show both textbooks are culture-specific, which means British and American cultures are more introduced than other cultures. In addition, most cultures are presented as facts-only. Little information is sensitive to students' values or beliefs. Only 12% of the activities are relevant to cultural learning. Lu's study (2006) of an elementary school textbook found that the textbook is western culture-specific and includes gender stereotypes. The study suggested the role of local culture should be embedded, and more diverse cultural issues should be considered to benefit underprivileged students.

These studies show that the most widely used criterion is types of culture. However, there are additional aspects of cultural contents that can be considered in evaluating textbooks and promoting the development of intercultural competence.

B. Criteria and Checklists Recommended to Evaluate Cultural Contents

According to Byram (Byram et al, 2002), the components of intercultural competence are knowledge, skills and attitude. The role of the language teacher is therefore to develop skills, attitudes, and awareness of values just as much as to develop knowledge of a particular culture or country. Byram (1989) asserted that although cultural learning and teaching have been viewed as an integral part of language education, the great majority of cases were "the mere acquisition of information about a foreign country, without the psychological demands of integrated language learning." Kramsch (1993) also charged that in many language classes, culture was frequently reduced to the four Fs', meaning foods, fairs, folklores, and statistic facts. A great number of texts addressing cultural content are limited to offering overt, "tourist culture" or teaching abstract and irrelevant facts, which are often presented with bias and consequently do little more than reinforce stereotypes, and exaggerate or misrepresent the culture (Kramsch, 1993; Byram, 1997; Moran, 2001). Widdowson (2005) also pointed out typical EFL texts fail to engage students while providing limited and unrealistic cultural information. Owing to the importance of cultural contents in textbooks to facilitate the development of intercultural communication competence and the necessity of evaluating the materials, some scholars have proposed criteria and checklists to evaluate cultural contents in textbooks. TABLE 1 summarizes these guidelines, question lists or criteria suggested.

TABLE 1.
SUMMARY OF CRITERIA TO EVALUATE CULTURAL CONTENTS IN TEXTBOOKS.

Authors /year	Criteria
Reimann's study (2009)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Do the texts actively seek to engage the students through language or cultural content? 2. Do the texts consider the learners' culture? 3. Do the texts offer an unbiased perspective of culture? 4. Is there any connection or reference made to the learners' own culture in order to establish relevance? 5. Is culture used purely as a source of facts to learn about or is it presented as stimulating material which students can learn from? 6. Do the texts further basic stereotype or its material presented objectively for students to make their own discoveries and interpretations? 7. What are the goals of the textbooks? What is the actual purpose of including cultural content? 8. Are the goals of the text a linear approach to developing native like proficiency or a more holistic approach to understanding the diverse culture and communication styles of English as an international language?
Kilickaya (2004)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Does the book give any information, instructions or suggestions about how the book may be used and how the cultural content may be handled? 2. Does the book address specific learners or are there any characteristics of the learners that the book addresses to? 3. Does the book suggest any role that the teachers using it should have? 4. Do they include a variety of cultures or just specific ones such as British or American culture? 5. Do they represent the reality about the target culture or the author's view? 6. Where is the cultural information taken from? Author's own ideas or empirical research? 7. What subjects do they cover? Are these specific to the target culture? Are there any topics that might not be culturally suitable for the learners in class? 8. What cultural and social groups are represented? Is this adequate coverage of a variety of people or is this limited to a chosen people? If so, what kind of people are these? Are there any stereotypes? 9. Does the book include generalizations about the culture? Does it inform the audience of the fact that what is true of the parts is not necessarily true of the parts? 10. Is the cultural information presented with comments such as being good or being bad? Or is it presented without such comments? 11. Are there illustrations? If so, are these appropriate to the learners' native culture? Would additional information be necessary to explain them or are they self-explanatory? 12. What are the activities asked of the learners? Are they familiar to the learners? 13. Would a teacher using this book need specialized training to be able to use it or is there enough information given? 14. What are the learners supposed to do with the cultural information such as using actively or just be aware of it for a better understanding of the target culture? 15. What is your overall view of the textbook?
Sercu (1998)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What image is presented: a royal or a realist one? 2. Does the textbook only present a tourist point of view? 3. Are negative and problematic aspects of the foreign culture touched upon? 4. Does the textbook offer an authentic reflection of the multicultural character of the foreign society? 5. Do situations occur in which someone with a good mastery of the foreign language is not understood because of differences in culture-specific reference frames? 6. Are teachers and learners encouraged to consult additional material on the topics dealt with? 7. Do the textbooks include materials/texts written by members of the different nationalities living in the foreign country or do they mainly present the white male point of view? 8. Are mentality, values, ideas, dealt with? 9. Is a historical perspective presented and used to explain certain present-day features of mentality or national character? 10. Is the information on the foreign culture integrated in the course or is it added at the end of every chapter or even in presented in a separate chapter at the end of the book?
Cunningsworth (1995)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Are the social and culture contexts in the coursebook comprehensible to the learner? 2. Can learners interpret the relationship, behaviors, intention etc. of the characters portrayed in the book? 3. Are women given equal prominence to men in all aspects of the coursebook? 4. What physical and character attributes are women given? 5. What professional and social positions are women shown as occupying? 6. What do we learn about the inner lives of the characters? 7. Do the coursebook characters exist in some kind of social setting, within a social network? 8. Are social relationships portrayed realistically?
Byram et al. (1994)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Social identity and social groups 2. Social interaction 3. Belief and behavior 4. Socio-political institutions 5. Socialization and the life-cycle 6. National history 7. National geography 8. National cultural heritage 9. Stereotypes and national identity
Risager (1991)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The micro level-phenomena of social and cultural. 2. The macro level-social, political and historical matters. 3. International and intercultural issues 4. Point of view and style of the textbook author(s)

Huhn (1978)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Factual accuracy and up-to-date information 2. Critical handling of stereotypes 3. Presentation of a realistic picture 4. Freedom from (or questioning) ideological tendencies 5. Presentation of phenomena in context rather than isolated fact 6. Relevance of historical material to contemporary society 7. Presentation of personalities as products of their age.
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As Table 1 shows, the lists vary greatly in terms of the number of criteria. Difficult decisions may consequently occur in the process of textbook evaluation. This study uses the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) to answer the heretofore lack of a systematic method that integrates each criterion to arrive at an evaluation outcome and weighs each component in a way that allows the evaluation to be adapted to varying teaching contexts.

C. *The Application of AHP and Textbook Evaluation*

The analytic hierarchy process (AHP), initiated by Saaty (1980; 1995), is a well-known multiple-criteria, decision-making method to help decision makers find the answer that best suits their goal and understanding of a problem. It has been used in a wide variety of fields —such as government, business, industry, healthcare and education (Anada & Herath, 2003; Ho, 2008; Hong, 2009; Lee, 2014; Udo, 2000) including business planning, project selection, educational strategies, English language program planning, competence measurement, curriculum development, and course design (Chen et al., 2011; Grandzol, 2005; Hsieh, 2013; Tang, 2011). AHP is also applied in textbook evaluation (Huang, 2009; Kato, 2014; Mamaghani, 2010; Tseng, 2011). These studies have adopted AHP to assess, generate or prioritize competences demanded by various professions (Hafeez & Essmail, 2007; Lin, Lin, Chiu, Hung, & Chen, 2010). The use of AHP involves the disaggregation of the decision into a hierarchy of more easily comprehended elements and the evaluation of the relative importance of elements by experts or decision makers in the field under investigation. The AHP uses fuzzy pair wise comparison judgments rather than exact numerical values of the comparison ratios to derive a numerical weight or priority of each element in the hierarchy.

Using these previous studies that employed AHP as a research framework, this study was a first attempt in the literature to use AHP in evaluating cultural contents in EFL textbooks. A more detailed description of the procedures of AHP was specified in the section of method.

III. METHOD

Application of Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP)

In this study, the procedure of AHP consists of three steps: (1) to establish the hierarchical structure of AHP, (2) to compare the weights among the attributes of the decision elements that form the reciprocal matrix, and (3) to synthesize the individual subjective judgement and estimate the relative weights (Tzeng & Huang, 2011). Each step is explained below.

1. Establish the hierarchical structure of AHP

To set up the hierarchical system by disaggregating the problem into a hierarchy of interrelated elements, a literature review on studies related to evaluating cultural contents was conducted first to identify criteria. Table 2 shows the criteria identified. These criteria were reviewed by a panel of 11 EFL experts and one AHP expert with a purpose to develop consensus on the criteria and their appropriateness. The reason for the number of the experts is based on the literature maintaining that for research studies relevant to planning or decision making, a typical panel size would range from 7-15 participants (Phillips, 2000; Labuschagne & Steyn, 2010). A homogenous group of expert is suggested to solicit appropriated consensus opinions (Baker, Lovell, & Harris, 2006).

TABLE 2
CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING CULTURAL CONTENTS

Dimension	Criteria		Source
Goals/Objective	Cultural knowledge	This refers to whether the purpose of the cultural content in the textbook is to develop cultural knowledge.	Reimann (2009) Byram et al. (2002)
	Communication	This refers to whether the purpose of the cultural content in the textbook is to develop communication skills.	
	Intercultural attitude	This refers to whether the purpose of the cultural content in the textbook is to develop intercultural attitude such as awareness, respect for others or openness.	
Cultural Topics	Relevance	This refers to whether the topics are culturally appropriate for the learners.	Reimann (2009) Kilickaya (2004)
	Interest	This refers to whether the topic attracts target learners.	Cunningsworth (1995)
	Diversity	This refers to whether the topics are rich with different social aspects.	
Cultural Information	Types of culture	This refers to what cultures (one culture or multiple cultures) are presented? Is students' own culture taken into account? Are there examples of culture for raising awareness in connection with learners' own culture for relevance	Chen (2012) Chen (2011) Xiao (2010) Wu (2010) Chen (2010)
	Cultural sensitivity	This refers to whether the information is sensitive to students' values and beliefs.	Lee (2009) Reimann (2009)
	Perspective and representation	This refers to what views are taken from (for example, the author or empirical research?). Are there both positive and negative views of the culture? Are there stereotypes (racial, gender, sexual or culture) to deal with?	Xiang (2007) Yamanaka (2006) Lu (2006)
	Authenticity	This refers to whether the information is factual, real, or up-to-dated.	Kilickaya (2004) Moran (2001) Sercu (1998)
	Presentation	This refers to whether the cultural information is integrated in the course or added at the end.	Byram (1997) Cunningsworth (1995) Byram et al (1994) Kramsch (1993) Risager (1991) Kachru (1992) Huhn(1978)
	Cultural Activities	Student participation	This refers to whether the activities trigger learners' active engagement or active learning.
Familiarity		This refers to whether the activities are familiar to learners and the teacher.	Kilickaya (2004) Seru(1998)
Logistics		This refers to time constraints, space limitations and materials required.	Kramsch (1993)
Teaching Aids	Illustration and images	This refers to how cultural elements are presented through illustrations or images. Are they easy to explain?	Reimann (2009) Kilickaya (2004)
	Teacher's manual	This refers to whether the teacher's book is provided to offer instructional support.	Huhn (1978)
	Supplementary teaching resources	This refers to for example, DVDs or other authentic documentaries.	

The 11 EFL expert participants included 11 female teachers from three different private universities. Except for one teacher with a master degree, all participants have doctoral degrees in fields related to ELT, such as Applied Linguistics and TEFL. The teacher with the master degree has more than 20 years of experience teaching English. These EFL experts have an average of 11 years of teaching experience and obtained their degrees overseas. All of them have taught *Freshman English* for non-English majors and have rich experience in textbook evaluation.

The 11 experts' opinions were quantified using a structured questionnaire and the 10-point Likert scale with 1 indicating least important and 10 indicating most important). An example of the 10-point Likert scale in the questionnaire is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
10-POINT LIKERT SCALE

Criteria	Scale
	least important 0,1,...,10→most important
C ₁₁ Cultural knowledge	7

A hierarchy with five dimensions and 17 criteria was established based on the experts' opinions on the degree of importance of each dimension and criterion and suggestions on revising the dimensions and criteria shown in Fig. 1. The five dimensions include goals/objectives, cultural topics, cultural information, cultural activities and teaching aids. The dimension of goals/objectives comprises three criteria: intercultural attitude, communication, and cultural knowledge. The dimension of cultural topics comprises three criteria: relevance, interest, and diversity. The dimension of cultural information comprises five criteria: types of culture, cultural sensitivity, perspective and representation, authenticity, and presentation. The dimension of cultural activities comprises three criteria: student participation,

familiarity and logistics. The dimension of teaching aid comprises three criteria: illustration and images, teacher’s manual and supplementary teaching resources.

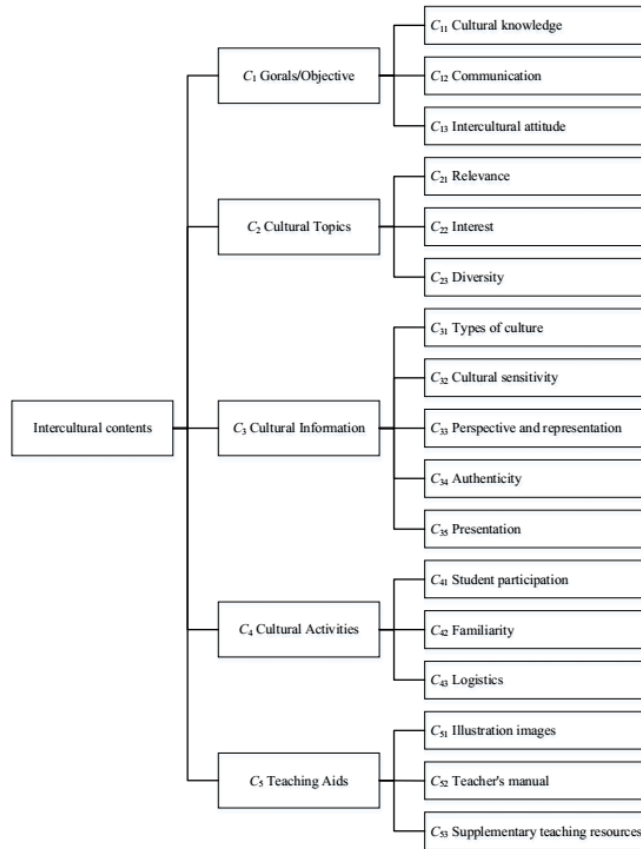


Figure 1. The hierarchical structure of AHP

2. Compare the comparative weight between the attributes of the decision elements to form the reciprocal matrix

An AHP questionnaire based on the final resulting hierarchy was distributed to the same group of 11 EFL experts to compare each criterion in the same level in a pair-wise fashion based on their own experience and knowledge using the pairwise comparison scales provided by Saaty (1995). An example is shown in Figure 1.

Comparison of “C1 Goals/Objectives” (C11, C12, C13)

Verbal scale	Absolute Importance			Essential Importance			Equal Importance			Essential Importance			Absolute Importance			Verbal scale		
	Very strong Importance			Weak Importance			Weak Importance			Very strong Importance								
	9:1	8:1	7:1	6:1	5:1	4:1	3:1	2:1	1:1	1:2	1:3	1:4	1:5	1:6	1:7		1:8	1:9
C11 Cultural knowledge						✓												C12 Communication
C11 Cultural knowledge														✓				C13 Intercultural attitude
C12 Communication															✓			C13 Intercultural attitude

Figure 1. An AHP questionnaire

To assist the participants in completing the questionnaire effectively, detailed instructions as well as the specific example shown in Table 4 were provided to illustrate the use of the 1-9 scale (Tzeng&Huang, 2011).

TABLE 4. FUNDAMENTAL SCALE FOR PAIR-WISE COMPARISONS.

Verbal scale	Numerical values
Equal importance	1
Weak importance	3
Essential importance	5
Very strong importance	7
Absolute importance	9
Intermediate values to reflect compromise	2,4,6,8

To compare a set of *n* attributes pairwise according to their relative importance weights, where the attributes are

denoted by a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n and the weights are denoted by w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n , then the pairwise comparisons can be represented by questionnaires with subjective perceptions as:

$$(1) \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1j} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & \dots & a_{ij} & \dots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nj} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where $a_{ij} = 1/a_{ji}$ (positive reciprocal) and $a_{ij} = a_{ik} / a_{jk}$. Note that in realistic situations, w_i / w_j is usually unknown. Therefore, the problem for the AHP is to find a_{ij} such that $a_{ij} \cong w_i / w_j$. Let a weight matrix be represented as:

$$(2) \quad W = \begin{matrix} & w_1 & \dots & w_i & \dots & w_n \\ \begin{matrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_i \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} w_1/w_1 & \dots & w_1/w_j & \dots & w_1/w_n \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_i/w_1 & \dots & w_i/w_j & \dots & w_i/w_n \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_n/w_1 & \dots & w_n/w_j & \dots & w_n/w_n \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

By multiplying W by w yield.

$$(3) \quad W \times w = \begin{matrix} & w_1 & \dots & w_i & \dots & w_n \\ \begin{matrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_i \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} w_1/w_1 & \dots & w_1/w_j & \dots & w_1/w_n \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_i/w_1 & \dots & w_i/w_j & \dots & w_i/w_n \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_n/w_1 & \dots & w_n/w_j & \dots & w_n/w_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_j \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} = n \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_j \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Or

$$(W - nI)w = 0 \quad (4)$$

Since solving equation (4) is the eigenvalue problem, we can derive the comparative weights by finding the eigenvector w with respective λ_{max} that satisfies $Aw = \lambda_{max} w$, where λ_{max} is the largest eigenvalue of the matrix A , i.e., find the eigenvector w with respective λ_{max} for $(A - \lambda_{max}I)w = 0$.

3. Synthesize the individual subjective judgment and estimate the relative weights

In order to ensure the consistency of the subjective perception and the accuracy of the comparative weights, two indices, including the consistency index (C.I.) and the consistency ration (C.R.), are suggested. The equation of the C.I. can be expressed as:

$$C.I. = (\lambda_{max} - n) / (n - 1) \quad (5)$$

Where λ_{max} is the largest eigenvalue, and n denotes the numbers of the attributes. Saaty (1980) suggested that the value of the C.I. should not exceed 0.1 for a confident result. On the other hand, the C.R. can be calculated as:

$$C.R. = \frac{C.I.}{R.I.}$$

Where R.I. refers to a random consistency index, which is derived from a large sample of randomly generated reciprocal matrices using the scale 1/9, 1/8, ..., 1, ..., 8, 9. The R.I. with respect to different size matrices is shown in Table 5 (Tzeng & Huang, 2011).

TABLE 5.
THE R.I. FOR DIFFERENT SIZE MATRICES

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
R.I.	0	0	0.52	0.89	1.11	1.25	1.35	1.40	1.45	1.49	1.51	1.54	1.56

IV. RESULTS

A. The Local Weights and Ranking of Five Dimensions

The first level of the hierarchy comprises five dimensions: goals/objectives, cultural topics, cultural information, cultural activities and teaching aids. The weights assigned to these five dimensions are as follows: goals/objectives (.397); cultural topics (.236); cultural information (.177); teaching aid (.105) and cultural activities (.086). Based on these weights, ranking by dimension shows goals/objectives is ranked as the top priority followed by cultural topics, cultural information, teaching aid, with cultural activities as the lowest priority. (see Table 6)

B. The Local Weights and Ranking of Criteria under Dimensions

The dimension of goals/objectives comprises three criteria: intercultural attitude, communication, and cultural

knowledge. The weights assigned to these three criteria are as follows: intercultural attitude (.362), communication (.342), and cultural knowledge (.295), which reveals intercultural attitude is ranked as the top priority followed by communication, with cultural knowledge as the lowest priority.

The dimension of cultural topics comprises three criteria: relevance, interest, and diversity. The weights assigned to these three criteria are as follows: relevance (.368), diversity (.326) and interest (.306), which reveals relevance is ranked as the top priority followed by diversity, with interest as the lowest priority.

The dimension of cultural information comprises five criteria: types of culture, cultural sensitivity, perspective and presentation, authenticity, and presentation. The weights assigned to these five criteria are as follows: authenticity (.274), cultural sensitivity (.255), types of culture (.219), perspective and representation (.169), and presentation (.083). These weights show that under cultural information, authenticity is ranked as the top priority followed by cultural sensitivity, types of culture, perspective and representation, with presentation as the lowest priority.

The dimension of cultural activities comprises three criteria: student participation, familiarity and logistics. The weights assigned to these three criteria are as follows: student participation (.632), logistics (.242) and familiarity (.126). According to these weights, student participation is ranked as the top priority followed by logistics, with familiarity as the lowest priority.

The dimension of teaching aid comprises three criteria: illustration and images, teacher's manual and supplementary teaching resources. The weights assigned to these three criteria are as follows: supplementary teaching resources (.454), illustration and images (.391), and teacher's manual (.155). According to these weights, the criterion of supplementary teaching resources is ranked as the top priority followed by illustration and images, with teacher's manual as the lowest priority.

C. The Global Weights and Ranking of 17 Criteria

As Table 7 shows, the global weights of these 17 criteria are as follows: intercultural attitudes (.144), communication (.136), cultural knowledge (.117), relevance (.087), diversity (.077), interest (.072), student participation (.054), authenticity (.049), supplementary teaching resources (.048), cultural sensitivity (.045), illustration and images (.041), types of culture (.039), perspective and representation (.030), logics (.021), teacher's manual (.016), presentation (.015) and familiarity (.011). The greater weights received preferred priority. Therefore, intercultural attitude is ranked as the top priority followed by communication, cultural knowledge, relevance, diversity, interest, student participation, authenticity, supplementary teaching resources, cultural sensitivity, illustration and images, types of culture, perspective and representation, logics, teacher's manual, presentation, with familiarity as the lowest priority. Table 7 summarizes all the rankings and weights.

TABLE 6.
SUMMARY OF WEIGHTS AND RANKINGS OF DIMENSIONS AND CRITERIA

Dimension	Local Weight	Ranking	Criteria	Local Weight	Ranking	Global Weight	Ranking
C ₁ Goals/Objective	0.397	1	C ₁₁ Cultural knowledge	0.299	3	0.119	3
			C ₁₂ Communication	0.339	2	0.134	2
			C ₁₃ Intercultural attribute	0.362	1	0.144	1
C ₂ Cultural Topics	0.236	2	C ₂₁ Relevance	0.370	1	0.087	4
			C ₂₂ Interest	0.305	3	0.072	6
			C ₂₃ Diversity	0.324	2	0.076	5
C ₃ Cultural Information	0.177	3	C ₃₁ Types of culture	0.219	3	0.039	12
			C ₃₂ Cultural sensitivity	0.255	2	0.045	10
			C ₃₃ Perspective and representation	0.169	4	0.030	13
			C ₃₄ Authenticity	0.274	1	0.049	8
			C ₃₅ Presentation	0.083	5	0.015	16
C ₄ Cultural Activities	0.086	5	C ₄₁ Student participation	0.632	1	0.054	7
			C ₄₂ Familiarity	0.126	3	0.011	17
			C ₄₃ Logistics	0.242	2	0.021	14
C ₅ Teaching Aids	0.105	4	C ₅₁ Illustration and images	0.389	2	0.041	11
			C ₅₂ Teacher's manual	0.154	3	0.016	15
			C ₅₃ Supplementary teaching resources	0.457	1	0.048	9

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A. Discussion and Implication

The AHP analysis showed that the five dimensions were ranked in the orders of goals/objectives, cultural topics, cultural information, teaching aids and cultural activities. Among the 17 criteria, the six highest priority criteria, intercultural attitude, communication, cultural knowledge, relevance, diversity and interest are all drawn from the two highest priority dimensions of goals/objectives and cultural topics. Based on the results, the expectations of the cultural contents in EFL textbooks to promote intercultural competence are highlighted and discussed.

First, the rankings reveal that the experts highly expect textbooks to define intercultural competence and to make explicit the goal of helping students to attain it. The ultimate goal of the contents should be developing in students an

intercultural attitude by raising their awareness of difference, encouraging them to show respect and emphasizing the benefits of being open minded to cultural variations. Such an approach contrasts sharply with the mere teaching of communication skills or the presenting of factual information about other cultures.

According to the AHP analysis, the topics included in textbooks should be positively evaluated in accordance with the degree to which they provide opportunities to develop intercultural competence and contain a variety of social elements attractive to students. Since the choice of cultural topics wields considerable influence on learning activities, topics with a higher potential for intercultural learning such as those that compare cultures and relate information to learners' cultures and values should be evaluated higher than topics that fail to include such potential. Emphasis on intercultural competence enhances students' knowledge and understanding not only of others, but also of themselves.

Although the dimension of cultural activities did not receive high priority, the criterion of student participation under this dimension is of great concern. For teachers, the question of whether activities hold the potential to trigger students' active engagement and learning in pursuit of the development of intercultural competence is of utmost importance. Enriching learners' experiences and challenging their assumptions through comparison and analysis are often the guiding principles of activity planning. Moreover, comparison, analysis and experience need to be accompanied by time and space for reflection, leading to the gradual development of critical awareness and understanding. Making available supplementary resources, such as films and documentaries, are also beneficial to students.

The process of constructing AHP hierarchy in the present study has provided opportunities to consider various criteria used in evaluations reviewed in the literature. All the possible criteria are disintegrated into a comprehensive model. Each criterion in this model has its own priority weight, allowing diverse and often incommensurable elements to be compared to one another in a rational and consistent way. The present study only aimed to identify prioritized criteria and their weights. It is hoped that the application of this model can be useful for schools and teachers when selecting and evaluating EFL textbooks with more focus on the cultural contents. It is also hoped that this study will be useful to those involved in textbook development and focus their attention on the importance of the development of intercultural competence. The results should provide valuable information for textbook developers. It is also hoped that using this model can raise teachers' awareness and responsibility for developing intercultural competence in learners in a more conscious way.

B. Limitation and Recommendation

The present study focused mainly on cultural contents in EFL textbooks for non-English freshmen in universities; therefore, the results of this AHP analysis may not be generalized to other discussion on textbooks used for different courses. Different results of the hierarchy or criteria rankings may be generated to fit in different learning contexts due to the nature of classes and groups of experts. This study was a first attempt in the literature to utilize AHP in evaluating cultural contents in EFL textbooks. Further experimental studies are also needed to examine if the users, both teachers and students, are satisfied with the learning contents in the textbook selected by AHP. Among studies on textbook evaluation by AHP mentioned earlier, the factor of cultural contents is always an essential criterion, but has not been elaborated in the hierarchy. To promote intercultural competence, further studies are recommended to use AHP to construct a more comprehensive model for textbook evaluation with more emphasis on the factor of cultural contents in the future.

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Primary School Students' Cognitive Styles and Their Achievement in English as a Foreign Language

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Abstract—This study explored the relationship between cognitive styles and achievement in English as a foreign language (EFL). To this end, the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test, consisting of draw a woman test (DAWT) and draw a man test (DAMT), was administered to 658 grade two, three and four students who had registered in Imam Reza primary schools in Mashhad, Iran. The DAWT and DAMT were marked by two raters and averaged to have a more comprehensive measure of the students' conceptualization of human figure called draw a person test (DAPT). The mean score on the DAPT was utilized to assign the participants to field-dependent and field-independent groups. The participants' scores on the oral and written examinations held in the middle and end of school year were also obtained from their schools and averaged to get a total test score as an indicator of EFL achievement. The correlational analysis of the data established a significant relationship between cognitive styles and oral and total EFL achievement. Neither the field-dependent nor field-independent genus of cognitive styles related to the achievement. The independent samples *t*-test, however, showed that the field-independent primary school students' EFL achievement was significantly higher than their FD counterparts. The results are discussed and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—cognitive styles, field-dependency, field-independency, English language achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

Based on the research projects conducted with his associates in 1954 and 1962, Witkin (1967) argued that individuals adopt a specific manner to deal with “a wide array of perceptual and intellectual tasks” (p. 235). Since the manner represents the individuals' characteristic approach, Witkin considered the manner to be their preferred “cognitive style”. He then asserted that human beings adopt either a field-dependent (FD) or field-independent (FI) cognitive style to tackle the situations in which they find themselves in everyday life.

Upon classifying individuals into FD and FI groups, Witkin, Moore, Goodenough and Cox (1977) specified their distinctive features. They characterized FD individuals as specific members of a given society who comply with social norms followed by the majority. Since they are interested in what others say and do, they prefer to be with people and spend most of their time with them. FI individuals, however, have the ability to analyze the norms and improve them by imposing their own standards and norms. Peers, teachers and authority figures cannot, therefore, influence them as they do with FD individuals.

Cognitive styles have been explored in fields such as health sciences (Luk, 1998), psychology (Baron-Cohen & Hammer, 1997) and applied linguistics (Abraham, 1981, 1983). Carroll and Sapon (1958) were the first applied linguists who showed field independence is significantly related to foreign language aptitude, as measured by the Modern Language Aptitude Test. Other applied linguists established significant relationships between field independence and linguistic, communicative, and integrative competence (Hansen & Stansfield, 1981), cloze tests (Hansen, 1984), multiple choice grammar tests (Abraham, 1985), achievement in French (d'Anglejan & Renaud, 1985) and reading comprehension ability (Biok & Fathi, 2009).

Further research in applied linguistics has shown that FD and FI learners benefit from different types of lessons. Abraham (1985) for example, recruited 73 high-intermediate non-native participants who had not internalized participial phrases in English. He divided them into two homogenous group by holding a pretest developed on the phrases and administering Group Embedded Figures Test GEFT) developed by Oltman, Raskin, and Witkin (1971). One group received a deductive lesson while the other was taught by examples. The lessons were offered by means of a computer via Digital Equipment Corporation's VAX GIGI system. The results obtained on the post test showed that the FD group did well with the example lesson whereas the FI group performed better with the deductive lesson.

Almost all studies in applied linguistics have been carried out with adults' cognitive styles. The present study has, therefore, been designed to explore the relationship between primary school students' cognitive styles and their learning English as a foreign language (EFL). Instead of designing a quasi-experimental design similar to Abraham's (1985), the present study has adopted a post hoc approach by attempting to find out whether FD and FI children who learn EFL under normal conditions in Imam Reza primary schools in Mashhad, Iran, achieve significantly different level of achievement in their EFL course.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Three hundred and twenty one female (48.8%) and 337 male (51.2%) aged eight ($n = 243$, 37%), nine ($n = 224$, 34%) and ten ($n = 191$, 29%) took part in this study. They were studying at grades two, three and four in Imam Reza primary schools, respectively. The verbal agreement of these 658 participants' parents was obtained prior to conducting the project. They belonged to highly educated families in that their mothers had secondary education ($n = 16$, 2.4%), high school Diploma ($n = 206$, 31.3%) and held above diploma ($n = 54$, 8.2%), BA/BSc ($n = 266$, 40.4%), MA/MSc/MD ($n = 65$, 9.9%), and PhD ($n = 20$, 3.0%) degrees in various fields of study. Similarly, their fathers had secondary education ($n = 17$, 2.6%) and held high school diploma ($n = 157$, 23.9%), above diploma ($n = 44$, 6.7%), BA/BSc ($n = 233$, 35.4%), MA/MSc/MD ($n = 124$, 18.8%) and PhD ($n = 55$, 8.4%) degrees. They had registered their children in Imam Reza primary schools run by Razavi Cultural Foundation (BONYAD FARHANGI RAZVI). The foundation belongs to the religious organization of the Imam Reza (AS) Shrine or Astan Quds Razavi (see <http://news.aqr.ir/en>).

B. Instruments

Two instruments were employed in the study: the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test and the final English language examination held at the end of school year.

1. Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test

The Goodenough-Harris Test (Harris, 1963) was employed to determine its participants' cognitive styles. It consists of two drawings: the draw a man test (DAMT) and draw a woman test (DAWT). Similar to Kniel and Kniel (2008), the third researcher of the present study gave specific instructions to the participants regarding what they were expected to do (The instructions will be described shortly in the procedures section.) Upon collecting the DAMT and DAWT, they were marked and averaged to get the score of a single test called draw a person test (DAPT). Harris and Pinder (1974) described and enumerated the advantage of the test in the quotation below.

It is a performance test; the child is doing something rather than saying something. This is an obvious advantage for a child with speech or hearing difficulties. The test is readily used in situations where complex verbal instructions may not be easily translated. Thus it can be used with children possessing language habits with which the psychologist may be unfamiliar. Moreover, this simple test has consistently yielded substantial correlations with complex verbal and individual measures of intellectual ability (p. 4).

The DAPT is a valid measure of cognitive style because it correlated significantly with the Articulation of the Body-Concept Scale (Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough & Karp, 1974) when Saracho (1984) administered them both to 240 first grade female and male pupils, i.e., $r = .97$ and $.95$, $p < .001$, respectively. She also reported an inter-rater reliability of $.91$ and a test-retest reliability of $.80$ for the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test.

2. English Language Examination

The English language examination (ELE) held in the middle and end of school year in Imam Reza Primary schools as employed in this study. It consisted of two sections: oral and written. Both sections were based on the textbooks *Tiny Talk ABC* (Rivers, 1999), *Tiny Talk 2A* and *Tiny Talk 2B* (Rivers, 1997), *Tiny Talk 3B* (Rivers, 1998) and *Let's Begin, Let's Go* (Nakata et al., 2007) taught to grade two, three and four primary school students, respectively. The teachers reported the oral scores on the basis of the students' responses given to questions raised in the class. The written test was, however, held in the middle and at the end of the school year as midterm and final examinations. They consisted of several parts requiring recognition and productive tasks depending on the grades for which they had been designed. First grade students were, for example, required to fill in the cells of a table in two rows and several columns. Some capital letters appeared in the top row and the learners had to write their small letters in the row below or vice versa. It also required finding the small letter of a specific capital letter among others provided as alternatives, specifying the drawings of several animals whose names started with T, e.g., telephone and turtle, circling the drawings representing objects whose names started with the letter k, e.g., kite and key, writing the names of four pictures in the spaces given under them, choosing the first letter of a picture presented among three, and looking at five pictures and choose their proper name from among four words provided in front of them.

The second grade students were, however, required to fill in the blank of sentences such as "Look at those They are tall" and choose one of three animals whose pictures appeared below the sentences, i.e., giraffes. The students had to understand verbal alternatives such as "fly", "jump" and "swim" in order to complete a sentence like "A bird can ...". These task increased in complexity for midterm and final written examinations at third grade. Not only did they involve recognition tasks such as finding an odd word such as "doll" among closely related words such as "blue", "yellow" and "red", but also writing short answers to yes/no questions such as "Do you like milk?" Their syntactic knowledge of

English language was also measured by unscrambling words such as “can”, “I”, “bicycle”, “a”, and “ride” to produce the complete statement “I can ride a bicycle”.

C. Procedure

Naglieri’s (1988) scoring system was employed in this study to mark the DAMT and DAWT because it is designed “to meet the need for a modernized, recently normed, and objective scoring system to be applied to human figure drawings produced by children and adolescents” (p. 2). By resorting to schema theory (Khodadady, 2008, 2013a; Khodadady & Lagzian, 2013), the system was translated into Persian. The same was done with the instructions so that the two raters as well as participants would have no problem in understanding them. The third researcher then contacted the authorities of Razavi Cultural Foundation in Mashhad, Iran, explained the research question of the project and secured their approval and support. She then contacted the principals of Imam Reza primary schools as well as the parents of participants and obtained their verbal approval to administer the test herself in person.

On specified dates the third researcher attended the classes, gave each participant a blank sheet of A-4 paper and a soft black pencil, employed the instructions given by Kniel and Kniel (2008) saying, “I’d like you to draw some pictures for me. First I’d like you to draw a picture of a man. Make the very best picture you can. Take your time and work very carefully and I’ll tell you when to stop. Remember: be sure to draw the whole man. Please begin” (p. 28). After five minutes she asked the students to finish the drawing and gave them another sheet of paper and said, “This time I want you to draw a picture of a woman. Make the very best picture you can. Take your time and work very carefully and I’ll tell you when to stop. Be sure to draw the whole woman. Please begin” (p. 29). The researcher gave the students about five minutes to complete their drawing asking them not to use any eraser or a ruler.

After all the drawings were collected, the first author of this paper invited the second and third authors and asked them to mark 20 randomly selected drawings independently by employing Naglieri’s (1988) Persian scoring system and using separate sheets of paper for each drawing. He then asked them to compare their markings with each other and discuss the aspects to which they had assigned drastically different scores. They discussed the differences in details and marked another set of twenty drawings independently resulting in assigning very similar scores to the same drawings. All the drawings were then marked independently by the two raters over a period of approximately two months.

In addition to inter-rater reliability estimate, the test retest reliability coefficient was obtained after about three months. For this purpose, 95 students, i.e., 31 first grade, 32 second grade and 32 third grade students were chosen randomly from among the 658 participants. These students were asked to draw a man and a woman on two separate sheets of paper on the basis of the instructions described in previous paragraphs. They were asked to do the same after two weeks. The drawings were then marked by the third author of the present paper by employing Naglieri’s (1988) scoring system. By drawing on the microstructural approach of schema theory as conceptualized by Khodadady (2013b), the present researchers believe Naglieri conceptualizes human figure as a cognitive domain which consists of fourteen genera, i.e., arms, attachment, clothing, ears, eyes, feet, fingers, hair, head, legs, mouth, neck, nose and trunk. The presence of these genera and the details with which they are presented in a given drawing are determined as species of the genera totaling a score 64.

D. Data Analysis

The Reliability of the DAMT, DAWT and DAPT was estimated by inter-rater and test-retest procedures. Following Harris and Pinder (1974, 1977) point scores were transformed into standard scores so that direct comparisons could be made within age groups. The relation between cognitive styles and English language achievement was explored by correlating the scores obtained on the ELE and DAMT, DAWT and DAPT. Following Saracho (1986), the mean score on the DAPT was employed to divide the participants into field-dependent and field-independent groups. According to Saracho, a “high score suggests field-independence, while a low score suggests field-dependence” (p. 258). And finally, an independent samples t-test to determine whether the field-dependent and field-independent students differ significantly from each other in their English language achievement. All statistical tests were run via IBM SPSS Statistics 20 to test the hypotheses below.

1. Cognitive styles do not relate significantly to primary school students’ English language achievement
2. Field-dependent and field-independent primary school students do not significantly differ from each other in their English language achievement.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of DAPT consisting of DAWT and DAMT. As can be seen, out of 64, the maximum score on the DWAT and DAMT have been 59.5 and 62.0, respectively. On average the G234PS students have scored higher on the DAMT (mean = 36.6). Although a lower mean score has been obtained on the DAWT (34.5), it provides a better measure of cognitive style because its standard deviation (8.8) is higher than the DAMT (8.0). Since the mean score of the DAPT (35.5) falls between those of the DAWT and DAMT, it will be used to address the research hypotheses of this study.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF DRAW A PERSON TEST (N = 658)

Test	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-rater Reliability	Test-retest reliability
DAWT	10.5	59.5	34.478	8.8043	.006	-.133	.82	.59
DAMT	11.0	62.0	36.603	8.0098	-.103	.013	.86	.62
DAPT	13.5	60.5	35.540	7.5076	-.018	.007	.86	.66

As it can also be seen in Table 1 above, the inter-rater reliability estimates for the DAWT, DAMT and DAPT are .82, .86 and .86, respectively, indicating that they provide highly reliable measures of participants' cognitive styles. These estimates are, however, relatively lower than .91 reported for the DAPT by Saracho (1986). She held the test with 480 primary school participants whose age ranged between six and eight. The difference in the reliability estimates reported in the two studies might be due to the number and gender of raters. While two raters, a female and a male, marked the drawings in this study, Saracho employed three judges whose gender was not specified. The test-retest RC for the DAPT (.66) is even lower than that of the inter-rater RC (.86). The lower test-retest RCs are due to the productive nature of DAPT reflecting its ever-evolving nature.

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of scores the primary school students obtained in their oral and written English examination. As can be seen, the maximum scores of 10 and 40 were given to those students who gave appropriate answers to all oral and written questions, respectively. The standard deviation (SD) of the oral, written and total test scores are 1.24, 6.1, and 7.0, respectively. Since the researchers did not have access to the answer sheets of tests, their alpha RC could not be estimated. Nor was KR21 formula employed because it "is based on the assumption that "all items are of the same difficulty" (Thorndike, 2005, p. 119). As described in the Instruments section, the ELE consists of items whose difficulty varied from sections to sections.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ORAL AND WRITTEN ENGLISH EXAMINATION (N = 658)

Tests	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Oral	5	10	9.11	1.228	-1.294	.827
Written	4	40	35.78	6.060	-2.103	4.553
Total	10	50	44.90	6.975	-1.977	4.022

Table 3 presents the correlations coefficients obtained between the DAPT as a measure of primary school students' cognitive styles and their oral, written and total test scores of English as a measure of language achievement. As can be seen the DAPT correlates significantly with the scores obtained on the oral test ($r = .12, p < .01$) and total test ($r = .08, p < .05$). The written test does not, however, correlate significantly with the written test ($r = .07, ns$). These results to some extent reject the first hypothesis that *there is no significant relationship between cognitive styles and English achievement of Imam Reza primary school students*.

TABLE 3
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DAPT AND ORAL, WRITTEN, AND TOTAL TEST SCORES (N = 658)

	DAPT	Oral Test	Written Test	Total Test
DAPT	1	.119**	0.066	.078*
Oral Test	.119**	1	.700**	.784**
Written Test	0.066	.700**	1	.992**
Total Test	.078*	.784**	.992**	1

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

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

Table 4 presents the independent samples t-test of field-dependent (FD) and field-independent (FI) participants' total English scores. As can be seen, there is a significant difference in the scores for FD ($M = 29.69, SD = 4.63$) and FI ($M = 41.64, SD = 4.45$); $t(656) = -33.734, p < .001$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = -11.9524, 95% CI: -12.6481 to -11.2567) was very large (eta squared = .67). According to Cohen (1988), values higher than .14 show large effect. These results indicate that 67% of variance in PS students' English achievement is explained by their cognitive styles. These results reject the second hypothesis that *the field-dependent and field-independent students do not differ from each other in their English language achievement*.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ANALYSIS OF TOTAL ENGLISH TEST SCORES OBTAINED BY FD AND FI STUDENTS

	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
	Equal variances assumed	.570	.451	-33.734	656	.000	-11.9524	.3543	-12.6481
Equal variances not assumed			-33.761	655.989	.000	-11.9524	.3540	-12.6476	-11.2572

IV. DISCUSSION

English is taught in Iran as a foreign language for a number of reasons most of which have been recently specified by Khodadady, Arian and Hossein Abadi (2013) in their 64-statement English Language Policy Inventory (ELPI). When they administered the ELPI to 619 instructors of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English for Special Purposes (ESP), they extracted seven genera by employing Principal Axis Factoring method and rotating the extracted factors through Varimax with Kaiser Normalization, i.e., Harmonic Curriculum, International Interaction, Internationalizing Native Culture, Methodological Development, International Understanding, All-Compassing Improvement and Functional Organization. As the names of these genera indicate, *none* addresses the English language learners as individuals.

The first genus of ELPI, i.e., Harmonic Curriculum, for example, consists of 23 species, i.e., the concepts represented by linguistic statements. These species emphasize field dependency rather than field independency as reflected in “expanding social relationship” (species 60) and “teaching and developing foreign language for all” (species 61) and “promoting interpersonal and intercultural relationships” (species 54). The activities brought up by these species endorse complying with what the authorities deem appropriate and support adopting what the majority speak as the only acceptable norm. Since the society where the native language is spoken forms the field, the policies followed in teaching the ELP focus on the Persian language, i.e., field-dependency, rather than the EFL whose learning calls for reasons other than complying with the norms, i.e., field-independency. In Witkin, Moore, Goodenough and Cox’s (1977) terms, “What is at issue is the extent to which the surrounding visual framework dominates perception of the item within it” (p. 6).

The findings of the present study are in line with other studies which show that FI primary school students learn English better than their FD counterparts because they obtain significantly higher scores on their English achievement tests. Biok and Fathi (2009), for example, found that their 30 intermediate level FI learners outperformed their 30 FD counterparts on a reading comprehension test. Their results must, however, be treated with caution because they seem to have treated FI the same as FDI as measured by the Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT). By employing the correlations between the GEFT and reading comprehension test they claimed that “field independent participants have an advantage over field dependent ones” (p. 49).

The superiority of FI learners over their FD counterparts extends to language proficiency in that both achievement and proficiency are learned within an EFL context. Khodadady and Zeynali (2012), for example, administered a disclosed IELTS listening comprehension test along with the GEFT to 200 (152 female and 48 male) university students majoring in English language and reported the correlation coefficients presented in Table 5. As can be seen, field independency explains 13% of variance in the students listening comprehension ability ($r = .36, p < .01$) which drops to eight percent ($r = .28, p < .01$) in the case of field-dependency.

TABLE 5
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN IELTS LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEST AND COGNITIVE STYLES

Cognitive styles	IELTS	Note Completion	Form Completion	Multiple Choice	Sentence Completion	Matching
Field independent	.364**	.330**	.252*	.170	.428**	.176
Field dependent	.284**	.130	.168	.273**	.190*	.277**

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

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

As it can also be seen in Table 5 above, multiple choice and matching items are the two species of listening comprehension domain which relate significantly only to field dependency ($r = .273$ and $.278, p < .01$, respectively). Khodadady (1997, 1999) and Khodadady and Herriman (2000), however, questioned the validity of traditional multiple choice items (MCIs) because they depend *not* on a sound theory *but* on the intuition of item writers in that no scholar has so far indicated what sources should be employed to develop the alternatives of MCIs. Some of them, however, provided MCI writers with a number of guidelines which say nothing about what the nature of alternatives to be developed for these items must be (e.g., Farhady, Jafarpoor & Birjandi, 1994, Haladyna, 1994). Thus the results reported

by Khodadady and Zeynali (2012) support the designer-or authority-specific nature of MCI_{sin} that it shows a significant relationship with only field-dependent cognitive style.

While traditional MCIs offer no clues as to the nature of what they measure linguistically and cognitively, S-Tests accomplish the task by being developed on the types of schemata which comprise texts. Khodadady, Fatemi and Etminan (2012), for example, analyzed the authentic and unmodified text “why don’t we just kiss and make up” (Dugatkin, 2005) by employing Khodadady’s (1997) microstructural analysis of texts and found that it consisted of 97 adjective, 34 adverb, 209 noun and 158 verb schema types. As the numbers indicate the semantic schemata vary in the number in which they contribute to the domain of “why don’t we just kiss and make up” brought up by Dugatkin.

Gholami (2006) employed this very important feature of authentic texts to develop her 60-item S-Test on Dugatkin’s (2005) text. As can be seen, the number of items on the S-Test depends on the number of schema types upon which they have been developed. Since noun schemata represented the highest number of concepts constituting the test, i.e., 209, Gholami developed most of her items on nouns, i.e., 24 (40%). The next highest number of items was developed on verbs, adjectives and adverbs, respectively. The performance of 253 undergraduate and graduate students majoring in various subfields of English language on the test in Khodadady, Fatemi and Etminan’s (2012) study showed that verbs were the most challenging schemata because their p-value or item facility index was .46.

TABLE 5.3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SEMANTIC DOMAIN SBCMCIT AND ITS SUBTESTS

	N of items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean p-value	Mean r_{phi}	Alpha
Adjective	14 (23%)	7.16	2.298	.51	.27	.40
Adverb	7 (12%)	4.22	1.414	.60	.29	.25
Noun	24 (40%)	11.66	3.426	.51	.28	.59
Verb	15 (25%)	6.91	2.830	.46	.33	.60
S-Test	60	30.35	8.350	.51	.29	.82

Table 6 presents Khodadady, Fatemi and Etminan’s (2012) reported correlations between cognitive styles as measured by the GEFT and S-Test. As can be seen, the GEFT correlates significantly with the S-Test ($r = .44, p < .01$) as does its verb ($r = .40, p < .01$), noun ($r = .38, p < .01$), adjective ($r = .35, p < .01$) and adverb ($r = .29, p < .01$) subtests. However, when the performance of FD and FI students are scrutinized separately, only FD students’ cognitive style relates significantly and positively to their English language proficiency, indicating that only these learners attempt to employ their field-dependency to solve their EFL related problems.

TABLE 6
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE GEFT, S-TEST, AND ITS SUBTESTS

Style	N	Adjective	Adverb	Noun	Verb	S-Test
Dependent	148	.213**	.157	.191*	.230**	.247**
Independent	105	-.163	-.082	-.185	-.208*	-.223*
GEFT	253	.351**	.291**	.377**	.401**	.441**

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

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

The dependence of FD learners on their cognitive styles, however, relates to their low English language proficiency as shown in Table 7. As can be seen, FI learners outperform their FD counterparts significantly not only on the S-Test but also on its adjective, adverb, noun, and verb subtests. These results do shed more light on what FD students fail to learn within EFL programs. While the English language achievement test employed in the present study does not help teachers and educators alike to pin point the schemata upon which they need to gear their instructional activities, Khodadady, Fatemi and Etminan’s (2012) study emphasizes its multi-dimensional nature. It is therefore suggested an S-Test measuring English achievement be developed and used in future studies to explore the relationship between the two domains in greater depth.

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE AND ANOVA STATISTICS OF FD AND FI TEST TAKERS’ SCORES ON S-TEST

Genus	Field	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	ANOVA
Adjective	Dependent	149	6.52	2.321	.190	F=31.372, df=1, $p < .001$
	Independent	104	8.08	1.934	.190	
Adverb	Dependent	149	3.91	1.454	.119	F=19.345, df=1, $p < .001$
	Independent	104	4.67	1.226	.120	
Noun	Dependent	149	10.59	3.128	.256	F=41.26, df=1, $p < .001$
	Independent	104	13.20	3.257	.319	
Verb	Dependent	149	5.95	2.590	.212	F=48.828, df=1, $p < .001$
	Independent	104	8.27	2.600	.255	
S-Test	Dependent	149	27.34	7.853	.643	F=57.669, df=1, $p < .001$
	Independent	104	34.66	7.079	.694	

V. CONCLUSION

The present study explored the relationship between cognitive styles and English language achievement as two distinct cognitive domains. When the *genera* of cognitive styles, i.e., field-independency and field dependency, were correlated with the domain of English language achievement and its spoken and written genera no significant relationship could be found. However, the domain of cognitive styles itself correlates significantly with PS students' EFL achievement domain ($r = .12, p < .01$) and its speaking genus ($r = .08, p < .05$), indicating that the domain of cognitive styles is different from its constituting genera for PS students. The difference, however, disappears when FI and FD primary school students are compared with each other.

Filed-independent PS students' English achievement is significantly higher than those of their FD counterparts, indicating more attention needs to be paid to FI students in terms of their EFL learning. FD students should, however, be placed in courses in which they perform as well as, if not better than, their FI counterparts. This means that further research is required to find out what courses are the most suitable for FD students. Unfortunately, many higher education centers are established in Iran these days which are accepting almost all graduates of senior high schools without being screened in terms of their cognitive styles and abilities. As the results of this study show FD students will fail to compete with their FI counterparts and thus may experience various psychological problems.

Khodadady and Zabetipour (2013), for example, developed the 27-statement Top Peer Pressure Scale (TPPS) and administered it to 312 freshman undergraduate university students majoring in English language and literature, English translation and TEFL at Samen-alhojaj Teacher, Education Center, Tabaran Institute of Higher Education, Islamic Azad University of Mashhad, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad and Islamic Azad University of Quchan. They subjected their data to factor analysis, rotated their factors, correlated them with each other and announced that:

Five LVs underlie normal students' attitudes towards their top peers, i.e., Debilitating, Motivating, Marginalizing, Referencing and Inspiring. While out of the three positive factors, Motivating and Referencing reveal no significant relationship with EFL students' academic achievement, it relates significantly but negatively to the Inspiring factor calling for further research to find out whether ability measures such as language proficiency tests hold similar relationships with these factors. Since the Debilitating and Marginalizing factors have the highest and lowest significant relationships with academic achievement as measured by GPAs, respectively, it seems that the more normal students compare themselves with their top peers, the less they strive to achieve academically. (p. 1137)

The superiority of FI primary school students to their FD counterparts in achieving English as a school subject might be employed to question teaching EFL as a course in Iranian high schools in general and primary schools in particular. Unfortunately, many families and teachers in Iran approach EFL as writers such as Cohen and Ishihara (2013) did. To them L2 refers "both to second and foreign language" (p. 113). While children in an L2 context have no choice but to learn it for communicative purposes, i.e., interacting with each other as well as with the members of L2 community, there is no immediate need for communication within an EFL context. For this very reason, the learners have to resort to their analytical abilities which seem to be undeveloped in FD students.

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Indonesian EFL Students' Perception on Training in Writing Research Articles for Publication

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Abstract—Students in a high level of education must have been familiar with a great number of publications, including research articles. However, they might not have been experienced in writing and publishing their own research articles. This study reports the results of training 15 EFL students in the Doctorate Program in English Language Teaching (ELT) of an Indonesian university to carry out research and write the reports in the form of research articles. More particularly, it examined the students' perception on the training in writing research articles for publication. The students attended 16-week course, *Research on Second Language Writing*, one of the courses offered in the university. The students were trained to understand the nature of research articles and practice in conducting research and writing their research articles. At the end of the course, they were requested to give responses to questions on whether or not they were assisted in writing research article abstracts; in developing the abstracts into research articles; and in developing sections of the research articles. The results showed that the students informed that they were assisted in writing research article abstracts, in developing abstracts into research articles, and in developing sections of the research articles.

Index Terms—Indonesian EFL students, perception, training in writing, research article, publication

I. INTRODUCTION

Many people believe that the ability in writing is not a gift of nature, but it is the result of nurture. Therefore, being in a higher education level is not identical to being able to write well, especially for academic purposes. This is especially the case with the students undertaking a Doctorate Degree in English Language Teaching in the School of Graduate Studies at Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia. The awareness of the needs to provide an opportunity for the students to learn to write for academic purposes was manifested in the offering of a course “Research on Second Language Writing.” This optional course was offered for 2 credits with the course sessions that extended in 16 weeks. One of the authors of this article had the opportunity to teach the course. The course description as stated in the Catalog of the English Department (2012) was used as a reference in teaching the course. The course description is cited and presented as follows:

This course aims at providing students with understanding of the nature of writing and the nature of second language writing. It particularly aims at helping the students to gain deeper insights on the areas of pedagogy and research on second language writing. At the end of the course the students are expected to produce a publishable research-based article on the teaching or learning of second language writing (conducted through a series of stages from planning to reporting). The topics discussed in the course include models of writing (writing as process, writing as product, and writing as social activity); current research on second language writing (i.e., process-based, product-based, and genre-based research studies); authorship and intertextuality; the teaching and learning of second language writing; and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and second language writing. (p. 59)

From a retrospective questionnaire distributed to the students after the project in developing research-based article was completed, it was found out that many of the students had difficulties in understanding the assignment in the project assignment. Some of the students were in confusion about things that they needed to do to finish the project. The common response from the students on question asking them whether or not they have a clear idea on what they were going to undertake when the research project was firstly introduced was that they did not have any idea on what to write. Student 1, for example, stated “I have no idea (on) what to write.” Student 5 stated that he thought the project was only discussing research-based articles. Another student, Student 7, wrote that she needed to read sources extensively in order that she could find a topic for the research-based project. In her words, “(I) need to read more to get suitable teaching strategies for my EFL students' writing problems.” Briefly stated, these responses show that before the project was introduced, it seemed that many of the students had few experiences in the publication of research-based article.

From the same retrospective questionnaire, some of the students stated that they had been familiar with writing articles on the basis of research reports and they were able to complete the project. However, these students refer to the teaching activities conducted by the lecturer, meaning that they refer to the period when their project has been

conducted and they already got explanation or assistance from the lecturer. This is evident in one of the students' statements, "The guidelines were very clear in addition to the schedule" (Student 15). This is also the case with a statement from Student 12. He stated that he had a clear idea on what research he was going to undertake, "because the professor gave a clear course outline."

Reflecting upon the lack of experience of the Indonesian EFL students studying at a doctorate level in writing for publication, this study reports the results of investigation on the Indonesian EFL students' perception on the training in writing research articles for publication given in one of the courses they took at the doctorate level. The questions of this study are stated as follows:

1. Do the students perceive that they were assisted in writing research article abstracts in the training?
2. Do the students perceive that they were assisted in developing the abstracts into research articles?
3. Do the students perceive that they were assisted in developing sections of the research article?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The EFL doctorate students' lack of experience in the publication of research-based article and difficulties in writing ideas for research as shown in the preliminary study are supported by previous research studies. Nolan and Rocco (2009), for instance, stated that doctoral students commonly complained that they have lack understanding on how to write for publication and that they are struggling in fulfilling the quality demanded by professional journals. Moreover, Catterall, Ross, Aitchison, and Burgin (2011) in their study claimed that doctoral writing is frustrating as verified by the participants' responses which regarded journal article writing as the second most challenging writing task subsequent to writing the doctoral thesis. The factors considered attributive to the difficulties in writing journal articles or writing for publication are time constraints, students' language proficiency, differing expertise of supervisors, insufficient pre-doctoral learning, and the fear of bad judgment of a manuscript (Catterall et al., 2011; Jalongo, Boyer, & Ebbeck, 2013).

Research articles are articles containing reports of research which are disseminated to the readers of the same interest. Some of media of dissemination include proceeding of conference and journals. Research article is an integral part of professional life of the authors and that is why for doctorate students who are going to become professional researchers, knowledge and expertise in writing research article are very important. Research article has special formats according to Swales (1993, cited in Derntl, 2014). It started with a title followed by abstract. Then introduction is put forward followed by the body and discussion, enclosed by references. However this basic format is not a fixed one as the body and discussion sections can be modified to include the presentation of methodology, results, and conclusion. In a more elaborate version, Fisher, Jansen, Johnson and Mikos (n.d.) identified the formats of research articles to contain the following components: title page; abstract; introduction; methods; results; discussion; conclusions; acknowledgments; references; tables and table captions; figure and figure captions.

The prevalent increasing demand of scholarly writing has urged that students in higher education level be assisted and facilitated to improve their ability to write scholarly for publication. Jalongo et al. (2013) in their study highlight the need of focused instruction or a course on scholarly writing for publication in which students could get ample writing experience and constructive feedback on their writing. Catterall et al. (2011) also pinpoint workshops or training for scholarly writing as highly valued institutional writing support for students in higher education level. Regarding workshop for scholar writing, Rosales, Moloney, Badenhorst, et al. (2012) studied the pedagogy of "Thinking Creatively about Research" workshop and investigated its effectiveness as viewed from students' perception of research and writing. Their study revealed that the students could improve their writing output, self-confidence and self-identification as a writer over the workshop. In addition, the result of teaching international graduate students in writing a particular section of research paper, that is the literature review, was reported by Swales and Lindemann (2002). It showed that the participants were helped in writing the literature review of their small-scale research.

Another particular aspect which may be trained to doctorate students is how to organize and shape ideas into a coherent article based on research data. Creme and Lea (1997) provided several ways that can be done to present research results in a well-organized manner. Some of ways include writing chronologically, descriptively, analytically (for cause-and-effect and compare/contrast writing), summary writing, and evaluative writing. However, because of the specific moves in the research articles, the various ways of idea development should be made relevant into the moves of the research articles. For example, cause-and-effect and compare/contrast analyses are suitable to present the results of experimental research which compares the results of application of a particular strategy or a method on the improvement of learning achievement of students from the experimental and the control groups. Harris (2006) provided three steps to teach abstract writing. Firstly, it is important to lay the foundation by activating the students' prior knowledge and experience and informing the goals of the program to the students. Secondly, it is important to delineate the evaluation criteria by giving the students guidelines and showing the criteria. Thirdly, it is important to scaffold the students to success through packages of lessons and a series of assignments. Thus, in light of the brief literature review, it is apparent that institutional writing supports and deliberates teaching of how to write for publications (either as a holistic approach or specific focus on the components of the research articles) are necessary for students to enhance their ability in scholar writing.

III. METHOD

A. *Setting and Participants*

This study aims to examine the perception of Indonesian EFL students on their experience in attending a training to write scholarly articles for publication. When the study was conducted, the students were attending a doctorate program in English language Teaching at Universitas Negeri Malang, one of the prominent universities in Indonesia. The course that the students attended was *Research on Second Language Writing*. The purpose of the course is to help the students write the results of their research in the form of research articles to be published in reputable journals. The study involved 15 students who are lecturers teaching English in various universities or teacher training colleges in Indonesia. Most of the students have never published any research articles for reputable publications. In terms of gender, they consisted of 8 male and 7 female students. These students are lecturers coming from various universities in the province of East Java.

B. *The Training*

In the training to prepare the students to write research articles for publication, one of us became the lecturer who provided assistance in the training. Materials of the training were based on theories of writing for research articles which contain a number of moves common to research articles (Swales, 1988). The moves include introduction containing contextualization of the research, be it theoretical or practical. The research problems should be stated in the last part of the introduction section. The next section is research method that contains procedures in conducting research beginning from the types of the design, the subjects involved, data collection, and data analysis. The subsequent section is results and discussion which may be presented in an integrated way or separately. The result section should make sure that the research questions have been answered. Following the discussion section which highlights the results from the theoretical and empirical evidence reported in previous research studies, the conclusion section is presented. The conclusion highlights the results of the study to confirm that research questions have been answered and discussed appropriately. In addition, some recommendations or implications of the research findings may be included (Booth, Colomb, & Williams, 1995).

Based on the moves, materials for training were constructed and models of abstract and models of articles were prepared. Models are important to help the students recognize that abstract writing is an important initial stage for scholarly writing, and to scaffold the instruction with what really happens in the academic forum (Harris, 2006). The students had to follow some steps beginning from practices in stating topic for their research, developing abstracts of what they are going to write and ending in finalization of the research articles. In order to write at a particular topic, the students were encouraged to think about issues which are of their interests. For example, those who were fond of working with English language skills were recommended to find problems related to the teaching or learning of the skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing). Other students who liked methodological issues might think of effectiveness of particular techniques or strategies in teaching. Personal interests in the topic were given priority due to the long involvement of the students in working with the research conduct and reporting. In addition, it is important to connect the topic with the students' prior knowledge and experience which are usually closely related to their interests. Prior knowledge and experience are important as reference to avoid students' feeling of dismay and lack of appreciation in the research endeavor (Harris, 2006, p. 136). Because the students were in the early stage of the project, they were asked to write an abstract about the research that they were going to plan. This was different from abstract for publication in journals which are usually composed of work that is complete but unpublished (Smith, 1984). In contrast, the abstract that the students prepared covered plan of what the students would do. Thus, the function of the abstract is to clarify the students' thoughts and to help them organize ideas about "what is to be investigated" and "how it will be investigated" (Abdulai & Owusu-Ansah, 2014:3). In the finalization of the article, the students were expected to complete their research article with revised version of the abstract which contained complete work.

In the training which was implemented in 14 sessions, the students had to fulfill several tasks before they could complete the research paper. The first task is understanding the course (Session 1). The second task is reviewing the theories and practices in teaching of writing (Sessions 2-4). Meanwhile in Session 3, the students were asked to determine the topics of research they were going to undertake. Models of abstracts from program books of ELT conferences were shown and examined. Then, the students were asked to submit their own abstracts in Session 4. The third task is planning the data collection (Session 5). The fourth is to review model articles from international publications to be discussed in groups of two or three and presented in front of the class (Sessions 6-9). The fifth is to have report on the individual project which is conducted in small group presentation of the sections of the research articles, starting from Introduction (Session 10), Method (Session 11), Findings (Session 12), Discussion (Session 13), and Conclusion (Session 14). In the last two sessions (Sessions 15-16), the students are required to present the results of their research article writing.

C. *Data*

From the results of the training, the students were able to write various topics for their research articles. One of the topics was "Using 'on the spot'" realia through process genre based approach to improve EFL students' ability in writing descriptive texts," an action research which was conducted by a female doctorate student (Student 1). Another topic was, "Problems found by English department students in developing paragraphs," a descriptive research carried out by a male doctorate student (Student 10). The complete list of the topics of the research articles can be seen in

Appendix 1. The list of the topics was completed with the abbreviations of the students' names and gender categories. Secondly, they were also able to write abstracts as part of the plan in making the research articles for publication. A sample of the abstract of the students is shown in Appendix 2. The abstract shown consists of a bit of background and method, but there is no information about the results of the study. This is because the abstract serves as the description of the plan rather than summary report of the research results. All of students successfully completed their research articles and reported the results in the form of summaries after 16 sessions of the training period. An example of the summary of a student's research article is shown in Appendix 3.

Following the completion of the research articles, a questionnaire was distributed to the students. It was used to know the students' perception in the process in developing ideas into articles of the research projects. The questionnaire can be seen in Appendix 4. The questionnaire consists of three items eliciting whether or not they felt they were assisted in developing ideas into an abstract, whether or not they felt they were assisted in developing the abstract into a research article, and whether or not they felt they were assisted in developing sections of the research reports. An open-ended item was provided in the questionnaire requiring the students to state their comments or opinion about various aspects of the training.

IV. RESULTS

Reflecting upon the results of the analysis of the data on the students' perception in the three areas of research questions (assistance in writing research article abstracts, assistance in developing the abstracts into research articles, and assistance in developing the sections of research articles), the results of the study are presented in the following:

A. Perception on Assistance in Writing Research Article Abstracts

Analysis of the students' responses on the first research question eliciting their perception on whether or not they were assisted in writing abstracts of research articles showed that in general the students felt that from the training they had learned to write abstracts of research articles. The statement expressed by Student 1 represented the perceptions of the majority of the students regarding the contribution of the training to their ability in writing abstracts of research articles. Student 1 stated, "the training guided me in constructing a clear abstract." Student 10 supported Student 1 by stating, "The training provided a good way to develop ideas into an abstract." Another student, Student 5, noted, "the training helped me to get ideas and write the abstract better."

The students provided reasons for their ability in writing abstracts in the training. The first reason is the availability of examples of abstracts that can give the students insights for writing their own abstracts. This is evident from the statements expressed by Student 3 and Student 7. They stated that the lecturer provided "model to make an abstract". Student 2 added, "the lecturer gave an example so that the students can do the assignment." The second reason is that the lecturer explained the moves of abstract to the students and helped the students in the development of the ideas in the abstract. The development of ideas in the abstract was felt by the students as an important step in finalizing the abstract. Student 8 wrote, "the lecturer assisted me in developing ideas." In the same vein, Student 13 reported that the lecturer "guided me patiently in developing ideas into the abstract." The last reason is that the lecturer checked the students' abstracts and provided feedback for improvement. One of the students, Student 12, mentioned that "the lecturer gave feedback in developing the abstract." Another student, Student 6, admitted the help of the lecturer in writing an abstract. She asserted, "the lecturer guided me well." Two other students, Student 12 and Student 15, strengthened the point by writing that the feedback from the lecturer was important.

B. Perception on Assistance in Developing the Abstracts into Research Articles

The second questionnaire item was aimed at finding the students' perception on whether they were assisted in developing the abstracts into a research article during the training. All of the students stated that they received assistance in developing the abstracts into their research article. The reasons they provided for this item mostly pointed up the prominent role of the lecturer. For example, Student 8 said that the lecturer taught them how to develop their abstracts into research articles. Similarly, Student 13 gave the reason by stating that the lecturer gave knowledge she did not have before. In line with these responses, Student 4 highlighted the lecturer's strategy by saying "... the lecturer's strategy in guiding us to develop the abstracts was very impressive". Other responses from three students revealed that they felt they were assisted in developing the abstracts since the lecturer gave them feedback and correct their errors. In addition to the instruction, knowledge, strategy, and feedback, two students admitted that they got models of abstract and research articles from the lecturer to assist them in developing their abstracts.

The data from the second questionnaire item also showed that the students perceived the abstract itself as the assistance in developing their research article. This is indicated by the response from Student 5 who said, "The abstract is the guide for developing research article" and that from Student 9 who commented, "The abstract gives guideline on what we are going to do." Besides abstracts, other responses perceived the opportunity to have discussion is useful in helping the students develop the research article based on the abstract. Unfortunately, 3 out of 15 students did not give their reason for this second questionnaire item.

C. Perception on Assistance in Developing the Sections of Research Articles

The last result of the research deals with the students' perception on their ability in developing sections of the research articles. The majority of the students thought that they were helped much by the well-arranged activities in developing sections of research articles. Some students underlined the clarity of the activities conducted in the course meetings. For example, Student 8 stated, "every meeting was used to develop our sections of the research." Student 9 added, "developing sections of the research article was done step by step." The clear plan in the stages of activities was indeed an advantageous point not only for the students, but also for the lecturer as he could manage the activities in a systematic way. This is evident in the perception of Student 4 who expressed, "the explanation of the lecturer was systematic and the schedule helped the students to complete every project punctually." By using different expression, Student 14 stated "in every meeting, we must submit our work." This indicates that there has been a schedule submission dates regarding the students regular activities for completing the research articles. In the same vein, Student 5 appreciated the sequence in the activities. He stated "Building up an article in sequence is a great idea and less burdening too." In short, the good arrangement of activities was intended to provide the students with a systematic plan in writing and the importance of outcome in each of the activities.

At the stage of development of the section of the research article, the lecturer maintained the provision of feedback for the students. The feedback provided in this stage was appreciated very much by the students because they felt secure with the improvement of their writing. For example, Student 1 expressed, "I got very important feedback to write better in developing the sections of the research article." This is supported by student 7 who stated, "The assistance is from the given feedback." and student 11 who asserted, "I had to make report progress every week and got feedback from the lecturer." The impression of the students regarding the benefits of feedback was summarized by Student 15 who stated "The continuous feedback was invaluable." Student 12 expressed the advantage of feedback provision in a greater detail by pinpointing the focus of feedback namely the content and mechanical aspects. In his words, "The lecturer gave comments and edited all aspects of content and mechanics."

All in all, the process in developing the sections of research article cannot be considered as a purely independent process of writing the research articles because at the stage the students still need assistance in the form of systematic teaching activities and feedback given in the process of completing the research articles. This can be seen from the statements of some students. Student 10, for instance, said "the training helped me to develop the research report." This is also the case with Student 2 who asserted, "The training helped me a lot and encouraged me to write."

V. DISCUSSION

The results of the study revealed that most of the students felt that they were assisted in writing their research abstracts, developing their abstracts into research articles, and developing the sections of research article. The three areas of research reported here have been central issues in the discourses of scholarly publication. Abstract in particular is an important part of publication either it is in the form of presentation in a conference or publication in journals. Many authors consider abstract as an unseparated part of publication (Harris, 2006). For example, before a scholar presents the research work in a conference, they are required to submit an abstract to the conference committee in order to be accepted for presentation. This is also the case with journal publications which contain abstract in the beginning of the article even before introduction section. Other authors (e.g. Abdulai & Owusu-Ansah, 2014) emphasize that an abstract can be used as a means to inform that no research in the topic has been conducted, indicating that there is a research gap that can be fulfilled by the study on the topic under consideration. Thus, the inclusion of abstract as the material of the training conforms to the need for publication for wider audience.

The most important part of the research article is the completeness of the sections of the research articles which covers introduction, research method, findings, discussion, and conclusions (Swales, 1990). An abstract only provides a very basic idea of the whole sections of the article. Understanding abstract is important to get the gist of the article. However, to be able to understand overall ideas and the findings reported in the research article, it is necessary for the readers to find out the contextual or theoretical background which leads to the formulation of the research problems. Methodological section informs the reader about the step-by-step procedure in collecting and analyzing the data to answer the research questions. Meanwhile, the findings and discussion section reveal the answers of the research questions. The sense of the completeness of the research article was the main consideration we have taken into in lining the training to write research article for publication and to develop the students' understanding of the sections. This is because we considered that the students involved in this study were not experienced in doing their own research and writing the reports in the form of research articles. These considerations reflected the concern expressed by Nolan and Rocco (2009) who stated that their doctorate students had limited experience in writing for publication regardless their intention to become authors of professional journals. In addition, the responsibility in writing research article cannot be taken lightly as in the end of the study the students have to write their doctorate thesis or dissertation before publishing their research article based on the doctorate thesis or dissertation. As expressed by Catteral et al. (2011) writing research article based on dissertation is the second most challenging writing task after writing the doctorate thesis or dissertation.

In order to be able to write research article on the basis of doctorate thesis or dissertation, students need to be able to compress the chapters of their final work into research article. Accordingly, the sections of their research article would be densely loaded with relevant aspects of the topic development. That is why in the training that we carried out we also emphasized the importance of developing sections of the research article. In the actualization of the endeavor we guided

the students to develop the ideas of the sections. By having the students develop the sections, students' confidence in writing would be improved so that they will be able to see themselves as genuine writers. This is in line with Rosales et al.'s (2012) findings showing students with self confidence in writing for publication.

All in all we found that writing abstract, developing abstract into research article, and developing the sections of research article are skills needed by doctorate students who are working for their research and publication of the reports of the research. In this case, training is a beneficial way to improve their skill in working with research and writing research results for publication. Either focusing on specialized sections such as literature review like the one conducted by Swales and Lindemann (2002), or more general aspects of research article we have presented in this article.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this article we have reported the result of our study on the perceptions of the doctorate students in ELT on the contribution of the training to their ability in writing research articles for publications. The results of the study showed that all of the students were able to conduct research to answer the research questions under study. In general, the study showed that most of the students found the training beneficial as they could be assisted in writing the abstract of their research, developing abstract into research articles, and developing sections of the research articles. This implies that the ability in writing research articles cannot be taken into granted among students of doctorate programs who have been in highest level of education. Therefore, up-skill programs to boost the students' ability in writing research for publication need to be conducted in the form of training or teaching as part of the activities in the courses offered in the program. The training or the teaching on this may focus on particular aspects like writing for introduction section, writing literature review, deciding research method, reporting and discussing the results, drawing conclusions, or in a more general package that can assist the students to write complete research article. It is expected that the training we have reported in this article and the positive perceptions of the students on the training on their ability in writing their research article can inspire other researchers to carry out various types of training dealing with research article writing for their doctorate students and students of the lower level (graduate students).

APPENDIX A. THE TITLES OF STUDENTS' ARTICLES

Student	Name/ Gender	Title
1	DKI (F)	Using "On the Spot" Realia through Process Genre Based Approach to Improve EFL Students' Ability in Writing Descriptive Texts
2	WYN (F)	Using Collaborative Integrative Reading Composition (CIRC) Strategy through Wordpress media to Enhance Students' Ability in Writing Essay
3	MHI (M)	Improving Students' Writing Ability through Collaborative Output Task
4	ABS (M)	Writing Strategies of Beginning Authors
5	SHB (M)	Using Chain Story to Improve Junior High School Students' Ability in Writing Narrative Texts
6	SLD (F)	EFL Learners' Ability in Representing Ideas in an English Song to Their Paragraph
7	SWY (F)	What happen next? : Teaching Writing Narrative Text through Telling "the Half of a Story" for Senior High School Students
8	NNF (M)	Improving Writing Skill of EFL Students Using Types of Cohesion
9	LIR (F)	Applying Cultural Project-Based Learning to Develop Students' Academic Writing
10	JAL (M)	Problems Found by English Department Students in Developing Paragraphs
11	LML (M)	Improving EFL Learners Language Written Production Using Subtitled Video
12	JPR (M)	Improving EFL Junior High School Students' Ability in Writing Procedure Texts using Recipe Video
13	DFH (F)	The Implementation of Content-Based Approach in Improving Academic Writing of EFL Students
14	LSW (F)	The Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching to Improve the Students' Writing Performance
15	NSS (M)	Implementing the European Language Portfolio in Teaching Narrative Texts

APPENDIX B. AN EXAMPLE OF ABSTRACT WRITTEN BY A STUDENT

Using "On the Spot" Realia through Process Genre Based Approach to Improve EFL Students' Ability in Writing Descriptive Text

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Abstract—In the teaching of writing, the ways to help learners improve their writing ability without neglecting the process of writing through enjoyable and interactive ways are essential. Therefore, they have to be more creative in using interesting media and appropriate techniques to give the students opportunities to produce a piece of writing more meaningfully. Concerning descriptive texts, particularly describing someone, imagining someone or using pictures to describe has not given meaningful experience for students to describe what they have really seen. Regarding this, many EFL students attending the English course in the Vocational Program at Brawijaya University still find it difficult to

develop and organize ideas of someone’s description. Therefore, the use of “on the spot” realia is proposed to help students write a descriptive text more meaningfully, particularly in generating and organizing ideas. Its implementation through process genre based approach has given students helpful ways in producing a better piece of descriptive text. This classroom action research is done in four stages: planning an action, implementing the action, observing the action, and reflecting the result of observation. Using the scoring rubric adapted from Hartfiel et al. (1985), the students’ writing ability will be measured.

Keywords—writing, descriptive text, on the spot realia, process-genre based approach.

APPENDIX C. AN EXAMPLE OF THE SUMMARY OF A STUDENT’S ARTICLE

Improving EFL Junior School Students’ Ability in Writing Procedure Text by using Recipe Video (Written by JPR)

This research was classroom action research was conducted through two cycles. It was conducted in the seventh grade of SMPN 1 Batu, East Java. Twenty-six students were involved in this study. The preliminary study was conducted and the results showed that the students’ gain was lower than 80. The research was conducted through four phases, planning the action, implementing the action, observing the action, analyzing and reflecting the data. The criteria of success set in this study was 80% of the students achieve scores greater than 81. This steps or the instruction were warming-up the students, asking them to identify the names of the food and drinks, having them to watch recipe videos, asking them to identify the titles, the materials, and the steps of making the food; asking them to identify the imperative words, and asking them to choose one familiar food or drink and make the recipe of the food or drink. Finally, the students were tested to write procedure text. The first test revealed that 85% of the students have reached the criteria of success. The second test revealed that 89% of the students have reached the criteria of success. The interview revealed that all of them were active, happy and motivated. The observation checklist revealed that the students felt interested, pleasant, enthusiastic, and curious. It was concluded that the application of recipe video can improve the students’ ability in writing procedure text.

APPENDIX D. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS OF DOCTORATE PROGRAM IN ELT ATTENDING RESEARCH ON SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING COURSE

Instruction:

As you have experienced in attending this *Research on Second Language Writing* course, you are required to write research project reports in the form of articles potentially publishable into a journal. This questionnaire aims to know how you see the process in developing ideas into research project reports. Please give your responses to the following questionnaire items.

Developing Ideas into Research Projects

1. Did you feel you were assisted by the lecturer in developing ideas into an abstract?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 Why (why not)? _____
2. Did you feel you were assisted by the lecturer in developing an abstract into a research report?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 Why (why not)? _____
3. Did you feel you were assisted by the lecturer in developing sections of the research report?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 Why (why not)? _____
4. Do you have any other comments/opinions?

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Manifest Intertextuality and Readability in SLA Handbooks

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Abstract—It is argued that meaning has no originary source and is the outcome of relationships between texts, or intertextuality, the manifest type of which is cued by concrete references to the works of others in direct or indirect forms. The present research, then, is an attempt to illustrate how intertextual networks are set up in SLA handbooks; manifest intertextuality is in the next phase mapped onto a diachronic axis to see if there is any meaningful pattern regulating intertextuality in the corpus of the study. The obtained results revealed a far greater reliance on contemporary works which may be justified in the light of the constant development of our knowledge of the field. Intertextuality is then examined in the framework of relevance theory to show the possible connections between the intertextual quality of a text and its readability. Since many SLA handbooks serve as textbooks for graduate students, the results of this study can help with measuring the degree of readability of handbooks and their optimality for given students.

Index Terms—manifest intertextuality, vertical intertextuality, SLA handbooks, comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

It was once believed that a text had an independent meaning to be extracted by readers in a process of interpretation or reading. However, this view is radically challenged in contemporary literary and cultural theories which posit that a work of literature is built from systems, codes and traditions established by previous works and hence lacks any kind of independent meaning; the act of reading, then, is plunging into a network of textual relations and the text has become an intertext (Allen, 2000).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Origins of Intertextuality*

Intertextuality is a linguistic, artistic, literary and semiotic phenomenon whose presence can be traced even in ancient times. However, as a defined literary theoretical term, it can be said to have its origins in twentieth-century linguistics, particularly in the works of Saussure (Allen, 2000). Saussure emphasized the systematic features of language and established the relational nature of meaning and thus of texts and thereby promoted the notion of intertextuality. Intertextuality has also emerged from the work of Bakhtin (1986, p. 89, quoted in Fairclough, 1992/2006), who observes that all utterances, spoken and written, are demarcated by a change of speaker and are oriented retrospectively to the utterances of the previous speakers and prospectively to the anticipated utterances of the next speakers. Therefore, according to him, each utterance seems to be a link in the chain of speech communication. Both Saussure and Bakhtin were concerned with the concept of intertextuality, but since neither actually employed the term, often Kristeva is credited with being the inventor of this term and the one who produced the first articulation of intertextual theory. She is influenced by both Bakhtinian and Saussurean models and has attempted to combine their insights and major theories (Allen, 2000).

Kristeva contends that a text is constructed out of already existent discourse and text producers do not create texts from their original minds; rather, they compile their texts from pre-existent texts; Kristeva insists that texts cannot be separated from the larger cultural or social textuality out of which they are constructed (Allen, 2000, p. 35). She (1986, p. 39 quoted in Fairclough, 1992/2006) further argues that intertextuality implies the 'insertion of history (society) into a text, meaning that the text absorbs and is built out of texts from the past and the insertion of text into history which denotes that the text responds to, reaccentuates and reworks past texts and thereby helps to make history and contributes to the wider processes of change and to anticipating and trying to shape subsequent texts.

B. *Intertextuality Classified*

Intertextuality is not a transparent concept and is defined variously by different scholars; thus, opting for a single overarching definition of the term appears to be a futile attempt. A more viable alternative seems to be a thorough look at differing binary and multiple classifications of the concept to enable us appreciate the nuances of this notion.

Horizontal Intertextuality vs. Vertical Intertextuality

Fairclough (1989, quoted in Hatim & Munday, 2004) describes intertextuality as the interaction of text with text and examines the two dimensions of intertextuality as distinguished by Kristeva: horizontal and vertical. Horizontal

intertextuality refers to intertextual relations of a dialogical nature between a text and those which precede and follow it in the chain of texts (Fairclough, 1992/2006); this type of intertextuality involves concrete reference to, or straight quotation from, other texts (Fairclough, 1989, quoted in Hatim & Munday, 2004). Vertical intertextuality, on the other hand, refers to the relations obtained between a text and other texts which form its immediate and distant contexts; these include the texts to which it is historically linked as well as those which are more or less contemporary with it. Therefore, intertextuality can move along a continuum from mere quoting to allusion; allusions or vertical intertextuality are more subtle than the essentially static quotative or horizontal type of intertextuality (Hatim & Munday, 2004).

Manifest Intertextuality vs. Constitutive Intertextuality

French discourse analysts (Authier-Révuz, 1982 and Maingueneau, 1987, quoted in Fairclough, 1992/2006) have made another distinction with regard to the concept of intertextuality – manifest versus constitutive – where the former is the case where specific other texts are overtly drawn upon within a text and are manifestly marked or cued by features on the surface of the text, such as quotation marks, whereas the latter, which Fairclough also calls interdiscursivity, refers to the configuration of discourse conventions – how a discourse type is constituted through a combination of elements of orders of discourse (Fairclough, 1992/2006).

Sequential, Embedded and Mixed Intertextuality

From a different perspective, one can distinguish between three modes of intertextuality, namely sequential, embedded and mixed (Fairclough, 1992/2006). Sequential intertextuality is observable when different types of text or discourse alternate within a text; when one discourse type is clearly contained within the matrix of another type, intertextuality is in an embedded mode; and mixed intertextuality refers to the cases where distinct types of text or discourse are merged in a more complex manner and they are not easily separable.

Transtextuality

Genette, (1997, p. 1, quoted in Allen, 2000) in his approach to poetics, has presented a particular alternative to the concept of intertextuality which he describes as transtextuality. Transtextuality refers to "all that sets a text in a relationship, whether obvious or concealed, with other texts". Genette has employed the concept of transtextuality to chart ways in which texts can be systematically interpreted and understood and he subdivides this cover term into five more specific categories the first of which is intertextuality. Hence, intertextuality is subsumed under the general concept of transtextuality and refers to the relationship of copresence between two texts or among several texts and the actual presence of one text within another. In this classification, intertextuality is reduced to issues of quotation, plagiarism and allusion. This seems to be similar to what Fairclough calls manifest intertextuality. Architextuality is the second subdivision of transtextuality and embraces all general or transcendent categories from which singular texts emerge. It has to do with the reader's expectations, and thus their reception of a work; the architextual nature of texts includes generic, modal, thematic and figurative expectations about texts. When a text makes up a relation of commentary to another text, the relation between them is described by Genette as metatextuality; in other words, metatextuality unites a given text to another, of which it speaks without necessarily citing it and sometimes even without naming it.

Paratextuality encompasses all those elements which lie on the threshold of the text and helps to direct and control the reception of a text by its readers. The paratext is the sum of the peritext and epitext where the former includes elements such as titles, chapter titles, prefaces and notes and the latter consists of elements outside the text like the interviews, publicity announcements, reviews by and addresses to critiques, private letters as well as other authorial and editorial discussions. In general, manifestations of paratextuality can be observed in the following: the design of the cover, the notice concerning the objectives of the series, the descriptions on the back cover, date of publication, established text intentions (how to read and how not to read), the size of the book, the type face chosen, the manner of naming of the author or the titles of works (thematic or rhematic), dedications, inscriptions, epigraphs and prefaces.

Hypertextuality is the last category subsumed under transtextuality and describes the relationship uniting a text B (hypertext) to an earlier text A (hypotext), upon which it is grafted in a manner that is not that of commentary.

C. Intertextuality and Postmodernism

It is generally contended that one of the signs of postmodern condition is the increased awareness of intertextuality where representations of the past and present are displayed together in blurred intertextual relations; in effect, through intertextuality, previously unconnected signs are juxtaposed to create new codes of meaning. (Barker, 2004)

D. Previous Studies on Intertextuality

In the context of language learning and teaching, intertextuality can be conceived of as being linked to language learner, language instructor and the textual material used (see Figure 1).

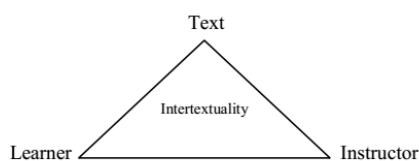


Figure 1 – Intertextuality in Language Learning and Teaching

The studies on intertextuality have each focused on one of these parameters. Intertextuality as a theoretical concept or a framework for the analysis of learner or instructor variables has been the subject of a large number of studies. Hartman (1992), for instance, has considered intertextuality as a postmodern framework to examine language learning environment. He has attempted to offer a reconceptualization of text, reader, author and context in the light of intertextuality. Similarly, Varelas and Pappas (2006) have explored the nature and evolution of intertextuality in classroom environments. Forman (2008) has used the notions of scaffolding and intertextuality as a framework to study bilingual language teaching. How intertextuality crystallizes in language communities or in classroom situations has been the focus of the study by Lemke (1992). Qi (2005) too has discussed the significance of intertextuality in foreign language teaching. He is in the belief that the recognition and analysis of the phenomenon of intertextuality can contribute to the improvement of students' linguistic and communicative competences.

A number of other studies have dealt with learner and instructor variable. For example, Short (1992) examines intertextuality within collaborative classroom learning environment and from the perspective of learner/instructor. When learner variables are concerned, a distinction can be made between developing productive skill vs. receptive skills. Manak (2011) examines the role of intertextuality in developing the learners' productive skill of writing. Similarly, Schulze and Ramirez (2007) have studied intertextuality in the context of language learning, focusing on the development of writing skills. They have examined how elementary English language learners use intertextuality as a resource when composing a text, or in other words as a means of developing their generic competence. In their study, they located instances of manifest intertextuality in the compositions of the subjects in order to understand to what extent they relied on intertextual resources. Their findings suggest strong reliance on intertextual resources. Another research focusing on learner and instructor variables is conducted by Voithofer (2006). He has dealt with intertextuality in online learning environments. The study by Boyd and Miller Maloof (2000) analyzes intertextuality in language classrooms by focusing on teacher-student oral discourse.

How learners apply intertextuality strategies to develop their writings and the relationship between intertextuality and the learners' understanding of a text has been the subject of research carried out by Chi (1995). Likewise, Abasi and Akbari (2008) explored the ways intertextuality can be employed to develop learners' writing skills. They also analyzed the borderline between intertextuality in the form of acceptable borrowing and plagiarism.

As was discussed, the studies on intertextuality in language teaching and learning context have mostly focused on the three parameters: intertextuality as a (theoretical) concept, language learner, and language instructor. There seems to be very few studies which examine intertextuality by focusing on text parameter. Moreover, the possible relationship between the degree of intertextuality of a text and its readability for the learner seems to be under-researched. The present undertaking, thus, attempts to explore intertextuality by focusing on textual materials and to analyze the relationship between the intertextual quality of a text and its readability.

III. METHODOLOGY

The present study is an attempt to examine the intertextual networks in handbooks of second or foreign language acquisition. It endeavors to trace the intertextual thread running through these texts to find out how they are populated by the utterances of others and what implications these intertextual networks have for the comprehension of such texts.

A. Corpus

The corpus developed for this study consists of handbooks which are reference works that provide specific information on a subject, in this study, second language acquisition and learning. The researcher had access to a total of twenty handbooks each containing several chapters written by different researchers and scholars, all on SLA. For feasibility purposes, it was decided to limit the corpus of the study to two million words. Therefore, seven handbooks out of twenty were selected randomly, providing a corpus of 2,014,357 words. The selected handbooks are as follows:

1. The Handbook of Applied Linguistics (2004)
2. Handbook of Research on Teaching the English Language Arts (2011)
3. Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (2008)
4. Handbook of Language and Social Interaction (2005)
5. Handbook of Foreign Language Communication and Learning (2009)
6. Handbook of Research on Computer-Enhanced Language Acquisition and Learning (2008)
7. Handbook of Research on E-Learning Methodologies for Language Acquisition (2009)

B. Data Collection

According to Fairclough (1992/2006), when the presence of other texts in the text under analysis is manifestly and explicitly cued, the text can be said to have manifest intertextual relations. The present study then, in quest of the degree of manifest intertextuality in SLA handbooks, has focused on such explicit cues, i.e. quotations. The indicators of a quotation are usually the name of an author/translator or the name of a book, plus the date of the publication of the work. Obviously, names could not be searched for. Thus, the dates of publication of other texts drawn upon in the texts under investigation were considered as the signal of an intertextual relation. However, the authors of different chapters of the handbooks had referred to other scholars in two distinct forms. In the first form, the authors had quoted the exact wording of other people which were cued by inverted commas (when the quoted text was short) or by an indented format and with a font size smaller than the main text (when the quoted text was long); these were considered as instances of direct quotations (DQ). Sometimes the authors had drawn on the ideas of other scholars, but instead of using their exact wording, presented them in their own paraphrase; these were considered as cases of indirect quotations (IDQ). The following excerpt is taken from the *Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (2004, p. 2) and contains examples of both direct and indirect quotations. Part One of the excerpt is an example of a direct quotation cued by inverted commas. Part Two is an instance of a direct quotation which is long and is typed in an indented format and with a font size smaller than the regular text. Finally, Part Three shows an instance of indirect quotation where the quoted text and the regular text are mixed. The citation at the end of this part indicates that it has drawn on the work of the scholar cited.

PART ONE: "Applied linguistics is not the recent development that is sometimes supposed, but derives from the involvement of linguists in America, particularly Leonard Bloomfield and Charles C. Fries, in specialized language-teaching programs during and immediately after the Second World War" (Howatt, 1984, p. 265). Within that tradition, applied linguistics has an honorable role:

PART TWO: if there is one single source which has been responsible for stimulating innovation and activity [in language teaching], it is (in one or other of its various guises) applied linguistics. It has not performed miracles, but as a focus of enquiry, critical self-examination, and new ideas, it has enriched the profession at least as much as it has irritated it. (Howatt, 1984, p. 226)

PART THREE: One important source of that enrichment has been the journal Language Learning, published from the University of Michigan, providing a chronicle of the development of applied linguistics over the past 50 years (Catford, 1998).

To collect the data, the electronic versions of the handbooks – in searchable PDF format – were used. Since both direct and indirect quotations were to be located, no particular software could prove helpful. Therefore, the data were collected manually. Dates could be spotted by numbers of almost invariably four digits, starting with 1 (like 1983, 1802, 1769) or with 2 (like 2010). Moreover, it is a common practice in book and paper writing to enclose dates in parentheses. Consequently, the researcher, using the ‘find’ option of Adobe Acrobat Program, first looked for all instances of parenthesis, i.e. (. The obtained results were checked one by one for two reasons: firstly, it was quite probable for parentheses to be used to indicate something other than quotations, e.g. to give additional explanation; such instances were excluded from the results. Secondly, to decide whether the quotation was of direct or indirect type, by looking for the signs of directness as mentioned above. In the absence of such signals, the quotation was taken as indirect. After a handbook was examined completely from the beginning to the end – with parenthesis as the search item, to make sure the dates which might not be enclosed in parentheses were not overlooked, a new round of search started, first with the keyword ‘1’ and then with ‘2’. The researcher skipped the results that were enclosed in parentheses and took note of the rest. The instances of both direct and indirect quotations in all seven handbooks were recorded in Microsoft Excel sheets.

Having extracted the dates, the frequencies of each type of quotative references were calculated and tabulated separately for each handbook. These figures are presented in tables 1 to 7.

In the next phase of analysis, all instances of concrete reference were arranged in decades from the most recent (closest to the date of publication) to the oldest (most distant from the date of publication) and presented in separate charts for each handbook; this is to offer a temporal view of intertextuality (i.e. vertical intertextuality).

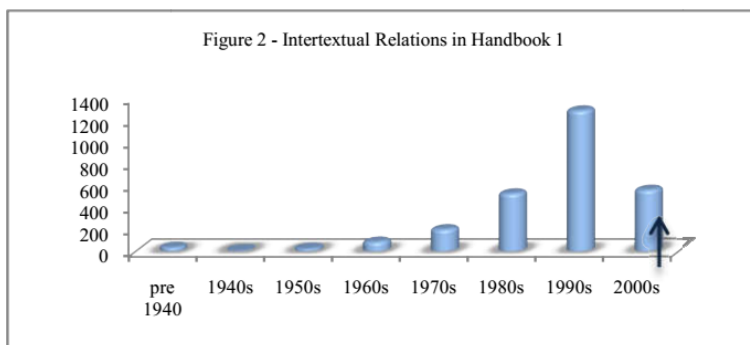
IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

I. Handbook 1

The Handbook of Applied Linguistics is published in 2004 by Blackwell Publishing and edited by Davies and Elder. It includes thirty-two chapters written by different scholars. From the total instances of quotations found in this handbook, 15.7% were of direct type and 84.3% were indirect. The chart following the table presents a diachronic display of the intertextual relations in this handbook, illustrating that the authors have relied mostly on contemporary works; that is to say, most references are to works published in the same decade or the two decades before the publication date (shown by a vertical dark arrow).

TABLE 1
THE HANDBOOK OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Total word count	Total Quotations	Instances of DQ	Instances of IDQ	Oldest Date	Date of Publication	Most Recent Date
374,577	2762	435	2327	1582	2004	2003

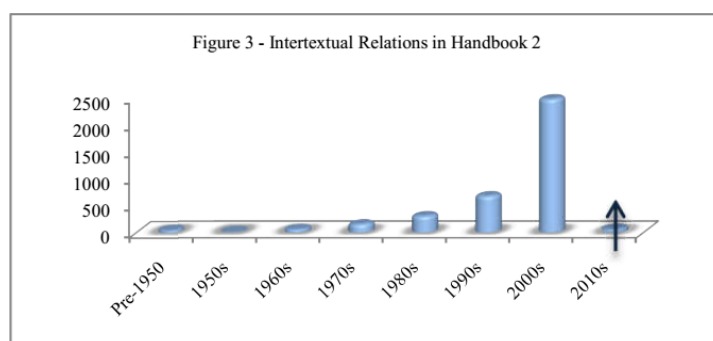


II. Handbook 2

Handbook of Research on Teaching the English Language Arts, edited by Lapp and Fisher, is published in 2011 with seven sections and 61 chapters, developed by different scholars. The number of quotative references in this handbook was the largest among all the books investigated in this study. Out of 3784 instances, 10% was direct references and 90% indirect. The graphic representation of intertextuality in this book shows that most of the references are to works published a decade before the release of this handbook. The date of the most recent and the oldest works referred to is given the following table (Table 2):

TABLE 2
HANDBOOK OF RESEARCH ON TEACHING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS

Total word count	Total Quotations	Instances of DQ	Instances of IDQ	Oldest Date	Date of Publication	Most Recent Date
352,902	3784	379	3405	1739	2011	2010

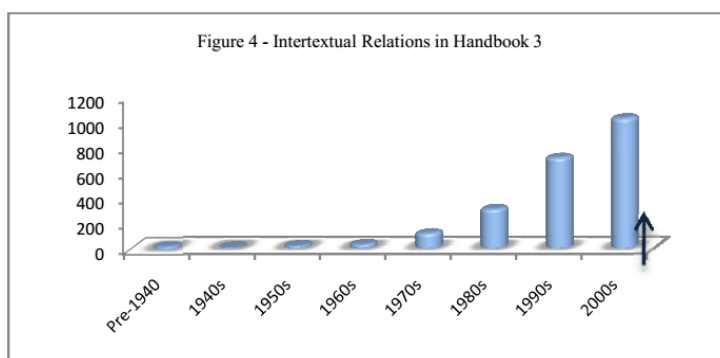


III. Handbook 3

Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition is published by Routledge in 2008 and is edited by Robinson and Ellis. The percentage of indirect quotations found in its 19 chapters which are arranged in three parts is the greatest in this corpus – compared to other handbooks (95.5%) (Table 3). And, as the graph indicates, although it draws upon works going back to about 200 years ago, most of the references are to recent works published in the last two decades.

TABLE 3
HANDBOOK OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Total word count	Total Quotations	Instances of DQ	Instances of IDQ	Oldest Date	Date of Publication	Most Recent Date
234,448	2288	102	2186	1836	2008	2008

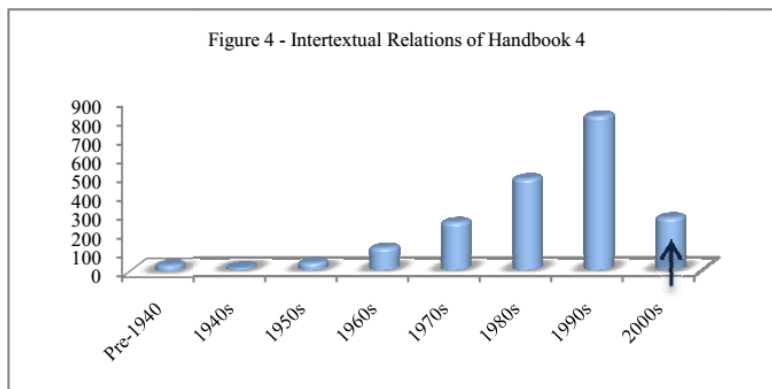


IV. Handbook 4

Handbook of Language and Social Interaction is a collection of 18 essays edited by Fitch and Sanders and published in 2005 by Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. As was the case with previous handbooks, a substantial proportion of its quotations is of indirect type (88.4%) with only 11.6% of instances being direct.

TABLE 4
HANDBOOK OF LANGUAGE AND SOCIAL INTERACTION

Total word count	Total Quotations	Instances of DQ	Instances of IDQ	Oldest Date	Date of Publication	Most Recent Date
243,359	2078	243	1835	1795	2005	2004

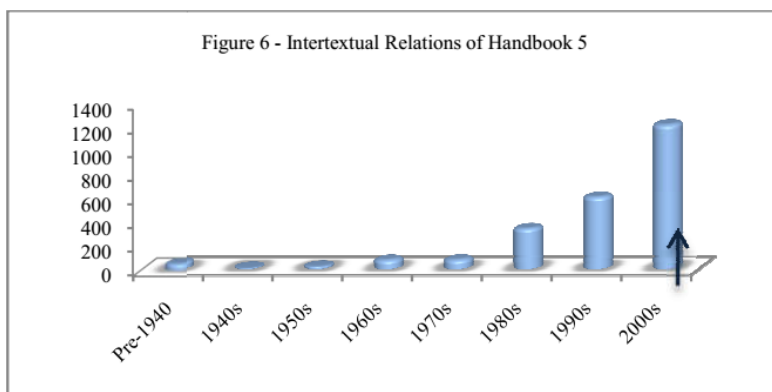


V. Handbook 5

Handbook of Foreign Language Communication and Learning, edited by Knapp and Antos, is published in 2009. It has twenty-four chapters, sequenced in five sections, with 86.7 per cent of its references being indirect quotations and 13.3 per cent direct ones. The oldest work quoted in this collection goes back to about three hundred years ago (1693).

TABLE 5
HANDBOOK OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION AND LEARNING

Total word count	Total Quotations	Instances of DQ	Instances of IDQ	Oldest Date	Date of Publication	Most Recent Date
287,053	2522	335	2187	1693	2009	2009

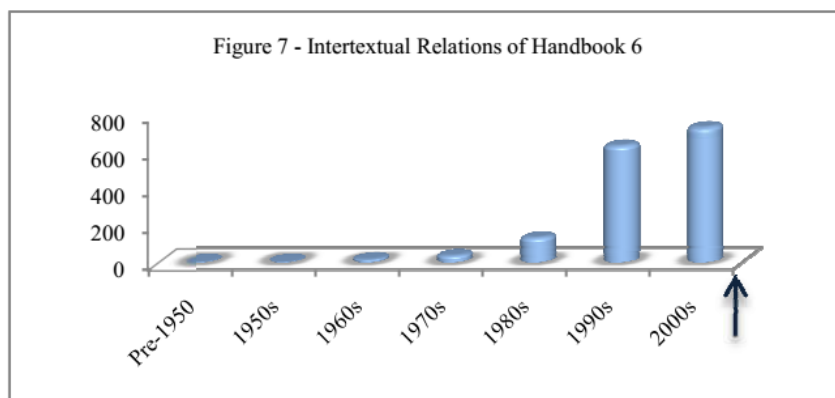


VI. Handbook 6

Handbook of Research on Computer-Enhanced Language Acquisition and Learning is a collection of thirty essays strung in six sections and edited by Zhang and Barber. The essays in this handbook contained 1587 cases of quotations of which 88.3% were indirect and 11.7% direct. Although it is published in 2008, it has made reference to a work published around half a century ago (1539), the oldest work referred to in the corpus of this study.

TABLE 6
HANDBOOK OF RESEARCH ON COMPUTER-ENHANCED LANGUAGE ACQUISITION & LEARNING

Total word count	Total Quotations	Instances of DQ	Instances of IDQ	Oldest Date	Date of Publication	Most Recent Date
254,255	1587	187	1400	1539	2008	2008

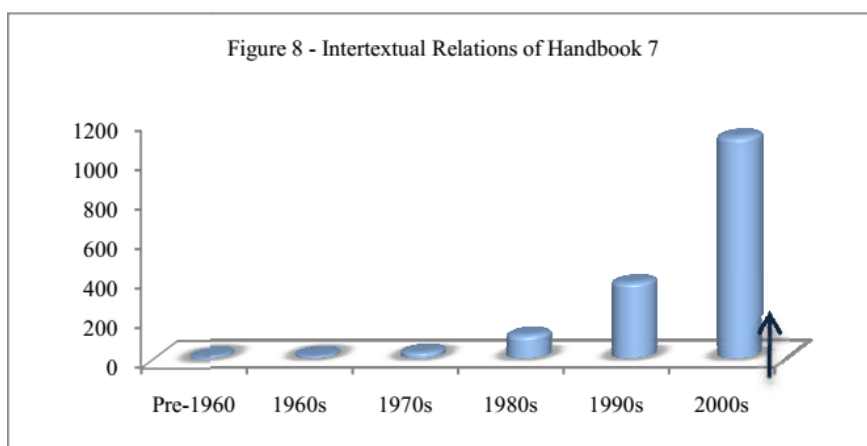


VII. Handbook 7

Finally, *Handbook of Research on E-Learning Methodologies for Language Acquisition* is edited by Veiga Marriott and Torres and published in 2009. It consists of thirty-three chapters arranged in three sections with 1708 cases of reference to the works of other scholars. 215 cases (12.5%) were direct references and 1493 (87.5%) were indirect quotations.

TABLE 7
HANDBOOK RESEARCH ON E-LEARNING METHODOLOGIES FOR LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Total word count	Total Quotations	Instances of DQ	Instances of IDQ	Oldest Date	Date of Publication	Most Recent Date
267,763	1708	215	1493	1885	2009	2008



V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

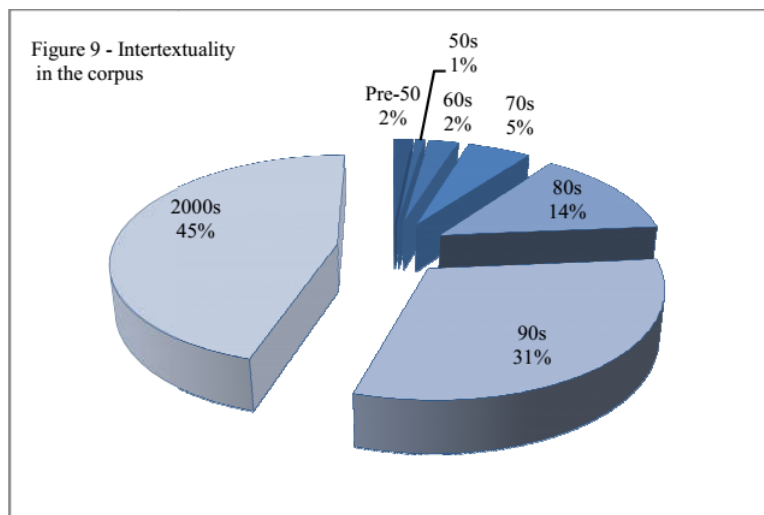
The thorough search of the corpus of this study – developed from seven recently published handbooks on SLA topics (including 217 chapters altogether) – resulted in the identification of 16,729 instances of quotative reference which were assumed to be signs of intertextuality.

Of all references found in the corpus, 11.3% was of direct type with 88.7% of instances being indirect quotations. Moreover, the oldest work referred to in the corpus was published about half a century ago, while the most recent work quoted was published in 2010 (Table 8).

TABLE 8
THE CORPUS

Total word count	Total Quotations	Percentage of DQ	Percentage of IDQ	Oldest Date	Most Recent Date
2,014,357	16,729	11.3%	88.7%	1539	2010

The following pie chart presents a historical display of the intertextual networks in the corpus. As the chart illustrates, about 50 per cent of the references in the corpus has been to contemporary works, published in 2000s. Next in line is the works of 1990s with 31 percent; the percentage of quotations in the preceding decades is constantly decreasing.



The corpus investigated in this research proved to be an elaborate and intricate network of intertextual relations which can probably regulate the degree of readability of these texts for their putative readership. Moreover, a diachronic analysis of manifest intertextuality in the corpus, marked by concrete references to other texts, revealed that mostly works contemporary with the text under analysis are drawn upon; in other words, there seems to be a direct relationship between the temporal distance and the instances of concrete quotative references: as we move backward to farther preceding decades, the number of references to other works diminishes. A cogent argument here seems to be that second language acquisition, as an interdisciplinary field and a sub-discipline of applied linguistics, has been steadily developing like other specialized fields, advancing our knowledge of the topic and resulting in more solid, critical and sophisticated understanding of this phenomenon; the generation of new, more viable knowledge may thus render the rudimentary understanding of the past somehow redundant and resulting in a limited number of references to such works.

Furthermore, we can look at intertexts (the handbooks in this study) in the framework of relevance theory proposed by Gutt. Gutt (2000, p. 32, quoted in Munday, 2012, p. 98) contends that a successful communication occurs when the communicator ensures that his information is well grasped by the receiver and this is achieved by making the stimuli optimally relevant. Optimal relevance in this theory involves a balance between the mental effort that the receiver puts into getting the communicator's message and the effect he derives (i.e. the understanding obtained). When communication of specialized knowledge through textbooks is concerned, to create such a balance, intertextuality should be taken into account. The more extensive the network of intertextual links in a textbook, the more effort the reader/student needs to make to decipher the text. In other words, intertextuality of a text affects its readability. Readability is defined as "the level of ease or difficulty with which text material can be understood by a particular reader who is reading that text for a specific purpose" (Pikulski, 2002, p. 1). Readability of a text depends on the characteristics of the text and its reader. In fact, the interaction between the text and the reader determines the readability of any piece of material for any individual reader (pikulski, 2002, p. 1). This interaction is to a large extent regulated by intertextuality.

The findings of this study have some pedagogical implications. Since in the Iranian academic context handbooks are sometimes taken to classes as the main textbook, teachers need to take into account that the readability of such texts depends to a large extent upon the degree of their intertextuality, and the results of the present undertaking revealed the studied handbooks to be highly intertextual. This means that teachers should use handbooks as textbooks with great caution; students' background knowledge should be assessed by teachers beforehand, for students' prior knowledge can greatly influence how well they understand the texts. Moreover, since most of references to the handbooks examined were to contemporary works, teachers working with these books as their textbook require to have up-to-date knowledge of the topics to be able to facilitate learning for the students. It should however be noted that a corpus of two million words is not large enough to enable us to make general claims. Further studies are needed to lend credence to the findings presented here.

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Rhetorical Transfer among Young EFL Learners: The First Experience of Paragraph Writing Investigated

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Abstract—The process of language production among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners is a multifaceted phenomenon which has engaged EFL researchers and practitioners' interest for a long time. For many EFL learners, producing language through writing is considered a difficult and challenging task, making it a favoured research area. However, there seems to be a dire need to investigate the way writing is mastered among young EFL learners. The present study attempted to investigate language transfer from L1 to L2 or vice versa among young EFL learners when experiencing paragraph writing for the first time. In addition, the researchers attempted to see whether the preliminary paragraph writing instruction can affect young EFL learners' paragraph writing. A further goal was to find out whether the type of writing task can influence the paragraph organization among young EFL learners. In order to address these concerns, 34 young EFL learners participated in this study. The data were gathered through full-term observation, collecting L1 and L2 writing samples, and conducting written interviews. The results revealed a negative transfer from L1 in rhetoric and paragraph development which was weakened after teaching L2 paragraph structure. It was also uncovered that the type of writing task and its topic affected the paragraph development. The study concludes with a discussion on the findings followed by suggesting some avenues for further research.

Index Terms—language transfer, paragraph writing, rhetorical transfer, young foreign language learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing in a second/foreign language has been always a complex task for language learners and a favoured research area for researchers. There have been plenty of studies that have taken the possibility of uni/bi-directional transfer of L1 and L2 writing skills, strategies and patterns into account (e.g. Connor, 1987, 1996; Hinkel, 2002; Hirose, 2003; Kaplan, 1966; Matsuda, 1997; Mauranen, 1993; Uysal, 2008; Valero-Garces, 1996). Most of those studies have been conducted on proficient Second Language (L2) learners and university, college, and high school students. Although it has been surveyed by Leki, Cumming, and Silva (as cited in Uysal, 2008) that just about 3% of articles in *Journal of Second Language Writing* have investigated secondary school L2 writers, there is no trace of research done on young L2 learners' very first experiences of writing in a foreign/second language. Therefore, this study aims to bridge this gap and explore young EFL learners' first experiences of paragraph writing to uncover concepts which affect L2 writing, learners' ideas towards it and the ways to construct writing skills from the first practices of learning foreign language writing. To fulfill the objectives of the study, the following research questions were posed:

Q₁: Is there any transfer from L1 to L2 or vice versa in young EFL learners' first experiences of paragraph writing?

Q₂: Does the preliminary paragraph writing instruction significantly affect the paragraph writing of young EFL learners?

Q₃: Does the type of writing task influence the paragraph organization of young EFL learners?

Foreign/Second Language (L2) Writing

Throughout the history of foreign/second language learning, foreign/second language writing has been a complicated task for L2 learners and a favored research topic for foreign/second language scholars. L2 writing is different from L1 writing, since L2 writers have the knowledge of two languages (Wang & Wen, 2002). This difference results in using different strategies, patterns and skills while writing in L1 or L2 and accounts for the transfer of rules and strategies from L1 to L2, vice versa or both. Thus, this has led second/foreign language scholars to conducting research focusing on the role of L1 in L2 writing and diverse writing strategies (e.g. Connor, 1987, 1996; Hinkel, 2002; Hirose, 2003; Kaplan, 1966; Matsuda, 1997; Mauranen, 1993; Uysal, 2008; Valero-Garces, 1996).

The Relationship of L1/L2 Writing

Most of the studies on foreign/second language writing have documented a positive relationship between L1 and L2 and have claimed that literacy skills are transferable across languages (e.g. Brooks, 1985; Cumming, 1989, 1990; Krapels, 1991; Lay, 1982, 1988; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989). Lay (1988) stated, using L1 to think about what to write and taking advantage of L1 writing strategies is useful for less proficient learners. Also, in 1991, Krapels mentioned that the use of L1 in L2 writing was "a fairly common strategy among L2 writers" (p. 49).

Thus, the research done on the relationship of L1 and L2 suggested that writers with low L2 proficiency mostly rely on their L1 throughout the process of L2 writing (Arndt, 1987; Cumming, 1989; Raimes, 1985; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989; Wolfersberger, 2003). This accounts for the existence of transfer mostly among less proficient learners. In addition, Akyel and Kamisli (1997), and Atakent (1999), suggest that, after writing instruction in L2, the learners’ also transfer their L2 awareness of rhetoric to their L1. On the other hand, there have been a few studies which reported the existence of a negative or no/weak relationship between L1 and L2 writing (such as Aliakbari, 2002; Carson & Kuehn, 1992).

Rhetoric

“Rhetoric is a cultural social event” and “a social invention,” (Berlin, 1984, p.1) and when a person masters a specific writing structure in a culture, this schema has an influence on his L2 writing (Hirose, 2003; Kadar-Fulop, 1988; Purves, 1988). Every language has its own unique rhetorical conventions and which affects the way of thinking and writing in those cultures that interferes with L2 writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1989; Kaplan, 1966, 2000).

Contrastive Rhetoric (CR)

Contrastive Rhetoric is a method of studying transfer in writing which is pioneered by Kaplan’s study (1966) through analyzing the paragraph organization of ESL student essays and categorizing them into five paragraph development types ranging from linear and sequential to indirect, spiral and digressional. CR research has focused on the effect of L1 rhetoric on L2 and has reported the use of specific L1 rhetoric patterns in L2 writing. Zhang (2008) has summarized them mentioning paragraph organization in Kaplan’s study (1966); reader-versus-writer responsibility in the work of Hinds (1987); linear organization structure in a study conducted by Connor (1987); the use of coordinating conjunctions by Söter (1988); indirectness devices in Hinkel’s research (1997, 2002); rhetorical appeals and reasoning strategies reported by Kamimura & Oi (1998); and the use of metatext in Mauranen’s (1993) and Valero-Garces’s (1996) studies.

Methods of Studying CR

Qualitative research methods that “investigate both L1 and L2 writing, observe and interview L1 and L2 writers, and study influences on L1 writing developments” (Connor, 1996, p. 162) are used for studying CR. Many studies have utilized this method; however, they have generated different outcomes. Some studies (e.g. Kaplan, 1966; Matalene, 1985; Wang & Li, 1993; Wu, 2003; Yin, 1999) have supported Kaplan’s (1966) implementation of L1 rhetoric organization patterns in L2 while others (e.g. Becker, 1995; Hirose, 2003; Kubota, 1998; Mohan & Lo, 1985; Taylor & Chen, 1991; Zhang, 1997) have claimed that there is no significant difference between L1 and L2 rhetoric, thus, L1 rhetoric cannot affect L2 writing.

CR Criticism

Despite the advantages of CR in studying transfer in writing, it has been criticized by some scholars. For instance, Mohan and Lo (1985) believe that CR ignores L2 progress and difficulties while Martin (1992) and Matsuda (1997) argue that CR research methodology and CR concept is taken too simplistically. Leki (1991, 1997) claims that CR takes a broad view of rhetorical conventions, and Kubota (1998) asserts that it regards L1 transfer as negative. In addition, (Uysal, 2008) states that CR does not present a “direct evidence for any transfer from L1 to L2” and it has “just inferred existence of transfer” (p. 3). He adds that most of the studies which has used CR, has neglected to examine the texts in relation to “the cultural context that may have played a role in their production” (Uysal, 2008, p. 3).

II. METHOD

Participants

The participants of this study are thirty-four junior school girls aging between eleven and fourteen. They have studied English in the same institute for about two years and are spending their last year in this department before going to adults’ department. They have passed a unified placement test and they are all in the same level in this institute; thus, their language proficiency level is closely equal.

Setting

The study has been conducted in two “English Time 5” classes of the young adults department of a renowned institute located in the northern district of the capital city of Iran (Table 1).

TABLE 1:
COURSE CONTEXT

Course	Division of the term	Teacher	Number of students	Gender	Course duration			Total hours
					Semester	Per week	Per session	
English Time 5a	July-September 2013	30 year old Male	17	Female	One semester	Two sessions (Saturdays & Wednesdays)	1.5 hours/ 90 minutes	31.5 hours/ 1890 minutes
English Time 5b	July-September 2013	30 year old Female	17	Female	One semester	Two sessions (Saturdays & Wednesdays)	1.5 hours/ 90 minutes	31.5 hours/ 1890 minutes

Instrumentation

For collecting the data of the present study triangulation or the use of multiple methods is used to “reduce the risk of chance associations and of systematic biases due to a specific method” (Maxwell, 2005, p.112). The data was gathered

through a full-term participant observation of two classes by two class teachers, 136 pages of L1 and L2 writing samples and 34 pages of written interviews (Table 2).

TABLE 2:
INSTRUMENTS OF DATA COLLECTION

Instruments of Data Collection	Amount and Duration
Full-time Participant Observation, class discussions, student-teacher talks	Two classes One institute semester 41 sessions= 63 hours
Students' L1/L2 Writing samples	68 pages of English (L2)Writing 68 pages of Persian (L1)Writing
Written interviews	34 pages

Procedure

In the first sessions of the classes, both teachers asked the students to write a paragraph in Persian (L1). Some sessions after that, the teachers assigned the students to write an English paragraph on a topic different from the Persian paragraph to prevent mere translation from L1. By this time, the participants had not received any previous instruction on how to write a paragraph in English (L2) since it was the first term they had to write paragraphs in English. Moreover, in order to make sure that the students had not received any writing instruction in English, either at school or by their previous teachers or family members, a written interview with some questions focusing on the participants' previous writing knowledge was conducted. In this written interview, the existence or amount of the participants' writing instruction in L1 was also surveyed. The written interview was handed in to them in class and the answers were collected on the same day. Besides some questions on the participants' previous writing instruction in both L1 and L2, the written interview included some questions on the participants' opinions on writing in both languages.

Some sessions later, some preliminary paragraph writing instructions such as capitalization, punctuation, topic sentence, supporting the topic sentence and conclusion and use of conjunctions and transition signals were given to the students of the both classes. The session after the instruction, the participants were asked to write another English paragraph. With the aim of comparing L1 and L2 writings, and investigating the effect of writing instruction on the writings, the participants were asked to write another paragraph in their L1, in the last session of their class. The writing topics and the written interview are followed in the appendices (Appendix A and B respectively).

Coding and Categorizing

All the L1 and L2 paragraphs were read and coded. Since it was the participants' first experience of paragraph writing, the coding was based on the preliminary writing rules such as starting the paragraph with a topic sentence, supporting the topic sentence, concluding the paragraph and the use of transition signals to connect the sentences. The results of coding were categorized in four groups of the first L1 writing, the first L2 writing, the second L2 writing after writing instruction and the second L1 writing. Also, the written interviews were read and some themes were generated from the data. The themes were categorized in order of frequency and L1 or L2 writing.

Data Analysis

For the qualitative analysis of the writings, the organization and coherence of the paragraphs was the framework of the analysis. All the 136 pages of L1 and L2 writings were read and coded in four different categories based on presence of a topic sentence, supporting sentences, conclusion and transitional signals which linked the sentences in each paragraph. The results of the coding were accumulated in a table consisting four columns of first and second L1 and L2 writing for each participant. Each column was also subdivided in the four above mentioned categories. In the end, a frequency count (Appendix C) was conducted separately for each of the four writing tasks of all the participants. The results are summarized in table 2 in the appendices. Moreover, the 34 pages of the participants' written interviews and their class talks and discussions which were gathered by both of the class teachers were analyzed. After the initial analysis, some themes were generated. The detailed analysis was done focusing on the generated themes. After color coding the themes and summarizing them on a separate page, the most frequent themes were explored.

In addition, all the writings of the participants were scored using the scoring criteria of PET exams to reduce the amount of subjectivity and to have a standardized universal framework. The scoring focused on the "organization and cohesion" mark scheme of PET for the reason that this criterion was instructed to the participants and was the focus of this study. All the four sets of score for each participant were gathered in a Microsoft Excel file and were analyzed using SPSS software. The descriptive statistics, histogram (Appendices D & E), Spearman's Rank Correlation, and Paired-Samples *t*-test were conducted. The results are illustrated and clarified below.

III. RESULTS

The First Research Question

The following question was posed as the first research question of this study:

Q1. Is there any transfer from L1 to L2 or vice versa in young EFL learners' first experiences of paragraph writing?

The existence of transfer from L1 to L2 was investigated both through frequency counts (Appendix C) of the rhetorical structure of the paragraphs in terms of organization and transition signals and the Spearman's Rank

Correlation between the First Persian and English Writings. The result of the frequency count is summarized in the following table (Table 3).

TABLE 3:
FREQUENCY COUNT

	first Persian (L1) paragraph writing	first English (L2) paragraph writing
Topic sentence	24%	38%
Supporting sentences	47%	76%
Conclusion	15%	29%
Transition signals	50%	29%

The scores of the first Persian and English writings were accumulated separately for each participant. The relationship between the scores of the first Persian and English writing scores was investigated using Spearman’s rho. It was observed that there is a strong, positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .61, n = 34, p < .05$, with high levels of Persian writing associated with high levels of English writing (Table 4).

TABLE 4:
SPEARMAN’S RANK CORRELATION BETWEEN THE FIRST PERSIAN AND ENGLISH WRITINGS

		Persian Writing 1	English Writing 1
Spearman's rho	Persian Writing 1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.613**
		N	.000
English Writing 1	English Writing 1	Correlation Coefficient	.613**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000
		N	.000
		N	34

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

The analysis of all the written interviews with a focus on the participants’ previous writing instruction in Persian revealed a difference between writing instruction in Persian and English. The main writing instructions in Persian which were reported by the participants included *avoiding repetition, focusing on the writing topic, and following the grammatical rules*. Other instructions were *having a first draft and revising the writing, trying to avoid lengthy writings, trying to fill all the lines on a page, using literary devices, paying attention to the words’ spelling, writing in good handwritings, using linkers, using synonymous words and starting the writing in the name of God*. There was no report of any instruction on organizational structure of paragraphs, having a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a conclusion.

In addition, the analysis of the written interviews revealed the possibility of transfer of L1 rules to L2. Near half of the participants reported that they wrote their writings in Persian and then translate them to English. Also, half of them mentioned while writing in English, they thought about what to write in Persian. Although this compensation strategy is useful for low proficiency writers like the participants of this study, the resume of using this strategy may have an effect on transferring L1 writing rules to L2 especially when the rules are different. (Refer to the appendices for the related excerpts.)

The Second Research Question

The following question was posed as the second research question of this study:

Q2: Does the preliminary paragraph writing instruction significantly affect the paragraph writing of young EFL learners?

A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the preliminary paragraph writing instruction on participants’ score on the English writing. There was a statistically significant increase in English writing scores from Time 1 ($M = 1.94, SD = 1.34$) to Time 2 ($M = 3.82, SD = 1.29$), $t(33) = -6.89, p < .0005$ (two-tailed). The increase in English writing was 1.88 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -2.43 to -1.32. The eta squared statistic (.59) indicated a large effect size. It was revealed that the paragraph writing instruction significantly affected the learners’ paragraph writing in L2 (Table 5).

TABLE 5:
PAIRED- SAMPLES T-TEST ON ENGLISH WRITING

		Paired Differences		Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	English Writing 1 - English Writing 2	-1.882	1.591	.273	-2.437	-1.327	-6.899	33	.000

Moreover, a paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the intervention on participants’ score on the Persian writing test. There was a statistically significant increase in Persian writing scores from Time 1 ($M = 1.44$,

$SD = .86$) to Time 2 ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 1.47$), $t(33) = -9.14$, $p < .0005$ (two-tailed). The increase in Persian writing was 1.88 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -2.30 to -1.46. The eta squared statistic (.71) indicated a large effect size. It was investigated that the paragraph writing instruction significantly affected the learners' paragraph writing in L1 as well as in L2 (Table 6).

TABLE 6:
PAIRED- SAMPLES T-TEST ON PERSIAN WRITING

		Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Persian Writing 1 – Persian Writing 2	-1.882	1.200	.206	-2.301	-1.464	-9.146	33	.000

The Third Research Question

The following question was posed as the third research question of this study:

Q₃: Does the type of writing task influence the paragraph organization of young EFL learners?

During the preliminary analysis of data, it was uncovered that the participants whose writing topic was argumentative outperformed in devising structured paragraphs. Thus the significance of the effect of writing task type on paragraph organization was investigated through conducting two t-tests on L1 and L2 writings of the two groups.

An independent-samples *t*-test on L2 writings was conducted to compare the scores on the second English writing test of group 1 (descriptive writing topic) and group 2 (argumentative writing topic). There was no significant difference in scores for group 1 ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.27$) and group 2 ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 5.71$; $t(32) = -1.06$, $p = .30$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = .47, $CI: -1.37$ to .429) was very small (eta squared = .03; Table 7).

TABLE 7:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON SECOND ENGLISH WRITING

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df				Lower	Upper
English Writing 2	Equal variances assumed	.032	.858	-1.065	32	.295	-.471	.442	-1.370	.429
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.065	31.992	.295	-.471	.442	-1.370	.429

Another independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the scores on the second Persian writing test of group 1 (descriptive treatment) and group 2 (argumentative treatment). There was a significant difference in scores for group 1 ($M = 2.53$, $SD = 1.41$) and group 2 ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 1.05$; $t(32) = -3.70$, $p = .001$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = 2.41, $CI: -2.46$ to -.71) was very large (eta squared = .3; Table 8).

TABLE 8:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON THE SECOND PERSIAN WRITING

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df				Lower	Upper
Persian Writing 2	Equal variances assumed	.984	.329	-3.704	32	.001	-1.588	.429	-2.462	-.715
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.704	29.527	.001	-1.588	.429	-2.464	-.712

Thus, after the preliminary paragraph writing instruction, the participants' English paragraph organization did not depend on the topic of the writing task. The participants tried to follow the topic, body, conclusion structure they were taught during this study. However, it was not the case for Persian writings. The participants' writing in Persian on an argumentative topic were more structured and organized than a descriptive or expository topic. This shows that the topic of the writing in Persian determines the organization of the paragraphs. Persian writers tend to write descriptive paragraph more freely, escaping a topic, body and conclusion structure and using literary devices and lots of descriptions instead.

Moreover, analyzing the participants' written interviews, their writings on their opinions of writing in Persian and English, and their class talks and discussions with their teachers in the whole term, it was emerged that some of the participants viewed writing in Persian like writing a poem, which focuses on the beauty and use of literary devices and

not on the organizational structure of the paragraphs. For instance, *Haniyeh* wrote that she could make a poem in her Persian writing (refer to appendix E for the excerpt).

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The literature on EFL writing abounds with different studies which highlight the existence of uni/bi-directional transfer of L1 and L2 writing skills, strategies, and patterns (Hinkel, 2002; Hirose, 2003; Uysal, 2008). However, there seems to be an essential need for inspecting the abovementioned phenomena among young L2 learners (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, as cited in Uysal, 2008). In order to address this concern, the present study investigated the L1 and L2 writing among thirty-four homogeneous female EFL learners, aging between eleven and fourteen.

Based on the qualitative and quantitative data analysis of all the participants' L1 and L2 writings, their writing scores and the written interviews, the findings revealed a slight negative transfer from L1 in rhetoric and paragraph development which was weakened after teaching L2 paragraph structure. In addition, the results presented the effect of preliminary writing instruction in L2 on both L1 and L2 writings. It was also uncovered that the type of writing task and its topic affected the learners' Persian (L1) paragraph development.

The results of this study can shed light on the organizational differences of Persian and English and help foreign language instructors, especially teachers of young learners, to focus on the L1/L2 differences in their instruction and build up the learners' writings from their first experiences of paragraph writing. Building up the writing ability from learners' early exposures to writing tasks may lead to more structured writing pieces in other levels of education, from high school to university.

Future research should resume investigating transfer related issues in the pedagogical practices of teaching L2 writing and compare other L1/ L2 languages with each other and apply suitable writing instruction according to the similarities and differences of L1 and L2. There is also a need for focusing on young and not proficient learners besides adults and proficient learners. In addition, future studies may investigate the writings of male young learners in similar situations to this study to take in to account possible differences.

APPENDIX A WRITING TOPICS

Course	Type of Writing Task	The First Persian Writing Topic	The First English Writing Topic	The Second English Writing Topic	The Second Persian Writing Topic
English Time 5a Class	Expository/Argumentative	Do you like writing? Why/why not?	Do you like the first vacation you have ever had? Why/ why not?	Do you think teachers should be serious or not? Why?	Do you think teachers should be serious or not? Why?
English Time 5b Class	Expository	What do you think about writing?	How do you spend your holidays?	What do you think about Your School?	What do you think about Your School?

APPENDIX B EXCERPTS OF THE WRITTEN INTERVIEWS

Niousha

What have you learned about writing in Persian at school? (You can answer in Persian)
 We learned about some yellow book time, Don't Repeating words and...

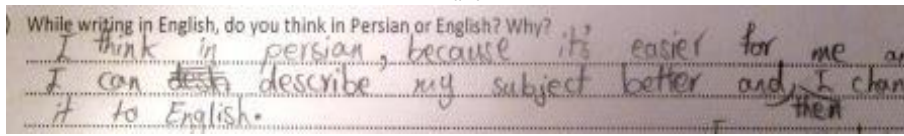
Maryam

I learned about order thing in writing class. For example my teacher says you start with the name of God and after you start your paragraphs.

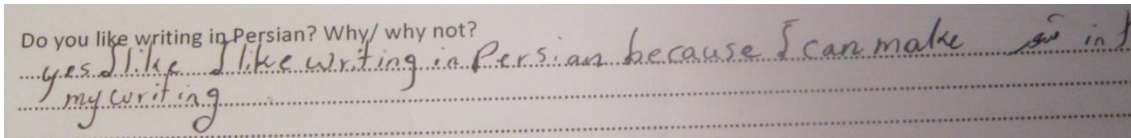
Sara

While writing in English, do you think in Persian or English? Why?
 In Persian because I think Persian and make a sentences and translate to English.

Erfaneh



Hanieh



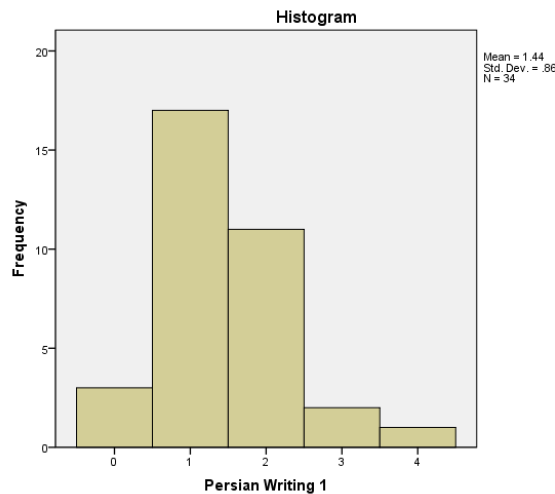
APPENDIX C FREQUENCY COUNT

Writing Task	The First Persian Writing		The Second Persian Writing		The First English Writing		The Second English Writing	
	English Time 5a	English Time 5b	English Time 5a	English Time 5b	English Time 5a	English Time 5b	English Time 5a	English Time 5b
Frequency of Occurrence								
Topic Sentence	41%	6%	88%	37%	77%	30%	82%	88%
Supporting the Topic Sentence (body)	53%	41%	94%	68%	88%	60%	94%	94%
Concluding Sentence	29%	0%	61%	26%	50%	40%	82%	59%
Transition Signals	47%	53%	88%	74%	50%	30%	88%	53%
Mean of Scores out of 5	1.59	1.29	4.18	2.53	2.41	1.47	4.06	3.59

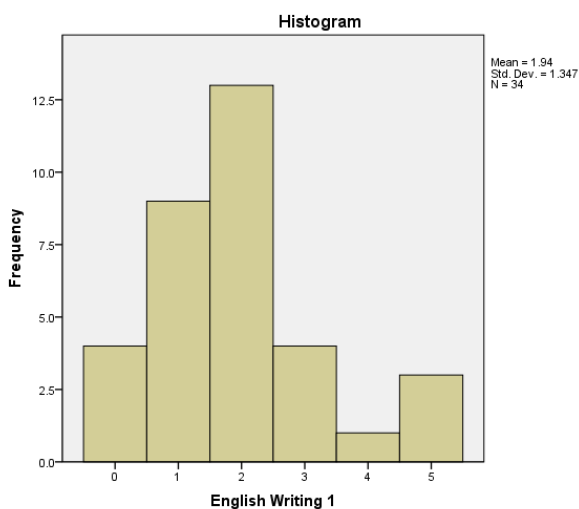
APPENDIX D DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Persian Writing 1	34	0	4	1.44	.860	.801	.403
English Writing 1	34	0	5	1.94	1.347	.824	.403
Persian Writing 2	34	0	5	3.32	1.471	-.359	.403
English Writing 2	34	1	5	3.82	1.290	-.550	.403
Valid N (listwise)	34						

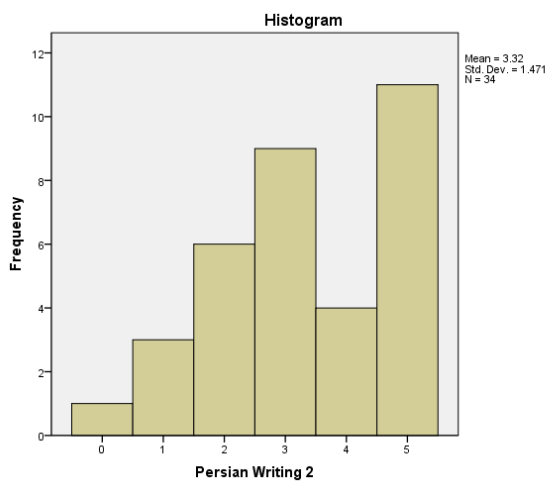
APPENDIX E DISTRIBUTION HISTOGRAMS



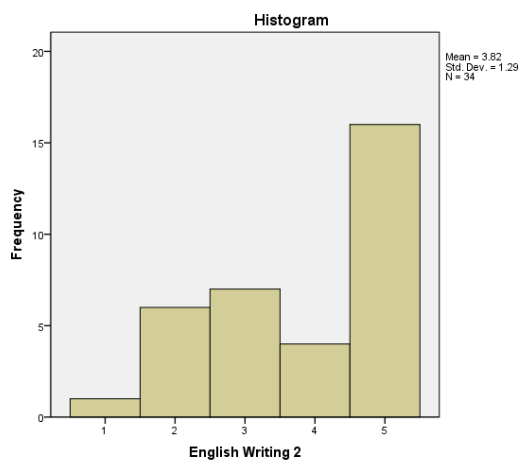
Appendix E1: Histogram of the distribution of scores on the first Persian writing



Appendix E2: Histogram of the distribution of scores on the first English writing



Appendix E3: Histogram of the distribution of scores on the second Persian writing



Appendix E4: Histogram of the distribution of scores on the second English writing

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Speaking in the Target Language: Issues and Considerations

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Abstract—As English is the most widely used language in the world in various areas such as technology, science, and business, many Arab countries including Saudi Arabia have shifted into more focus on communicative English language instructions. However, there is still a persistent gap between what is intended to be taught and what is expected to be produced by EFL students. The purpose of the present study is, therefore, to highlight the factors that contribute to Saudi EFL students' reluctance to speaking meaningfully and purposefully in the target language. A survey is conducted to find out Saudi EFL students' communicative proficiency at Jazan University. Instructed interviews are also carried out to include the voice of teachers on what hampers their students from producing oral output. The results showed that Saudi EFL students are encountering many challenges that hinder their developmental processes of speaking. Based on the research findings some recommendations were made for both teachers and students.

Index Terms—speaking, CLT, pre-task planning, communicative strategies

I. THEORETICAL AND APPLIED BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. *Speaking: A Demanding Task*

The difficulty to speak in a foreign language is common and universal among foreign language students. Despite of the years of exposure to the target language, EFL students find it difficult to converse or even construct a simple question. It is no surprise, that EFL students feel incompetent and lose interest in just thinking about practicing speaking. Indeed, speaking is a difficult task to perform in a foreign language. It is cognitively a demanding process that requires lots of efforts on the part of EFL students. Sasayama, S. (2011) argued that,

For language learners, however, their language knowledge has not yet been proceduralized or automatized and thus processing of the language consumes greater amount of attention. As a result, concurrent attention to task content and language forms becomes difficult to be achieved (p.110)

Based on Cromer's (1974) cognition hypothesis for first language acquisition (FLA), Robinson (2003b) claimed that regardless of the fact that adult L2 learners have sufficient knowledge of their surroundings, they still don't have enough linguistic competence to communicate in their early stages of L2 learning.

In recent years, some SLA researchers (Robinson 2005, 2007; Robinson & Gilabert, 2007) have pinpointed that cognitively challenging speaking tasks could potentially have great impact on the oral production of L2. However, such claims have been criticized by many SLA scholars (Skehan & Foster, 2001; VanPatten, 1990) explaining that when speaking tasks are cognitively difficult, L2 learners usually struggle in identifying different aspects of L2 language such as content and linguistic forms. Skehan & Foster (2001) explained that for L2 learners, focusing concurrently on task content and language production is problematic and could result in less accurate utterances. Sasayama, S. (2011) concluded that difficult writing tasks were rather better than speaking tasks in eliciting more accurate utterances among L2 learners.

Being a demanding task, many problems arise during students' attempt to speak and could even reduce their willingness to communicate. Munjayanah (2004, p.17) discussed four problems of speaking, which are more likely to be encountered in many EFL speaking contexts:

1. Inhibition: EFL learners are inhibited about speaking in class as they are usually worried or feeling shy from making mistakes.
2. Nothing to say: Many learners are not capable of speaking claiming that they can't think of anything to say
3. Low or uneven participation: particularly in large classes and where a few students are dominating the discussion.
4. Mother tongue use: Learners find it natural and effortless to use the mother whenever possible in class.

There are other problems of speaking. However, the ones mentioned above are more likely to be experienced in many EFL speaking contexts.

One of the recurrent challenges, observed by the researcher, in the Saudi EFL classes is that only a few competent students, who usually have better exposure to English, participate in class while less competent are reluctant to speak. Even when less competent students speak in the target language, they are usually answering a question and this attitude of learning greatly limits students' expected output.

B. *CLT and Speaking*

SLA researchers explained that Communicative Language Teaching has been introduced in the EFL context to enhance learners' communicative competence in authentic contexts (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Littlewood, 2007). As Brown (1994) suggested CLT is an approach that fosters L2 learners take responsibility of their own learning. Widdowson (1990, p.159) described Communicative Approach as follows:

"...it concentrates on getting learners to do things with language, to express concepts and to carry out communicative acts of various kinds. The content of a language course is now defined not in terms of forms, words and sentence patterns, but in terms of concepts, or notions, which such forms are used to express, and the communicative functions which they are used to perform."

One of the most recognized account of the principles of CLT was identified by Nunan (1991) which are as follow;

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
3. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
4. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom. (p. 279)

In the Saudi EFL context, there has been a continuous and deliberate efforts to bring about a change in the way English is taught and to move away from using traditional grammar textbooks into more integrated communicative ones. Many Saudi universities offered courses that focused on communicative integrated content in particular for those who are majoring in English language. In addition, general elective English courses are also offered to university freshmen majoring in other fields to develop students' English proficiency. The aim is to promote real time interaction among students and between students and their teachers through communicative tasks. Another aim is to build up learners' autonomy and free them from the feeling of guilt of not speaking the language they are learning. Teachers would, therefore, have less roles to play and mainly will act as facilitators for the communication processes.

Although the purpose of CLT is to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes (Brown, 2007), teachers and language educators are facing various challenges in implementing the theories and practices of CLT in their EFL contexts, particularly when it comes to enhancing L2 oral performance (Liao, 2000; Takanashi, 2004; Yu, 2001).

SLA researchers (Liao, 2004; Littlewood, 2007; Nunan, 2003; Penner, 1995; Sampson, 1984; Yu, 2001) found a noticeable pedagogical dichotomy that has always been observed when incorporating CLT in the EFL context from that when it is used in the ESL context. Such differences in the implementation of CLT between the EFL and ESL contexts are the result of the resistance to using CLT in India (Deepti, 2004) and South Korea (Li, 1998); the language environment and learner's motivation (Stern, 1992); and political influences, the cultural diversities and the educational values (Sampson, 1984).

In fact, many EFL teachers have been showing more preference towards using traditional teaching methods over CLT. Even though they are instructed to use CLT, they are more opt to traditional approaches (Chowdhry, 2010; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007; Nunan, 2003). Such tendencies have been interpreted as the result of some factors such as, teachers' ideologies and their surroundings (Li, 1998), large classes and students' low proficiency (Yu, 2001, Li, 1998)

Although, CLT has been considered for many years as one of the best practices for enhancing language speaking skills, many teachers failed to suit CLT practices into their EFL contexts. Lindsay and Knight (2006, p. 23) commented that

"CA is very widely used all over the world. It has shifted the focus in language teaching from learning about the language to learning to communicate in the language. However, there are problems associated with it. ... The most serious criticism of CA is that it is not as effective as it claims to be"

Despite of the prominence of CLT in the field teaching, most CLT practices has been written with the ESL in the mind and developed in English speaking countries. This fact could be the reason behind the EFL teachers' tendency to continue old practices in teaching oral skills in particular. This is not to say that EFL teachers should abandon CLT practices. Rather, they can always modify such practices according to their students' needs and learning preferences.

C. Task Planning and Speaking Effectiveness

Many SLA research findings emphasize the importance of giving EFL students ample chances to prepare for the language task in hand on enhancing students' language oral performance (Ortega, 1999, 2005; Thompson & Phillips 2009; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Most of these studies on task planning focus on the effect of this preparation on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy of the L2 students. The aim was to establish a grounding on which EFL students can build on their communicative readiness towards more intelligible oral discourse.

Two major types of task planning among others are widely used in the field of SLA, namely *within task planning* which takes place within the performance of the activity and *pre-task planning* which takes place before performing the task (Ellis, 2005). Pre-task planning has been incorporated with the tendency to enhance students' language performance through noticing both content and form (Ellis, 2005, 2009; Ortega, 2005).

The statistical analysis of the above researches has shown that there is an influence of pre-task planning on fluency as well as accuracy for L2 students' oral language performance. However, the mixed results of these researches concerning the oral outcomes of pre-task planning do not prove that having time to plan could lead to significant improvement in

the students' oral output in the long run. Further, the EFL teacher is most likely acting as the controller of the activity in hand and the one who decides the topics under discussion, the procedures of the learning activities, and who can participate and who does not (Tsui, 1996; Nation & Newton (2009).

By including the voices of teachers and examining the extent to which students are proficient in producing oral discourse, the research is trying to predict the factors that hinder Saudi EFL from speaking meaningfully in the target language. The present study is also an attempt to bridge the gaps between the principles of communicative language teaching and current classroom teaching practices.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants for this study are 60 male students. They are level 6 English students at the English department, Faculty of Arts, Jazan University. Their proficiency levels range between low intermediate and high intermediate. They are selected randomly from different groups of the same level. They have already taken language skill classes along with intensive grammar and vocabulary courses. Now, they are being introduced to mixed courses in linguistics, literature and translation.

B. Design

The present study entailed two techniques, a questionnaire and interviews. The two techniques were designed specifically to provide information on what could deter students from speaking. The questionnaire was intended to provide information on the communicative language aspects that students have or lack that could impact their oral production of L2. It was grouped into three sections; communicative knowledge, communicative participation and communicative strategies.

The questionnaire, using a five point likert-scale, was meant to examine the extent to which Saudi EFL students were prepared to produce oral output. The questionnaire included twelve statements along with a space at the end for students to add any other comments. Each statement was given a numerical score to reflect its degree of attitudinal approval. The items were carefully stated to avoid any bias in favor of either sides of the likert scale. Students were previously informed that their identities would remain anonymous so that they can be able to clearly and confidently describe their learning experiences. For this study, it was believed that twelve items would give a good picture of students' communicative ability considering that all students chosen to participate have had enough exposure to language skills and as such, they were more able to produce oral discourse. Further, the researcher conducted group conferences with the participants after the questionnaire was carried out. The aim was to reduce leniency and bias on the part of the participants and to elicit more responses in case the questionnaire did not cover other informative aspects of students' speaking experiences.

The second technique was the constructed interviews which targeted five teachers at the English department teaching the above participants. They are PhD holders. They are from different nationalities and have different cultural backgrounds. They are experienced teachers and have had long experiences teaching in Saudi Arabia and many other countries. They were all asked about the factors they think were contributing most to their students' inefficiency in speaking.

C. Procedure

The questionnaire was conducted in one session (See Appendix A). The participants were gathered in a big hall and instructed to take their time while responding to the survey. The participants were informed that they can ask questions whenever they found difficulty understanding the survey statements. The participants were encouraged to give thoughtful responses to the survey. The interviews with teachers were conducted on different sessions. Their responses were recorded. They were also told to report on any other thoughts they might have via emails.

III. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

A. Survey Findings

For the present study, higher means shows the positive side of the likert scale and indicates more readiness on the part of the students to produce output. Lower means indicates that students lack the particular language aspects included in the questionnaire

TABLE (1)
ITEMS SHOWING THE EXTENT TO WHICH SAUDI STUDENTS HAVE ENOUGH KNOWLEDGE TO PRODUCE OUTPUT.

(communicative Knowledge)	Poor (1)	Fair (2)	Average (3)	Good (4)	Excellent (5)
1. English pronunciation (speech sounds-stress-intonation)					
2. General listening comprehension					
3. Vocabulary knowledge					
4. Grammar knowledge					

TABLE (2)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF 5-POINT LIKERT-SCALE ITEMS FROM ITEM 1 TO ITEM 4: (N: 60)

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	1.65	0.40
2	2.13	0.79
3	4.05	0.69
4	3.85	0.77

Examining the means for table (1), item 1 and 2 have lower means representing the negative side of the likert scale. Although, students have good exposure to segmental and suprasegmental aspects of English early at their degree course, responses to item 1 and 2 show that students are not competent with regard to their pronunciation and listening knowledge.

However, responses to item 3 and 4 have higher means and indicate clearly that students are content with the knowledge they have in grammar and vocabulary. This is typical in many EFL contexts where the focus is more on accuracy rather than fluency. Both grammar and vocabulary courses, in the above EFL setting, are taught separately from other skills. Indeed, such traditional method of teaching does not lead to using forms in speech meaningfully (Van Lier, 1988; Krashen & Terrell, 1998).

TABLE (3)
ITEMS SHOWING THE EXTENT TO WHICH SAUDI STUDENTS USE COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

(communication strategies)	Poor (1)	Fair (2)	Average (3)	Good (4)	Excellent (5)
5. Rephrasing your speech					
6. Using fillers					
7. holding a conversation					
8.Using fixed expressions (e.g. How can I help you?)					

TABLE (4)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF 5-POINT LIKERT-SCALE ITEMS FROM ITEM 5 TO ITEM 8: (N: 60)

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
5	1.46	0.45
6	1.28	0.34
7	1.65	0.77
8	3.25	1.46

In table (4), as shown above, items, 5, 6, and 7 respectively have lower means and as specified above represent the negative side of the likert scale. Responses to items 5, 6 and 7 indicate that most participants do not use communication strategies necessary for holding conversations and avoiding communication breakdowns. Their teachers who participated in this study stated that there is no such use of these strategies ever in their classes. As Ellis (2008) put it out, "the function of communication strategies has been almost neglected or exclusively limited to compensating for L2 learners' lexical deficiencies" (p.509).

Interestingly, the mean of item 8 (3.25) is higher than the other items in table (4). This indicates that students are familiar with using fixed expressions considering that they are repeatedly exposed to them in their textbooks and in their teachers' speech.

TABLE (5)
ITEMS SHOWING THE EXTENT TO WHICH SAUDI STUDENTS CAN COMMUNICATE WITH THEIR TEACHERS AND PEERS

(communicative performance)	Poor (1)	Fair (2)	Average (3)	Good (4)	Excellent (5)
9. Communicating effectively with classmates outside of class (e.g., study groups, small group discussions, project work).					
10.Communicating effectively in class discussions					
11.Communicating with professors in or outside of class					
12. communicating via social media (oral channel)					

TABLE (6)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF 5-POINT LIKERT-SCALE ITEMS FROM ITEM 9 TO ITEM 12: (N: 60)

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
9	1.86	1.03
10	2.2	1.58
11	3.25	1.46
12	1.35	0.46

In the third category, as shown table (6), items 9 to 12 address the ability of Saudi students to effectively communicate in English inside and outside the class with their peers, teachers and friends. Items, 9, 10, and 12 have lower means indicating lower ability in communicating with peers, friends or participating in class discussions.

However, item 11 significantly shows higher means indicating that students are capable of conversing in particular with professors. Such result is perplexing and contradicting with students' previous responses. However, while having group conferences with students, it becomes clear that students indeed can have better communication with their

teachers rather than with their peers and friends. The reason behind such condition lies in the following explanations that students revealed during the group conferences with the researcher:

1. Most of the sentences uttered by students in communicating with their professors are in the form of short questions.
2. Students have plenty of time to plan for what they are going to say. Even in the class, some students may write down the question before asking it.
3. Most of students think of their questions in L1 (Arabic) and then translate it into English so they can minimize the occurrence of mistakes.
4. Outside class, students also do their best to be prepared with questions before heading to their professors' offices.
5. If, unexpectedly a student is asked, his answer is short meaning that he cannot proceed the conversation leaving the teachers with an impression that he is up to this level and not beyond.

Actually, there is no harm done when students prepare themselves for certain communicative tasks. This in fact a good step in their developmental processes in speaking whether their questions are the result of negative or positive transfer from their L1 to L2. Although such preparation is artificial and may not actually represent spontaneous speech, it might contribute to the students' ability to produce oral output in the long run.

As for the teachers' interviews, the researcher could collect valuable feedback. Indeed, learning from what the teachers of English is facing constitutes a springboard for the current study. The following are the teachers' thoughts to the above inquiry:

1. Large English classes seems to be a universal factor in EFL contexts hindering the students' effective participation in class and thus negatively affecting their communicative readiness to speak in English (Littlewood, 2007; Munjayanah, 2004; Van Lier, 1988)
2. Students' resistance to speaking in class is yet an interesting aspect where students are reluctant to minimal output production such as asking or answering a question. Students' usually avoid prolonged speeches as in commenting or expressing their thoughts or ideas. Most interviewees attributed that to the fact that students are afraid from making mistakes. A few blamed the social and educational upbringing where young men are encouraged to memorize and repeat rather than to think and react.
3. Communicative English textbooks are meant for EFL learning contexts rather than EFL ones.
4. Most courses offered are usually of theoretical nature with overwhelming information in linguistics and literature.
5. The very limited use of L2 where EFL students even close to the outside of their classes converse only in Arabic. As revealed by the interviewees, you won't hear students using even simple formulaic expressions in greetings.
6. Teachers' tendency to follow the traditional teaching methods even when teaching speaking skills. For example, in most speaking classes students are instructed to choose a topic, prepare it at home and present it in class. Most students tend to memorize information and as a result when presenting the topics they appear to be shy and unconfident. Students are rather repeating what they have memorized than expressing their thoughts and ideas. Peculiarly, students are usually forced to select topics that they cannot talk about even their L1.
7. In phonology courses, the focus is not on training students to produce speech sounds of English. It is more on introducing the articulatory system and the different organs responsible for the production of speech sounds.
8. Students are fearful of criticism or losing face particularly when they are asked to deliver a presentation in front of their classmates. This fear is more likely due to the lack of practice rather than the lack of knowledge.

The researcher finds the following to be also evident in the above teaching situation:

1. Most evaluation of students' achievements depends greatly on written responses via final exams, class assignments, reports and quizzes. Oral responses are only required in speaking courses which only constitute a small percentage of the overall courses offered in the program.
2. Lack of appropriate tools for measuring students' oral skills is hampering test fairness, validity and reliability of speaking test particularly those prepared by teachers.
3. More focus on accuracy comes at the expense of fluency. "Many teachers still work in environments where there is an emphasis on accuracy which virtually excludes spontaneous language use in the classroom (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.152).
4. Listening activities are almost neglected in class. Listening goes hand in hand with speaking. One cannot speak if he cannot understand what it has been said.
5. The presence of inappropriate feedback which may inhibit and demotivate students from speaking. As Baker & Westrup (2003) put it out that classroom feedback should be positive and encouraging.

IV. CONCLUSION

In general, the questionnaire results along with the teachers' responses and group conferences with students revealed clearly that Saudi EFL students are encountering many challenges and inadequate language practices which contribute to their limited speaking output.

Nevertheless, students share part of the responsibility for being passive and not finding out their own ways to speak. Students, in the above setting, who are better speakers of English usually attributed their success to their own persistent efforts to communicate. However, those students are few and thus considered as exceptions and do not represent the norm in the above teaching situation.

There are many suggested practices in the field of SLA which are intended to help EFL teachers as well as students to overcome some of the above mentioned hindrances. Yet what could work in one setting might not necessarily work in another teaching scenario. There are indeed no single best practices to fit all contexts.

However, one of the best practices that could fit in many contexts is the use of communication strategies (e.g. rephrasing-repeating-using fillers, etc.). It is believed by many SLA researchers and educators that such practices could fill in the communication gaps in the students' oral discourse and enhance their communicative deficiencies (e.g., Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, 1994; Færch & Kasper, 1986; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Willems, 1987).

EFL students also need to be trained and encouraged on using interactional communicative strategies. Richard-Amato (1996) proposed four strategies for students to learn spoken English:

1. Think of what you are going to say.
2. Think about the structures you are using but do not let them interfere with what you want to say.
3. Do not be afraid to make mistakes (mistakes are normal as you are learning a language).
4. When you are not understood, use repetition, gestures, synonyms, definitions, acting out, whatever comes naturally as you begin to feel more proficient in the language (p. 55).

EFL teachers should also be regularly reminded of good speaking practices as to help them resist their tendency to use traditional teaching methods which is usually the result of large EFL classes. Some of the good practices for teaching speaking has been proposed by (Harmer, 2001, p.102) and they are as follows;

- a. Help students overcome their initial reluctance to speak. Be encouraging; provide opportunity; start from something simple.
- b. Ask students to talk about what they want to talk about.
- c. Ask students to talk about what they are able to talk about.
- d. Provide appropriate feedback.
- e. Combine speaking with listening and reading.
- f. Incorporate the teaching of speech acts in teaching speaking.

In sum, EFL teachers should bear in mind that all teaching practices whether the focus is on accuracy or fluency or both are valuable in the true sense of the word if and only if they strike a balance in implementing these practices in their classes. Further, the best balance could be achieved if students' needs are the main guidance in tailoring the principles of our teaching and learning scenarios.

APPENDIX

Speaking survey for level 5 Saudi Students Studying in the English Department-College of Arts and Humanities. Jazan University.

On a scale of 1-5 how do you feel prepared for the following tasks?

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

1. English pronunciation
(speech sounds -stress- intonation)

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

2. General listening comprehension

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

3. Vocabulary knowledge

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

4. Grammar knowledge

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

5. Rephrasing your speech

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

6. Using fillers (OK-well, etc.)

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

7. Holding a conversation

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

8. Using fixed expression

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

9. Communicating effectively with classmates outside of class (e.g., study groups, small group discussions, project work).

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

10. Communicating effectively in class discussions

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

11. Communicating with professors in or outside of class

Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

12. Communicating via social media

Other, please specify

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Metaphors the East Is Othered by: A Critical-cognitive Study of Metaphor in Lady Sheil's Travelogue *Glimpses of Life and Manners in Persia*

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Abstract—Regarding travel writing as the textual manifestation of the Self and the Other confrontation, travelogues provide interesting material for analyzing otherness discourse and various strategies of othering. Accordingly, this paper aims to study how metaphor functions as an othering device in travel writing. The travelogue which is the subject of this research is *Glimpses of Life and Manners in Persia* written by Lady Sheil in the mid-nineteenth century. The framework employed for analyzing metaphor in this text is Critical Metaphor Analysis which is amongst various approaches of cognitive poetics. The critical-cognitive analysis of metaphors in this travelogue implies that Sheil metaphorized Persia mainly as an Oriental Other which has a denigrated inferior position relative to the Occidental Self. In so doing, she has vastly used different stereotypical images of the East abundantly present in the Orientalist discourse. It can be argued that Orientalism as a discourse has exerted great influence on Sheil's metaphorization of Persia as an Eastern Other via a number of conceptual metaphors which characterize the East as a unified object which has no diversity and should be studied by European scholars.

Index Terms—travel writing, conceptual metaphor, metaphorization of Persia, the Other, Orientalism, Lady Sheil

I. INTRODUCTION

As a genre, travel writing has a long history. From Homer onwards, many writers in different periods, cultures and languages have examined their talent in creating attractive travelogues. Such numerous contributions to the genre have drastically modified its form and content. In other words, like any genre, travel writing has been exposed to radical changes brought about by different writers in different times and places. Accordingly, there are various elements and aspects on the basis of which different travelogues can be classified. For example, considering the method of observation, travel books might be categorized as exclusively scientific-empirical or imaginary-literary. Of course, there are many instances between the two which enjoy an ambiguous status and may be closer to each of these labels. In another example, regarding the voice of the travel writers, travelogues can be divided strictly into subjective-first-person and impersonal-third-person narratives. Again, there are a number of in-between works whose position is not so clear-cut.

In spite of such differences, there is one common point in all travelogues. Considering travel writing as the textual manifestation of the Self and the Other confrontation (Bassnett, 2003; Thompson, 2011; Youngs, 2013), it can be argued that the notion of otherness and its representation is amongst the distinctive features of this genre. As Thompson (2011, p. 10) puts it, "if all travel involves an encounter between self and other that is brought about by movement through space, all travel writing is at some level a record or product of this encounter". This implies that any travelogue portrays the contrast between the Self and the Other in some way. Regarding otherness as "the distinction that one makes between one's self and others, particularly in terms of sexual, ethnic and relational senses of difference" (Wolfreys et al, 2006, p. 74), it can be claimed that any travel book is replete with such distinctions either explicitly or implicitly. In other words, the travel writer draws on otherness discourse as an instrument for describing different countries, cultures, nations, conducts etc., in terms of ethnic, racial, cultural, linguistic senses of difference and, in so doing, highlights their being Other.

In this regard, it is worth-mentioning that such dichotomization of the Self and the Other which seems to be essential for the portrayal or, better saying, representation of the Other is mainly done via the mechanism of othering. According to Thompson (2011), othering is "the process by which one culture constructs its sense of another culture as different and "other" to itself; alternately, the rhetorical strategies used to emphasize the differences of another culture or people"

(p. 203). The second part of this definition foregrounds the significant role of language, in general, and figurative language, in particular, in the process of othering. Any travel writer employs such figurative devices in order to carve a tangible image of his/her experiences of other countries and cultures. As Knowles and Moon (2006) argue, “such texts [travel writing] typically make extensive use of figurative language in order to describe what the writer has experienced, to create or re-create atmosphere, and to communicate evaluations, whether positive or negative” (p. 159). Since “travel writing is not a literal and objective record of journeys undertaken” (Youngs, 2006, p. 2), it can be assumed that these figurative devices or tropes are mainly at the service of the travel writer to convey his/her attitudes towards the people and cultures other than his or hers. Consequently, the analysis of these figurative devices in the travelogue can cast light on how the travel writer portrays other countries, people and cultures or, in a word, the Other.

What makes such an analysis more urgent is the overtones such figuration of the Other might bear. In fact, the dichotomization of the Self and the Other which takes place as the result of othering is not a value-free process. In this process, one side of the dichotomy, i.e. the Self, often takes a superior status vis-à-vis the other side, i.e. the Other. As Gruen (2011) puts it, “trading in stereotypes, manufacturing traits, and branding those who are different as inferior, objectionable, or menacing have had an inordinate grip on imagining the divergent over the centuries” (p. 1). This leads to “the denigration, even demonization, of the Other” (Gruen, 2011, p. 1). The fruit of such denigration or demonization is an image of the Other invested with a plethora of negative traits and features. In the construction of such an image figurative devices such as metaphor, metonymy, hyperbole, simile, irony, allusion etc., play a pivotal role. Indeed, it is through these tropes that a concrete and tangible image of other people and cultures is carved in the travel book. Since travel writing carries preconceptions and echoes cultural and ideological backgrounds of its authors (Youngs, 2006), it can be assumed that the figural language of the travel book vividly reflects such preconceptions and backgrounds.

Having these in mind, this paper aims to study how metaphors play a role in the construction of an image of the Other in the text of a travelogue. The travel book under study is *Glimpses of Life and Manners in Persia* written in the mid-nineteenth century by Mary Sheil. The significance of this work lies in the fact that it is the first travel account of Persia written by an English woman. Employing a cognitive poetics’ approach, this research seeks to find out how metaphorization of the Other takes place in this travelogue. Moreover, since nineteenth century is considered as the heyday of European imperialism and consequently Orientalism is regarded as the prevalent discourse of that time, it also aims to find out whether such a discourse has any impact on the metaphorization of the Other in this travelogue or not. Accordingly, this study is based on the following questions: 1) How is Persia metaphorized as the Other in the text of the travelogue? 2) Is there any relationship between such metaphorization and Orientalist discourse? 3) If there is any relationship between the two which conceptual metaphors crystallize it the most? Achieving the answers of these questions, a cognitive poetics’ approach which enjoys critical colors as well has been selected for analyzing the text of the travelogue. This approach is explicated in the next section.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The approach which is used in this study for analyzing metaphors is Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA). First proposed by Charteris-Black (2004), such an approach deals with metaphor from a critical-cognitive perspective and thus it is by nature a cognitive poetics’ tool. It can be considered as a combination of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT).

The first feeding component of this framework is CDA. Defined by Bloor and Bloor (2007, p. 2), it is “interested in the way in which language and discourse are used to achieve social goals and in the part this use plays in social maintenance and change”. Such interest requires radical exploration of different social as well as linguistic phenomena and such exploration is possible only if CDA adopts a critical stance against those phenomena. This critical stance enables CDA to not only describe social practices and their linguistic manifestations but also explain ideologies behind such practices and manifestations.

Since power and power relations have a decisive role in most social practices, they constitute a locus of research in CDA. As a matter of fact, “a primary focus of CDA is on the effect of power relations and inequalities in producing social wrongs and in particular on discursive aspects of power relations and inequalities” (Fairclough, 2010, p. 8). Accordingly, power and its textual manifestations constitute a significant part of most CDA researches.

Another feeding component of CMA is CMT. Mostly drawing on the ground-breaking work of Lakoff and Johnson (1980), CMT offers a novel approach to metaphor analysis which considers a crucial role for cognition and cognitive forces in the formation of different metaphors. As Lakoff and Johnson (1980) put it: “metaphor is not just a matter of language, that is, of mere words. We shall argue that, on the contrary, human thought processes are largely metaphorical” (p. 6). In such theorization of metaphor, conceptual metaphors and metaphorical linguistic expressions are distinguished. As Kövecses (2010) argues, “the linguistic expressions (i.e., ways of talking) make explicit, or are manifestations of, the conceptual metaphors (i.e., ways of thinking). To put the same thing differently, it is the metaphorical linguistic expressions that reveal the existence of the conceptual metaphors” (p. 7). For example, these sentences “Your claims are *indefensible*”, “He *attacked every weak point* in my argument” and “His criticisms were

right on target” are all considered as various manifestations of the same conceptual metaphor, i.e. AN ARGUMENT IS WAR¹.

Considering metaphor a cognitive rather than a linguistic phenomenon paves the way for attributing extra-linguistic functions to it. In other words, ascribing such pivotal status to metaphor means that its functions are not limited to aesthetics and literature, as was theorized in the traditional approaches, but it enjoys different functions in discourse. As Knowles and Moon (2006) argue, “in relation to discourse metaphor is important because of its functions -explaining, clarifying, describing, expressing, evaluating, entertaining” (p. 4). But, it can be said that metaphor plays its most important role in the domain of representing various aspects of reality. As Semino (2008) puts it, “the main set of functions of metaphors in discourse relates to the representation of (particular aspects of) reality” (p. 31). This gives metaphor, besides other figurative devices, a crucial role in construing reality and even “shaping our world-views” (Semino, 2008, p. 10).

Combining CDA and CMT, Critical Metaphor Analysis aims to provide a critical analysis of the roles metaphor plays in different kinds of discourses. Accordingly, Charteris-Black (2004) defines CMA “as an approach to metaphor analysis that –as we have seen with critical discourse analysis- aims to reveal the covert (and possibly unconscious) intentions of language users” (p. 34). Such an approach considers metaphor as a powerful tool which is used by language users for construing and representing reality in line with their world-views and intentions. Thus, it can be said that in such framework metaphor is mainly at the service of ideology and not only reflects it but also reinforces it. In this regard, it can be said that CMA “demonstrates the importance of metaphorical patterns in the vocabulary and grammar of English for representing and shaping ideological and social practices” (Goatly, 2007, p. 2). Of course, it is worth mentioning that the application of this framework is not limited to English language only.

The critical study of metaphor, according to Charteris-Black (2004), enjoys a three-stage procedure of metaphor analysis; i.e. identification which explores whether there is a tension between a literal source domain and a metaphoric target domain, interpretation which identifies the type of social relations that are constructed through metaphors and, finally, explanation which investigates the way metaphors are interrelated and become coherent with reference to the situation in which they occur. Such a framework, which is somehow similar to Fairclough’s three-layer model for critical analysis of texts, can shed light on various aspects of metaphor, especially its persuasive role as well as its function in establishing and consolidating different ideologies. In the next section, this framework is applied for analyzing different functions metaphors play in the text of the travelogue under study.

III. DISCUSSION

A. *Persia as an Infertile Ruinous Land*

As mentioned before, the travelogue which is the subject of this study is *Glimpses of Life and Manners in Persia*. The writer of this travel book is Mary Sheil (d.1869), better known as Lady Sheil, who was the wife of Colonel Justin Sheil (1803-1871), the plenipotentiary of England in Iran during the years 1844-1853. In her travelogue, which was published in 1856, she has recorded her experiences as the wife of the English envoy to the court of Persia in that time. Across various chapters of the book, she gives an account of her journey to and residence in nineteenth-century Persia. She commences her travelogue by stating the motivation behind writing down her experiences in the Oriental country:

1) A few years ago it fell to my lot to make a journey to Persia, and to reside there nearly four years. At this moment, when public attention is so much directed to the East, I have thought my recollections of the scenes I have visited may not be without interest to a few readers. One advantage I enjoyed over many preceding travellers in Persia. I have been able to see the anderoons or harems of the Shah and some of the principal personages of his court; and to judge, to a certain extent, with my own eyes, of the condition of women in that portion of the East (Sheil, 1856, p. 1).

This extract not only reveals the writer’s intention for writing such a travel book but also, though implicitly, shows the prominent role of ‘seeing’ in her travel account. She foregrounds her ability “to see the anderoons and harems of the Shah” as one of the advantages of her travelogue over similar works of the very time. It is worth-mentioning that in the scientific atmosphere of the nineteenth-century Europe seeing or observing a phenomenon was considered as the necessary and sufficient condition for gaining knowledge about that phenomenon. Consequently, the conceptual metaphor KNOWLEDGE IS SEEING was a prevalent metaphor in that time. This excerpt is a good example of this conceptual metaphor as she equates the seeing of Shah’s harems with gaining knowledge about it. In other words, for her, the very act of observing the anderoons of the Shah entitles her to claim having a first-hand empirical knowledge about the Persian women which is the result of direct observation of their conditions. Thus, it is not accidental that she chooses the word “Glimpses” which, in a sense, denotes visuality even in the title of her travel account.

After these opening sentences and throughout the next chapters she describes various places and incidents she encountered on her route to Iran. Her arrival in Persia and the subsequent events of her residence there start from chapter six. The following excerpt displays her first reaction to seeing this land:

¹. As a convention in Conceptual Metaphor Theory, conceptual metaphors are in the form of propositions and written down using small capitals. The first constituent before the verb is target domain and the constituent after the verb is source domain.

2) We contemplate the barren scene spread before the eyes, and ask where they all came from. Sterile indeed was the prospect, and unhappily it proved to be an epitome of all the scenery in Persia, excepting on the coast of the Caspian (Sheil, 1856, p.75).

As mentioned before, seeing and visuality play a significant role in her depictions of Persia. Here, in her imagining of Iran, she draws on the image of a “barren scene” which spreads before the eyes of any observer-traveler. Then, she reinforces such an image by using the adjective “sterile” in order to picture the country as a place devoid of any attraction and beauty. It can be argued that using the adjectives “barren” and “sterile”, which are usually used in reference to organisms, for referring to Iran is an instance of the conceptual metaphor COUNTRY/LAND IS AN ORGANISM. As a result of such metaphorization, Iran is portrayed as an infertile organism whose characteristics are mapped onto Iran. Therefore, the country is conceptualized as a waste land which lacks any fruit like a sterile infertile organism. This process of denigrating the Oriental Other is completed when the writer takes the role of a spectator-traveler who, though not traveled to all parts of the country, overgeneralizes her ideas about the country and its scenery. The irony behind such overgeneralization is that it is the product of a first glance which reduces the whole country and all of its landscapes to a barren scene observed by the writer.

In line with this negative portrayal of Persia and its landscapes she continues as following in the same page:

3) A desolate plain, or rather valley, bounded on each side by rocky or chalky mountains still more desolate –not a tree visible excepting the few willows, poplars, and fruit-trees surrounding the villages thinly scattered over the waste. Such is Persia and her scenery in general, excepting that sometimes a fine village is to be seen smothered in immense gardens, orchards of the most delicious fruits, and vineyards (Sheil, 1856, p. 75).

Like the previously analyzed extract, these lines begin with an adjective which implies the infertility of Persian lands. It can be argued that the using of synonymous adjectives in these lines (“barren”, “sterile” and “desolate”), which is an instance of overwording (i.e. using too many words with the similar meaning in the text), contributes to the formation and reinforcing of the COUNTRY/LAND IS AN ORGANISM metaphor. The consequence of metaphorizing Iran as a “desolate plain” is the formation of another metaphor: IRAN IS A WASTE LAND. In the view of the author, since there are not too much diversity and attraction on these barren lands, except a few villages and orchards, Persia and its scenery with all of their diversity can be reduced to a single image, i.e. a fruitless desolate Other land.

This reductionist picture of Persia is foregrounded when the author quotes the view of another traveler:

4) The curt description of a Scottish traveler of what he saw in Persia is not altogether devoid of truth. According to him, the whole land is divided into two portions –one being desert with salt, and the other desert without salt (Sheil, 1856, p. 75).

This imaging of Persia as a desert land is so explicit and transparent which seems to need no further explanation. The Scottish traveler metaphorizes Persia as a desert either with salt or without salt. As a result, various features of deserts such as barrenness and fruitlessness are mapped onto Persia as an Oriental country. Again, it can be claimed that this metaphor is another instance or manifestation of the metaphor IRAN IS A WASTE LAND. Quoting these lines, the English travel writer indirectly reproduces the very metaphor which accords with her own metaphorizations of the Oriental land.

Besides portraying and conceptualizing the Other land as a sterile organism and waste land, the writer deploys other kinds of metaphor which, overall, illustrate Iran as a ruinous land full of decay. The following excerpts show this matter very well:

5) I brought up the rear, and entered the city covered with dust, and hot and tired. Anything more dismal can hardly be conceived. The images of youth are not easily effaced; and the ‘Arabian Nights’ and ‘Lalla Rookh’ will hold their place in the memory, whether it will or not. But once inside the gate of a Persian city, the charm is dissolved, the magician’s wand is broken, and reality takes the place of romance, which is destroyed for ever (Sheil, 1856, p. 87-88).

6) Dead dogs, and here and there a dead horse half eaten, offended more than one sense. The houses were frightful. Constructed of brown unburnt bricks, looking exactly like mud, and without a single window to the street, they presented a most gloomy aspect. This is a general picture of a Persian town; and be it remembered that Tebreez is one of the best and richest cities in the whole kingdom. As we approached the European and Armenian quarter some improvement began to be visible (Sheil, 1856, p. 88).

7) Everything decays in Persia (Sheil, 1856, p. 96).

8) But all Persian towns are alike; all built of unburnt, unpainted brick, all windowless, and all in a state of decay (Sheil, 1856,p. 107).

In excerpt (5), the author attempts to provide a factual description of Persian cities and their physical characteristics. Doing so, she has recourse to a binary opposition; Persia as imagined in romances versus Persia as exists in reality. The former image which exists abundantly in fictional works such as *One Thousand and One Nights*, known as Arabian Nights in the Western societies, is a luminous image arising from descriptions of Persia as a glorious Oriental land replete with numerous wonders, marvels and charms in those works. According to the writer, this image is completely vanished at the moment of entering a Persian city in reality. Thus, the metaphorization of Persia as a wonderland is substituted by its metaphorization as a ruinous land. In the view of the writer, Persia is no more a country attracting the attention of travelers by its marvels, magic and charms but a country whose desolate scenery and ruinous condition only lead to dismal and depression.

Extract (6) is exactly in line with the first one. Enumerating the physical features of the Persian cities which are negative overall, the author provides a more tangible picture of the pitiable situation of Iranian cities. Again, she applies the strategy of overgeneralization in order to offer a general simplified picture of Persian cities. The interesting point in these lines is her description of the European and Armenian quarter of the same city. It seems that she dichotomizes the city in order to show that even in an Asian city the Europeans are more developed and civilized relative to the Oriental residents of the city.

The next two excerpts can be considered as the epitomes of reductionism used frequently by the writer in her imagining of the Oriental Other and its various aspects. Stating explicitly that everything decays in Persia means that the country is in a constant unchangeable state of decay and decline. In other words, in the viewpoint of the author, nothing in this country develops but deteriorates and disappears. Overgeneralizing this state of decay to all Persian towns and cities turn them into the objects which lack any attraction or beauty. Thus, they can be a good target for othering strategies; they are overloaded with an avalanche of decrying and devaluing attributes which are finally ascribed to the Other. The fruit of this process is an oversimplified negative image of the Oriental Other which is devoid of any diversity or variety.

B. Persians as Immature Uncivilized People

In addition to providing various descriptions about the physical features of Persia as an Oriental country, Lady Sheil offers numerous accounts of different sects of Persian society. In these accounts, like the aforementioned examples, she carves an image of the Persians as so much different from the Europeans. In a word, this image is so Other relative to the Western Self. The following lines display this matter very well:

9) The first thing I beheld on entering the room was several pounds of tea, flanked by a suitable number of loaves of sugar, with a whole cargo of sweetmeats, on which the Persian servants regaled themselves with all the greediness of children (Sheil, 1856, p. 81).

In these lines, the author describes her first experience of entering a Persian ceremony. What is significant in this description is that she pictures Persian servants like children who are greedy for sweets. Such portrayal is based on the metaphor PERSIAN SERVANTS ARE IMMATURE PERSONS. As a result of this metaphorization, these people are lowered to the level of children and thus they are no more mature individuals but immature greedy children.

Although there are a number of similar statements apropos different sections of Persian society, it seems that Persian women are the principal target of her decrying othering. The following extracts illustrate this vividly:

10) Few, very few among the women, even the most youthful, had any claim to beauty; exposure and severe labour having wholly effaced the delicacy of features which nature intended to be comely (Sheil, 1856, p. 107-108).

11) As to visiting, intimacy with Persian female society has seldom any attraction for a European, indeed I regret to say there were only a few of the Tehran ladies whose mere acquaintance was considered to be desirable (Sheil, 1856, p. 123).

12) Persian women seem to me to have no idea of a calm, tranquil life. Novelty, or whatever causes excitement, is what they seek, and, I dare say, they would be miserable without that stimulus. They have not strong religious or moral principle; and the example of their husband is said to be no encouragement to domestic happiness (Sheil, 1856, p. 144).

13) There was not a single woman, for in Persia a woman is nobody (Sheil, 1856, p. 86).

What is common in all of these descriptions is a fixed stereotypical image of Persian women. It seems as if they are totally different creatures living in an Other world. Due to their being so different, they cannot have any "claim to beauty", they have no "attraction for a European" and thus their acquaintance does not seem to be desirable and, finally, they are just in search of novelty to make their lives a little bit more exciting and amusing. All of these devaluing accounts of Persian women are summed up in the last extract which seems to be in the form of a metaphor itself: "in Persia, a woman is nobody". In this example, reductionism and reification (i.e. turning something into an object) go hand in hand to enhance the othering of Persian women. In the view of Sheil, Persian women lack identity ("there was not a single woman") because in Persia women are considered as less-than-human creatures or, better saying, objects. Thus, a stereotypical picture of Oriental woman is fashioned which not only denies her individuality but also declines her to the level of a non-human entity. It can be argued that this excerpt is based on the metaphor PERSIAN WOMEN ARE NON-HUMAN ENTITIES.

As a final point regarding Sheil's descriptions of Persian society, the following lines show how she sums up the Persians continuing her reductionist manner:

14) The Persians are a curious combination of bigotry and tolerance, or perhaps indifferentism; but in the towns where Europeans reside, fanaticism is obviously fast decaying (Sheil, 1856, p. 140).

Again, she applies reductionism as an effective othering strategy and reduces all Persians to two negative characteristics, i.e. bigotry and indifferentism. The othering of Persians is intensified when she ascribes the disappearance of fanaticism in several Persian towns to the presence of Europeans in these towns. Doing so, she creates a dichotomy which separates Persians and Europeans on the basis of fanaticism. Again, as a result of overgeneralization, fanaticism is considered as one of the distinctive features of Persians whereas all Europeans are devoid of this characteristic. This excerpt can be considered as an instance of the conceptual metaphor HUMAN BEINGS ARE OBJECTS in which the Persians are metaphorized as objects combined of various elements such as bigotry and tolerance. In the next section, the relationship between these metaphorizations and Orientalism is discussed.

C. *Orientalist Metaphorization of Persia as the Other*

Before exploring the probable relationship between Lady Sheil's metaphorization of the Persian Other and the discourse of Orientalism, a few words should be mentioned about this discourse and its various aspects and components. First proposed as an academic term by Edward Said in his seminal work, *Orientalism* mainly provides a framework for Westerners to understand the Orient and gaining knowledge about all the phenomena related to it. According to Said (1978, p. 2), "Orientalism is a style of thought based upon an ontological and epistemological distinction made between the Orient and, most of the time, the Occident". Of course, such distinction is not a neutral value-free distinction. As Turner (1994) puts it, "Orientalism is a discourse which represents the exotic, erotic, strange Orient as a comprehensible, intelligible phenomenon within a network of categories, tables and concepts by which the Orient is simultaneously defined and controlled" (p. 21). Thus, the Orient is demoted to the position of an object which can be studied and analyzed by Western scholars and, at the same time, all of its diversity is denied and forgotten.

Accordingly, the West and the East enter an asymmetrical relationship in which the former gains the upper hand relative to the latter and, consequently, the superiority of the Occident over the Orient is acknowledged. The construction of the East in this way makes it a good site for the functioning of othering strategies. As Turner (2000) argues, "The East appears in Western imagination as the forbidden Other, which is simultaneously repulsive, seductive and attractive. Like the veil, the East is both secluded and inviting" (p. 1). In a similar vein, Andreeva (2007) states that:

Defining the Other serves as a tool for constructing the Self as different from, opposed to and superior to the Other. Applied to the analysis of the Orient, this attitude results in the representation of the Orient as different from the West and therefore inferior to it, the world as dichotomized into "us" versus "them" (Europe, the West versus the Orient, the East) (p. 23).

Such othering of the East is mainly carried out via a number of binary oppositions like rational/irrational, male/female, civilized/barbarian, modern/traditional, developed/undeveloped, etc., in which the first element in all pairs represents the West whereas the second element is representative of the East. Since one of the principal strategies of othering is objectification and homogenization which results in the production of stereotypes (Jervis 1999), it can be argued that these binary oppositions are overgeneralized to the totality of the East and offer a simplified reified image of the Orient and Orientals which is replete with many stereotypes. Consequently, the Orient with all of its diversity is reduced to an imaginary European-made place signifying various attributes such as irrationality, femininity, barbarism, traditionalism etc.

Looking at Lady Sheil's travel book in this light, it can be claimed that her travelogue demonstrates various features of this discourse, and this matter does not seem unusual since travelogues are amongst the primary sources in which such discourse is crystallized (cf. Said, 1978; Sardar, 1999; Andreeva, 2007; Pratt, 2008; Nayar, 2012). The examples mentioned and discussed in the previous sections show that her metaphorization of Persia as the Oriental Other is clearly under the influence of Orientalism. Again, this matter seems to be justifiable since such discourse was very much pervasive in the nineteenth-century Europe.

Functioning as the software of imperialism and colonialism, Orientalist discourse has a salient presence in various texts and genres produced in the nineteenth-century Europe. Arguably, this discourse exerted great influence on those texts which aimed to represent various aspects of the Orient and Oriental life. Since nineteenth century is considered as the heyday of European imperialism and colonialism, especially on the side of England, Orientalist discourse functions somewhat as the discourse of colonialism. The main function of this discourse is to provide descriptions of non-European lands and people. As Nayar (2012) defines, colonial discourse deals with "various kinds of representation through which the Europeans described, catalogued, categorized, imagined, and talked about Asians or Africans" (p. 4).

Having these in mind, it can be said that Lady Sheil's travelogue is a good example of colonial discourse's manifestation. It provides various descriptions of Persia as an Oriental country. Various aspects of this country such as landscape, weather, people, culture, customs and conduct are all visualized via different metaphors. In so doing, the author has recourse to various instruments of Orientalism. In other words, she metaphorizes the Oriental Other in terms of Orientalist discourse. The critical-cognitive analysis of aforementioned examples shows that in her portrayal of Persia she relies on a number of conceptual metaphors. Focusing on those examples the following conceptual metaphors can be extracted:

KNOWLEDGE IS SEEING
 COUNTRY/LAND IS AN ORGANISM
 THE EAST IS A WASTE LAND
 THE EAST IS A DESERT
 ORIENTAL TOWNS ARE DECAYING OBJECTS
 ORIENTAL PEOPLE ARE IMMATURE PERSONS
 ORIENTAL WOMEN ARE NON-HUMAN ENTITIES

Different manifestations of these metaphors which appear in the form of metaphorical expressions in Sheil's travelogue carve an image of Iran as an Oriental country completely in line with the overgeneralized descriptions of the East and Easterners in Orientalism. Put it another way, stereotypical depictions of the Orient mostly manifested via different dichotomies in the orientalist discourse are reproduced in these metaphors. In other words, Sheil metaphorizes those binary oppositions. Thus, like those dichotomies, these metaphorizations can be interpreted as reproducing the

suggested power relations between the East and the West in which the former is in an inferior position vis-à-vis the latter.

Finally, analyzing these metaphors in a broader context, it should be mentioned that these metaphors enhance the coherence of the text considerably. Indeed, it seems that the previously mentioned metaphors constitute a chain or cluster which is extended throughout the text the consequence of which is an integrated coherent image of Persia as a prototypical Oriental country, as imagined in Orientalism. Thus, these metaphors can be considered as an instance of “extended metaphor”. According to Semino (2008):

Extended metaphor can be seen as a particular type of cluster, where several metaphorical expressions belonging to the same semantic field or evoking the same source domain are used in close proximity to one another in relation to the same topic, or to the elements of the same target domain (p. 25).

Thus, the metaphor KNOWLEDGE IS SEEING works as a key metaphor around which the other metaphors are gathered, and produces an image of Persia and the Persians as objects which can be observed and, consequently, become known. It is worth-mentioning that all of these metaphors can be considered as instances of Orientalism’s metaphorization of the Oriental Other; a kind of othering strategy through which the Orient is metaphorized as a voiceless changeless entity which should be demoted to the level of an object and be described and studied scientifically by European scholars.

IV. CONCLUSION

Travel writing can be considered as the textual manifestations of the Self and the Other confrontation. Displaying such confrontation more effectively, each travel writer draws on a number of othering strategies whose main function is to offer a tangible image of the Other. Metaphor is one of these strategies used vastly in travel writing for describing other countries, cultures, people, conduct etc. Since metaphor is tied up strongly with ideologies and world views, its critical analysis can shed light on the writer’s attitudes towards the Other in general.

Having these in mind, this paper investigates the role of metaphor in portraying Persia as an Oriental Other in a nineteenth-century English travelogue. As the first travelogue to Iran which has been written by an English woman, Lady Sheil’s travel book demonstrates various kinds of metaphorizations of the East, in general, and Persia, in particular. The critical-cognitive analysis of these metaphors shows that they fulfill three main functions: 1) they offer English readers a tangible devaluing image of Persia and the Persian, 2) they enhance the coherence of the text via portraying a coherent integrated image of Persia, 3) they carve an image of Iran which is not only congruent with the assumptions and statements of Orientalist discourse but also reproduce its power-oriented dichotomies in which the East is conceptualized as inferior relative to the West.

Accordingly, it can be argued that different traces of Orientalism’s preconceptions and stereotypes about the East could be identified in her representations and metaphorizations of Persia as an Oriental Other. From the conceptual metaphor KNOWLEDGE IS SEEING, which Orientalism borrowed from the scientific discourse of nineteenth-century Europe, to THE ORIENT IS AN OBJECT OF STUDY, Persia is conceptualized by Lady Sheil as an Other which can be demoted to the level of an object suitable for Western investigation. Considering the period this travelogue was written, that is, mid-nineteenth century, the influences of Orientalist discourse on the writer’s metaphorizations of Oriental Persia seem to be justifiable since that era is considered as the heyday of British imperialism and colonialism and, consequently, the pervasiveness of Orientalism as the software of the two phenomena.

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Investigating Anxiety Symptoms and Reactions within EFL Learners' Oral Narratives: The Case of Intermediate Level Students

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Abstract—The present study investigated anxiety symptoms and reactions in EFL learners' oral narratives. The focus of the study was first to ascertain whether EFL learners' anxiety symptoms and reactions can be influenced by the degree of foreign language speaking anxiety in the classroom, and secondly to indicate to what extent Iranian EFL learners divulge the components of anxiety symptoms and reactions while they are narrating. Participants were 11 students comprising 5 males and 6 females studying English Literature at the University of Guilan, and they were selected by Purposive Sampling (Quota Sampling). ACTFL guidelines, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), picture stories for narrative tasks, and direct observation were instruments of this study. The present study followed a mixed-method design in which EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety was investigated quantitatively. Moreover, anxiety symptoms, anxiety reactions and their components were analyzed qualitatively. The results revealed that more evident anxiety symptoms and reactions can be found in more anxious students. Furthermore, it was revealed that physiological reactions to the classroom anxiety were visible within slightly anxious learners, while behavioral reactions occurred in all of the students.

Index Terms—Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), anxiety symptoms, anxiety reactions, narrative

I. INTRODUCTION

Ever increasing use of English as an international language in intercontinental communities makes it necessary for EFL learners to know how to use it effectively in order to make better communication. As Mahmoodzadeh (2012) pointed out, the development of a good speaking ability has been one of the crucial and indispensable aspects of English language learning for non-native speakers. As such, foreign language learners have a great amount of interest in perception of their ability to speak. In this regard, the feedback received by non-native speakers from their audience may be a major part of their success. Thus, EFL learners pay more attention to speaking rather than other skills.

Speaking is a macro skill which comprises a number of sub-skills. In recent years, the researchers' attention has moved toward one of its sub-skills named Oral Narratives. In the mid-1960s, a great amount of interest in the nature of narrative came into existence. As established by Labov (Labov 1972, 1981; Labov & Waletzky, 1967), the typical narrative is that of personal experience. When EFL learners try to narrate a sequence of events as an oral presentation in the classroom, one of the affective sides of human behavior such as foreign language anxiety may appear. It is obvious that it can overshadow oral performance of the learners.

Over the past few decades the affective side of human behavior has captured the attention of many scholars. Hayatdavoudi & Kassaian (2013) stated that "As far as applied linguistics is concerned, affective variables have proven to be of primary importance in foreign language learning and teaching" (p. 10). When there is foreign language anxiety, some of its symptoms and reactions may come into existence. Several authors have also reported psychological and physiological reactions to state anxiety, such as anxiety during oral performance in language test situations (see Hayatdavoudi & Kassaian, 2013; Jannati & Estaji, 2015; Liebert & Morris, 1967; Woodrow, 2006; Zeidner, 1998). Zeidner (1998) postulated that "anxiety was viewed to be a bi-dimensional phenomenon, including a cognitive (worry) and an affective (emotionality) component" (p.10). As such, worry and emotionality are the sub-divisions of anxiety. In this regard, Young (1991) contended that assisting teachers to identify the signs of language learners' anxiety is an important step in responding to anxiety existing in the classroom.

Following the same line of research and taking Iranian EFL learners into consideration, the present study is going to scrutinize the relationship between the available scale of foreign language anxiety and perceived physiological and psychological reactions in learners' oral narratives performance.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Defining Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

Lewis (1970) defined anxiety as "an unpleasant emotion experienced as dread, scare, alarm, fright, trepidation, horror and panic" (p.63). Anxiety is further explained as a complicated affective concept related to the feelings of "uneasiness,

frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry” (Scovel, 1978, p.134). Moreover, Clement (1980) considered foreign language anxiety as a complex construct dealing with learners’ psychological state in terms of their feelings, self-confidence, and self-esteem. As stated by Spielberger (1983) anxiety, “is subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with the arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986, p.125). However, in attempting to elucidate language anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) expounded foreign language anxiety as a distinct complex of feelings, self-perception, and behaviors related to classroom language learning, which arises from the uniqueness of the language-learning process (ibid.). Chastain (1988) mentioned that anxiety is a state of uneasiness and apprehension or fear caused by the anticipation of something threatening. MacIntyre and Gardner (1993) also described language anxiety as “the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not proficient” (p.5).

Furthermore, MacIntyre (1998) defined anxiety as a feeling of emotional reaction and worry that arises while learning a second language or using it. Brown (2000) believed that although all of us know what anxiety is as we have experienced feelings of anxiousness, defining the concept of anxiety in a simple sentence is not easy. In the meantime, according to Marwan (2008), anxiety can be generally affiliated to “threats to self-efficacy and appraisals of situations as threatening or an uneasy feeling due to something threatening” (p.120). Yahya (2013) stated that “anxiety is a feeling of uneasiness, aggravation, self-doubt, lack of confidence, or fear; intricately entwined with self-esteem issues and natural ego-preserving worries” (p.230). Casado and Dereshiswsky (2004) postulated that the definition of anxiety ranges from a mixture of overt and clear behavioral characteristics, which can be scientifically studied to introspective feelings which are epistemologically unreachable.

B. Considering Types of Anxiety

In the current study, it was tried to address types of anxiety through definitions and make clear distinctions among them. Generally, foreign language anxiety (FLA) can be divided into ‘trait’ and ‘state’ anxiety. Differentiating between the aforementioned types of FLA, MacIntyre (1995) posited that state anxiety is transitory and immediate emotional experience having instant cognitive effects, while trait anxiety can be considered as a stable predisposition to become anxious in an extensive range of situations. He further argued that state anxiety represents the response while trait anxiety indicates the proneness to respond in an anxious way.

Woodrow (2006) regarded trait anxiety to be a relatively stable personality characteristic, and a person who is trait anxious to be likely to feel anxious in various situations. Conversely, state anxiety, is an impermanent condition experienced at a specific instant. She also stated that situational anxiety is the third type of anxiety which is situation specific and claimed that this type mirrors a trait that repeatedly occurs in particular situations.

Riasati (2011) pointed out “trait anxiety is the tendency of a person to be nervous or feel anxious irrespective of the situation he/she is exposed to” (p.908). Then, he referred to the second type of anxiety as state (situational) anxiety arguing that “this type of anxiety arises in a particular situation and hence is not permanent. It is nervousness or tension at a particular moment in response to some outside stimulus” (ibid.). Thus, it occurs to the learners as a result of particular stressful situation.

Additionally, as pointed out by Sanaei (2015) anxiety is commonly classified into three types. “Trait anxiety, a more permanent disposition to be anxious, is viewed as an aspect of personality. State anxiety is an apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to definite situation. Lastly, situation-specific anxiety is related to apprehension aroused at specific situations and events” (p.1391).

C. Investigating Components of Foreign Language Anxiety

Considering the academic literature on language anxiety, there are a number of studies on the components of foreign language anxiety. In this regard, Horwitz et al. (1986) and MacIntyre & Gardner (1989) concluded that the components of foreign language anxiety can be attributed to three performance anxieties, including communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Integration of these components leads to the development of anxiety in language learners. Communication apprehension (CA) is defined by Horwitz et al. (1986, p.127) as “a type of shyness characterized by fear of anxiety about communicating with people”. McCrosky and Richmond (1987) further believed communication apprehension to be “an individual’s level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (p.142). More specifically, they claimed that a persons’ level of CA is likely the only best predictor of his or her willingness to communicate. Horwitz et al. (1986) defined fear of negative evaluation as “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (p.128). They further believed that fear of negative evaluation is broader in scope than test anxiety because it is not confined to test-taking situations; “rather it may occur in any social, evaluative situation such as interviewing for a job or speaking in a foreign language class” (ibid., p.128). Horwitz et al. (1986, p.127) believed that “test anxiety refers to a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure”. They further argued that students feeling test anxious often have unrealistic expectations about themselves and are idealists who feel that if they do not have a perfect performance on a test, they have failed. “This type of anxiety concerns apprehension towards academic evaluation which is based on a fear of failure” (Mesri, 2012, p.148).

D. Anxiety Symptoms and Reactions

Considering the academic literature on language anxiety, as mentioned earlier, some scholars have reported psychological and physiological reactions to state anxiety during oral performance in language test situations (e.g. Hayatdavoudi & Kassaian, 2013; Jannati & Estaji, 2015; Liebert & Morris, 1967; Woodrow, 2006; Zeidner, 1998). According to the conceptualization made by Liebert and Morris (1967), “anxiety was viewed to be a bi-dimensional phenomenon, including a cognitive (worry) and an affective (emotionality) component” (Zeidner, 1998, p.10). Having considered worry and emotionality, worry was primarily considered as cognitive concern about the outcomes of failure, whereas emotionality was explicated as comprising perceptions of autonomic reactions which are evoked by evaluative stress. On the one hand, emotionality deals with physiological reactions such as blushing or palpitations, and behavioral reactions such as stammering and fidgeting. On the other hand, worry deals with cognitive reactions such as self-deprecating thoughts, task irrelevant thoughts or negative critical worrisome thoughts (Woodrow, 2006; Zeidner, 1998).

Liebert and Morris (1967) hypothesized that worry is basically cognitive apprehension about consequences of failure. Therefore, taking worry into account should be minimized when individuals expect success; on the contrary, worry should be maximized at the same time poor performance is expected. Moreover, Liebert and Morris (1967) believed that anxiety markers which are initially autonomic or emotional in essence were hypothesized to exhibit the instant uncertainty of the test taking situation. Thus, one’s own performance can be located in the least amount of assurance, while emotionality should be in the highest degree.

According to Woodrow (2006), worry is a more debilitating factor than emotionality because it fills up cognitive capacity that in any other way would be devoted to task in hand, for instance, speaking a foreign language. Also, MacIntyre (1995, p.92) believed that “anxiety leads to worry and rumination.” He further noted that because of the divided attention, cognitive performance is diminished; therefore, performance suffers leading to self-evaluations which are negative and cognition that is self-deprecating. These will further impair performance.

Additionally, it is worth mentioning that Horwitz and her colleagues (1986, p.129) described the psychological and physiological symptoms of language anxiety; most of them occur in the anxious state in general such as “tenseness, trembling, perspiring, palpitations and sleep disturbances”. They also stated that their participants noted of freezing in class, standing outside the door making effort to summon up enough courage to enter the class, and also going blank prior to the initiation of tests. In this regard, Young (1991) held that an important step in responding to classroom anxiety is to help teachers to recognize the signs of anxiety in language learners.

Although considerable research has been devoted to FLA domain, rather less attention has been paid to the language learners’ anxiety reactions to oral performance in EFL learners. Nonetheless, a number of studies have been carried out on both psychological and physiological symptoms of FLA in the Iranian EFL context. In this regard, Hayatdavoudi and Kassaian (2013) in a conducted study on Iranian EFL students explored the relationship between language anxiety and psycho-physiological response to oral performance. The findings revealed a significant positive correlation between language anxiety and psycho-physiological responses to oral classroom performance in both elementary and intermediate EFL learners. The results of correlational study further indicated that students with higher levels of language anxiety were found to suffer from higher levels of psycho-physiological pressures during oral performance (Hayatdavoudi & Kassaian, 2013).

In a more recent study Jannati and Estaji (2015) attempted to investigate the causes, consequences, strategies, and perceptions of male and female Iranian EFL learners’ anxiety in the first certificate in English (FCE) speaking test. It is worth mentioning that some of anxiety symptoms were selected to be observed to understand the reactions the participants divulged when they became anxious. The obtained results revealed that except twisting hair all of the other selected signs of anxiety were mostly spotted in the male participants. Furthermore, in all sections of the FCE speaking test the males showed more symptoms of test anxiety than females (Jannati & Estaji, 2015).

E. Foreign Language Anxiety and Speaking

Reviewing previous literature regarding foreign language anxiety indicates that there is not full consensus among researchers over the issue of anxiety and its effects on language learning and performance. Some scholars argued that either there is no relationship or a positive relationship between anxiety and success in class (Backman, 1976; Scovel, 1978). Some other investigators believed that a negative relationship exists between anxiety and performance in language class, that is, the higher the anxiety, the lower the performance as emphasized by Clement, Gardner and Smythe (1980).

Horwitz et al. (1986) believed that students who feel communication apprehension are likely to be in more trouble during speaking performance in a second/foreign language class, so they feel that they are unable to have an acceptable control on their performance. Furthermore, students with a high level of anxiety have difficulties in centering on their lessons, often miss their classes, have palpitations, and they may even experience insomnia (ibid.). In Horwitz et al.’s (1986) study, anxiety towards L2 is focused in particular, on speaking and listening. These are the areas where most problems are reported, and anxiety was shown to be directly related to the speaking skill in the classroom. Results of another study conducted by Young (1990, p.539) indicated that in his study speaking in the foreign language was not found to be the only source of students’ anxiety, however, speaking in front of others was an exclusive source of anxiety in the learners. In the meantime, “such findings suggest that foreign language students experience a fear of self-exposure; they are afraid of revealing themselves or being spotlighted in front of others” (ibid., p.546).

As well as general foreign language classroom anxiety, it is found that many learners are highly anxious about participating in speaking activities. Moreover, it is often contended that speaking is the most “anxiety-provoking aspect in a second language learning situation” (Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999, p.420). Woodrow (2006) conducted a study on the conceptualization of anxiety in communicating in English, and the relationship between anxiety and performance in English, and the major causes contributing to second language anxiety. Results of this study revealed a significant negative relationship between second language speaking anxiety and oral performance, and interacting with native speakers was the major stressor identified in the study, while interaction with non-native speakers was not regarded as stressor within the majority of the sample.

F. *Defining the Concept of Narrative*

The concept of narrative was in vogue in the mid-1960, since at that time most of the attention has moved towards social communication. Labov and Waletzky (1967) defined narrative as “one method of recapitulating past experience by matching a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events that actually occurred” (p.20). As established by Labov (Labov, 1972, 1981; Labov & Waletzky, 1967), the typical narrative is that of personal experience. In addition, “cross-cultural studies (e.g. Chafe, 1980; Levi – Strauss, 1972) suggest that narrative is a fundamental and constant form of human expression irrespective of primary language, ethnic origin, and enculturation (Hazel, 2007, p.1). A further definition with regard to narratives is the one provided by Polkinghorne (1988) as “the fundamental scheme for linking individual human actions and events into interrelated aspects of an understandable composite” (p.13).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Questions*

The following research questions were formulated for the present study:

1. Do EFL learners’ anxiety symptoms and reactions depend on foreign language classroom anxiety?
2. To what extent do EFL learners attribute their foreign language speaking anxiety to the components of anxiety symptoms and reactions?

B. *Participants*

Participants of the study comprised 11 Iranian EFL learners studying English Language and Literature at the University of Guilan. They were all freshmen (5 males and 6 females) taking speaking course, with the age range of 18-22, and an average age of 20. It is worth mentioning that the participants were selected among 43 students comprising 20 males and 23 females based on the results of the FLCAS and also ACTFL guidelines in oral proficiency interview (OPI). Moreover, participants of the present study were selected through quota sampling, which selects students with those characteristics needed in the present study. It needs to be mentioned that considering the total number of ‘not very anxious’ and ‘slightly anxious’ students, sample selection was based on the proportion of a quarter number of males and females (43 students).

C. *Instruments*

The instruments utilized in this study consisted of FLCAS questionnaire, ACTFL speaking proficiency guidelines, picture stories for narrative tasks, and also direct class observation.

It can be said that all along the last three decades, the most popular instrument for measuring foreign language anxiety is Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz (1983), because of its high reliability and validity. “The scale has demonstrated internal reliability, achieving alpha coefficient of .93 with all items producing significant correlated item-total scale correlation. Test-retest reliability over eight weeks yielded $r = .83$ ($p < .001$)” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.129). FLCAS comprises 33 items and devotes specific items to communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and it tests anxiety as the basic components of foreign language anxiety. The FLCAS can be considered as a quantitative five-point Likert-scale questionnaire ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (See Appendix A). Therefore, the participants’ level of anxiousness could be analyzed statistically. As a whole, a quantitative questionnaire uses structured questions where one should choose an answer from the list or choose on a scale from, for example, strongly agree to strongly disagree. Consequently, this instrument was proposed to measure foreign language learners’ level of anxiety while learning a language in the classroom.

ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) proficiency guidelines for assessing speaking ability encompasses five key levels of proficiency including Distinguished, Superior, Advanced, Intermediate, and Novice. The explication of each major level is representative of a specific range of abilities. The major levels of Advanced, Intermediate, and Novice are subdivided into High, Mid, and Low levels. Generally, ACTFL proficiency guidelines can be utilized to evaluate speech that is interpersonal (interactive, two-way communication) or presentational (one-way, non-interactive). In the current study the presentational speech was explored.

Additionally, some picture stories were randomly chosen from one of the most widely known story books, namely¹ ‘Vater und Sohn’. Each story comprised of three to nine pictures which were clearly designed, obvious, and

¹The Persian translated versions of the books ‘Vater und Sohn band 1, 2 & 3’ are written by Jahanshahi(1982) in Iran.

understandable for description. The picture stories were piloted with three students having similar characteristics to the sample, and it was found that the students were able to easily understand and describe them.

Finally, Direct classroom observation was an important phase of the present study. In this way, it was possible for the researcher to observe anxiety symptoms and reactions through the participants' narrative tasks. According to Fox (1998, p.2) "observation doesn't just involve vision: it includes all our sense, although in practice sight and sound will be those which predominate in most researches". It can be concluded that observation can be regarded as a powerful instrument, to the extent that the researchers could attain an in-depth perception of their participants' performance. Fox (1998) additionally postulated that observation is not just recording of data gained from the environment, and observers are active data collectors. In fact, while observing in addition to our eyes and ears, our mind is also involved in the activity helping us to make sense of the objects and behaviors.

D. Procedures

The initial evidence gained from FLCAS scores revealed that the anxiety level of the participants in the current study ranged from 'Not Very Anxious' to 'Slightly Anxious'. An unexpected happening in the present study was that the researcher did not have access to 'Fairly Anxious' students and he had to select all of the main participants from 'Not Very Anxious' and 'Slightly Anxious' students. With due consideration of both the results of the placement test and also the FLCAS questionnaire, eleven students (5 males and 6 females) were selected as the sample of this study. Then, the speaking ability of these 11 participants was assessed on the basis of ACTFL speaking guidelines through conducting Oral Proficiency Interviews (OPIs), which was applied as a central tool for making the investigator more certain about the precise evaluation of the main participants' proficiency level.

The participants' speech performances throughout the semester were observed, and as the participants' characteristics were almost clearly known, 11 individuals were selected. As such, it was ascertained that the samples of the present research were all at the intermediate level of proficiency. In the meantime, the researcher used ACTFL guidelines in the oral proficiency interviews by asking the participants a specific question so that they started speaking. When their utterances were interrupted, the researcher asked some additional questions about the topic in order to continue the speech. The interview topics composed of some questions about daily issues, interests, and memorable moments. As such, all of the 11 participants talked about pre-determined topics. Based on the learners' utterances and using ACTFL standard criteria together with the level-base characteristics, it was realized that the participants were at the intermediate level of proficiency. It should be emphasized that the sampling was completely purposive, and all the final members were selected through Quota sampling. Salkind (2006) claimed that "Quota sampling selects people with the characteristics you want but doesn't randomly select from the population" (p.94). Another main point in the present study is that, the researcher not only tried to select the participants at the intermediate level, but also he had to select the participants who were at the two levels of anxiety out of the three available modes, including Slightly Anxious and Not Very Anxious levels, as mentioned before. Finally, the researcher had to integrate the two available groups as one group, because no significant quantitative difference between the anxiety scores of these two groups was found.

After the sampling, the investigator had already prepared some picture stories without the main text from the book 'Dad and Son' that was translated to Persian as the stories of 'Man-o-Babam'. The stories were randomly selected. The pictures used for the description task consisted of minimum three and maximum nine pictures for each story, which were arranged in a logical order. Before the participants began to speak, the pictures were given to them for about two minutes in order to take a look for preparation. Then, the assessor recorded their voice while they began speaking.

In the last step, the qualitative phase of the research was done through observing the anxiety symptoms existing in the participants' reactions. It is worth noting that only some of the anxiety symptoms and reactions could be observed, and some others could not be perceived and analyzed precisely. Thus, all the perceptible anxiety reactions observed by the investigator during the participants' narrative tasks were recorded in details. To perceive unobservable symptoms in participants, some questions were asked by the researcher in order to gain a precise understanding of cognitive reactions which might have existed in EFL learners' mind.

E. Analysis

As elaborated in the last step of the procedures section, observation comprised a significant part in the qualitative phase of the present study. With regard to the anxiety symptoms which existed in the participants' reactions, it was found that some of the anxiety symptoms and reactions could be observed, and some of them could not be perceived and analyzed precisely. Therefore, it was necessary to clarify the differences among these symptoms and reactions with respect to the provided models (See Figures 1 and 2).

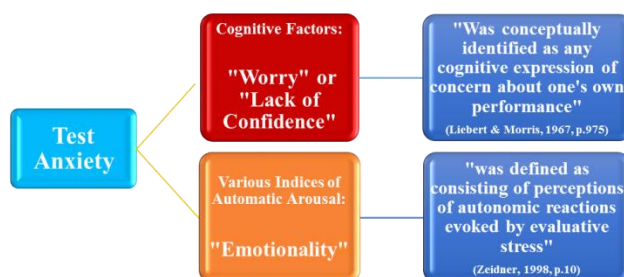


Figure 1. Test Anxiety Model (Liebert and Morris, 1967, P.975; Zeidner, 1998, p.10)

Based on the findings of previous studies (e.g. Woodrow, 2006; Zeidner, 1998), and as conceivably demonstrated by Liebert and Morris (1967), test anxiety can be divided into worry and emotionality. In the meantime, it is necessary to narrow down these two terms into a more comprehensive model as types of anxiety reactions and symptoms. As can be seen in Figure 1, anxiety reactions are composed of both worry and emotionality reactions. Worry consists of cognitive reactions such as ‘task irrelevant thoughts’ or ‘negative critical worrisome thoughts’ (Zeidner, 1998, pp.30-34). Emotionality, on the one hand, refers to physiological reactions such as ‘blushing’ or ‘racing heart’; on the other hand, it refers to behavioral reactions such as ‘stammering’, ‘fidgeting’, ‘procrastination’ or ‘avoidance behavior’ (Woodrow, 2006, p.310; Zeidner, 1998, p.30). The analyzed model is illustrated in Figure 2:

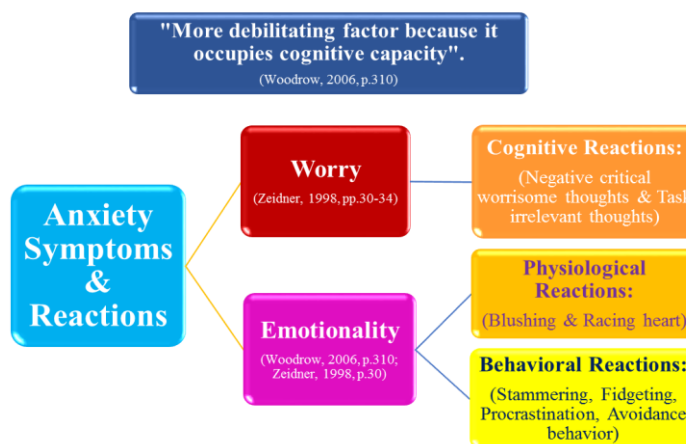


Figure 2. Anxiety Symptoms and Reactions (Zeidner, 1998; Woodrow, 2006)

IV. RESULTS

Before answering the research questions, an appropriate statistical technique should have been adopted to analyze the data. To accomplish this goal, and in order to conduct the normality test for the variables, both the Normal Parameters, i.e. mean and standard deviation, and the most extreme differences (Absolute, Positive and Negative) of anxiety scores average for both different and total groups as independent variable were calculated through Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Tables 1 and 2 demonstrate results of the normality test.

TABLE 1. ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR ANXIETY SCORE & THE RELATED ANXIETY SCALE

		Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)		
		Total Anxious Participants	Not Very Anxious Participants	Slightly Anxious Participants
N		11	7	4
Normal Parameters ^a	Mean	2.7373	2.4200	3.2925
	Std. Deviation	.48705	.21071	.23670
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.180	.128	.183
	Positive	.180	.128	.183
	Negative	-.103	-.102	-.160
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.596	.339	.365
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.869	1.000	.999

a. Test distribution is Normal.

TABLE 2.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR NORMALITY OF VARIABLES

Variable	N	Z	Significance Level
Total Anxious Participants	11	0.596	0.869
Not Very Anxious Participants	7	0.339	1.000
Slightly Anxious Participants	4	0.365	0.999

As shown in the tables, at the significance level ($p > .05$), the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (K-S) revealed that with the 95% confidence, the test distribution for not very anxious and slightly anxious participants is generally normal. Therefore, parametric tests could be used to analyze the data.

In calculating FLCAS for each participant, each participants' responses to all items were summed up (i.e. each scale including strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree and strongly disagree which represented scores of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, respectively), and then divided by total 33 items. It should be reminded that the total score for the 33 FLCAS items ranged from 33 as the minimum score to 165 as the maximum one. Figure 3 is illustrative of students' average FLCAS scores in relation to their level of anxiety.

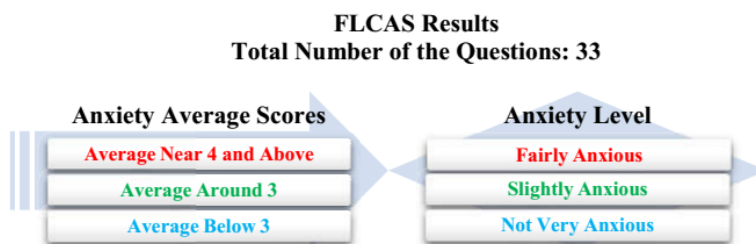


Figure 3. FLCAS Average Scores and Related Anxiety Level

Using the mean score of anxiety and nominal of anxiety with due attention to Figure 3, it is possible to measure the FLCAS of the learners. With regard to the both quantitative analysis of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and qualitative analysis of anxiety symptoms and reactions in the participants, all the information needed to answer the research questions are provided in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
ANXIETY SYMPTOMS AND REACTIONS – ANXIETY SCORES

Participants	Anxiety Symptoms & Reactions			Anxiety Scores
	Worry	Emotionality	Behavioral Reactions	
	Cognitive Reactions (Negative Critical Worrysome Thoughts or Task Irrelevant Thoughts)	Physiological Reactions (Blushing, Sweating or Racing Heart)	Behavioral Reactions (Stammering, Fidgeting, Trembling, Procrastination & Avoidance Behavior)	
Participant 1	●	✓ Sweating	✓ Stammering	3.03
Participant 2	●	✓ Blushing	✓ Trembling	3.57
Participant 3	●		✓ Fidgeting	2.36
Participant 4	●		✓ Stammering	2.75
Participant 5	●		✓ Stammering	2.57
Participant 6	●		✓ Stammering	2.12
Participant 7	●		✓ Fidgeting	2.39
Participant 8	●	✓ Blushing	✓ Trembling	3.39
Participant 9	●		✓ Stammering	2.51
Participant 10	●		✓ Stammering	2.24
Participant 11	●	✓ Blushing & Sweating	✓ Fidgeting	3.18

✓ Perceptible Anxiety Symptoms & Reactions
● Imperceptible Anxiety Symptoms & Reactions

After analyzing the quantitative data (i.e. FLCAS) and qualitative data (i.e. Anxiety Symptoms and Reactions), the research questions can be responded. Considering analysis of the FLCAS scores, as can be seen in Table 2 and 3, there were 4 participants who experienced a slight level of anxiousness; whereas, 7 participants were not very anxious. The initial analysis of anxiety symptoms and reactions revealed that cognitive reactions seemed not visible, whereas behavioral reactions were visible. Moreover, considering physiological reactions it can be perceived that some of them were observable such as blushing, while some others were not, for instance racing heart or palpitation. In this regard, in the present study observable anxiety symptoms and reactions were recorded. To perceive unobservable symptoms in participants, some questions were asked by the researcher in order to gain a precise understanding of the learners' cognitive reactions.

As is shown in Table 3, anxiety symptoms and reactions are categorized in two subclasses as 'worry' and 'emotionality'. 'Worry' encompasses cognitive reactions such as, negative critical worrysome thoughts or task-irrelevant thoughts. These cognitive reactions cannot be observed because they may pass through mind in a moment. Therefore, a question was asked from participants that whether cognitive reactions exist in their mind. All of the

students strongly asserted that cognitive reactions passed through their mind, especially before the oral presentation. With regard to what was mentioned above, it could be perceived that 'worry' existed among most of the students, while speaking a foreign language. Emotionality, on the one hand, comprises physiological reactions such as blushing, perspiration and palpitation, and on the other hand, it involves behavioral reactions such as stammering, fidgeting, trembling, procrastination, and avoidance behavior. According to Table 3, behavioral reactions including, stammering, fidgeting and trembling were found in all of the participants' performance. Therefore, behavioral reactions were the most obvious anxiety symptoms and reactions that occurred in the learners' narrative performance, rather than the cognitive and physiological reactions. About the physiological reactions, it can be postulated that they were found in the 4 most anxious students among the 11 samples. Thus, it was found that there were more anxiety symptoms and reactions among slightly anxious participants compared to not very anxious counterparts.

V. DISCUSSION

One of the main goals of this experiment was to attempt to differentiate between participants who experienced a slight level of anxiousness and those who were not very anxious in terms of anxiety symptoms and reactions which can be divulged in EFL learners' oral performance. With due attention to both quantitative analysis of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and the qualitative analysis of anxiety symptoms and reactions in the participants, the obtained results of the present study suggested that the more anxious they were, the more anxiety symptoms and reactions they produced and vice versa. This lends support to substantiates Hayatdavoudi & Kassaian's (2013) previous findings who claimed that "students with higher levels of language anxiety reported to suffer from higher levels of psycho-physiological tensions on oral performance" (pp.18-19). As can be seen in Table 3, EFL learners' anxiety symptoms and reactions can be influenced by the degree of foreign language speaking anxiety in the classroom for the participants with the higher scale of anxiety (i.e. Participants 1, 2, 8 & 11). To answer the first research question, it can be claimed that the existing amount of anxiety symptoms and reactions depends on foreign language classroom anxiety.

With respect to the second research question, the obtained results in divulging the components of anxiety symptoms and reactions by the participants through oral narration revealed that although cognitive reactions to classroom anxiety exist among all oral performers (lecturers, narrators and presenters), they are invisible in anxiety judgments. In addition, in this study physiological reactions were found in slightly anxious students during their performances. Finally, behavioral reactions to classroom anxiety were evidently found in all of the students. To put it more specifically, they were perceived in some students severely (Participants 1, 2, 8, and 11) since these students were perceived as slightly anxious. Additionally, these symptoms were found in some students with low a degree of anxiety (Participants 6, 10 and 3) since they were found to be not very anxious students.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study it was attempted to analyze different types of EFL learners' anxiety symptoms and reactions. It was shown that almost all of the behavioral reactions, i.e., stammering, fidgeting and trembling, regarding classroom anxiety were perceived in all the participants, but physiological reactions, i.e., blushing and perspiring were observed only in slightly anxious participants. Thus, classroom teachers can use these findings and distinguish more anxious students from the physiological signs displayed by them during oral narrative performances. The teachers can help their students by using appropriate strategies in order to diminish the classroom anxiety. As Young (1990) mentioned there are six potential sources of anxiety and one of the most important sources is teacher as handler of the classroom. Although teachers can be one of the main sources of classroom anxiety, they are able to use some strategies to alleviate learners' sense of anxiousness in the classroom. Additionally, students themselves can be counted as another main source of classroom anxiety. However, they are capable to reduce the existing amount of anxiety as much as possible through having more practice in oral narration and oral reproduction activities, before the start of their classes.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As most of the students are inevitably involved in affective variables during their education, it is necessary for teachers to be attentive to these variables. Thus, affective factors should be examined systematically in the future investigations. It is suggested that future investigators test foreign language anxiety symptoms and reactions with a larger sample in order to find the debilitating levels of test anxiety and find ways of helping test-anxious students become more effective in test or test-like situations. Particularly, video-recording with participants' permission is a more preferable idea because it can be helpful in investigating anxiety symptoms and reactions, i.e., behavioral and physiological symptoms and reactions, more precisely.

APPENDIX. FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS) QUESTIONNAIRE

Choose one of the following items for each question:

Name:

	(1) Strongly Disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neither Disagree nor Agree	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly Agree
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.					
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.					
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.					
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.					
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.					
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.					
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.					
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.					
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.					
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.					
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.					
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.					
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.					
14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.					
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.					
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.					
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.					
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.					
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.					
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.					
21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.					
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.					
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.					
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.					
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.					
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.					
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.					
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.					
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.					
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.					
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.					
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.					
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.					

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The Development of Indonesian Language Learning Materials Based on Local Wisdom of the First Grade Students in Sma Negeri 3 Palopo

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Abstract—This study was a research and development, with the aim of producing the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom. There were three steps in this research and development. The first was a preliminary study. It was the literature studies and field studies. The second was the development study starting from analyzing the development of learning materials, the design of the initial product (prototype), and the development of Indonesian learning materials based on local wisdom. The third was an evaluation. It was conducted to test the effectiveness and feasibility of the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom. The data of test results show that students' average score reaches 82.31 from 30 students who were tested. The highest score is 87.70, and the lowest score is 73.60. Of the 30 students who worked on the student worksheet, there are 25 students (83.33%) who have a very high score category, and five students (16.67%) are in the high score category. Based on the learning outcomes regarding the mastery standard of the class namely 75%, the data show that students' work has been completed because there are 90% of 30 students who have reached the mastery standard of the class. Therefore, the use of Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom is feasible and suitable to be applied in accordance with the level of capabilities and characteristics of the first-grade students in SMA Negeri 3 Palopo.

Index Terms—learning materials, local wisdom, and High School students

I. INTRODUCTION

The development of learning materials is a design of activity or learning experience, which refers to the principles of true learning. The learning activities not only instill the attitude, knowledge and skills but also to transform attitudes, knowledge, and skills into a competency. In the activity of transforming attitudes, knowledge, and skills, many teachers have problems in that activity, and it affects the teaching and learning process that is not maximal in the classroom. Therefore, teachers should develop learning materials before they perform teaching and learning activities in the classroom.

The development of Indonesia language learning materials that is intended in this description is the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom. Local wisdom based learning is learning that utilize local wisdom. Asmani, (2012, p. 29) suggests that local wisdom is something that characterizes regionalism which includes aspects of the economy, culture, information technology, communications, ecology and so on. This study aims at developing Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom in senior high school. As a matter of learning the Indonesian language, then the Indonesian language learning is based on science, while learning materials are based on local wisdom. The theoretical benefits of this research are to enrich the science, especially Indonesian language learning in senior high school based on local wisdom. There are two practical benefits of this research. The first is to be a guide for teachers to develop Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom. The second is to increase the competence and interests of students in Indonesian language learning which can achieve maximum learning success.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Theory of Language Teaching*

The linguists have different views on language learning. The differences were due to their opinion of the nature of language. Among their point of view, there are conflicting, but some are mutually supportive and complementary. Therefore, every teacher should have the skills in selecting learning strategies for each type of learning activity. According to Nunan (1991), in the process of language learning, learners need a strategy both top-down and bottom-up. The top-down strategy focuses more on messaging and text structure as a whole. The bottom-up strategy concentrates on the aspects of oral and written messages, such as phonemes, graphemes, basic words, and grammatical elements that are required to understand either oral or written delivered message. Here, the author will discuss the theory of first language teaching, namely structural and transformational generative on second language teaching theory is known as the theory of Krashen.

1. *Structural theory*

The structural theory is pioneered by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), and it is developed by Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949). Ferdinand de Saussure explains the nature of language and differentiates between thinking and sensory aspects. He also explains the relationship between the formula of language and meaning. The language will not be meaningful if the speaker and the listener are not able to understand. Furthermore, Bloomfield (in Kushartanti, 2005, p. 216-217) reveals that in giving the language, the language must be away from the size of speculative and mentalistic.

Some key points of this theory according to Majid, (1981, p. 22- 23) are as follows.

- 1). The ability of language is acquired through habituation, training, and strengthening.
- 2). The language starts from speech or oral communication.
- 3). Each language has its own system that differed from the other language.
- 4). Each language is a complete system for expressing native speakers.
- 5). Each language has always followed the changing times.
- 6). The source of standard language lies in the mother tongue of speakers.
- 7). Indeed, exchange thoughts, ideas, and communication among people are the ultimatum goal of language.

2. *The transformational-generative theory*

This theory was pioneered by Noam Chomsky, American linguist, who emerged around 1957. This theory found that every speaker must have knowledge of the rules of language and knowledge of language skills. Furthermore, Chomsky (1957) suggests that language proficiency can be divided into two kinds of competence and performance. Competence is the knowledge of the language system which includes syntax, morphology, phonology, and semantics. Performance is utterances that can be heard or read that is the original utterances.

3. *Krashen theory*

In the process of language acquisition, Krashen explains the five hypotheses to be considered in second language learning. The fifth hypothesis is as follows (1) The Acquisition-Learning hypothesis, (2) the Monitor hypothesis, (3) the Input hypothesis, (4) the Natural Order hypothesis, (5) and the Affective Filter hypothesis. (Indihadi, 2007, p. 17-20).

B. *Approaches in Indonesian Language Teaching*

The approach is a set of assumptions that handles correlative nature of language teaching and learning. The researchers applied an axiomatic approach. The approach provides the essence of the subject being taught. Approach refers to a theory about the nature of language and language learning theory that became the basis for the principles and practices of language learning. Cahyani, (2011, p. 89) suggests that the approach is a theoretical basis for such a method.

1. *Communicative Approach*

Tolla, (nd, p. 12) suggests that the communicative approach requires language learning materials to be served with themes that are exposed above the discourse so that the linguistic component is not disjointed.

Thus, the communicative language teaching approach aims at establishing communication competencies, not merely shaping linguistic competence. Therefore, in language teaching, students are guided to be able to use the language in various contexts of communication, not to know about the language.

2. *Integrated Language Teaching*

Nielsen (in Putrayasa, 2006, p. 6-7) states that an integrated approach is a learning approach that is deliberately linking aspects of inter- and inter-subject areas so that students acquire knowledge and skills as a whole and simultaneously in a meaningful context. Therefore, the size of the integration in an integrated learning is that the learning is performed consciously, deliberately, purposefully, and systematically that can help children to understand a specific topic or general idea from all sides.

3. *Process skills approach*

Process skills approach is an approach to language learning to develop students' potential in the process of language, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Santoso (2004) reveals that the process skills approach provides greater opportunities for students to engage actively and creatively in the process of language acquisition.

4. *Contextual Approach*

Contextual approach is conducted with the involvement of seven major components, namely constructivism, questioning, inquiry, learning community, modeling, reflection, and authentic assessment (Nurhadi, 2004, p. 31).

C. *Theory of Language Learning*

1. *Behavioristic Learning Theory*

The behavioristic theory is a theory proposed by Gage and Berliner about changes in behavior as a result of the experience. Behavioristic theory views that learning is a change in behavior. A person is considered to have learned something if he or she had been able to demonstrate a change in behavior. According to Budiningsih (2012, p. 22), learning is a process of interaction between stimulus and response, but the response to the stimulus that is intended must take the form of behavior that can be observed and measured.

2. *Nativist Theory*

This theory emerged from the philosophy of nativism as a form of philosophical idealism, and this theory generates a view that children's development is determined by heredity, inborn, innate and natural factors. The pioneer of the theory of nativism is Arthur Schopenhauer. He was a German philosopher who lived from 1788 to 1880. This theory argues that the development of the individual is determined by innate since he or she was born. Environmental factors are considered less influential on the development and education of children. The nativist view is sourced from Leibnizian Tradition, a tradition that emphasizes the ability of a child. The development results are determined by inborn and genetic of both parents.

3. *Cognitive Theory*

This theory holds that the learning process would be meaningless if the learning materials learned by the students are connected to the knowledge that has been owned by the students in the form of cognitive structure (Ausubel in Budiningsih (2012, p. 43). Thus, the new information must be customized and linked to the knowledge that has been owned by the students to make the process of learning becomes meaningful. The task of the teacher is to show the relationship between things that are being studied and the things that have been known to the students.

4. *Constructivist Theory*

Experts claim that constructivism learning environment strongly supports the emergence of various views and interpretations of reality, construction of knowledge, as well as other activities that are based on experience. Budiningsih (2012, p. 60) states that constructivism is reached because the reality is there on one's mind.

D. *Instructional Material Development*

1. *Definition of learning material*

Learning material is one component of the learning that has a critical role and should receive a major portion of interest in learning. Learning materials is the knowledge, skills and attitudes that must be mastered by the student to meet the defined core competencies (Mulyasa, 2006). Furthermore, learning materials is a set of learning components that are arranged systematically, to show the unity of competencies which students will learn in learning activities (Minister of National Education, 2008).

2. *The position and function of learning material*

Learning material is a leading position of curriculum content. Richards (2001, p. 113) suggests that the curriculum places emphasis on the intrinsic value of learning materials, and it is instrumental in developing the intelligence of students, human values, and rationality. Therefore, learning materials should be prepared to provide a learning experience as a whole to the students to develop the attitudes, skills and knowledge that are required in learning.

3. *Guidelines in selecting learning materials*

Knowledge has a broad scope and has a various type. Therefore, before determining what material will be presented to the students, the step that should be held by the teachers is selecting the learning material based on certain guidelines. Some guidelines are intended. The first is the material adjustments to the objectives and competence. The second is the adjustment to the subject matter or discussion topics. The third is the material adjustments to the method that has been selected. The fourth is a material adjustment to the media. The fifth is the material adjustment to the needs of students. The sixth is the material adjustment to the environment. The seventh is the material adjustment to the allocation of time.

4. *Steps in selecting learning material*

Ministry of Education (2006) suggests that the steps in choosing learning materials are as follows:

1). Identifying the aspects contained in the core competence and basic competences

Before determining the learning material, aspects of core competencies and basic competencies that must be learned or mastered the students need to be identified. These aspects need to be determined because every aspect of core competence and basic competences requires the kind of material of different learning activities. Every aspect of the core competencies requires learning materials or teaching materials that are different to help the achievement.

2). Identifying the types of learning materials

In line with the different kinds of aspects of core competencies, (Hamalik, 2003) states that learning materials can also be divided into some types of material into the aspects of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. These three aspects will be described as follows.

(1). cognitive aspects in detail can be divided into four types, namely: fact, concept, principle, and procedure. These four types will be described as follows.

a. The fact is material in the form object names, place names, people's names, symbols, historical events, names of parts or components of an object, and so forth. For example, the types of drama and theater.

b. The concept is in the form of understanding, definition, the essence, and the core content. For example, the characteristics of drama and theater.

c. The principle is in the form of arguments, formulas, and paradigms. For example, the development of drama and theater writing.

d. The procedure such is in the form of steps to do things sequentially. For example, writing step development of drama and theater.

(2). Learning materials with the affective aspects include giving a response, reception (appreciation), internalization, and assessment. For example, showing a scientific attitude during the discussion.

(3). Learning materials with motoric aspects consist of an initial move, semi-routine, and routine. For example, compiling reports on the characteristics, types, and the development of drama and theater.

3). Selecting the type of material in accordance with core competence and basic competences

Select the type of material in accordance with the core competencies that have been determined. The thing that also needs to be noted is the amount or scope sufficient so that it can facilitate students in achieving core competencies. Based on the aspects of core competencies and core competencies that have been identified, the next step is selecting the type of material in accordance with aspects contained in the core competencies and basic competencies. The materials that will be taught need to be identified whether the materials are included in facts, concepts, principles, procedures, effective, or integrated type of material.

4). The principle of developing learning materials

The purpose of preparing learning materials is to facilitate teachers and students in the learning process.

Department of Education (2008) notes some basic principles of material development as follows.

(1). The first is relevance. It means that learning materials should be relevant to the achievement of core competence and basic competence. If the expected ability to be mastered by the students is in the form of memorizing facts, then the learning material that is taught must be a fact, not a concept or principle or any other kind of material.

(2). The second is consistency. It means that if the basic competencies that must be mastered by the students consist of four competencies, then the kinds of material that should also be taught have to include four kinds of the competencies.

(3). The third is adequacy. It means that the material that is taught should be sufficient to help students to master the basic competencies. The material should not be too little, and should not be too much. If the material is too little, then it does not help the students to achieve the maximum core competence and basic competence. On the contrary, if the material is too much, then it will result in a delay in the achievement of the curriculum.

Based on the description above, it can be concluded that the Indonesian language learning materials need to be developed after examining the curriculum, especially the aspect of competence that has been determined.

5. The types of learning material

The types of learning material can be classified as follows:

1. The fact is everything in the form of reality and truth including the names of objects, historical events, symbols, place names, people names, the names of the components of an object, and so on. For example, describing the aspects of identity that will be introduced.

2. The concept is everything in the form of new definition that could arise as a result of thought, including the definition, understanding, special character, essence, core, content, and so on. For example, selecting and using the proper greeting words.

3. The principle is the form of the main things, the principal, and has the most important position, covering proposition, formula, adage, postulate, paradigms, theorems, and the relationship between concepts that describe the implications of causation. For example, the principle of the development of drama and theater writing.

4. The procedure is systematic steps in doing an activity and chronology system. For example, the describing the contents of introductions in the right order by using proper language.

5. The attitude or value is the learning outcomes that describe the aspects of attitudes such as the value of honesty, compassion, mutual help, enthusiasm, and interest in learning and work. For example: using the language style with polite speech (MONE, 2008, p. 3-4).

E. Learning Materials Based on Local Wisdom

Learning materials based on local wisdom or PBKL is learning that utilize local wisdom. It is a regional characteristic that includes the aspects of regional economic, culture, information and communication technology, ecology and others which are useful for the development of student competence. (Ministry of National Education, 2008).

The concept of the development of local wisdom refers to some potencies such as:

a. Natural resources potency

According to Asmani, (2012, p. 33) natural resources potency is the potency which exists in the earth and is beneficial to human survival and the surrounding community. Natural resources potency is the potency that is inherent in the earth, water, and sky that can be utilized for various purposes of life.

b. Human Resources potency

Human resources (HR) is defined as human beings with their potencies that can be harnessed and developed to become social beings who are adaptive and transformative, and were able to empower the potencies of the surrounding nature equally and sustainably (Wikipedia, 2006) and Asmani, (2012, p. 36).

c. geographical potency

Geographical potency covers formal objects and material objects. The formal object of geography is the geosphere phenomenon consisting of the Earth's atmosphere, weather and climate, lithosphere, hydrosphere, biosphere, and anthroposphere. Assessment and utilization of local wisdom in the geographical aspect is very typical because this approach requires the study of geography.

d. Historical Potency

Local wisdom in historical concepts is a potential history in the form of relics of ancient objects and traditions that are still preserved today. Historical concepts that are utilized as an inherent local wisdom are the heroic sons of the soil. For example, Andi Jemma as a national hero who came from Luwu and had high patriotism, powerful spirit, honesty, firmness, and others will not only be a matter of local content but also can be one of the important factors in the development of character education.

III. METHOD

A. The Types of the Research

This study was a research and development (R & D) by applying some stages as demonstrated by Borg and Gall (2003) and Sugiyono (2008).

B. Research Design

The research design that combines Model of Borg and Gall & Sugiyono can be described in figure 1

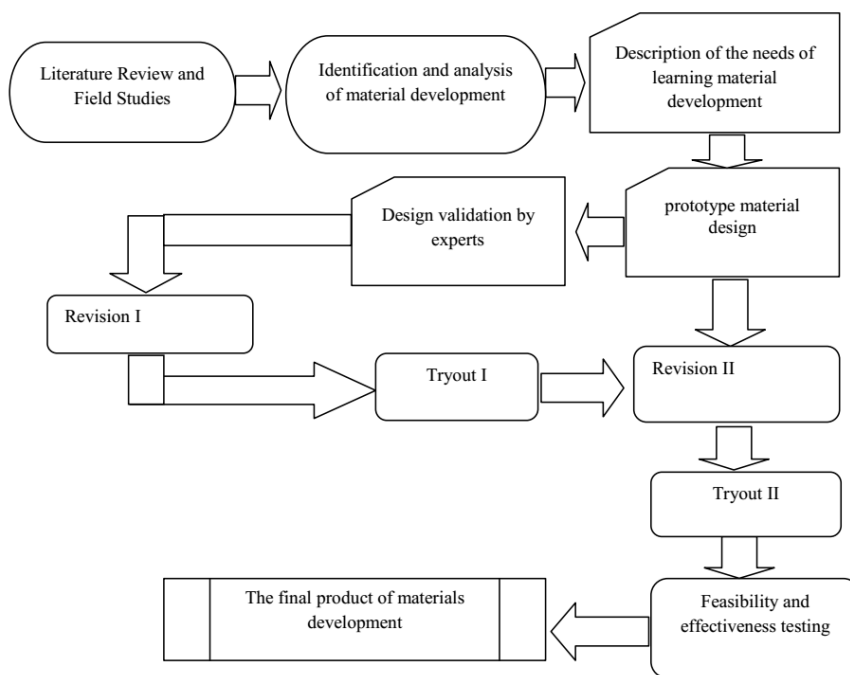


Figure 1. Research Design

C. The Location and the Subjects of the Research

This research was conducted at SMA Negeri 3 Palopo which was subjected to a trial implementation of Curriculum 2006 in the academic year 2014/2015, in Palopo. The subjects of this study are the first grade students class X-3 SMA Negeri 3 Palopo, in the academic year 2014/2015.

D. The Sources of Data

This research data is derived from (1) the process of the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom, such as *durian, sagu* (sago), *cocoa, kapurung, maccera tasik, rambutan, dan Andi Jemma, dan jagung* (corn);(2) the validation of the developed learning materials, and (3) the implementation of the development of learning materials in the classroom.

The data consisted of oral and written data. The oral data were obtained from the verbal suggestions and criticism about the product revealed by linguists of Indonesian language learning materials development based on local wisdom, design expert of learning materials, practitioners (teachers), and students. The written data were in the form of a

correction, feedback, suggestions directly written on the product obtained from language learning expert, design expert of learning materials, practitioners (teachers), and students.

E. Techniques of Data Analysis

Data Analysis for the Validation of Learning Materials

Validity is determined using the method proposed by Gregory (in Hisham, 2011, p. 18), by calculating the average of the validation of all the validator for each criterion according to the following formula:

$$\bar{K}_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n v_{ij}}{n}$$

Data Analysis for the Feasibility of Learning Materials

a. Recapitulating the results of observations in terms of the feasibility learning material development into a table that includes: aspect (A_i) and criteria (K_i).

b. Finding out the mean for every aspect of observation for each meeting with the following formula:

$$\bar{A}_{mi} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \bar{K}_{ij}}{n}, \text{ in which:}$$

\bar{A}_{mi} = the mean of aspect i meeting m ,

\bar{K}_{ij} = observations on aspects i criteria j ,

n = the number of criteria in the aspect i .

c. Finding out the mean for each observation for n multiplied by meeting with the following formula:

$$d. \text{ Finding out the mean for each observation aspect } n \bar{A}_i = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^n \bar{A}_{mi}}{n},$$

e. Applying the category of the validity for each criterion or aspect or whole aspects by comparing the mean criteria or mean aspect (\bar{A}_i) or mean total (\bar{X})

Data analysis of teachers' activities in managing teaching and learning process

The determination of the data analysis of the teachers' activities in managing teaching and learning process refers to the categories of teachers' activities that have been set as the following table.

TABLE 1.
THE CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS IN MANAGING LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Interval	categories
$3,5 \leq AG \leq 4$	Very High
$3,0 \leq AG \leq 3,5$	High
$2,5 \leq AG \leq 3,0$	Fair
$1,5 \leq AG \leq 2,5$	Low
$AG < 1,5$	Very Low

Data analysis of Students' activities in teaching and learning process

a. The frequency of the observation of student's activities for every indicator in one meeting is specified. Furthermore, the mean of the frequency is determined for several meetings

b. To finding the percentage of the frequency of each indicator, it is conducted by dividing the amount of frequency and the number of frequencies for all indicators. Then the result of the division are multiplied by 100%. Furthermore, the mean of the percentage of time for several meetings is sought, and it is included in the average percentage of the table. The criteria used is the technique of categorization standards set by the Ministry of education and culture.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. The prototype of the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on lodom of the first grade students in SMA Negeri 3 Palopo

The prototype of the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on the local wisdom of the first-grade students in SMA Negeri 3 Palopo is designed through some steps such as defining, designing, developing, and disseminating. He results of validation prove that the initial design is declared invalid only by one assessment so that there are a little revision and improvement of the validator.

After the design is declared valid, the next step is testing the model. The requirements to be met on testing the model is the practicality of learning materials. The practicality of learning materials is measured based on the feasibility of learning and the management of learning activities. The measurement of the feasibility and management of learning

activities is observed by two observers who have been selected to observe ten meetings of local wisdom based learning in class X-3 SMA Negeri 3 Palopo.

The feasibility of the study proves that the result of the mean score for ten times of the meeting is declared fully implemented. It means that the learning materials that have been conceived and developed are eligible to be used because the appropriateness values are in the range $3.0 < M < 4.0$ (implemented entirely). The intended aspect that is the relationship between learning material and the learning process based on local wisdom has been conducted entirely with the score of 3.45. The aspects of teaching material supports towards the achievement of objectives are also entirely accomplished with the mean score of 3.20. The aspect of applying the learning materials based on local wisdom has been conducted entirely with the mean score of 3.05. The development of learning materials that are relevance to local wisdom is also conducted entirely with the mean score of 3:25. In addition, the aspect of exercise intensity in accordance with the achievement of the objectives has been accomplished entirely with the mean score of 3:25.

Learning management during ten meetings shows a satisfied result. The results of teacher activities assessed by two observers are almost perfect, which reach 3.81 of the maximum rating score that is 4.00. It indicates that there is almost no constraint experienced by teachers in Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom in class X SMA Negeri 3 Palopo. It shows that all teachers feel comfortable with the Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom. It is proved that at all the stages of learning can be performed well. In addition, the success of teachers is also supported by excellent student responses during the ten meetings.

2. The effectiveness of the Indonesian language learning materials development based on local wisdom of the first-grade students in SMA Negeri 3 Palopo

The development of learning materials based on local wisdom is effectively applied in class X SMA Negeri 3 Palopo. It is based on the process and results of the use of learning materials in class X during the ten meetings that are ended with a test. In the process of learning by using learning materials based on local wisdom, it shows that the students are active and enthusiastic in following the learning activities. The students' activeness and enthusiasm positively affects the results of tests given at the end of the meeting in which the students can get high mean scores to the limit of the minimum criteria of mastery learning (KKM).

In the aspect of the students' activities where the students listen and pay attention to the information and explanations of teachers, there is a significant improvement in which the percentage of the first meeting is 69.99%, and the last meeting is 93.33% (very high category). Likewise, the aspects of listening and comprehending the material and concepts through Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom are also improving. In the first meeting, the percentage is only 70%, and in the last meeting, it becomes 90%. The aspects of responding the teacher's explanations, either by asking questions, giving advice, and giving comment are also increasing. In the first meeting, the percentage is only 66.66%. However, it improves significantly in the last meeting in which the percentage is 93.33%. The percentage of students' activities in reading, understanding, and trying to resolve the problem on the student activity sheet or exercises is only 71.66%. However, there is a significant improvement in the last meeting in which the percentage becomes 88.33%.

Furthermore, the percentage when the students discuss with friends, either by asking questions, giving advice, or expressing opinions in the first meeting is only 74.99%, and it increases in the last meeting in which the percentage becomes 91.66%. A significant improvement also occurs in the students' activities in communicating the answers in class discussions based on the guidance of a teacher and making a summary and conclusions of the materials studied in which the improvement is starting from the percentage of 66.66% to 91.66%. There is also a significant improvement of the other students' activities such as arranging themselves in groups, opening a program, receiving students' worksheet, asking for help from the teacher, and receiving homework. The high activity of students makes them busy. Even, they are rarely out of the classroom. They also do not do other activities outside tasks, such as not paying attention to the teacher's explanations, working the assignment from other subjects, or doing activities that are not related to teaching and learning process (sleeping, chatting, and daydreaming).

Thus, the students' activities in Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom in class X SMA Negeri 3 Palopo is very high. The student activities during the ten meetings show the increased graphs in all indicators of learning activity. The improvement displayed by the students from the first meeting until the last shows the compatibility between learning materials based on local wisdom and the students' character in learning. It means that the teaching material is suitable and appropriate to the class X-3 SMA Negeri 3 Palopo by viewing the conditions and situations that create students' who is active, creative, and fun in learning activities.

The high students' activities are in line with the test results. The data of test results show that the mean score of the students reaches 82.31 from of 30 students who were tested. The highest score is 87.70, and the lowest score is 73.60. Of the 30 students who worked on the student worksheet, there are 25 students (83.33%) having the score in the very high category, and there are five students (16.67%) are in the high category. It is stated that no students get a score in the medium, a low and very low category in doing exercises in students' worksheets. It indicates that students can understand the material based on local wisdom.

When measuring based on the completeness or achievement of KKM, then the percentage of the results of the students' work on the worksheets is as follows. There are 27 students (90%) with the 75 or more. It means that their score has been completed. In addition, there are three students (10%) who get an uncompleted score. Based on the

learning outcomes about the standard score the class which is 75%, it is stated the data of students' work has been meeting the standard because there are 90% of 30 students get the standard score.

Therefore, the use of teaching materials based on local wisdom is eligible and suitable to be applied in accordance with the level of capabilities and characteristics of the first-grade students in the class X-3 SMA Negeri 3 Palopo.

3. The views of teachers and students about the development of Indonesian Language Learning in Class X SMA Negeri 3 Palopo

The development of learning materials based on local wisdom is feasible if it is considered that gives a positive contribution to the improvement of learning. The teachers can implement and manage the learning well, and the students can follow the learning process actively so that the results are achieved in accordance with the curriculum targets. Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom in senior high schools according to the teachers needs to be taught. The teachers view on the aspect of knowledge and the introduction of local wisdom. If the local knowledge is not taught at secondary school level, it will be even harder to understand their local wisdom when students graduate in senior high school. Not all students continue their education to university so that the media to understand the local knowledge will be breaking down.

It is important to teach the learning materials based on local wisdom for the purpose of introducing and cultivating the character values that are integrated into local wisdom. The materials that are based on local wisdom certainly contain many exemplary values for students. This value is believed to be not fully understood by the students in senior high school today. Therefore, the learning material based on local wisdom is necessary. The learning materials based on local wisdom aim at promoting a social phenomenon, culture, religious, and other aspects of local community life.

For students, the Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom is something new. However, it has a variety of wisdom so that it is worth studying. According to students, by studying the learning materials based on local wisdom is an initial way to understand and recognize the wisdom and the values of local wisdom that have been less instilled in the younger generation.

Learning materials based on local wisdom according to the students are something that should be taught in schools because it can attract and motivate to study the Indonesian language materials earnestly. Most of the students stated that they are very motivated by the Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom. It is due to the suggestion of its own to study the phenomenon of the area that has been packaged in learning materials. The interest and motivation of students toward learning the Indonesian language based on local wisdom are due to some issues related to the local wisdom that has not been known until now.

Students respond well to learning the Indonesian language based on local wisdom because it can challenge them to explore the knowledge of local wisdom in the region. According to students, the materials that have been presented in the student books and worksheets are an exploration process to a variety of local wisdom that is only known by the students in general. Students only remember the types and forms of local wisdom without elaborating the charge values. In fact, the students can understand the structure of the land area of Luwu, the condition, and character of the community, and its history.

4. The feasibility of the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom in the first-grade students in SMA Negeri 3 Palopo

After the product design is declared valid, then try out is conducted to determine the feasibility of the development of learning materials based on local wisdom. Whether or not the product is feasible is determined by teachers and students responses about the quality of the materials based on local wisdom that has been designed. The teacher gives a positive respond about the learning materials that have been used in Indonesian language learning, including students' books, students' worksheets, lesson plans. The teachers report that the students' books that have been used are already fit to be used because they have a range of material that is in accordance with the conditions of students. They have the linguistic structure and content that are easily understood by focusing on indigenous phenomena. Through the texts presented in the textbooks, the students can get to know and understand the wisdom of the region. Similarly, a worksheet can measure students' competence in accordance with the expected standards.

In the preparation of lesson plans, the learning materials are also very suitable to be used because they are in accordance with the pattern and the systematic preparation of the lesson plan. It is in conformity with the curriculum which contains the identity of the school, standard competence, basic competencies, indicators, objectives, learning materials, approaches, models, learning techniques, tools, instructional media, learning steps, resources and assessment. The feasibility of lesson plan is supported by a choice of approaches existing in it, which is a contextual approach to cooperative setting. A contextual approach is an approach of the learning process that is in accordance with the conditions of the school and the needs of learners.

The feasibility of the use of learning materials based on local wisdom is based on students who stated that this material is exquisite. Most of the students indicated that they were happy because they are easy to understand, and are interested in Indonesian language learning in which the content of the learning materials tells about their region. In addition to being able to understand more closely on regional knowledge, the students are also expected that the local wisdom can be introduced to an entire generation or students in Luwu through teaching materials in schools.

These learning materials recommended by the students because they feel that the materials are not difficult to learn. The presentation of the content is clear and well understood. The other factor that influences the students in

recommending the use of learning materials based on local wisdom is the systematics of the matter and issue presented in the students' book and students' worksheet that can be understood. In addition, its steps can be followed by students easily. Thus, they do not get many problems in working the students' worksheet. Similarly, the material and questions that are presented in the students' books and worksheets can be understood by students. The models and design in writing books and worksheets are also quite appealing to students. The students are more eager to learn if the learning material is designed as attractively, colorfully, and interestingly. The design of learning materials based on local wisdom has become an attraction for the students to learn.

V. CONCLUSION

The prototype of the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on the local wisdom of the first-grade students in SMA Negeri 3 Palopo is designed through some steps such as defining, designing, developing, and disseminating. The effectiveness of the development of the Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom in class X SMA Negeri 3 Palopo is measured by the results of the activities and student learning outcomes. The results showed that the activities of Indonesian students in learning based on local wisdom in class X SMA Negeri 3 Palopo are very high. According to teachers, Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom in senior high schools need to be taught as a medium of imparting knowledge and introducing local wisdom. In addition, through learning materials based on local wisdom, it can lift the phenomenon of social, culture, religious, and other aspects of local community life. For students, the Indonesian language learning based on local wisdom is something new.

However, it has a variety of wisdom that deserves to be studied. According to the students the learning materials based on local knowledge are an initial way to understand and recognize the wisdom and values of local wisdom that has been less instilled in the younger generation. In addition, local wisdom based learning according to the students is something that should be taught in schools because it can attract and motivate to study the Indonesian language learning materials earnestly. In fact, students can understand the structure of the land area Luwu, Luwu condition and character of the community, and its history. The feasibility of the development of Indonesian language learning materials based on local wisdom in class X SMA Negeri 3 Palopo is based on the recommendation of teachers and students.

Student books, worksheets, and lesson plans as learning materials based on local wisdom used by teachers have been eligible to be used it because they have a range of material that is in accordance with the conditions of students. They have the linguistic structure, and the content is easily understood by lifting indigenous phenomena. Through the texts presented in the textbooks, students can get to know and understand the wisdom of the region.

These learning materials are recommended by the students because they do not think that they are difficult to learn the materials. The presentation of the content is clear and well understood. Another factor that influences students in recommending the use of teaching materials based on local wisdom is the systematics of matter and issue presented in the students' book and worksheets that can be understood step-by-step. Likewise, with the material and questions presented in the students' books and worksheets can be understood by students. The models and design of students' books and worksheets are also quite appealing to students. Students are more eager to learn if the teaching material is designed attractively, colorfully, and interestingly. The design of learning materials based on local wisdom has become an attraction for students to learn.

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The result of his marriage with Dra. Hj. Sahawati was blessed with a daughter namely Sehe Zukhro Ulfiah. The two men this is what makes the author motivated doing everything that's best for the family.

He worked his way up as a lecturer (Honorary) on STKIP Tjokroaminoto Palopo (1991). He was appointed CIVIL SERVANTS (1992) in an environment of region IX Kopertis Sulawesi and was employed at the STKIP in action, now University of Tjokroaminoto Tjokroaminoto Palopo.

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The seminar has ever followed among others: as presenters on the training of writing scientific papers and the Program of student Creativity (2007) in Palopo, as presenters at the Workshop Theatre (2007) in Palopo, as participants of the Seminar development of College-based Internal and external Quality Assurance in the Sulawesi region IX Kopertis (2011).

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The Writing Performance of Iranian EFL Learners in the Light of Metadiscourse Awareness

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Abstract—In the framework of language teaching, the writing skill requires to be encouraged during the language learners' course of study. Since metadiscourse markers help transform a tortuous piece of text into a coherent and reader-friendly one, knowledge about the metadiscourse, amongst other things, is used to improve writing skill. The current study aimed to investigate the influence of instruction of metadiscourse markers on intermediate EFL learners' writing performance by using metadiscoursal taxonomies proposed by Hyland (2005). For this purpose, a pet test was administrated to 60 intermediate students in Iran Language Institute in Urmia. Having being homogenized by Preliminary English Test (PET), they were assigned randomly into two groups. Both the control and the experimental group sat for a pretest of writing test in the form of a cloze test which aimed to measure the learners' initial knowledge of writing performance. The experimental group was exposed to explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers for seven successive sessions. On the other hand, the control group didn't receive any instruction. Eventually, a post test designed to evaluate their writing ability with the focus of metadiscourse markers was administered to both groups. The findings implied generally that the implementation of metadiscourse markers (via instruction) significantly improves EFL learners' writing ability.

Index Terms—metadiscourse awareness, interactive resources, interactional resources, writing performance

I. INTRODUCTION

Regarding the communicative framework of language teaching, the skill of writing is specialized through the notion that it needs to be encouraged during the language learners' course of study. Although it has been regarded the most difficult aspect of language teaching, it can easily reflect the learners knowledge of language in combining the sentences nonverbally. According to Jalilifar (2008) regarding English as an international language and its extensive use, a large number of second or foreign language learners are involved in academic aims requiring them to write well. Via writing a person communicates a variety of messages to his/her readers. In order to deliver meaning to the reader and set the writer's goals, the skill of writing is a highly involved process requiring the use of a range of linguistic material which is thoroughly explained within following lines. NNSs (Iranians, according to the present study) must struggle hard to produce acceptable writing. Canagarajah (2002, p. 12) states, "we shouldn't be surprised that L2 students fall short when L1 writing is treated as the norm or point of reference" According to Grice's (1975) Cooperative Maxims, the writer must attempt to write a clear, relevant, truthful, informative, interesting and memorable text. Producing coherent discourse requires the integration of what the writers already know with information from other sources. In the process of writing, by means of using the conventions of spelling and grammar, writers formulate their own thoughts, organize them, and create a written record of them. Mastery of vocabulary and grammar rules is of great importance in producing grammatically correct sentences, but not sufficient to help learners produce meaningful sentences which respect coherence (coherence suggests that the ideas in the writing hold together) in pragmatic level and cohesion in Semantic level (Dergisi, 2010). Writers are required to consider that grammar and discourse function together and they must use cohesion appropriately. One of the fundamental factors to be focused is that planning to write a well-organized text requires taking cohesion and coherence into consideration. The organization of sentence of a text or a written discourse is not as simple as putting up bricks one upon one, there are some relationship between those sentences. Halliday and Hassan have considered a text as "not just a string of sentences. It is not simply a long grammatical unit, something of the same kind as a sentence, but differing from it in size, a sort of super sentence, a semantic unit"(1976, p:291). In the skill of writing, in order to show the logical or semantic relations between the previous information and

the following one, MD is a priority applied in connecting the sentences and paragraphs effectively which results in facilitating readers' interpretation of the whole discourse effectively. (Ali et al, 2012)

According to Williams (1981) Zelling S. Harriss in 1959 was the first researcher who coined the word "metadiscourse" and his aim was to elaborate on text elements playing some role in conveying the information of the text. Knowledge about the metadiscourse, amongst other things, is used to improve writing skill. The term "Metadiscourse" (MD) has been defined in a number of ways by various researchers. In some definitions, it is remembered as the language that writers use to refer to themselves, their readers, or their writings. Metadiscourse is discourse about discourse, intended to direct rather than inform readers (Williams 1981). In the process of writing, an interaction takes place between the writer and the reader which is called metadiscourse and is defined by Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993, p.40) as "linguistic material in texts, written or spoken, which does not expand the propositional content, but that is intended to help the listener or reader to organize, interpret, and evaluate the information given". Crismore (1993) and Vande Kopple (1985) emphasizes that MD has a special feature that signals the presence of the writer. Crismore et al (1993) further added that metadiscourse helps both readers and listeners to "organize, interpret and evaluate the information given" (p.40). Vande Kopple (1985) categorized MD into two main domains—textual and interpersonal. The interpersonal, helping writers express their personalities, their evaluations of and attitudes toward ideational material function, is the use of language to put interaction into codes, allowing us to engage with others, to take on roles and to express and understand evaluations and feelings. The textual function is the use of language to organize the text itself, coherently relating what is said to the words and to others. Interpersonal domain shows what role in the communication situation they are choosing, and indicates how they hope readers will respond to the ideational material (Vande Kopple 2002, p: 2-3). The textual domain equips writers with propositions to be used in a cohesive manner and the interpersonal helps writers in such a way to convey their feelings toward the given propositions. The textual MD is exemplified through the use of text connectives and code glosses while the interpersonal MD is realized through the use of illocutionary markers, validity markers, narrators, attitude markers and commentary. Regarding other proposed classifications of metadiscourse, Crismore's (1984) classifies metadiscourse into two broad common types with subtypes for each one: informational and attitudinal. Informational metadiscourse makes it possible for readers to understand the primary message by referring to its content and structure or to the author's goals. On the other hand, attitudinal metadiscourse directs readers to an understanding of the author's perspective toward the content or structure of the primary discourse. The subtypes of them are mentioned below as,

- a. Informative (a. Goals b. Pre-plans c. Post-plans d. Topicalizers)
- b. Attitudinal (a. Saliency b. Emphatics c. Hedges d. Evaluative)

Williams (1981) has classified metadiscourse into three general types: Advanced organizers (including the preliminary and final statements or summaries), Connectives (specification of structure of relations in the content structure), and Inter personal discourse (pointer words).

The advantages of metadiscourse lie in the fact that it allows authors to make some announcements to the readers. These announcements can change the subject (Let us now turn to, ...) imply a conclusion (as a result), stating something with or without certainty (surely, possibly), indicating an important idea (it is important to note...), defining a term (by x I mean...), introducing a difficult line of thought (This is a difficult notion...), pointing out the existence of a reader (You will remember that...), showing cause or other relationships between ideas such as contrast (therefore, but).

However, Hyland (2005) classifies metadiscourse into two broad types including subtypes; the interactive (instead of textual) one which helps the reader through the text and the interactional one (instead of interpersonal) which gets the reader involved in the argument. Attended to Hyland's (2005) definition, Hyland's types of metadiscourse is interesting to be used in the present study.

Various results have been revealed through research on the impact of metadiscourse on writing. Metadiscourse is considered to be an effective strategy for improving writing and a means to render textbooks more considerate and reader friendly (Cheng and Steffensen 1996, Crismore 1984, Hyland 1998 & 1999). Knowing that reading and writing often draw from the same pool of background knowledge, Jalilfar and Alipour (2007) conducted a study which resulted in a positive effect of form-focused instruction of metadiscourse on the learners reading comprehension skill. Simin (2004) investigated the influence of metadiscourse knowledge on student writing and significant differences were found in metadiscourse use across different levels of proficiency. Baring in mind the effective presence of MD markers in the texts, Parvaresh (2008, later published under Nemati & Parvaresh, 2008) investigated the effect of metadiscourse on the comprehension of texts in both English and Persian. His questionnaire results suggested that when Iranian EFL learners have problems understanding a text (whether English or Persian), it is the presence of metadiscourse which can help them both comprehend and remember the propositional content of the text more effectively. Khorvash (2008) investigated the differential impact of explicit instruction of types of metadiscourse on Iranian EFL learners' achievement in reading comprehension. Analyses of the post-tests revealed a positive effect for instruction in metadiscourse. Amiri (2007) examined whether metadiscourse consciousness raising had any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' improvement of writing skill. The results represented that the experimental group conducted by metadiscourse consciousness raising procedure produced essays possessing higher grades than those in the control group. Amiri believes that metadiscourse is an effective rhetorical device for writing because it integrates a reader centered approach with a text-centered approach by giving adequate attention to the text. Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010)

investigated the effect of explicit teaching of metadiscourse markers on EFL learners' writing ability at three levels of advanced, intermediate, and elementary. They found that explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers significantly increased EFL learners' writing ability at three levels (as cited in Hashemi, khodabakhzade, and Shirvan, 2012). Asadi (2012) investigated the effect of discourse markers on the essay writing of EFL learners to determine whether the use of DMs instruction results in a better writing performance of the Iranian L2 learners. The results of the study revealed that there was a significant difference in the participant's posttests of writing scores.

Despite the fact that, within the past years, there has been an increasing interest in the theoretical status of MD (metadiscourse markers) on their function, meaning and actually what they are, fewer studies have been contributed to language pedagogy and the impact of metadiscourse on skills of writing. Judging from the reviewed works thus far, it can be concluded that MD plays an important role in creating cohesion and coherence. Therefore, the objective of this study is to inquire the effects of instruction of metadiscourse on the writing performance of EFL learners.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

The study poses the following research question and null hypothesis:

Q: Does instruction of MD have any significant influence on the learners' writing performance?

HO: Instruction of MD doesn't have any impact on the learners' writing performance.

III. PARTICIPANTS

The population from which the participants were selected for this study included female Iranian intermediate EFL learners in Iran Language Institute famous for I.L.I. in Urmia. Two intact classes were chosen and in a random way assigned into experimental and control groups. The participants were in the age range between 15 and 21. Meanwhile, in order to meet the homogeneity of the participants, a Preliminary English Test (PET) was applied. An independent samples t-test was run in order to get a meaningful guarantee for the homogeneity of the participants' proficiency level ($t(18) = 1.16$ $p = .28 > .05$).

IV. DESIGN

The study applied a quasi-experimental design to investigate the effect of instruction of metadiscourse markers on the writing performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Instruction of metadiscourse markers was considered as the independent variable and the participants writing was as the dependable one.

V. INSTRUMENTATIONS

Regarding instrumentation, it must be stated that the study employed the following instruments:

(1) The Preliminary English Test (PET):

It was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of their level of language proficiency.

Moreover, before conducting the treatment, in order to check the performance of both the experimental and control groups in writing performance,

(2) a pretest of writing:

Before conducting the treatment, in order to check the performance of both the experimental and control groups in writing performance, a test in the form of a cloze test was administered. After the treatment stage, (3) a posttest of writing performance:

Following the treatment stage, a test which was actually the equivalent version of pretest was administered to both groups to check whether there was any significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

VI. PROCEDURE

Having being homogenized by Pet test, the participants in both experimental and control groups were given a pretest of writing performance in the form of a cloze test before treatment in order to check their initial performance. The experimental group (EG) received explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers for seven sessions. In each session, definitions and examples of some types of MD markers proposed by Hyland (2005) were taught and introduced. Regarding the aim of the study (investigating the effects of MD markers instruction on the learner's performance), the control group (CG) was not instructed in MD markers. The treatment procedure was followed by a posttest of writing which was applied in order to see the effect of MD awareness on the learners' writing performance. (Learners in both groups were given a posttest of writing). Fifty minutes was the allocated time for this test. The participants' scores on the pre-test and posttest were then compared to spot the level of improvement of each group.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

In order to provide an answer for the research question regarding the influence of instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing performance, the researcher employed an independent samples t-test to

analyze the pre- and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups.

VIII. RESULTS

Through gathering and analyzing the result of posttest statically, providing the answer to the proposed research questions was possible. The present study was an effort to find evidence for the effects of explicit instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing performance.

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the participants' pre- and post-test of writing performance.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE- AND POST-TEST OF WRITING PERFORMANCE BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	std	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test				
Experimental group	30	17.45	1.63	.35
Control group	30	17	1.56	.31
Post-test				
Experimental group	30	19.37	2.24	.68
Control group	30	17.21	1.96	.50

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the cloze test scores for experimental and control groups in pretest. As Table 2 demonstrates there was no significant difference for experimental group ($M = 17.45$, $SD = 1.63$) and control group ($M = 17.00$, $SD = 1.56$; $t(37) = -.170$, $P > .05$). This indicates that the performance of the experimental and control groups on the writing performance test was not different in the pretest.

The reason for which an independent sample t-test was run lay in the purpose of finding whether the treatment procedure implemented to the experimental group had any significant impact on this group. In other words, an independent samples t-test was applied to detect any statistically significant difference between the performances of the two groups. As it is shown in Table 1, the mean score for the experimental group ($M = 19.37$) is higher than that of the control group ($M = 17.21$). The results of the independent t-test ($t(37) = -7.30$, $P = .000 < .05$) indicate that there is a significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the posttest of writing test (Table 1). Therefore, the null-hypothesis (the instruction of MD markers does not influence the writing performance of Iranian EFL learners) is rejected.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRE- AND POST-TEST OF WRITING PERFORMANCE

Levene's Test for Equality of variances	Levene's Test for Equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean differences	Std. error differences
	F	Sig.	t	df			
Pre-test							
Equal variance assumed	1.383	.367	-.170	37	.880	-.48	.04
Equal variance not assumed			-.170	36.876	.880	-.48	.04
Post-test							
Equal variance assumed	29.753	.000	-7.302	37	.000	-2.12	.18
Equal variance not assumed			-7.302	21.54	.000	-2.12	.18

IX. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The major findings on the basis of data analysis are presented as follows: The findings reveal that explicit instruction of MD markers in Iranian EFL courses resulted in improvement of learners' writing performance. This strongly corresponds to the studies of Cheng and Steffensen (1996) and Intraprawat and Steffensen (1995) referring to the statement that students' writing is improved when they are equipped with an awareness of textual metadiscourse. The findings are also in line with Simin and Tavangar's (2009) statement that, "metadiscourse instruction has a positive effect on the correct use of metadiscourse markers" (p. 230), though their study didn't report explicit teaching of metadiscourse markers to their participants. The findings also corresponded to the studies of Simin (2004) and Amiri(2007) who agreed on the positive effect of metadiscourse knowledge on student writing. This result supported Crismore's (1985) claim that MD awareness has been of great importance in foreign/ second language teaching classrooms. In the sense of effective presence of MD, findings are also in line with Parvaresh (2008) who investigated the effect of metadiscourse on the comprehension of texts in both English and Persian. His questionnaire results suggested that when Iranian EFL learners have problems understanding a text (whether English or Persian), it is the presence of metadiscourse which can help them both comprehend and remember the propositional content of the text more effectively. Khorvash (2008) investigated the differential impact of explicit instruction of types of metadiscourse on Iranian EFL learners' achievement in reading comprehension and revealed a positive effect for instruction in

metadiscourse which is correspondent to the result of the present study. The other corresponding result is the study conducted by Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010) who investigated the effectiveness of teaching of metadiscourse markers on EFL learners' writing ability including three levels of advanced, intermediate, and elementary which led to significantly increased writing ability at all three levels through the implementation of explicit instruction of metadiscourse makers. Another study conducted by Asadi (2012) investigating the impact of discourse markers in the essay writing of EFL learners represented a better writing performance of the Iranian L2 learners.

The purpose of the present study was to shed light on the positive impact of explicit instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing performance. The findings implied that learners in experimental group performed better than control group. The results of this study provide some implications for second language teachers. In order to motivate the learners to produce more suitable and coherent texts, teachers are required to raise the learners' awareness toward MD markers and consequently become perceptive writers. The findings of the study can be employed by syllabus designers and material development. In other words, providing appropriate texts containing MD markers for learners of different language proficiency levels is of great importance.

However, there are certain delimitations in this study. First, this study is limited to intermediate level. Investigations for elementary and advanced levels of proficiency to infer some generalizations can be more investigated. It must not be ignored that the participants were chosen from I.L.I (Iran Language Institute, Urmia branch), so the findings cannot be generalized.

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Applicability of Peer-dynamic Assessment in Crowded Second Language Classes

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Abstract—One of the criticisms leveled against Dynamic Assessment (DA), with a robust theoretical foundation rooted in Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), has been its applicability in populated L2 classes. The present paper, therefore, aimed to explore the applicability of Peer-Dynamic Assessment (Peer-DA), as a novel approach to DA, to ameliorate this concern. In order to achieve the goal, 15 fourth-grade female Iranian high school students, aged 15-17, were assigned into trios groups. After having been instructed to know how to apply Peer-DA procedures in their groups during three sessions, they worked on ten reading texts during ten one-hour sessions held twice a week. When the participants were trying to comprehend the texts and learn the embedded vocabulary within the texts, their interactions were meticulously audio-recorded. Next, a number of episodes were selected, transcribed, and microgenetically analyzed. Analyzing the obtained revealed that not only does Peer-DA have the capability for diagnosing developing abilities but it also can improve the developing abilities in a much more efficient way. More importantly, it was demonstrated that if the principles and procedures of peer-DA be taught to L2 learners, they can be utilized by learners in large classes to facilitate language learning processes. The implications of the present study were discussed from a sociocultural perspective for both ESL/EFL teachers and learners.

Index Terms—zone of proximal development, peer-dynamic assessment, microgenetic analysis, reading comprehension, vocabulary learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Dynamic Assessment (DA) is essentially based on the sociocultural theory (SCT) introduced by the famous Russian psychologist, L. S. Vygotsky (1978). While studying the development of children's mental abilities, Vygotsky observed that what a child is able to do independently only represents a partial picture of the child's full ability, because the child can do more when just a bit of assistance, or mediation, is offered by a more capable person. According to Vygotsky (1987), what the child is able to do independently represent a view of the child past development, but what the child is able to achieve with mediation provides insight into his/her upcoming development. Vygotsky refers to the distance between what a child can independently carry out and what s/he can accomplish with mediation as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Interaction in the ZPD, for Vygotsky, was a way of predicting a child's future development and a way of cultivating and nurturing the developing abilities.

According to Poehner (2009), Vygotsky believed that instruction must not be concerned with fully developed abilities but it must operate within the ZPD to optimally promote learner development.

"Since teaching depends on immature, but maturing processing and the whole area of these processes is encompassed by the zone of proximal development of the child, the optimum time for teaching both the group and each individual child is established at each age by the zone of their proximal development" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 204).

Thus, the ZPD was taken as a theoretical foundation for dialectic integration of instruction and assessment by Vygotsky himself and Vygotsky-informed research. The corn stone of Vygotsky-informed approach to instruction is that effective instruction involves assessment, and effective assessment involves instruction; they are dialectically integrated (Poehner, 2009). In other word, both of them are united together to help learners diagnose and redress their problems through teacher peer mediation.

To put it in a nutshell, Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) defined DA as a type of assessment that takes the result of an intervention into consideration. In the intervention, the examiner assists the examinee how to perform better on individual items or on the test as a whole. The final score may be a learning score representing the difference between pre-test and post-test score, or it may be the score on the posttest alone (Lantolf & Thorn, 2006). That is to say, it attempts to modify the student's performance during testing by introducing material or instructions to elicit higher achievement levels (Embreston, 1987).

As mentioned earlier, DA is largely rested on the Vygotsky's conceptualization of ZPD which tries to capture human unique potential to exceed beyond his/her existing capabilities in cooperation with others whose dialogic interaction mediates him to higher levels of cognitive functioning . As it can be inferred, human social interaction is vital for

shaping and nurturing current becoming capabilities “because cognition emerges through engagement with others” (Poehner, 2009, p. 472). This stance is best manifested in the concepts of intermental and intramental functioning. To Vygotsky (1978), every cognitive function initially is co-constructed at social plane when people are involved in interaction with others human beings or cultural artifacts, and then this co-built knowledge is internalized at intramental or intrapsychological level. Accordingly, verbal interaction, especially dialogic, is conceived of as a mediatory tool through which learners are assisted and pushed toward self-regulation. Anton (2003) underscores that involving in dialogic interaction can best set the scene for learners to actively participate in their development and teachers are afforded with optimal opportunities to supply their learners with the assistance tuned to learners’ actual lacks and needs. However, to achieve the higher levels of ability based on ZPD, two general approaches, interactionist and interventionist, have been proposed to fine-tune the required assistance to learner’s current levels of developing capabilities.

Interactionist DA follows Vygotsky’s tendency for dialogic interaction. In this approach, assistance emerges from the interaction between the mediator and the learner; it is, therefore, highly sensitive to learner’s ZPD. This approach finds its origins in Vygotsky’s qualitative interpretation of the ZPD; one that foregrounds instruction-learning over static and reliable measurement. One of the leading proponents of interactionist DA is Reuven Feuerstien (Feuerstien, Rand, & Hoffman, 1979) whose main theory is the Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) - a construct reflecting Vygotsky’s understanding of mediation. In MLE model, the stimulus-response is altered so that the learner is interacting with more competent peer or teacher who assists the learner in a way by selecting, changing, amplifying, and interpreting the objects with the learner through mediation. On the other hand, the interventionist DA tends to follow a quantitative approach, and so it lends itself more easily to a psychometric orientation. Poehner (2008) states that the defining characteristics of intervention DA is the use of standardized administration procedures and forms of assistance in order to produce easily quantifiable results that can be used to make predictions about future performance. It is currently implemented as a pre-test - mediation (intervention) - post-test experimental approach. The role of teacher is interactive, collaborating with the student to affect change in the skill being assessed.

However, in spite of the considerable body of supporting evidence for the efficacy of DA, some criticisms were leveled against its applicability in engaging whole group’s ZPDs; more specifically, it was postulated that DA approaches are only productive in tutorial sessions, or what is dubbed as “rickshaw” model (Poehner, 2009). Reacting to the criticism, Poehner (2009) drew upon Vygotsky’s original conceptualization of ZPD in public schools and introduced group dynamic assessment (G-DA).

Group-based and one-to-one DA procedures, in fact, follow the same general principal of offering learner mediation to help them co-construct a ZPD, but they differ in that G-DA must also consider the group’s ZPD. G-DA entails understanding the group to be not merely a context for individual performance but a social system in its own right that might be supported to function in ways that are beyond the present capabilities of any individual member. G-DA then must engage the group in an activity that no individual is able to complete independently but for which all members require mediation, although at different levels and quantities. Of course, the forms of mediation needed may vary from learner to learner at any given point in time (Poehner, 2009). The vital point to bear in mind is that for G-DA to effectively promote the development of all group members, the teacher must actively engage the whole group in G-DA interactions. However, it may be claimed that the procedures of one-to-one DA and G-DA be applied in groups of L2 learners where the students can provide appropriate mediations for their peers.

II. EMPIRICAL STUDIES

A study concerned to DA and reading comprehension conducted by Kozulin and Grab (2002) in which they developed an interventionist approach to DA. The results of their study indicated that the procedure is both feasible and effective in obtaining information on students’ learning potential. It was approved that students with a similar performance level demonstrate different, and in some cases dramatically different ability to learn and use new texts comprehension strategies. One interesting aspect of their work was the manner in which they reported the outcome of the DA procedure. Rather than generating a qualitative report of each learner’s performance for all stages of the study they presented the learners’ abilities with a single score which they themselves called Learning Potential Score (LPS) which is the difference between the learners’ pre-test and post-test scores.

Another study carried out by Anton (2003) utilized DA as placement procedure. In this study participants were asked to construct orally past tense narratives after watching a short video clip. This time the learners received no feedback or mediation. They were then shown a second clip and asked to repeat the task, but this time the assistance of the mediator who offered suggestions, posed questions, made correction and helped them think through decisions making. After approximately six weeks of instruction, the participants were re-administered the original independent and mediated narration tasks in order to check their progress. The result indicated that there was a significant advance in their oral performance.

One of seminal studies of van Compernelle and Williams (2013) was on G-DA in the language classroom in which they explored the notion of active reception during small-group collaborative interaction in the foreign language classroom, focusing on the embodied participation of a secondary (nonspeaking) interactant, Dian, their subject. They argued that within a small-group work ZPD can be formed in which students pool their collective resources to push the

group's developing understanding of a problem or task while at the same time the individuals potentially benefited from the group work. The result revealed that active reception has the potential to help learner develop analytic ability.

In the Iranian setting, few studies have recently been carried out. Birjandi, Estaji, and Deyhim (2013), for example, tried to investigate the impact of DA on reading comprehension and metacognitive awareness of reading strategy use in intermediate learners at private institutes. An interventionist approach was employed and the procedure of pretest-treatment (mediation) -posttest was administered. After analyzing the obtained data, it was found that DA has a positive effect on improving reading comprehension but there was no improvement in metacognitive awareness strategy. One of the criticisms may be levelled at this study was that it was quantity-based and ignored qualitative perspectives. That is; it was not able to show how DA can improve the learners' reading comprehension in classroom context. More importantly, it was not clear whether the students in the experimental group could equally benefit from the provided mediation through DA intervention.

Finally, another study was carried out by Hashami, Ketabi, and Barati (2015), who selected as their focus the listening comprehension of a group of participants with diverse English proficiency levels. Iranian EFL learners at three proficiency levels participated in the study and multi assessment procedure in the form of dynamic and non-dynamic pretest-enrichment phase-dynamic and non-dynamic posttest was conducted. During the nine-week group dynamic assessment procedures, mediational strategies were only given to the experimental groups. The quantitative data analysis revealed that through mediated interactions within the group's ZPD, G-DA is able to determine the learners' developed abilities in listening comprehension while at the same time support the development of individual learners in this skill. Moreover, it was found that the level of proficiency of the learners did not have a significant effect on learners' gains from G-DA procedures.

Despite the contribution of the aforementioned studies, there are still very few studies examining the efficacy of peer DA on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in EFL classroom context at public high schools in a qualitative dimension. Therefore, in order to fill in the gap, the present study aimed to examine whether peer DA in classroom has significant impacts on students' reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in small group at high school level. In addition, there was an attempt to show how partners could assist each other to overcome comprehension problems and internalize the word meanings. Finally, an attempt was made to apply a microgenetic analysis on the collected data, which has recently received attention in SCT research and it has been demonstrated to be helpful to achieve a more comprehensive picture of learning. Furthermore, it was investigated if a more detailed account of the student's strengths and weakness could be provided by using DA approach to assess their reading and vocabulary knowledge, so, it is expected that whether DA could provide more precise and detailed information about reading comprehension skill and word meaning which are considered to be important for Iranian English learners, especially at high school levels.

To meet the objectives of the current study, the following questions were raised:

1. How may informed peer-DA contribute to co/constructing reading comprehension gains?
2. How can informed peer-DA assist learners to co/building vocabulary knowledge?

III. METHOD OF THE STUDY

A. *Setting and Participants*

Fifteen female fourth-grade high school students aged 15-17 participated in the study. This research was, in fact, run in the setting of "Fatemato Zahra" state high school in Khoram Abad, Iran. Of particular note is that the participants have been learning English as a foreign language only in their regular schools. For them, English course is obligatory within high school schedule and they receive two hours of instruction per week. The focus of their classes is mainly upon reading comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary; indeed, they hardly ever use English for communication purposes and they never work on listening comprehension activities. It is noteworthy that an attempt was made to form triples comprising a student from low, average, and high level of proficiency. This step was taken to let students benefit from collaboration and interaction with more capable peers. Finally, one of the researchers well-familiar with using principles and procedures of DA run both the training and instructional sessions.

B. *Instrumentation*

The employed instrument consisted of ten passages selected from *Active Skills for Reading* (Anderson, 2009). Concerning the criteria for choosing the passages, the passages were in harmony with students' proficiency and their native culture.

C. *Procedure*

Before implementing the mediational sessions, the students were divided into five groups, trios. At the onset of the mediation phase, in order to further prepare the students to carry out peer-DA in the classroom, three training sessions were run by one of the researchers during which he tried to instruct them on the principles of SCT, DA, and peer-DA. In addition, they were asked to observe the pilot study in which trios were employing peer-DA to a reading comprehension task. The teacher and students watched some sections of the films and discussed the way each group was collaborating and exchanging feedback. The researcher tried to direct their attention to the moments when students were following principles of DA to feedback. Further, the situations in which the students failed to follow peer-DA rules were

highlighted by the researcher. In fact, he assisted learners through graduated feedback to discover the violations of DA principles to appropriate feedback. The researcher approach to instructing DA was itself revolved around feedback qualities from SCT-informed principles; that is, the feedback was graduated, dialogic and contingent.

After the three preparatory sessions, the intervention was conducted for ten sessions. Each session lasted an hour to work on a passage and the target vocabularies embedded in them. More precisely, at the outset of each session, the teacher provided a brief introductory on the topic of the passage and he tried to activate the students' background knowledge by asking questions concerning the topic and directing the students' attention to the existing picture accompanied the texts. Afterwards, the students were asked to team up and to work on the passage. The students collaboratively made endeavor to understand the main topic and the meaning of difficult words. When an error raised the participants attempted to scaffold each other. They, precisely speaking, used Davin's framework in an interactionist way; that is, by providing contingent and graduated support in the form of question, hints, and prompts (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). The students employed the five prompts as follows in order:

- Prompt 1: pause with skeptical look
- Prompt 2: repletion of entire phrase by student
- Prompt 3: repletion of specific site of error
- Prompt 4: force choice option
- Prompt 5: correct response and explanation is provided

The process of graduated feedback, from implicit to explicit, continued until all problems with different aspects of reading comprehension and vocabulary were rectified. In line with Davin (2013), the students were allowed to use both L1 and L2 to avoid misunderstanding. It is worthy of note that all mediation sessions were audio-recorded and a number of episodes were selected, transcribed, and microgenetically analyzed.

D. Data Analysis

In order to analyze the obtained data, a microgenetic analysis approach was used. Microgenesis, according to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), as a data analysis approach, is utilized to show how developments occur over the course of a specific interaction in a particular setting. Thus, interactions occurred among the students were recorded, a number of them were transcribed carefully, and analyzed to see how the students assisted one another during working on the passages. That is; it was investigated to show how the offered mediations by the students assisted their peers to comprehend a part of passage or to discern the aspects of the embedded vocabulary most specially meaning.

IV. RESULTS

The first research question intended to track changes in reading comprehension in lieu of collaborative dialogues conducted based on Peer-DA procedures among the students. In the following, some episodes from learners' moment-to-moment dialogues are microgenetically analyzed to unravel such undertaken processes.

Episode 1

If you have Internet Addiction Disorder (IAD), you

- a) Are online for an hour a week
- b) Send e-mail message at work
- c). Are on the Internet more than with friend

After reading and working on the passage, the students answered the follow-up questions which measured the comprehension.

1. Simin asked her partner about the answer of the above question.
2. Nazanin said "I think choice *b* is correct."
3. Leila looked at her surprisingly and said "read the passage again".
4. Nazanin read the passage but she couldn't yet find the answer.
5. Leila said "Read the second paragraph".
6. Nazanin read it but she was again unsuccessful.
7. Simin read the fourth and fifth sentences meticulously.
8. Nazanin guessed "if to spend means not to save so choice *c* is correct."
9. Leila said "very well done. You found it."
10. Nazanin: "Thanks for your help".

When students were engaged in mastering the passage their interaction was audio-recorded and transcribed. This interaction occurred among three students of a group whose pseudonyms were Simin, Leila, and Nazanin. After reading the question, Simin tried to measure her partners' understanding by raising a question about the correct choice. Nazanin thought that choice *b* is true. Since Nazanin's answer was not correct, Leila encouraged her to read the passage again. After reading the text, Nazanin could not yet find out the correct response. So, Leila attracted her attention to the second paragraph and wanted Nazanin to read it more meticulously. As Nazanin was again unable to reach the intended comprehension, Simin pointed to the third and fourth sentences to provide more explicit feedback. After receiving more explicit guidance, Nazanin by guessing the meaning of "spend" could find the correct choice and said that *c* is correct. Finally, Simin and Leila confirmed and applauded her attempt.

Episode 2

In Morocco people often use to eat food.

- a) small potatoes b) spoons c) bread

After reading the statement...

1. Fatemah guessed that choice b is correct.
2. Maryam looked at her skeptically and says "why do you think so?"
3. Fatemah responded that because most people nowadays use spoon to eat food.
4. Sadaf smiled softly and said "that's not correct. Read the passage again meticulously."
5. After skimming the text, Fatemah couldn't find the intended concept.
6. Maryam pointed to the third paragraph and said "the point is here".
7. Fatemah said "aha, choice c is right. They use bread to eat."
8. Maryam and Sadaf told her jointly "well done, you found the correct way".
9. Fatemah thanked her partners.

This episode like the previous one investigated how peer-DA can assist learners to achieve higher level of understanding when students are working collaboratively on a passage. This interaction occurred between three students whose pseudonyms were Fatemah, Maryam, and Sadaf. After reading the item measuring learners' comprehension about an important concept of the passage, Fatemah said that since most people often use spoon to eat, choice *b* is the intended response. Maryam looked at her skeptically to show that her answer was not correct, that is, Maryam implicitly indicated that Fatemah's response should be changed. Fatemah justified her answer that these days most people often use spoon to eat. But Simin urged her to skim the passage to discover the answer. As Fatemah could not discover the intended concept, Maryam guided her to the second paragraph and similarly made her feedback more explicitly. After reading the second paragraph more meticulously, Fatemah loudly expressed that choice *c* is correct because people use bread to eat food in Morocco. This episode revealed that Fatemah was able to reach the intended answer by using Peer-DA.

Episode 3

"Computers are good tools. The Internet is good too."

1. Zeynab asked her partner for the meaning of "tool".
2. Nazanin read the sentences and said "I don't know".
3. Leila pointed to the computer in class and said "It is a tool. Got it?"
4. Nazanin replied "you mean that they are a kind of machine?"
5. Leila responded "Yes, of course they are machines, but that is not my purpose. For example, pen, book, punch, and marker are tools as well".
6. Nazanin said "aha, I understand. Tools means vehicle, am I right?"
7. Leila told "well done, that's it."
8. Nazanin gave an example "mobile is a useful tool for distant communication."
9. Leila smiled softly to her partner's success.

This episode is related to the second research question investigating how informed Peer-DA can assist learners to co/build vocabulary knowledge. This interaction took place among three students whose pseudonyms are Leila, Nazanin, and, Zeynab. This episode was audio-recorded when the learners were struggling to understand the meaning of the text which was about the effects of the Internet on human being. As it is clear from the episode, after reading the sentence, Zeynab asked about the meaning of the word "tool" which is a key word in understanding the sentence to examine whether her partners did get its meaning. Nazanin read the sentence and said that she didn't know the required meaning. Leila helped her to understand the meaning of the intended word by pointing to the class computer and said that it is considered as a tool. In response, Nazanin said that you mean that computers are machine. As Nazanin was unable to get the meaning, Leila offered more explicit mediation by giving an example. After receiving this more explicit prompts, Nazanin could get the meaning and by giving a synonym "vehicle" she demonstrated that she understood the word meaning. Her partners confirmed her success by applauding her.

Episode 4

And learning doesn't stop when you graduate from high school or college.

1. Fatemah said that I didn't know the meaning of "graduate from". That means "to be tired?"
2. Maryam looks at Fatemah surprisingly and reads the sentence word-by-word.
3. But Fatemah doesn't understand the meaning of the word again.
4. Sadaf gives an example "If I graduate from high school, I will get a job."
5. Fatemah said "It means "pass not fail?"
6. Maryam said "No, the opposite is start. Got it?"
7. Fatemah read the sentence precisely and said "aha, that means finish".
8. Maryam said "bravo. You're right."
9. Fatemah thanked her partners for patience and guidance.

This episode has been selected from three students whose pseudonyms are Fatemah, Maryam, and Sadaf. The students are engaged in learning vocabulary of a passage which was about long life learning. After reading the above

sentence, Fatemah didn't understand the meaning of "graduate from" and so, she guessed its meaning as "to be tired". In order to implicitly show her that it was not correct, Maryam looked skeptically to her and read the sentence word-by-word. But again Fatemah couldn't understand the intended concept. Sadaf took an example to make the meaning of the word more explicitly. Next, Fatemah made a guess "pass not fail". In turn, Maryam gave the opposite of the word to assist her partner. Next, after reading the sentence again, Fatemah said the synonym of word "finish" to demonstrate her understanding. Her partners confirmed and appraised her success. Fatemah repeated the word and the synonym and opposite and thanked her peers. As can be observed, Fatemah's peers give her an indirect feedback and gradually make their guidance more explicit to promote collaboratively her knowledge of the key word.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

One of the issues that should be taken into account is that merely describing language performance does not provide sufficient opportunity to draw clear conclusions or offer effective recommendations. The obtained information of assessment may provide this opportunity and make it feasible to reveal reasons behind language learners' poor functioning, as well as, suggest efficient pieces of advice. To this aim, the present study examined the facilitative impact of Peer-DA intervention on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning of a number of Iranian high school fourth-grade students. More precisely, the first research question concerned how informed Peer-DA may contribute to co-construct reading comprehension gains. As shown in the above episodes, informed Peer-DA may have an effective impact on improving language learners' reading comprehension when employed in group activities. The findings of the study indicated that not only can Peer-DA have the potentiality to diagnose the learners' difficulties but it also may enhance them much efficiently. That is to say, when the students were working collaboratively on the passages to comprehend the main concepts and answer comprehension questions, they were able to diagnose each other's problems and remove them by using the procedures of Peer-DA. For example, when a misunderstanding raised, the students somehow rectified it by offering contingent and gradual prompts for their peers. As getting the topic and comprehending a text requires the learner to pay conscious attention to different perspectives, the students' understanding of diverse aspects of the text were improved by working on them through a collaborative attempt.

The second research question aimed to find out how Peer-DA can assist language learners to co-build vocabulary knowledge. As revealed in the given episodes, the answer to the question was that Peer-DA may be efficient to augment students' vocabulary knowledge particularly the meaning aspect. In harmony with the first research question, after transcribing and analyzing the selected episodes, it was indicated that Peer-DA may play an effective role in helping language learners master the word meanings in a much more useful way. More importantly, it was revealed that when the procedures of Peer-DA were correctly applied by language learners, it could have the capability to both diagnose and amend the risen difficulties vis-à-vis vocabulary simultaneously. In other words, the students with use of Peer-DA when they were trying to master the target words, they were able to unravel the enigmatic points to solve it as well.

However, it is worth noting that the offered mediations both in reading comprehension and in vocabulary learning should be contingent and graduated (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994). The prompts, as demonstrated in the episodes, should be based on the learners' developmental stages, that is; they should be in harmony of learners' need. Regarding the second criterion, the prompts or mediations offered in an explicit-implicit scale. When a problem raised, students first provided the most implicit prompt. If it was dysfunctional, they used more explicit to rectify the problem. To round off the story, based on the obtained data, it may be concluded that DA in general and Peer-DA in particular can be applied in populated classes and can be considered as a new approach integrating teaching and assessment.

One of the often-cited issues is that second language teaching and assessment studies are done in order to make pedagogical implications for real classes where hope is that the research findings can facilitate second language learning. The first implication of the present study is that we should avoid making the misunderstanding that DA and its subcategories can be replaced by the static assessment. To put it simply, both assessment approaches should be considered complement and used in parallel in real class. Another implication is that the students who are unable to perform a task by themselves at the first time are not cognitively or affectively lagged and through offering appropriate mediations they can recuperate their developing abilities and use it in subsequent performances. The findings of the current study may be beneficial to language teachers having under-performer and over-performer in their classes. In this situation, language teachers can assign learners in pair or group in which under-performer and over-performer students can work cooperatively to scaffold one another to achieve their goals based on their capabilities and needs.

Even though the current study somehow provided supportive evidence on the usability of Peer-DA on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in microgenetic perspectives, there exist some limitations with the study that should be noted. The sampling procedure was non-random and the participants were all female because of the logistical problems male gender was excluded. Furthermore, the research was conducted in a state school setting and the effect of Peer-DA in other situation may beg for further investigations. Finally, the present research has focused specifically on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning, and there are other areas of language components and skills begging for further investigations.

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Implementing Task-based Instruction in ESP Class — An Empirical Study in Marine Engineering English

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Abstract—This study investigated teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) within the paradigm of task-based language teaching, concentrating on marine engineering English teaching in a Chinese vocational college. Two natural groups of students taking their ESP courses took part in the study as a control group (N=28) and an experimental group (N=33) from 2014 spring to 2014 fall. Teacher-designed reading, listening and speaking pre-test and post-test (simulating the governmental tests held by China Maritime Safety Administration Bureau), and survey were used as the basis for study. The students in the control group and the experimental group were taught in traditional approach and task-based approach respectively. At the end of one academic year study, the students were given a post-test to determine whether there was effect of the treatment on the experimental group. Data analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference in reading achievement between students in the control group and students receiving task-based instruction, but there was effect on students' listening and speaking competency. In the investigation, most students were satisfied with task-based instruction, and they proposed some feedbacks and suggestions for the task-based instruction in ESP courses which are beneficial for future instruction.

Index Terms—task-based instruction, ESP, reading, listening and speaking

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Statement of Problems

Safety of life at sea and friendly marine environment depend on professionalism and competence of seafarers. According to recent IMO statistics, 80% of accidents taking place at sea are caused by human error, with half due to poor communication (Maritime Tests of English Language, n.d.). Ziarati, M., Ziarati R., and Calbas (2009) claimed that the inadequacy of Maritime English standards has been a major contributory factor in causes of accidents, some involving loss of life, large numbers of injuries and extensive financial loss. Good communication in maritime English is essential for promoting and maintaining effective working environments and safety of the crew, ship, cargo and marine environment. Recently, when the supply ship Maersk detector ran into an oil derrick, investigators concluded that the accident was primarily the result of poor communication (Transportation Safety Board of Canada, 2011). “The problem of communication can be quite challenging on a multinational, and hence, multicultural and multilingual crews on board ships, especially among international crews who may speak different languages” (Wu, 2015, p. 47). In China, most college and institute teachers are used to applying the traditional methods to teach ESP. Among them lecture-based instruction are the most commonly used ones. Just like Shokouhi (2006) stated that inadequate approaches including Grammar Translation Method had been dominant in current ESP textbooks and classrooms, significant approaches had somewhat been neglected in this trend. The teachers think that ESP is a challenge for students to learn, especially new words, complicated sentence structure and specific knowledge, so they spend a significant amount of time explaining new technical words, grammar, sentence structure, and translating specific learning materials into Chinese paragraph by paragraph for students in reading class. Although they know the importance of communication for learning ESP, most time is spent on translation in the class and no meaningful interaction occurs among students.

B. Addressing the Problem of Current Teaching Situation

Task-based instruction approach has been recognized as the effective method applied to ESP course, which emphasizes on meaning negotiation and performing tasks to solve problems. During the process of performing tasks, the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose. A few researchers have done empirical studies. Iranmehr and Davari (2011) recruited students from two Iranian universities majoring chemistry to investigate the

feasibility and effectiveness of task-based language teaching as the alternative of traditional grammar translation method on ESP reading comprehension. They found that task-based instruction had significant effect on focusing students' attention to performing tasks or activities and discussion as well as improving the students' ESP reading comprehension. Likewise, Sarani and Sahebi (2012) tested the effect of task-based instruction on learning vocabulary in ESP courses, finding that the task-based approach was more effective in teaching technical vocabularies compared to the traditional one and male learners outperformed the female learners. However, the effect of task-based instruction on ESP, especially in the very specific field of marine engineering English reading, speaking, and listening in a Chinese context for an intermediate language level vocational institute students has not been demonstrated. And few have done researches on whether students show satisfaction with task-based instruction, their feedbacks and suggestions for ESP reading class, which actually are introspective to future task-based instruction.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Task-based Language Learning (TBLL)*

Task-based language learning has been paid much attention by many researchers since 1980s. Richards and Rodgers (2001) claimed, "Task-based language teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching" (p. 223). J. Willis (1996) pointed out "Task instructions can be adapted to provide opportunities for practices of the different skills your learners need: e.g., beginning with spontaneous exploratory interaction or writing individual notes or reading a text prior to doing the task, and then planning an oral (or written) public presentation of the task outcome" (p. 4). Such tasks can include booking a ticket, making out a plan, or checking the stores and spare parts ordered. Assessment is basically based on appropriate accomplishment of real world tasks, rather than on accuracy of language forms. Instructors adopted the task-based language learning to directly connect to real-life situations.

J. Willis (1996) defined the task as an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome. TBLL consists of the pre-task, the task cycle, and the language focus.

Pre-task: Introduce the topic and task instructions, getting students prepared for completing the task. Brainstorming useful topic words and phrases is an effective way of involving students in this phase.

In the pre-task, the teacher will demonstrate what the students will be expected in the task phase.

Task cycle: Learners use language in varying circumstances and are exposed to others using it.

During the task phase, the students perform the task, typically in small groups. The teacher's role is usually an observer or a counselor—thus a more student-centered methodology. In this phase, some types of tasks can be applied, like listing, ranking, comparing or contrasting, problem-solving, and even higher demanding creative task.

Language focus: Analysis and practice. Learners will focus on form and ask questions about language features.

Nunan (1991, p.279) outlines the five characteristics of task-based instruction in language learning:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language,
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation,
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language, but also on the learning process itself,
4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experience as important contributing elements to classroom learning,
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

Task-based instruction is a learner-centered teaching method, providing numerous chances for the meaning-focused contextual communication-oriented negotiation. It is different from the pure language practice. But how to implement task-based instruction in reading, and listening & speaking classes need to be further studied.

B. *English for Specific Purpose (ESP)*

ESP has received attention and a great number of studies have been done since 1960s. A plethora of definitions and scopes have been suggested in the field of ESP research. Robinson (1980) has defined it as teaching of English to the learners who have specific goals and purposes. According to him, these goals might be professional, academic, scientific, etc. Strevens (1998) asserted that one of the absolute characteristics of his definition identified ESP as being "in contrast to General English". Dudley-Evans (1998, p.4) gave the definition of ESP that was commonly accepted.

Absolute Characteristics

ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners

ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves

ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse, and genre

Variable Characteristics

ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines

ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English

ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation.

It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level

ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.

Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems

“ESP is not limited to any specific disciplines but meant for the specific needs of the learners” (Javid, 2013, p.141). In conclusion, ESP is for the specific needs of the learners, and the language learned in the learning environment will be used in the future workplace and it is different from General English in ways of expressing, specific vocabulary, and subject knowledge.

C. *Marine Engineering English*

Marine engineering English falls in the scope of ESP, under the branch of English for Occupational Purposes according to the “Tree of ELT” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.6). Students were expected to learn professional knowledge about marine engineering and professional language that will be used later in working environment. This class involves teaching professional language and skills, including reading instruction books about various machines’ structures, working principles, trouble-shooting, and international conventions concerning marine shipping; listening to and understanding orders given by bridge, senior engineers, bunkering workers, and port state control officers; writing reports, application form for bunkering, stores and spare parts; negotiating with shipmates, company security officers, suppliers, shipyard engineers, port state control officers, etc. The goal of this course is to ensure appropriate use of English in the specific maritime related situation and foster clear and effective ship-shore, ship-ship and onboard crew’s communication. According to International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW1995), officers in charge of an engineering watch should have the competence of using English in written and oral form and be able to use engineering publications and to perform engineering duties.

Applying task-based instruction in marine engineering English course is a challenging approach for language instructors because of the dominant traditional teaching methods. What are the feedbacks and suggestions for the task-based instruction from the learners are crucial for the implementation of task-based instruction, which is one of the attempts of this study through survey.

This study is an attempt to investigate whether task-based instruction is effective on students’ reading, listening and speaking development in an ESP course and how students think about the instruction. In addition, this pilot study aims to tackle the problems experienced by the Chinese ESP teachers and verify the advantages and implications of task-based instruction on students majoring marine engineering.

The following three hypotheses are to be investigated in this study:

1. The task-based instruction has effect on ESP reading competency;
2. The task-based instruction has effect on ESP listening and speaking competency;
3. Students are satisfied with the task-based instruction and perceive that it is an effective instruction to improve their English reading, speaking, and listening skills.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

Sixty-one in two natural classes (when they were enrolled in our institute) of marine engineering students in a Chinese vocational college were recruited for the study. They aged 20-24, all male, and were from different parts of China. They all had finished one year college General English learning. Twenty-eight students in Class 1 were assigned to the control group who received traditional lecture-based instruction and thirty-three students in Class 2 to the experimental group who received task-based instruction.

B. *Instruments*

The quantitative data included students’ standardized test scores in teacher designed reading tests, listening and speaking tests and survey. Qualitative data included the interview on their perception of, suggestions for the task-based learning.

Teacher-designed reading test

The reading tests include pre- and post-test, which are designed based on the form, length, and difficulty of China MSA (Maritime Safety Administration) reading test. The China MSA reading test serves as a basis for the students accessible to the potential ocean-going ships’ engineers like a driving test, which mainly tests vocabulary, sentence structure, specific knowledge of on-board machines’ working principle, structure, trouble shooting and international conventions related to marine engineering management.

All items of the reading test are in the form of multiple choices. This test comprises two parts. Seventy-six multiple choices items in the first part mainly test the students’ understanding of vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, and specific knowledge of marine engineering. The second part comprises four reading comprehension passages, and each of them is followed by four multiple-choice questions. It tests students’ ability to analyze difficult sentences, locate key information in reading materials and test the ability of reading comprehension. The students answer the multiple-choice questions in the computer and each correct answer for the first part is scored 1.0 and for the second part 1.5. Computers calculate the scores for them automatically. When the students submit the test, the score will come out immediately on the screen. The whole exam time is 100 minutes. Students can submit their test once they complete it within 100 minutes.

Teacher-designed listening and speaking test

Listening and speaking test also includes pre- and post- tests taken in a computer lab. The whole exam time is 60 minutes and there is one-minute break between listening and speaking. The listening and speaking pre-test and post-test are also designed in terms of the form, length and difficulty of China MSA listening and speaking test. In the listening part, there are three subparts that are all multiple-choice questions. They can listen to the recording twice at most. For the first subpart, students listen to a sentence, and click the sentence that is closest to the meaning of the sentences they hear from the four choices. Altogether there are ten questions, and each correct answer is scored 1.5. For the second subpart, the students listen to dialogues, and then choose the one from the four choices that can answer the question to the dialogue they hear. There are ten questions and each correct answer is scored 1.5. For the third subpart, students listen to four short passages and answer four multiple-choice questions following each passage. Each correct answer is scored 1.25. The questions are related to the life, duties, specific knowledge, international conventions and understanding of talks or bridge orders. Computer will calculate the total scores automatically at the moment students submit their tests.

In the speaking part, students read one short passage on the screen in a correct tone, pronunciation, and fluency (10 points); talk about one topic which is shown on the screen (10 points); and answer ten questions that are not shown on the screen (3 points per question). Computers record what they say into the microphone. The recording of each separate piece of answer is submitted to the server at the time of completion. The students' responses to each question, topic and reading will be graded anonymously by the experienced and authorized auditors according to the assessment criteria.

Survey

Students in the experimental group took part in the survey. The survey consists of two parts. Part I is about their demographic information, like age, year of learning English, time spent on reading English after class. Part II is about their perception of task-based instruction. Likert Scale with a range from 1 (strongly disagree or extremely not willing to) to 5 (strongly agree or extremely willing to) was used. The Cronbach's Alpha was .633, which suggested the reliability of survey was not poor. The survey was carried out five days after one academic year's study and delivered to the students online. They answered the survey within two days at home or in the campus lab. Thereafter, they submitted the survey to the collector online. Besides the Likert-type questions, there are two open-ended questions to investigate students' suggestions for future marine engineering English teaching and their difficulties in learning marine engineering English.

C. Procedure

The study lasted 22 weeks in a whole academic year, four hours a week, altogether 88 hours. Teachers in the control group and the experimental group applied the same textbook and the same schedule of instruction, except the teaching method. Both groups were given some after-class reading materials and links to International Maritime Organization and MARLINS English websites. Each student had an after-class exercise book including multiple choices and reading comprehension passages. Pre-test and post-test of reading, listening and speaking were administrated in each group at the beginning and end of the academic year. A survey was carried out in experimental group at the end of the study.

The students in the control group received the traditional lecture-based instruction. That is, the teacher presents the meaning and usages of vocabulary, grammar and subject knowledge, translates texts into Chinese, then asks students to practice these vocabulary, grammar, and subject knowledge by doing exercises such as multiple choices, reading comprehension, answering questions, and translation. The students in the experimental group received the task-based instruction. The same learning materials were redesigned by the researchers to fit J. Willis' task-based framework: pre-task, task cycle, and language focus. The tasks used are role-plays, brainstorming, ordering, and problem solving. Learners are required to engage in real-work interaction to complete tasks. Take the reading material "Bunkering" as an example:

Pre-task: Introduce the topic and task instructions. Show the video of bunkering. Brainstorm useful topic words and phrases.

Task cycle: Learners use language in varying circumstances, performing the task in small groups. Ask students to read the text about bunkering and get the main idea of the text. Listen to a recording about bunkering, and then fill in the blanks with the missing words they hear. Afterwards, ask students to join the group discussion, talking about fuel's quantity, type, specification, anti-pollution, and fire-fighting procedures and measures related to bunkering. After group discussion, students are asked to make out a bunkering plan; present the results to the whole class; perform role play among workers on oil barge and ship engineers talking about the bunkering plan, procedures, antipollution and fire prevention measures during bunkering, checking the quantity filled and signing the receipt; and exchange the procedures with peers in group.

Language focus: Analysis and practice. Analyze the grammar used in the text and language features in the task, like attributive clause, imperative sentence. Practice the word formation present in the text like compound word.

D. Data Analysis

Scores were analyzed by statistical comparisons of significance at levels such that it can be confidently asserted. The results cannot be explained by chance, rather they can be attributed to instruction. Quantitative data were processed by SPSS program. T-test was run to examine the scale difference in reading, listening, and speaking in the experimental

group and control group from pre-test to post-test. After the experiment, survey data were collected and analyzed by SPSS to find out the students' perception of the task-based language learning. Qualitative data obtained from open-ended questions in the survey were analyzed to find out students' difficulties and suggestions in learning marine engineering English.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Reading Performance

To answer the first question concerning the effect of task-based instruction on ESP reading competency, descriptive statistics and a set of paired and independent t-test were run.

An independent sample t-test was used to verify the pre-test results on both groups to see if there was much difference between the control group and experimental group in reading pretest. The difference between mean scores of the pretest of the control group ($M = 55.161$, $SD = 8.478$, $N = 28$) and the pretest of the experimental group ($M = 68.424$, $SD = 10.955$, $N = 33$) was significant ($t = 5.215$, $df = 59$, $p < .001$).

At the end of the study, results showed that the difference between the mean of the pre-test ($M = 55.161$, $SD = 8.478$, $N = 28$) and the post-test ($M = 75.196$, $SD = 9.670$, $N = 28$) for the control group was significant, $t = 11.437$, $df = 27$, $p < .05$. And for the experimental group, the difference between the pre-test ($M = 68.424$, $SD = 10.955$, $N = 33$) and the post-test ($M = 74.000$, $SD = 9.354$, $N = 33$) was also significant, $t = 4.394$, $df = 32$, $p < .05$. It can be concluded that reading competence of both groups improved noticeably after one academic year learning.

In order to find out if the task-based instruction did have effect on reading between the control group and experimental group, an independent sample t-test was run. The mean scores of the post-tests of both control ($M = 75.196$, $SD = 9.670$, $N = 28$) and experimental group ($M = 74.000$, $SD = 9.354$, $N = 33$) was not statistically different. The result demonstrated that $t = .490$, $df = 59$, $p > .05$, which meant no significant difference was detected between control group and experimental group in the post-tests. It suggests although there was much significant difference between the control group and the experimental group before the treatment (the mean score of the experimental group is much higher than that of the control group), after one year's study, there was no significant difference between the two groups in the post-tests (the mean score of the experimental group is almost the same as that of the control group). So we can conclude that teaching ESP reading through task-based instruction has no significant effect on the students' reading improvement. As previously stated, this type of reading test mainly tests the students' knowledge of vocabulary, sentence structure, specific knowledge and ability to find related information to answer the questions following the reading passage. The task-based instruction, which focuses on communication and negotiation, may not show particular advantages in reading performance. Numerous factors may affect reading ability and use of reading strategies, like reading time, familiarity with text, motivation and so on.

B. Listening and Speaking Performance

To answer the second question concerning the effect of task-based instruction on ESP listening and speaking competency, descriptive statistics and a set of paired sample t-test were run to test if the difference between the mean of the pre-test and the post-test in control group and experimental group was significant. An independent sample t-test was run to see if there was much difference between the control group and experimental group in listening and speaking pretest. Statistically difference was detected ($t = -.4104$, $df = 59$, $p < .001$) between the mean scores of the pretest of the control group ($M = 73.964$, $SD = 9.045$, $N = 28$) and the pretest of the experimental group ($M = 60.515$, $SD = 15.197$, $N = 33$).

At the end of the study, the paired-samples t test result showed that there was some improvement on the students' listening and speaking mean scores between the pre-test ($M = 73.964$, $SD = 9.045$, $N = 28$) and the post-test ($M = 78.232$, $SD = 10.389$, $N = 28$) for the control group, $t = 2.519$, $df = 27$, $p < .05$. And for the experimental group, there was great improvement between the pretest ($M = 60.515$, $SD = 15.197$, $N = 33$) and the post-test ($M = 81.606$, $SD = 7.780$, $N = 33$), $t = -9.021$, $df = 32$, $p < .05$. To find if the task-based instruction had effect on listening and speaking, the mean scores of the post-tests of both control and experimental group were compared and an independent sample t-test was run. The result showed that there was no significant difference on the mean scores between the control group ($M = 78.232$, $SD = 10.389$, $N = 28$) and the experimental group ($M = 81.606$, $SD = 7.780$, $N = 33$), $t = 1.448$, $df = 59$, $p > .05$. As a result, no significant difference was detected between control group and experimental group in the post-test. It means although before treatment there was significant difference between the two groups, and the mean score of the experimental group is much lower than control group (60.515 vs 73.964), after one year's study, there was no significant difference and the mean score of the experimental group is higher than control group (81.606 vs 78.232). The mean score of the experimental group rose from 60.512 to 81.606 ($p < .05$). So it can be concluded that applying task-based instruction in ESP produced significant effect on listening and speaking skills improvement.

C. Students' Perception of Task-based Instruction

To answer the third question, a survey was conducted to find out their perceptions of task-based instruction and suggestions or feedbacks for the task-based instruction they received.

Eighteen students in the experimental group took part in the survey. The survey consists of two parts. Part I was to

collect their personal information data, like age, year of learning English, time spent on reading English after class. Part II was to assess their perception of the task-based instruction.

The average age of the subjects is 22.56, and the average year of learning English is 8.5 years. The time spent on reading English after class is only 2.2778 (1=never, 2=10 minutes a day, 3=20 minutes a day, 4=30 minutes a day, 5=40 minutes or more a day). From Table 1, we know that the time students spent on reading English after class is too limited. About 27.8% students never read English after class, 50% students spend 10 minutes a day. Only 5.6%, 11.1%, 5.6% students spend 20, 30, 40 minutes or more a day on English reading after class.

TABLE 1
TIME SPENT ON READING ENGLISH AFTER CLASS

Time	Frequency	Percent
1=never	5	27.8
2=10 minutes a day	9	50.0
3=20 minutes a day	1	5.6
4=30 minutes a day	2	11.1
5=40minutes or more a day	1	5.6
Total	18	100.0

About 77.78% (mean score =1.5556, 1=yes, 2=no) students think the teaching method in the marine engineering English class is different from General English class. This result corresponds with the Dudley-Evans' (1998) claim about characteristics of ESP. As to the question about the preference for the task-based instruction or lecture-based instruction, about 77.77% (mean score=2.3333, 1=lecture-based instruction, 2=neutral, 3=task-based instruction) students answered "preferring task-based instruction". It indicated that the students liked the task-based instruction method, but the time spent on reading English after class was not adequate. That might be one of reasons accounting for the fact that their reading scores did not rise to such an extent to verify the assumption "task-based instruction has effect on ESP reading competency". The students spent too limited time on reading after class, the most possible reason was the difficulty and unfamiliarity with the reading passages, such as too many new technical words, complicated sentence structure, unfamiliar specific field knowledge, etc. Chen and Lai (2012, p.105) conducted a research in Taiwan on the cultural familiarity with a text on Chinese students' reading comprehension performance and reading time. It was found that "students' reading comprehension performance and reading time were both significantly affected by their familiarity with the target culture." Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) claimed that the reader's contribution, to be more specific, the reader's background knowledge, plays a crucial role in reading comprehension. This was supported in the following open-ended questions. Students met several difficulties in new technical words and unfamiliar specific field knowledge.

After-class reading is the extension of classroom learning. It helps to consolidate the already acquired language and skills, thus improving reading ability. How to motivate students to read after class is also a challenge. Besides, teachers should select appropriate, interesting, and understandable reading materials for students. Moreover, it is necessary to construct the assessment and evaluation system for after-class reading, like self-evaluation, peer evaluation, and teacher evaluation, and apply various appropriate reading strategies to reading, like planning, monitoring, evaluating, and so on.

As shown in Figure 1, most students thought that task-based instruction gave them many opportunities to know about the future tasks on board ship so that they could adapt to the future work more quickly. The task-based instruction simulates the real working environment and provides the students with the context to learn by doing. They are exposed to a large amount of authentic and comprehensible input by watching the power point, pictures, animation and flow diagrams and sometimes the real objects in the lab. Listen and read through books, videos, CDs, tapes, online sources, etc. Also in the class, students are given chances to discuss, write and practice, like making out a bunkering plan, filling out the application form, writing up an accident report, reporting the troubles and solutions to the troubles, and negotiating with related persons. This result reflects the idea "Task-based learning has the notion of learning by doing, which has been recognized by some educators as the fundamental principle" (Long & Doughy 2003). Through trial, error and modification, they achieve the goals of using language and other skills. Especially in marine engineering, the students will conduct a number of tasks in the real environment. For example, they are given chances to discuss and make out bunkering plan.

As to the question about their willingness to "participate in the tasks in class like reading maintenance records, making out repair list, talking about the working principles of machines, discussing the PSC inspection after watching the video", the mean score of willingness is 4.2778 (85.55%). This indicates that students prefer taking part in the task-based activities. This could be attributed to the reason why students' listening and speaking skills improved through the task-based instruction treatment.

As to the questions about students' perception of whether task-based instruction can improve their reading, writing, speaking and listening, the students who took part in the survey showed the most positive responses. The mean scores are 4.2278, 3.2222, 3.6111, and 3.6667 respectively.

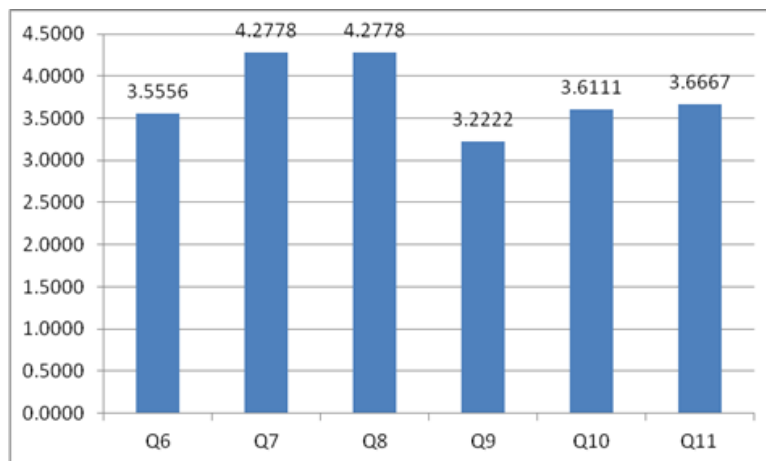


Fig. 1 Students' Perception of Task-based Instruction

To conclude, students are satisfied with the task-based instruction and willingness to take part in tasks in the class. They perceived that task-based instruction improved their reading, writing, listening and speaking abilities.

As to their feedback and suggestions about the task-based instruction, some students hoped to “take some real objects to classroom”, “give more chances to speak up”, “integrate with the specific knowledge when talking about the important points”, “explain the working principles of machines, new words and phrases in more detail”, “hope to establish ‘reward and punish’ system to involve more students in the group discussion”, and “provide more chances of group learning”. Also they proposed the suggestions for the teacher’s reduction of speech rate. From their answers, we can summarize that although the instructors put their best effort to introduce the authentic materials to help students develop an understanding of the very complicated authentic materials in class, the students hope to get more vivid and visual idea about the on-board machines and their working principles. For example, when introducing the portable fire extinguisher, instructors can bring the real portable extinguishers to the classroom and explain the type, usage and application of each type of extinguisher. If possible, the instructors can simulate a fire and let students find out the fire source and select the proper extinguisher. In marine engineering English class, there are many rarely used technical words. When instructors employ the task-based instruction, they can design some tasks to help students understand the meaning and usages of the rarely used words in the context, like word-formation contest, blank-filling, sentence-making, listing the synonyms and antonyms, etc. During the process of task-based instruction, performing tasks is critical, but the problems concerned with accomplishing goals and raising participation rates need to be solved too. Especially for these 22-year-old intermediate level vocational college students whose level of language proficiency, motivation, and self-dependency are not so high to fully take part in the group discussion and after-class reading. So the instructors have to consider establishing “incentive mechanism” to encourage more students to engage in both in- class and outside classroom activities.

As for the difficulties experienced in studying marine engineering English, the students showed most concerns regarding new specific words, sentence meaning, and specific knowledge. These difficulties hinder their understanding of the text.

V. LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The sample size is a little small. Only twenty-eight students in the control group and thirty-three in the experimental group took part in the study. Only eighteen students took part in the survey. The results might vary if the sample size were larger and subjects of other levels of language proficiency were involved.

Authenticity and interest have not been fully emphasized. In the survey, students require bringing more real objects to the classroom for better understanding and the activities should be more interesting to activate their motivation.

Language forms have not been received much attention during instruction. Especially in marine engineering English, there are a lot of new rarely used words, complicated sentence structure, and specific knowledge make learning experience frustrated for some students.

VI. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Generally speaking, this study was conducted to find out the possible advantages of task-based instruction on Chinese vocational college students’ reading, listening, and speaking competency in ESP class. The performance of both groups was calculated by SPSS and mean score, t value and covariance of the scores were reported. The results indicate that students in experimental group show progress in listening and speaking ability but no significant improvement in reading from pre-test to post-test.

Based on the results of survey, students showed preference for task-based instruction and willingness to participate in the classroom activities, they agreed that task-based instruction improved their reading, writing, speaking and listening

skills, although the time spent on reading English after class was too limited. They also proposed some feedbacks and suggestions for future task-based instruction.

Some pedagogical implications are suggested to be considered:

First, task-based instruction, which focuses on ability to perform a task or an activity, shows the benefit of improving the ability of problem-solving and integrating with real work task. These real work tasks are called goal-oriented but they are “form-unfocused” tasks that promote comprehension and production of language for communicative purposes (Pyun, 2013). Focused tasks, unlike unfocused tasks, are designed to draw learners’ attention to specific linguistic forms (Ellis, 2003). Whereas D. Willis and J. Willis (2007) confined tasks to communicative ones, not including an explicit focus on form. Other researchers proposed to integrate both form-focused and form unfocused tasks in TBLL (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993; Nunan, 2004). In the fields of engineering, chemistry, medicine English, an abundance of technical words and complicated sentence structure may raise the load of text comprehension and task performance. Long and Norris (2000) recommended that tasks be designed in such a way as to incorporate both focus-on-meaning and focus-on-form. During instruction, besides meaning negotiation, we must pay attention to the technical words and complicated sentence structure. Therefore “a good balance should be achieved between form and meaning. Fluency and accuracy are complementary, and students must have a good command of language form if they are to understand and express meaning effectively” (Meng, 2009, p.89).

Second, tasks should be designed taking the learner’s needs and interest into account, trying to make the classroom teaching more vivid and more appropriate to the students’ level of cognition, needs, characteristics of age and interest. This conception is supported by other scholars (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002, p.23), “ESP workplace syllabus planning should reflect the needs of the students as well as the needs of the business.”

Third, authentic materials and even real objects should be integrated in the task-based instruction, suggesting that the instruction as much as possible be implemented in the lab, where there are real machines, machine parts or simulated control process. Background knowledge should be introduced before learning the specific knowledge which is delivered in English.

Finally, there should be a mechanism or evaluation system for increasing after- class reading and classroom activity participation.

Nowadays, the exam-oriented education still dominates in China. Students and teachers may make effort in memorizing vocabularies and do a lot of multiple choice exercises related to exam. This shallow level of information processing may have immediate short-term effect on test results, but less effect on communication skills in the medium-to- long term. Therefore, how to improve pre-service mariners’ communicative skills and successful implementation of task-based instruction still has a long way to go.

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APPENDIX SURVEY

Dear students!

We would like to conduct a survey about your Marine Engineering English study. First, let us explain the task-based instruction. It focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. For easy understanding, the instructor will clarify the tasks you will perform in the future work on board the ship, and try to create a real working environment to learn at school. For example, you will take bunkers at sea, the instructor will tell you what kind of work it is, what information will you exchange with workers on oil barge, what preventive measures will you take to prevent overflow and fire in English, and then you do some reading, oral and listening practice. And sometimes, the instructor will show the documents like maintenance records for the engines, the application form for stores and spare parts, and ask you to fill out these forms. Second, the traditional method, such as the lecture-based instruction, means that instructor explains the knowledge in the textbook, translate the sentences into Chinese paragraph by paragraph, focusing on grammar, vocabulary and sentence structure. Students mainly listen to the teachers' lectures. It is a "one-to-many" form of communication. Please answer the following questions honestly.

Thank you for your time!

Q1 What is your age? _____

Q2 How long have you been learning English? _____

Q3 How much time do you spend on reading English after class?

1=never 2=10 minutes a day 3=20 minutes a day 4=30 minutes a day 5=40 minutes or more a day

Q4 Was Marine Engineering English taught differently from your general English courses in Grade 1?

1=yes 2=no

Q5 Do you like the lecture-based instruction or the task-based instruction?

1=lecture-based instruction 2=neutral 3=task-based instruction

Q6 I think the task-based instruction gives me much chance to know about the future tasks on board, so that I can adapt to the future work more quickly.

1= strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral 4= agree 5=strongly agree

Q7 I am willing to participate in in-class tasks like reading maintenance records, making out repair list, talking about the working principles of machines, discussing the PSC inspection after watching the video.

1=extremely not willing to 2= not willing to 3= neutral 4= willing to 5=extremely willing to

Q8 Task-based ESP instruction can improve my English reading. How much do you agree with the above statement?

1= strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral 4= agree 5=strongly agree

Q9 Task-based ESP instruction can improve my English writing. How much do you agree with the above statement?

1= strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral 4= agree 5=strongly agree

Q10 Task-based ESP instruction can improve my English speaking. How much do you agree with the above statement?

1= strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral 4= agree 5=strongly agree

Q11 Task-based ESP instruction can improve my English listening. How much do you agree with the above statement?

1= strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral 4= agree 5=strongly agree

Q12 Do you have any suggestions for the future Marine Engineering English teaching? Please feel free to give us suggestions.

Q13 What are the difficulties in leaning Marine Engineering English? Tell us your true story.

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A Study on Iranian Funeral Posters: Speech Acts Analysis

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Abstract—Different speech acts such as apologies, refusals, invitation, etc., have studied and differences between English and Persian have shown. But there are several speech acts which have not been investigated as extensively as others. One of them is speech act of condolence. The word condolence originates from the Latin word *condolere* means "to suffer together" (Zunin & Zunin, 2007). It also means informing a loss, expressing sympathy or empathy with someone. As a matter of fact humans are emotional beings and in everyday communication individuals can see this emotionality (Morady Moghadam, 2012). Thus this study investigated and analyzed types of speech acts of 50 authentic texts of funeral posters in Iran then showed the frequency and percentage of them. Out of five kinds of speech acts, only four types of them are used in the texts. Based on the results, the order of most frequent to the least frequent used is declarative, directive, expressive and representative.

Index Terms—condolence, Iranian text of funeral posters, speech acts analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Like many other costumes which are different from culture to culture and country to country informing people from death of someone also occurred in different ways. In Iran e.g.; in some areas by SMS and invitation cards but the most usual way that is used in many parts of this country is use of funeral posters. In Iran when a person died his/her family hold a funeral services for his/ her funeral procession, another one after passage of seventh, and fortieth days and the next one after passage of one year. For each of these funeral services the family of dead person in order to inform and invite their relative and/or other friends to take apart in funeral services, they use of funeral posters which contain a texts that invite and inform people, give the name of dead person, time and place of funeral service. The place of it is holy places most of the time e.g.; is mosque. Therefore; in the present research the researcher intended to focus on the analysis of text of these funeral posters based on speech acts theory. Farina (2011) defined speech acts as actions performed through expressions in a real context of language use bringing the roles the speaker intends the listener(s) to take or to interpret. According to Farnia (2011), speech act research has mostly paid attentions on those aspects which happened in some ones daily life (like requests, apologies, complaints, expressing gratitude, refusal, etc.). Different kinds of cross cultural studies on different aspects of speech acts and condolence such as speech act and condolence in Persian and English by (Eslami-Rasekh and Lotfollahi, 2011), investigating condolence responses in English and Persian (Moradi Moghadam and Pishghadam, 2012) have done so far but on the text of Persian funeral posters and categorizing types of utterances have neglected.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to analyze the texts of funeral posters in Iran according to different kinds of speech acts. Another objective of the present research is to detect the type and frequency of speech acts.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the objective, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

- 1) Which kinds of speech acts in the texts of Iranian funeral posters are used more?
- 2) Which types of speech acts in the text of Persian funeral posters are used less?
- 3) Which types of speech acts in the texts of funeral posters aren't used at all?

IV. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theoretical framework

Theory of speech act

Pragmatics is "the study of linguistics phenomenon from the perspective of their usage properties and process" (Verschueren, 1999, P.1). According to Delen and Tavit (2010), pragmatic has been both controversial and a favorite subject in language investigation since 1960s. Therefore, speech act is one of the fundamental themes in pragmatics. The theory of speech act is basically evolved by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969, 1979). According to Morady

Moghadam (2012), the underlying assumption in the speech act theory is that the minimal unit of communication is not a sentences or other expressions rather it is language act. In other words, human language can be considered as actions. People do things by expressing various types of language acts like refusals, requests, promises, etc. Austin (1962, p.67) investigated speech acts from the following point of view: "to consider from the ground p how many senses there are in which to say something is to do something, or in saying something we do something and even by saying something we do something."

Speech acts and functions of speech

According to Kuang (2015), the notion of speech act was originated from Austin's (1962) work which looks at how utterances produced by the speaker can be applied to do special functions. Austin's (1962 as cited in Kuang 2015) states that speakers produce special utterances within a particular context because they expect the hearer to do a specific task e.g., "Go" the hearer is expected to do the act of vacating the space where the hearer is. Austin's (1962) work, in the same vein with the discipline of pragmatics, mentions that these speech acts can be analyzed on three levels:

1. locutionary act: the actual words the speaker is saying.
2. Illocutionary act: the purpose of the speaker.
3. perlocutionary act: the effect of utterance on the hearer.

Based on Kuang (2015) most of works on speech acts usually focus on the second level of Austin's theory for analysis in other words illocutionary acts. Although, Searle (1969) maintains that the fundamental unit of language carries no meaning in itself unless it is produced within a context and includes a speaker and hearer. Thus, when an expression like "open the door" is produced in a context where a snake is crawling into a room the hearer who is in the same room, expected to do the act of "opening the door" in order to the snake can crawl out of the room. Searle (1975) claims that locutionary act refers to the words, while illocutionary act refers to the performance and perlocutionary refers to the effect of the acts. Moreover, he states that expressions operate on two kinds of speech acts: 1) utterance acts that include something said or when a sound is made and may not have any meaning, 2) propositional acts where a special reference is made. He suggests that acts can sometimes serve as expressions. Consequently, a perlocutionary act is similar to a perlocutionary expression. Wittgenstein (1953), a philosopher, believes that the meaning of language relay on its actual application rather than its inherent meaning. From this point of view, a message that is conveyed may be interpreted by the receiver based on the situation. Therefore, interpretation not only relays on the context and participants included but also on the psychological mood of the participants concerned.

Yule (2000) declares that "actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts, in English, are commonly given more specific labels, such as apologies, complaints, compliments, invitations, promises, or requests" (p.47).

Different categorization of speech acts

The focus of this study is on the five types of general functions performed via speech acts. It is worth pointing here to different categorization of speech acts by different persons. Yule (1996) in his book "pragmatics" classified and defined them as:

1. **Declaration:** refers to those kinds of speech that change the world by their utterance.
2. **Representatives:** those kinds that state what the speaker believes to the case or not, like conclusion and description.
3. **Expressive:** those kinds of speech acts that state what are the speaker feeling such as pain and pleasure.
4. **Directives:** when the speaker use those type of speech act intends to get someone else to do something e.g. order and request.
5. **Commissive:** speakers use this kind of speech act in order to commit themselves to some future actions. They state intends of speaker, like promises, refusals.

Searle (1976) in 'classification of illocutionary act' expanded the taxonomy of actions that can be carried out by speaking; he categorizes five classes of speech acts:

1. **Representatives:** the description of states or events, e.g. reports, assertion, and claims.
2. **Directives:** means that asking the hearer to carry out something in the future like requests, orders, suggestions etc.,
3. **Commissives:** means that committing his/herself to perform something in the future such as promises, threats, and offers.
4. **Expressives:** means that expressing someone psychological states of minds for instance apologies, expressing gratitude, and congratulating.
5. **Declaratives:** means that bringing about change such as, decelerating, and appointing (p. 1-16).

While Austin (1962) classified speech acts into five categories. He believes that performative utterances categorized into the following classes:

- 1) **Behabitives:** they make person to utter their impression and attitude like thank, apologize, condole and congratulate.
- 2) **Commissives:** they make person to force his/herself to carry out things such as promise and vow.
- 3) **Expositives:** they make person causes changes via their expressions like resign and fire.
- 4) **Exercitives:** they effort to get people to perform things like invite, order and permit.
- 5) **Verdictives:** they say people how things are such as swear, insist and suggest.

A search of related literature revealed that such investigation has been quiet recent and limited and there was not any research that use of the funeral posters. Because funeral posters are subcategory of condolence the researcher had to use of other investigations such as different studies on condolences that were not directly related to the topic.

According to Searle (1969 cited in Mitaib Murad, 2013), speech act of condolence is classified as 'expressive'. Eslami – Rasekh and Lotfollahi (2011) declared that this type of speech act is applied to express to the sorrow of speaker at the news of some ones death. On the other hand, Yahia (2010) demanded that condolences formulas have not been fully discovered, fortunately, many speakers are not called up on to express sympathy at some ones death. As a matter of fact, it is not possible to study language meaningfully in isolation from context and culture. In line with this idea Johnston (2008 cited in Mitaib Murad, 2013) also believed "knowing a language means not just knowing its grammar and vocabulary but also knowing how to structure paragraphs and arguments and participate in conversation the way the speakers of the language do" (p.7). As a result pragmatics was defined by Richard and Schmidt as "the study of the use of language in communication, particularly between sentences and the contexts and situations in which they are used" (2002, p. 412).

Mitaib Murad (2013) believes that the connection between language and its users is pragmatic. Thus, it plays a significant role in interlocution between participants. Bach and Harnish (1969) believe that to communicate is to express an especial attitude and those kinds of speech act being performed and those kinds of attitudes being expressed are corresponded with each others. For instance, a sentence may be states a belief, a request express a desire, and an apology expresses regret.

According to Yahia (2010), condolence phrases are planned for the sake of expressing sympathy for the bereft person. Generally, the emotion at the behind of the phrase is more important than the wording itself. He also mentioned that condolences are formal expressions of sympathy extend to other person after a death of a loved one. Many people know that giving condolence phrase without sounding a bit of cliché is very hard. Therefore; condolences expressions contain expressions like 'sorry for your loss', 'deepest sympathy' etc. These kinds of condolences are cliché that can be offered to any person regardless their religious beliefs. While Mwihaqi (2004) claims that semantically social meaning of condolences refer to the application of language, it is provides social relations and roles. Thus condolences are not only expressions of sympathy, but also expressions of empathy.

Empirical framework

Kuang (2015) studied functions of Malaysian condolences written in text messages. Results of the study indicated that Malaysian SMS condolences are consisted of eight semantic functions. The least preferred ones were those that expressed concerns through directives and wishful thinking and the most preferred ones were those that eulogized the deceased and expressed uncertainty. Findings also revealed that the art of writing a condolence can be a vital skill that needs to be honed as even good intentions may be misunderstood.

Kongo and Gyasi (2015) conducted a study on expressing grief through messages of condolence using a genre analysis. Nine moves were identified by the researcher that out of these nine moves six of them were obligatory and the rest of them were optional. Besides, every move has distinctive lexico-grammatical characteristics. Moreover, the semantic structure in addition to the lexico-grammatical characteristic highlights the social functions of condolence messages in the world generally since the letters of condolences applied in the present study were written by people all over the world.

Mitaib Murad (2013) conducted a study on condolence strategies used by lecturers who are native speakers of Arabic L1 that live in Israel and work in Arab college for teacher educations toward their colleague who is native speaker of Hebrew in Hebrew L2 and works in the same college. The result of this study indicated that "the religious expression" is the most frequent strategy which was used by respondents and the Arab who live in Israel are not terrestrial and individualistic but also are celestial and collectivists and also the age and level of education of respondents have an effect on the frequency of this strategy and the least frequent strategies used by the participants were "appreciation of the dead" and "direct condolence". The gender is another important finding does play an important role in the frequency of the condolence strategies.

Allami and Smavarchi (2012) have done a contrastive sociopragmatic study on giving condolence by Persian EFL learners. A comparative analysis of given condolences across English and Persian was an attempt of this study. Findings of the study revealed that while condoling someone on the death of their beloved or their acquaintances the Persian speakers and EFL learners are more direct than the English natives. Another finding of the study indicated the necessities of explicit teaching of speech acts in educational settings and also learners can successfully acquire the speech acts without resorting to sociocultural transfer if appropriate strategies are employed.

Morady Moghadam and Pishghadam (2012) explored the condolence responses in Persian and English. The movies were their data collection instrument. At the end the study findings provided the evidence that in condolence response types Persian and English speakers are significantly different except for token of appreciation and topic avoidance and also the actual factors are affected on performance of speech acts such as condolence e.g; the emphasis of Persian speakers is on the collectivism and traditional of behaving but in Western societies their tendencies is toward secularism and individualism.

Morady Moghadam (2012) investigated the discourse structure of condolence speech act. Interjections and intensifiers among Persian and English people while they are expressing condolence speech act. Results of the study

proved that: a) the difference among intensifiers and interjections in two cultures was significant; b) both interjections and intensifiers can be classifying semantically; and c) English and Persian intensifiers are syntactically different in nature.

Behnam, Ali Akbari Hamed, and Goharkhani Asli (2012) attempted to investigate giving condolences in English and Persian via short messages and to understand that is there any difference in the way that people express their feelings and sorrows about someone death. As the findings proved there is a difference in the way people express their condolences and also evidence proved that Persian people express their condolences more directly and shortly with the sign of religious culture while native English people messages are mostly indicates sympathetic and apologetic.

Eslami-Rasekh and Lotfollahi (2011), have investigated a cross – cultural study on speech act of condolence in Persian and English. The findings revealed that in the way of expression of condolence there are subtle differences in an Eastern societies in comparison of Western societies and the most frequent used semantic formula in all of four situations was expression of sympathy and commonest response in all of these situations was the “accept my condolence”.

Farnia (2011) believes that studies have only focused on those speech acts that are regularly performed in ones daily life such as requesting, apologies etc. Thus, she conducted a study to determine the strategies which were used whom responding to an obituary note by Iranian native speakers of Farnia. The result suggested that the three most frequent used strategies among the respondents were expression of regret and grief, praying for God’s mercy and forgiveness, and expression of positive feeling and compliments about the deceased.

Aremu (2011) was in attempted to determine the sociopragmatic usage of language in obituaries in English in Nigeria. Results of the study showed that this social use of language is a normal representation of the hybrid of Nigerian English.

V. METHODOLOGY

Data collection, Procedure, and Instrument

Data of this study were collected through the speech acts analysis of texts of 50 authentic funeral posters in Iran. At first the researcher collected 50 authentic funeral posters. Afterward, the funeral posters were studied carefully. Then they were categorized and analyzed based on the five general types of speech acts which were proposed by Yule (1996). Subsequently their frequencies and percentages were calculated to test the hypothesis below:

There are not significant differences in the frequency use of various types of speech acts in the texts of Iranian funeral posters.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section presents the statistical results related to the variables in each research question. The results are then interpreted to provide answers to all research questions of this study.

As mentioned earlier, this study aimed at analyzing the speech acts of 50 texts involved in the funeral posters in Iran.

After a careful inspection of all texts, the data were analyzed. The frequency and percentage of the speech acts used in the texts are presented in the following table (Table 4.1).

The first question of this study dealt with the most frequently used type of speech act in the text of Persian funeral posters.

Analysis of the data revealed that there is a noticeable difference between the most and the least frequently used of speech acts in the texts of Persian funeral posters. Therefore, the most frequently used types of speech acts are declarative and directive. The frequency and percentage of declarative is 50 and 29.6 and directive is 49 and 29.0.

The least frequently used ones are expressive and representative. Their frequencies and percentages of both of them are 35 and 20.7.

Regarding the other type of speech act which is commissive, there was not used in the text of funeral posters at all.

TABLE 4.1
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF THE TEXTS OF THE FUNERAL POSTERS

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Expressive	35	20.7	20.7
Representative	35	20.7	41.4
Valid Declarative	50	29.6	71.0
Directive	49	29.0	100.0
Total	169	100.0	

Based on the results presented in Table 4.1, the percentage of the speech acts show that 20.7% refers to expressive, 20.7% to representative, 29.6% to declarative, 29% to directive.

According to the findings, declarative is the most used speech act in the texts of funeral posters. These percentages are illustrated by a pie graph in Figure 1 below.

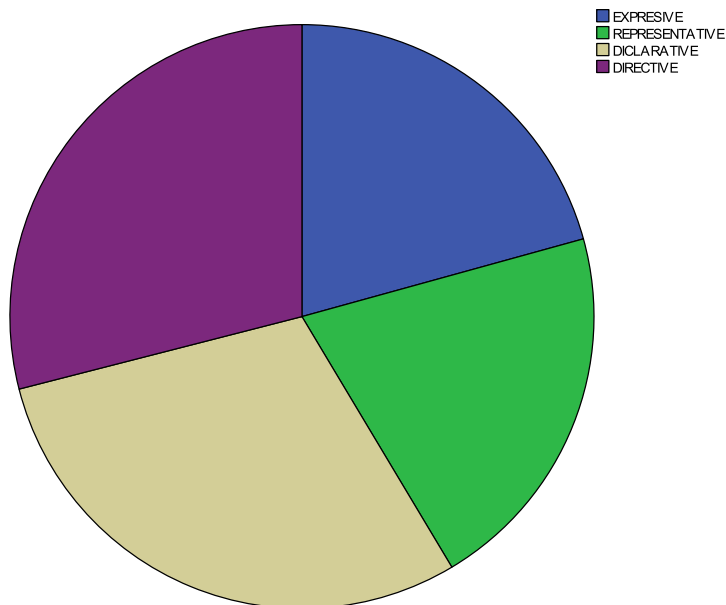


Figure1. Pie graph of speech acts

As this figure shows the most frequently used type of speech act in the texts of posters was declarative which is repeated in all of posters. It was a sentence like these:

We appreciate your attendance in burial and funeral of our honorable and deserving's mother /father / sister/ brother we are going to inform you that the third/ seventh/ first anniversary of that late is held on Monday 28/01/91 from 3 to 5 in mosque.

ضمن تشکر و قدردانی از سروران گرامی که در تشییع و تدفین پدر / مادر/ برادر/ خواهر... بزرگوار و گرانقدرمان (نام مرحوم/ مرحومه) شرکت فرموده اید به اطلاع می رسا ند مراسم سومین / هفتمین / یکمین سالگرد ان عزیز زنده یاد روز دوشنبه 91/01/28 از سا عت 3 الی 5 بعد از ظهر در مسجد وحسینیه ی (نام و آدرس مکان) برگزار می گردد.

This sentence also is declarative because it gives information:

Meanwhile the feminine commemoration meeting will be held in the same place at the same time
ضمناً مجلس زنانه همزمان در همان مکان برگزار میشود.

Another one which was repeated 49 from total of 50 texts is directive.

حضور شما سروران عزیز در این مجلس وقرائت فاتحه موجب شادی روح آن زنده یاد وتسلی خاطر بازماندگان خواهد بود.

Your attendance in commemoration meeting and reciting prayers for the deceased will bring about happiness to the soul of the late and consolation of kindred.

This sentence is directive because according to definition of it is a request or suggestion.

Another kind of speech act which was used in the 35 texts is expressive type of speech act that was state of feeling. Sentences like below which were a piece of poems:

بگذار تا بگریم چون ابردر بهاران کز سنگ ناله خیزد روز وداع یاران

ای کاروان آهسته ران که آرام جانم می رود وان دل که باخود داشتم با دل ستانم می رود

پدرم دیده به سویت نگران است هنوز غم نادیدن تو بار گران است هنوز

The last one is representative again it was repeated in 35 texts.

اوست پایدار He is everlasting انا لله و انا الیه راجعون We are Allah's and to him we shall return

هو الباقی He is everlasting

VII. CONCLUSION

Based on speech act theory, speech is a type of action. People by uttering words do things. For instance, a person who says his condolence, he expresses something. S/he does some (locutionary) acts such as expressing or writing some sentences. Although, there is something more than s/he does; that is to say, by expressing or writing some sentences in the tailor situation, s/he says condolences (Farnia, 2011). As a result like other types of speech acts, expressions of condolence rely on factors such as age, gender, level of education, social distance, religious beliefs etc., . Therefore, this study tried out to investigate the analysis of speech acts in the texts of funeral posters in Iran. The findings of present study revealed the most and the least frequent types of speech act. According to the analysis of data the most frequent one was declarative like (Meanwhile the feminine commemoration meeting will be held in the same place at the same time (ضمناً مجلس زنانه همزمان در همان مکان برگزار میشود) that was a sentences which were repeated in all of the posters 50 from total of 50 afterward 49 which was directive (Your attendance in commemoration meeting and reciting prayers for the deceased will bring about happiness to the soul of the late and consolation of kindred. حضور شما سروران عزیز در این (بگذار تا بگریم چون ابردر بهاران Expressive (مجلس وقرائت فاتحه موجب شادی روح آن زنده یاد وتسلی خاطر بازماندگان خواهد بود.)

and representative (He is everlasting: هو الباقي) which were repeated in 35 texts out of 50. While the texts didn't include any commissive type of speech acts because there was no utterances that express commitment for doing future actions. Thus at the end evidence proved that Iranian funeral posters consist of 4 part and only use of 4 kinds of speech acts.

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APPENDIX



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Journey to the Loss and Fixation of Western Identity in Bernardo Bertolucci's Movie Adaptation of *Sheltering Sky*

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Abstract—Bertolucci in his film adaptation of *Sheltering Sky* portrays Kit, Port, and Tunner who make a journey to Morocco to escape dehumanizing ambience of post war America. In this movie, Port and Kit's identities undergo drastic change while the Tunner does not. As a professional writer and the devotee of travel himself, Port immerses himself in traditional Oriental space and gradually melts in it, and his death is the culmination of this process. His wife, Kit who is initially unable to understand the depth of his relation the Orient, later succumbs to it, and this finds its full expression in her love of the young Belquassim, her psychosis, and her final decline of returning to American Embassy. By contrast, Tunner's identity remains unchanged because his main object of travel has been winning Kit's heart rather than seeking philosophical solutions for his soul in the traversed world. Accordingly the current article argues that travel is interconnected to the concept of identity, depending on the characters' participation and response to the source culture and its environment. Thus, Port and Kit's identities experience metamorphosis albeit violently for their receptiveness and deep involvement with the alien culture while Tunner's disengagement and obsession to retrieve Kit from the Orient does not lead to his identity transition.

Index Terms—identity, travel, orient, culture, and receptiveness

I. INTRODUCTION

Brief History of Travel and Travel in The Sheltering Sky

Carol Thompson (2011) in his book, *Travel Writing*, defines travel as “as the negotiation between self and other that is brought about by movement in the space” (as cited in Gholi, 2015, p.183). There has been two different reaction to travel; some condemned it, while some others praised it,

Thomas Nugent lauds it for its power to enrich the mind with knowledge, to rectify the judgment, to remove the prejudices of education, [and] to compose the outward manners... Conversely in stark contrast, Pascal views it as the main cause of all mankind's misfortune (as cited in Gholi, 2016, p.86).

As a multi-cultural practice, travel has been viewed from variety of perspectives (ibid0. In the Middle Ages, Christian priests looked at travel as God's punishment on humans for their abuse of their eyes (Gholi. et al, 2015). Rejecting the religious understanding of travel, humanists assumed that the main motive for humans to travel rested in curiosity (ibid.). Unlike humanists, Freud interpreted it as an act of defiance on the part of the son against his father's authority (Ibid.). In each period, one of form of travel was common. In the medieval times, traveling to holy places were common and popular (Korte, 2000). In fact, “in their holy destinations, pilgrims cherished the hope of miraculous cures, the remission of their sins, and the satisfaction of their wanderlust” Gholi, 2016, p.86). In sharp contrast, in the Renaissance era when the West began colonialism, traveling to the New World became paramount (Abrams, 2009; Gholi, 2016). In fact, “European explorers were hopeful to find there the fabled Earthly paradise containing a cure for all diseases [and] rivers filled with gold and the Fountain of Youth” (Gholi, 2016, p.87). In the eighteenth century, Grand Tour took on importance; this type of the travel was the privilege of rich people' children which was executed for enriching their cultural understanding by attending not only cultural and historical sites Italy but also museums and galleries in other European countries (Gholi, 2016). In the Romantic period, the scenic tourism became trendy and its object was the aesthetic perception of natural world (ibid.). In the Victorian era, package tour emerged as new and popular form of travel due to technological advances. In the twentieth century, democratized and globalized form of travel emerged on the strength of motorcar and airplane technologies (ibid.). With regard to the reason of travel in *The Sheltering Sky*, one should seek an answer for it in Freud's *Civilization and its Discontents* in which he believes that “our civilization is largely responsible for ... misery, and that we should be much happier if we give it up and returned

to primitive conditions” (cited in Pinsker, 1985, p.5). Accordingly, to flee from the psychological and social maladies which is everyday reality in the post-war West, Port plans his travel to Sahara desert, an Oriental primitive place (ibid.) where, he thinks, can shelter him and his wife from Western civilization (ibid.). To show this discontent, the director at the beginning of the movie through short and hazy scenes of large number of pieces of paper descending from tall buildings or people engaged in consumerism, briefly illuminates the unhappy state of Americans; however, when the American ship reaches into Tangier, by using Koran recitation as background music in which the word *‘Moflehoon’* which in Arabic means *‘the redeemed’*, the director attempts to convey the redemption American passengers in particular Port and Kit are hopeful to attain in a zone free from Western materialism.

II. METHODOLOGY

According to Caponi, *The Sheltering Sky* “is a travel book about an inner journey through states of consciousness” (cited in Mossner, 2013, p.220), and travelogues are placed “in the domain of the literature of contact zone” (Sedighi & Atashi, 2014, p.4) in which the encounter between ‘self’ (the Western travelers: Port, Kit, and Tunner) with ‘Other’ (Morocco, Sahara Desert) is inevitable, and this encounter can lead either to strengthen their former Western identity of them or metamorphose it into new one. Syed Islam (1996) in his book *The Ethics of Travel* calls the former travelers as ‘sedentary’ or ‘commercial’ (p.56), and he believes that they despite moving in time and space do not travel because they are “bound by pre-set goals, [thus] they never leave the point of departure: they move folded in folded inside” (ibid.). But the latter travelers are cosmopolitan since their attitudes are flexible, appreciative, and receptive towards their travelees, their culture, and traversed lands. In addition to that, they are sometimes not satisfied merely by adopting a positive outlook towards the alien culture, and as a result they make deliberate effort to go beyond their well-protected and strongly-constructed identities to slough their Western identity off and adopt new ones. In the movie under scrutiny, travel and identity is interlaced due to the fact that in *The Sheltering Sky* characters move “away from physically from civilization, usually into the North African desert...who fight for some new identity” (Whitfield, 2011, p.278). It is safe to maintain that the metamorphosis of identity does not take place promptly, instead it takes place gradually and in contact with the ‘Other’ including travelees and their places,

Things and places are active agents of identity rather than pale reflections of pre-existing ideas and sociopolitical relations. Having real material and ideological effects on persons and social relations, things and places can then be regarded as much subjects as objects of identity. It is through a detailed examination of the effects that landscapes and places have on the way we think and the way we act that we may come to better reflect on how we understand ourselves and how we relate to others (cited in Mossner, 2013, p.223).

In this regard, the current article argues that Port Moresby and his wife, Kit undergo drastic identity thanks to their strong desire to escape their Western shells and merge into Oriental culture and its natural environment: Sahara desert, while their traveling companion Tunner like a sedentary traveler firmly sticks to his Western identity and unlike the couple he goes back to America, and at the end of the movie, he visits North Africa once more only to find and bring back Kit, his sole object of voyage.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Port

In *The Sheltering Sky*, Port demonstrates his predilection for full experience of his traveled region, its culture, and its people in its real context and this explains why he labels himself as traveler rather than a mere tourist since the tourist,

Represents the very worst aspects of modern travel and, indeed, of modernity generally. He or she is assumed to practice a lazy, timid, and superficial version of travel, in which everything is safely pre-arranged by the supervisory apparatus of the tourism industry. A genuine encounter with an alien culture or environment is thus replaced by a commodified, staged and inauthentic simulacrum of such encounters, with the result that tourists do not gain any significant insight into either the Other or themselves. And whilst tourism is generally assumed in this way to be an intrinsically pointless form of travel, it is also usually presented as being far from harmless” (Thompson, 2011, pp 122-123).

As a traveler, he does not like to just stay in the hotel, be a mere consumer, and lose the opportunities of seeing his destination by himself without any mediation. Thus, it is he who always in the movie plans their trips to the different cities in his Oriental destination, and throughout these journeys, he gradually abandons his Western identity and gains a new one; one can observe the effects of the new identity in sex, food, music, and the loss of his passport.

At the beginning of the film, it is obvious that Port cannot sexually connect with his wife who is yearning for orgasmic gratification as well as psychological warmth through life-giving power of sex. Instead, he prefers to satisfy her carnal urges by sleeping with prostitutes living in poor section of his traveled destination. Their cold relationship belies their loveless and arid marriage which is emblematic of psychological and social malaise which is byproduct of Western post-war civilization. Nonetheless, when they retreat into true Oriental natural world (Sahara desert) and make love far from hotels, which are Western cultural signs, they attain genuine, healthy, long-lost, romantic pleasures of sex which is not unlike sexual nirvana in their life. This life-giving affair is the direct and positive effect of warm Oriental Nature on them; and the following extract from the movie/novel copiously shed light on it,

“As they approached [the ridge], already they could see the endless flat desert beyond, broken here and there by sharp crests of rock that rose above the surface like the dorsal fins of so many monstrous fish, all moving in the same direction...The sun was at the flat horizon; the air was suffused with redness ... Kit took Port’s hand. They climbed in silence, *happy to be together*” (cited in Mossner, 2013, pp. 96-97).

This new happiness enables Kit to love Port more, and she proves it through looking after and nursing him when she suffered from a high fever. In addition to that, this new intimacy is indicative of Port’s movement towards his new identity.

In addition to erotic intimacy, food is influential in Port’s new identity. As one of important cultural signs, food has received sufficient critical attention from travel writing scholars. For example, Kostova (2003) assumes that “food plays a major role in/within identity formation as a vehicle for (self-) definition along the lines of gender, class, place, history/memory, ethnicity and/or nationality” (cited in Gholi & Ahmadi, 2015, p.187). Similarly Anderson (2005) notes that “food marks social class, ethnicity, and so. Food transactions define families, networks, friendship groups, religious, and virtually every other socially institutionalized group” (p.125). The movie director like the novelist, highlights two different reactions towards Oriental food in a very simple hotel. In the scene, when Port, Kit, and Tunner were eating their soup, Tunner suddenly stopped eating it and looked at it and exclaimed that “They’ve weevils [beetles]. They must have been in the noodles” (Bowles, 1949, p.75). In stark contrast to Tunner, Port and Kit did not care and keep on eating their soup and chatting. Tunner’s attitude towards Oriental food is commensurate with the nineteenth century travel writers and travelers. They linked the food of the Oriental Other with dirt and disgust and they rejected it wholly (Gholi & Ahmadi, 2015, p.187), and thus Tunner’s response foregrounds his Western identity and reveals the inflexibility of his identity, whereas Port’s receptiveness towards the Oriental food is the harbinger of his new identity and taking distance with his Western one which he is critical of it.

Furthermore, one cannot ignore the significance of music in transforming Port’s identity in the movie. Music is unalienable part of every culture, and like food, music is important in defining and demarcating cultures because every culture has its own distinctive music which reflects its dreams, joy, pains, and aspirations, and history. In *The Sheltering Sky* the role of music is salient and the director utilized indigenous music to express an Oriental atmosphere; nonetheless views towards Oriental music differ. Port and Kit are case in the point. When Kit and Port reach El Gaa, Port became desperately sick, and thus Kit left him in a stable. Then she with young Arab looked for a hotel, but much to her frustration, the only hotel in the town was closed due to contagious meningitis. When she came back, she saw Port lying on the floor while native Arab women and men surrounded him and one of them playing is flute and the other beating his drum. One can safely conjecture that Port himself hired them to alleviate the pain of his typhoid. When Kit found her husband among the native clapping and moving his hands slowly like dancer, was shocked and screamed and asked the drummer and the flutist to stop their music, whereas Port wanted them to resume their music and started clapping with the other audience as if Kit’s presence was not important for him. In this part film, one can realize that Kit is operating on the basis of her Western cultural baggage or her Western lens and strongly dismisses Oriental music and refutes its positive power on her husband. She regards it as harsh sound which may have pernicious effect on her husband’s health or worsens it. Conversely, Port delights in the music and orders the musicians to keep on. Given Port’s reaction, one can assume that Oriental music imports him pleasure, peace, and healing, but his wife fails to understand it. Therefore, his predilection for Oriental music in his critical moment of his life alludes to the fact that he is getting out of his Western identity and taking new one.

Port’s loss of passport is another noteworthy incident in *The Sheltering Sky* which related to his change of identity. In a superficial glance, it may seem that it is not an important occurrence, in a deeper level; however, it is a symbolic act. According encyclopedia of Encarta, a passport is, “[A] document of nationality and identity usually granted only to a person who is a national of the issuing country for identification and protection when traveling abroad. It is also a formal permit authorizing the holder to leave and return to the nation of which he or she is a subject”. The loss of his passport symbolizes the demise of his Western identity. Similarly, according to Mossner (2013) Port without his American passport “is no longer able to construct himself separate from the North African world” (p.229). In addition, it is not a mere coincidence that after the loss of his passport, Port’s illness gets worse and dies in his death. In fact, his disease and death symbolically fortifies the loss of his identity and ironically it is the manifestation of his new identity.

Kit

At the outset of the movie, it is not difficult to perceive that Kit is attached to her Western culture baggage and looks at her Oriental territory on the basis of it. Additionally, for her, Port’s desire for the authentic experience of Orient is difficult to digest, and this is the reason why she “feels entrapped and endangered in the vastness of the desert, regardless of the fact that there are not actually any walls or other material boundaries that keep her in a certain place” (Mossner, 2013, p. 228) . In addition to that, in the film she is always busy with managing and arranging luggage and bags packed with Western goods. This act bespeaks her obsession with their baggage and indicates that she is still clinging to her Western identity and the opportunity for her cultural metamorphosis has not arisen. Nonetheless, her chance for the identity change emerged after her husband’s death. Port’s death left her with two possible options. The first alternative was going back to American embassy and travels to her America, and the second one was continuing Port’s path: embracing the Orient and its identity. She chooses the second one, “she kicked off her sandals and stood naked in shadows. She felt a strange intensity being born within her” (p.230). By joining an Arab caravan in the outskirts

of Sahara and sitting with Belquassim in the white camel, “she stops being an American and becomes something else [a non-Westerner]” (p.231). Ironically, Kit amid barren Sahara finds the fertility of her soul after her husband’s demise with accepting Belquassim’s romantic initiation and sporting love with him. The director externalizes her blissful moments with a beautiful background Arabic song and music when in the sky the crescent moon is shining. The romantic liaison does not end in Sahara because her Oriental lover takes her to his house when their caravan reaches to their journey destination. He disguises her as a man, and she becomes his secret beloved/partner. On the surface, it may be hastily interpreted that Belquassim is treating her as his sexual slave despite her wishes, but beneath the surface it is not difficult to read her happiness in particular when with scissors she cuts her diary symbolizing Western background owing to finding orgasmic joy with Belquassim far from the eyes of his jealous wives. Mossner notes that the main reason for Kit’s escape from Belquassim’s house was his wives because she was not unhappy there (ibid.). The final stage of Kit’s loss of Western identity took place when she lost her sanity due to the harassment she got from some people in the street of Oran. Finally, a female official from the American embassy found her and hospitalized. The official with Tunner’s assistance did their best to bring back Kit to the fold of Western/ American civilization to no avail. In fact, they were unaware that Kit was no longer an American, but an American in appearance, Oriental in soul and this explains why she escaped from them and chose an Oriental path for her life.

Tunner

Unlike Port and Kit, Tunner is a sedentary traveler and he perceives his surrounding from his Western cultural lens, and he is Port’s foil. In contrast to Port, he is insensitive towards to Oriental natural world like Sahara desert and its culture. In addition, he does not find anything stimulating and worthwhile to explore in his traversed area. His negative attitude towards Oriental food and people along with his obsession with champagnes illustrate the point. In opposite to the couple, what Tunner finds in Sahara is only endless tortures for his soul. The only thing which he craves for there is wresting Kit from Port’s grasp and starting a romantic relationship with her, believing that Port has failed in gratifying the sexual urges of Kit especially when he at the beginning of film discovers that Kit sleeps by herself. In fact, he is caught in a love triangle and thus, winning her heart is the only reason he is accompanying the couple and going through the hardship of venturous trip. He tries every possible means at his disposal to reach his objective, but he fails because Kit is reluctant to remain American, and keen to explore new experiences and forgo her former identity. The director at the end of movie portrays Tunner’s last desperate attempt to extricate Kit from her newly found identity and brings back to his cold and soulless American civilization but all proved useless because Kit without informing him and an American embassy official flees into unknown destiny. On the first glance it may seem that Tunner is acting in humanistic way, but in reality, he is behaving egotistically and does not esteem Kit’s right to be free and choose her own way. As a traveler, Tunner remains in his cocoon of American identity from the beginning to end and he does not experience any drastic change in his identity, and his final alliance with American embassy official illustrates the point.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The Sheltering Sky dramatizes the life of an American couple and their family friend in the contact zone of Tangier during the post war hoping to find warmth, authentic experience, and healing to their broken conjugal relationship in the case of Port and Kit. Travel and identity is intermingled resting on travelers’ willingness to be receptive towards their travelers’ culture and natural world. In the movie, Port and Kit undergo identity transformation thanks to their openness to the Orient, its culture, and its natural world, but Tunner’s identity remains without any change due to operating on the basis of his Western cultural baggage. As receptive and appreciative traveler, he takes pride on not being an insensitive tourist. He demonstrates through his gradual identity change when he accepts Oriental music as his possible cure for his typhoid despite strong protest of protest of his wife, along with eating Algerian food without dismissing it as dirty and unhealthy like Tunner, as well as through the loss of his passport which is metaphor for his Western identity. In fact, the loss of his passport brings about the culmination of his identity metamorphosis. Given Kit, initially Kit was indifferent to the Oriental culture and natural setting. For her Port’s attraction to the Orient was absurd, but when he dies, she also like her husband experiences an identity change which finds flesh is her love affair with an Oriental man and in her rejection of American embassy official and Tunner’s request to return to America/her Western identity. With regard to Tunner, he, to borrow Syed Islam’s term, is a sedentary travel whose identity does not undergo any transformation since his goal of travel was not Orient per se but conquering Kit from the beginning of the film until the end.

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Peer Feedback in Chinese College English Writing Class: Using Action Research to Promote Students' English Writing

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Abstract—Peer feedback is an effective method to promote students' English writing competence and skill according to the literature and my personal experience. But it is not welcomed in my class at first. So I employ action research to motivate them to do peer assessment. My action research undergoes four stages: Ruin of Expectation and Emergence of Research Question, Cycle One, Cycle Two, Reinforcement and Back-proof, including both students' change and my change in both action and thought. Imperfect as it is, my action research turns out to be a success and students do gain many benefits from the practice of peer feedback.

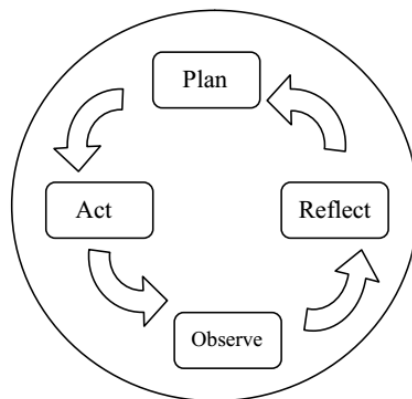
Index Terms—peer feedback, action research, English writing, Chinese college students

I. INTRODUCTION

To make it simple, action research, abbreviated as AR, is the combination and interaction of two modes of activity—*action* and *research*. The *action* is located within the ongoing social processes of particular societal context, and typically involves developments and interventions into those processes to bring about improvement and change. The *research* is located within the systematic observation and analysis of the developments and changes that eventuate in order to identify the underlying rationale for the action and to make further changes as required based on findings and outcomes. The driving purpose for the AR process is to bridge the gap between the ideal and the real in the social situation (Burns & Richards, 2009). The characteristic of AR (1) is carried out by classroom practitioners; (2) is collaborative in nature; and (3) is aimed at bringing about change (Nunan & Bailey, 2008).

Briefly, AR goes through 4 essential steps: plan, act, observe and reflect. There is a general model for AR (Wang & Zhang, 2014). See below.

TABLE I.
CYCLE OF AR



Peer feedback, also called peer assessment, peer evaluation or peer review, commonly used in higher education and professional development, is generally defined as the application of standards to evaluate and provide feedback on the work of peers or colleagues. Objective peer feedback is an important skill for students to learn during their formal education (Theising, 2013). Peer feedback is attached greater importance in recent years since student-centered pedagogical concept is accepted gradually and student-centered teaching is practiced in more language classes.

According to the existing literature, peer feedback brings a lot of benefits in writing. Teacher feedback is not the sole resource of information and assessment for writing. And the writing process includes students' active participation through cooperation and co-support. By participating in the writing process of one's own composition and others', all students should take the initiative to play their own role well. Many students are eager to know what kind of assistance the peers can provide. Compared with teacher one, peer feedback makes people at ease (Williams, 2007). Compared

with teachers who are rather busy, students have more sufficient time to do writing evaluation, making the process of receiving feedback and completing writing. Besides, students improve the evaluation capacity by shifting their role from readers to criticizers and correctors. Students' writing skills are improved gradually when experiencing the process (Rollinson, 2005). In short, as a method to sharpen up students' writing competence and skill, peer feedback is highly suggested in pedagogical practices.

Based on my personal experience, peer assessment is of great assistance in writing. During my undergraduate period, I experienced peer assessment for some time. In the English writing class, the teacher exposed us to peer feedback. We tried it all the semester and got familiar with it gradually. After the course ended, we found this method did work and we made great progress. Since then, I have been impressed deeply by it and as a pre-service teacher, I have been looking for opportunities to try peer assessment on my students. I have not been able to fulfill this dream until finally I enroll in Beijing International Studies University (BISU).

I am lucky enough to be appointed to teach undergraduate students in BISU. It is worth mentioning something about BISU before having an in-depth description of my students. BISU is a high-level national university specialized in foreign languages. Students from around the nation and the world spend their three or four years in this renowned university. The course I teach is second language for non-English majors. The students I teach major in Russian and French, and their second language is English. They come from different provinces of China and their language proficiency is relatively high though individual difference does exist. I was so excited when I first heard this news. I felt it was the right time for me to let my students try peer feedback.

II. ACTION RESEARCH CYCLE

A. *Ruin of Expectation and Emergence of Research Question*

Just as mentioned in the Introduction Part, I couldn't wait to introduce peer feedback to my students because I believed firmly that it was a decent pedagogical method. Therefore, in the fourth week of the semester, I assigned a writing task called "An Unforgettable Event I Have Experienced Before" to my students. After they all finished the composition, I gave a very brief introduction to peer feedback and asked them to do it by exchanging their papers with deskmates. Then the students handed in the compositions with peer feedback and I took students' paper back to correct them, expecting that my students would benefit a lot from what I asked them to do.

To my surprise and disappointment, however, things got the opposite of what I wanted, and my expectation was ruined totally. After I corrected all the composition and checked the assessment by students themselves, I found that the "decent method" wasn't welcomed and didn't work on my students. See Table 2 below for details.

TABLE 2.
PEER FEEDBACK OF COMPOSITION 1

Number	Feedback Type	Word Number	Perspective(s)	Language
1	Critique	5	Content	Chinese
2	Critique	4	Emotion	Chinese
3	Both	12	Content	Chinese
4	Affirmation	12	Sentence Pattern, Content, Emotion	Chinese
5	Both	10	Sentence Pattern, Content	Chinese
6	Affirmation	29	Content, Grammar, Vocabulary	Chinese
7	Affirmation	16	None	Chinese
8	Affirmation	4	None	Chinese
9	Affirmation	11	Emotion, Grammar	Chinese
10	Affirmation	12	Content, Cohesion	Chinese
11	Both	27	Emotion, Sentence Pattern, Content	Chinese
12	Affirmation	1	None	Chinese

Here feedback type was explained in detail. See Table 3 below.

TABLE 3.
FEEDBACK TYPE (WENG & LI, 2009)

Feedback Type	Description	Sample Statements
Affirmation	Supportive, appreciative statement without concrete information of future revision	Excellent! Perfect! Good handwriting! Clear structure!
Critique	Constructive criticism that is related to what students have written and leads to following revision	You didn't catch the gist of the writing task. Some spelling mistakes exist. Handwriting is unrecognizable. You didn't get yourself across.

To be specific, only a small number of students were willing to get involved in peer assessment. There were 53 students in my class. I collected 45 compositions in total (some students missed class). Only 12 of the 45 collected compositions were with peer feedback. The affirmation type (7 in number) of peer feedback was dominant compared with the critique type (2 in number). One thing that needed to be mentioned was that criticism was of vital importance

although it did not mean affirmation was not significant. It was obvious, however, that students couldn't make huge progress without criticism from others. Besides, the average word number of peer feedback was 11.91, which was comparatively low and indicated students' reluctance to get participated. In addition, averagely, students chose only one perspective to do peer assessment, showing students' uncertainty about the criteria for peer evaluation. Last, all the students wrote their peer feedback in Chinese, displaying the low production of target language.

Looking at the data, I was at first astonished, and then disillusioned. I even started to doubt that if what I had believed deeply from the bottom of my heart before was wrong. But after a few minutes for calming down and regaining a cool head, I wondered about the reason why students were unwilling to get involved in peer assessment. I began to turn to action research for help to solve the head aching problem of students' low participation.

B. Cycle One

1. Planning

Pondering over the problem for several days, I had a clearer thinking slowly. I sent out questionnaires and held interviews with my students, and then gradually had a clearer picture of the problem. I summarized the reasons why students were reluctant to do peer feedback, and the reasons could be put into 2 categories: internal factors and external factors. The external factors (the internal factors are discussed in Cycle Two Part) included: 1. time for peer assessment was not sufficient; 2. deskmate evaluation was inappropriate; 3. handwriting of some students was unrecognizable, making peer review impossible; 4. peer feedback was not a criterion for composition correction and had no impact on the score students got. Thus, I planned to do my action research within two cycles. Cycle One was to motivate students to do peer feedback by removing external obstacles. Cycle Two was to motivate students to do peer assessment by removing internal obstacles. The rationale for my plan was based on the order from something easy from something hard. Generally speaking, internal factors determined external factors and were much harder than external factors.

2. Action

As planned, in the eighth week of the semester, I gave my students another writing task called "A book I have read in college", and invited them to do peer evaluation. Different from previous one, this time I gave enough time for the purpose of achieving better results. Moreover, I distributed students' compositions in the whole class randomly instead of within deskmates. Furthermore, I told my students to write their paper neatly. Last, I told them I would read every word they wrote for peer assessment. They handed in the paper after finishing peer feedback.

3. Findings

I then marked the composition and summarized the peer assessment students gave. The details were displayed in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
PEER FEEDBACK OF COMPOSITION 2

Number	Feedback Type	Word Number	Perspective(s)	Language
1	Affirmation	12	Emotion, Content, Structure	Chinese
2	Affirmation	5	Content	Chinese
3	Both	33	Structure	Chinese
4	Both	9	Content	Chinese
5	Both	20	Emotion, Vocabulary	Chinese
6	Affirmation	31	Content, Structure, Handwriting, Emotion	Chinese
7	Affirmation	1	None	Chinese
8	Both	33	Vocabulary, Content	Chinese
9	Both	6	Content	Chinese
10	Affirmation	10	Content	English
11	Affirmation	20	Content, Handwriting, Structure, Vocabulary	Chinese
12	Both	16	Handwriting, Content	Chinese
13	Both	22	Grammar, Vocabulary, Content	Chinese
14	Both	24	Content, Vocabulary	Chinese
15	Both	32	Content, Vocabulary, Handwriting	Chinese
16	Affirmation	8	Handwriting, Content	Chinese
17	Affirmation	29	Vocabulary, Structure	Chinese
18	Both	20	Content, Handwriting	Chinese
19	Both	18	Structure, Grammar, Vocabulary	Chinese

Specifically, more students showed interest in peer evaluation. 30 of them turned in their writing paper, and 19 of the 30 compositions were with peer assessment, which increased a lot compared with the previous time. 8 of the feedbacks were affirmative ones and 0 of them were critical one. The rest 11 feedbacks embraced both affirmation and critique. Although critique decreased in comparison with the previous one, affirmation decreased at the same time. That was to say, critique actually increased because the rest 11 feedbacks mentioned above included the critical one. The word number increased by 6.47, reaching 18.38. The perspectives that students chose were 2, which served as a sign of progress. The dominant language they adopted was Chinese while one student selected English.

4. Reflection

Thinking about my students' performance, I first was much relieved and then excited. Seeing the progress they had made, I felt very proud of the method of peer evaluation. Although finding out that they showed more interest in it, I

was determined to continue my action research in order to carry on improving their English writing competence through peer assessment.

C. Cycle Two

1. Planning

As discussed in Cycle One, I would not stop my action research with only one round. So in Cycle Two, I intended to encourage my students to do peer feedback by removing some internal obstacles. Here internal obstacles included: 1. Students thought they were not capable of doing peer feedback; 2. They consider it to be useless; 3. They lacked relevant experience because they hadn't done it before; 4. They believed teacher feedback was much more valuable than peer one; 5. They didn't want to criticize their classmates and let them lose face because face almost meant everything in China; 6. They were not very clear about the criteria for it.

2. Action

In the 14th week of the semester, I provided my students the third writing task titled "What can college students do to fight against smog?" and of course let them do peer feedback. This time, I gave them much encouragement by saying that everyone was differently qualified and had his or her own special opinion. And I told them peer evaluation was highly helpful by talking about the literature and my personal experience. Besides, I made it clear that teacher feedback and peer one complemented each other. Furthermore, I set out that they would make progress very slowly if without critique. Last, I offered them some general criteria. See Table 4 below.

TABLE 5.
CRITERIA FOR PEER FEEDBACK

Criterion	Description
Emotion	Real, full
Content	Complete, rich
Handwriting	Recognizable, neat, beautiful
Structure	Appropriate, clear
Grammar	Consistent with grammatical rule
Phrase, idiom	Included, proper in usage
Vocabulary	Correct in spelling, proper in usage, varied

3. Findings

The peer feedback for the third composition was processed by Microsoft Excel and was shown one by one in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6.
PEER FEEDBACK OF COMPOSITION 3

Number	Feedback Type	Word Number	Perspective(s)	Language
1	Both	30	Content, Sentence Pattern, Vocabulary	Chinese
2	Both	23	Content, Structure, Handwriting, Vocabulary	Chinese
3	Both	27	Grammar, Handwriting	Chinese
4	Both	33	Handwriting, Emotion, Vocabulary	English
5	Both	28	Content, Handwriting	Chinese
6	Both	29	Handwriting, Content, Sentence Pattern	Chinese
7	Affirmation	29	Structure, Content, Handwriting, Phrase	Chinese
8	Affirmation	6	None	Chinese
9	Affirmation	5	None	English
10	Affirmation	1	None	Chinese
11	Affirmation	41	Sentence Pattern, Vocabulary	Chinese
12	Both	21	Vocabulary, Content	Chinese
13	Both	19	Handwriting, Structure	Chinese
14	Affirmation	8	Content, Structure	English
15	Critique	5	Structure	Chinese
16	Affirmation	12	Handwriting, Sentence Pattern, Structure	Chinese
17	Affirmation	15	Content, Structure, Grammar	Chinese
18	Both	38	Structure, Content, Handwriting, Sentence Pattern	Chinese
19	Affirmation	8	Content, Vocabulary	English
20	Affirmation	12	Structure	Chinese
21	Both	22	Handwriting, Grammar, Vocabulary	Chinese
22	Both	44	Content, Handwriting, Grammar, Phrase, Vocabulary	Chinese
23	Both	51	Content, Handwriting, Structure, Vocabulary	Chinese
24	Both	31	Vocabulary, Structure	Chinese
25	Both	50	Content	Chinese
26	Both	24	Handwriting, Content, Word Number	Chinese
27	Affirmation	2	None	Chinese
28	Affirmation	5	Structure	Chinese

Specifically speaking, stronger willingness for peer evaluation was manifested clearly. 32 compositions were handed in and 28 of them were with peer assessment. 12 of the feedbacks belonged to affirmative type, and 1 of them was

critical one. The dominant rest 15 of them included both affirmation and critique, indicating that students were able to both appreciate and criticize. The average word number of peer feedback was 22.1, increasing significantly compared with the previous two. Students finished their peer evaluation from about 3 different perspectives, making their opinions multidimensional. Although Chinese was still dominant, 4 of them wrote in English (the previous time was only 1). One thing that hadn't been touched upon in Table 5 was that emoticons like a smiling face or a thumb-up sign appeared in peer review, indicating that most students were no longer reluctant to communicate with their classmates.

4. Reflection

Ecstasy occupied me when looking at the statistics. Through class observation, I could feel that my dear students gradually adapted to peer feedback and attached value to it. They stepped forward in their writing capacity by the practice.

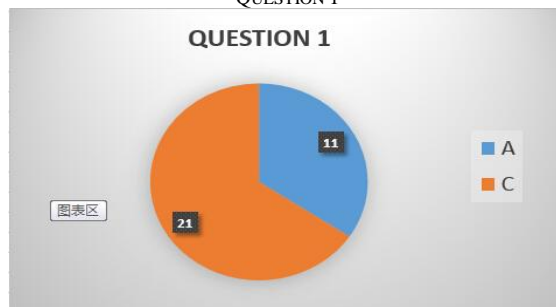
D. Reinforcement and Back-proof

After Cycle One and Cycle Two, I wanted to test whether my students really benefited from peer feedback and figured out their real and in-depth opinion on the pedagogical method. Therefore, I designed and sent out a questionnaire, and held interviews with 6 students.

1. Questionnaire

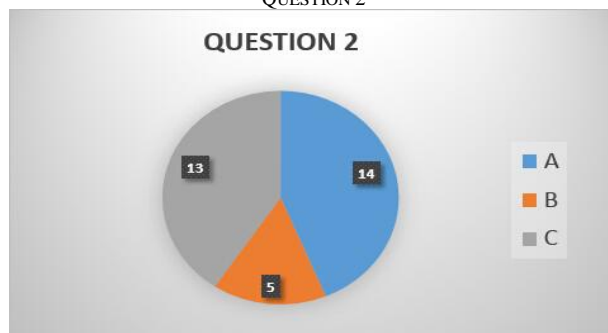
I issued 40 questionnaires (the questionnaire was attached to appendixes) and 32 of them were recalled. All the 32 questionnaires were valid. Then I processed them and got the data. The analysis was as follows.

TABLE 7.
QUESTION 1



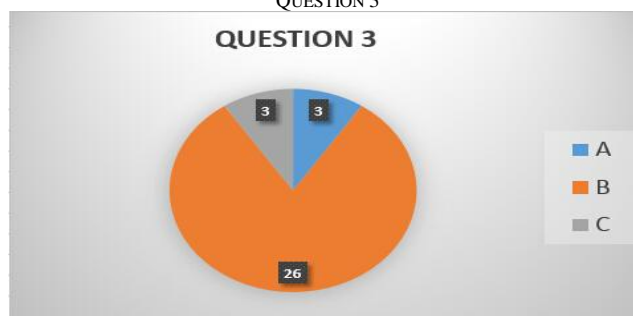
Over half of the students chose Option C. More students were no longer reluctant to do peer review.

TABLE 8.
QUESTION 2



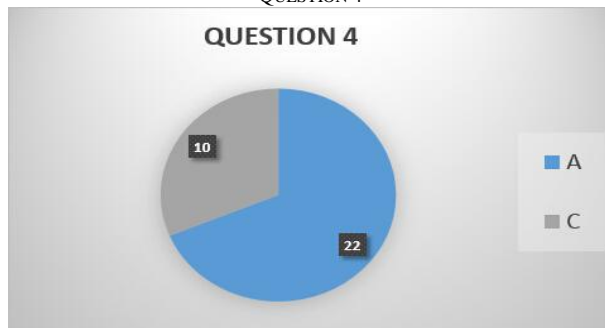
Most students selected Option A and C. About half of them felt both fresh and stressful while the other half thought they didn't care.

TABLE 9.
QUESTION 3



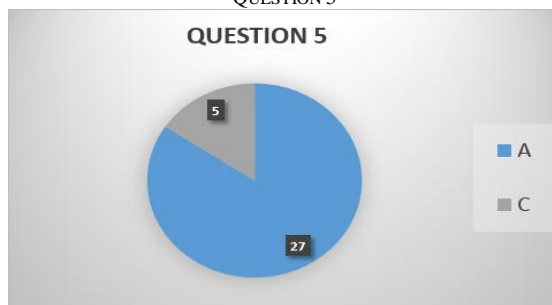
The overwhelming majority of students preferred Option B. They believed that only some of them possessed the ability to do peer evaluation.

TABLE 10.
QUESTION 4



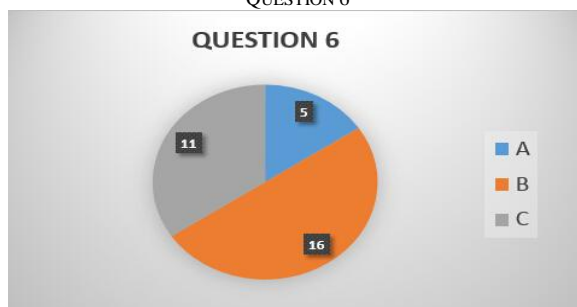
More than half of students agreed with Option A. They thought that to some extent peer evaluation could arouse their interest in English writing.

TABLE 11.
QUESTION 5



The majority of students preferred Option A. Most of them were pleased to accept the comments from their classmates.

TABLE 12.
QUESTION 6



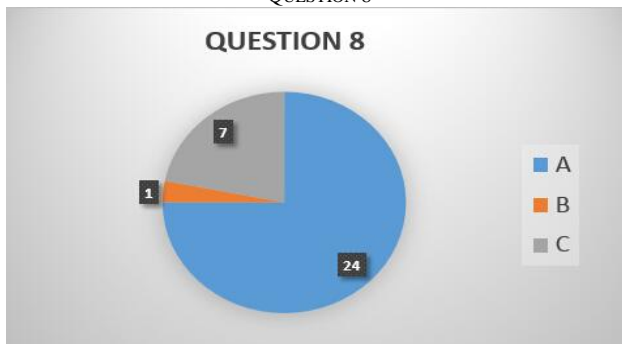
Half students selected Option B. They held that basically speaking, they could give serious and objective comments for their classmates.

TABLE 13.
QUESTION 7



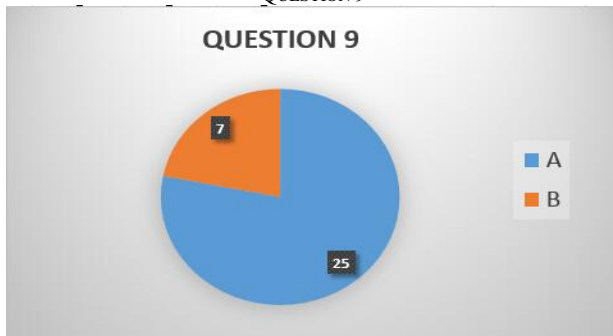
Every option was chosen evenly by students. Some believed peer feedback was helpful for enhancing students' writing skills while some didn't believe so.

TABLE 14.
QUESTION 8



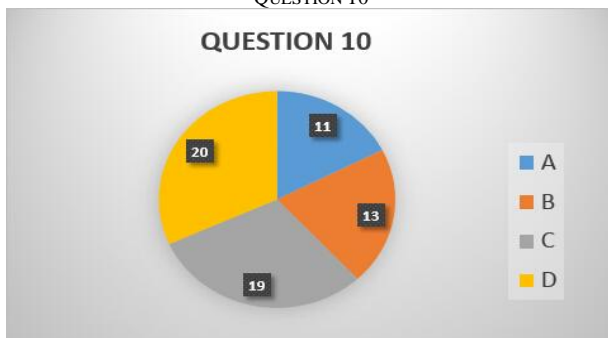
Most of the students agreed with Option A. Compared with peer assessment, they trusted teacher assessment much more.

TABLE 15.
QUESTION 9



The majority of the students selected Option B. They preferred the mode of teacher assessment along with peer one.

TABLE 16.
QUESTION 10



The four options were chosen almost evenly by students. They believed that peer review could arouse their awareness of cooperation, enhance mutual understanding, improve writing appreciation skill, and broaden horizon.

2. Interview

Except for the questionnaire, I also held interviews (the interview questions were attached to appendixes) with some students in order to get their true opinion on peer feedback. The 6 interviewees were chosen randomly from my class.

In regard to Question 1, most of them had done peer assessment before. However, their experience occurred during their primary school time when viewing their Chinese compositions. Their first impression and the latest one on peer evaluation were different. They held a more serious attitude towards it.

As for Question 2, generally, most of the 6 interviewee thought that they were not capable enough to do peer review and it was beyond their ability.

With regard to Question 3, students did gain a lot. They broadened their horizon and made a breakthrough in English writing by learning from others. At the same time, they could avoid the mistakes their classmates had made.

As to Question 4, beside the improvement in writing skills, they had a deeper understanding of their classmates and enhanced their learning autonomy.

As regards Question 5, all of my students loved the mode of teacher assessment accompanied with peer one. They believed that this mode could mobilize them to learn actively and enthusiastically.

Concerning Question 6, some said that peer review ought to be only regarded as a supplement of teacher review. One student mentioned that some were against peer review because they didn't want their paper to be read by others except their teacher.

III. CONCLUSION, LIMITATION AND FUTURE STUDY

By adopting to action research, peer feedback in college English writing class can promote students' English writing competence and skill. In my action research, I first identify the research question (students are reluctant to do peer assessment), and plan the intervention. Then I take some actions and motivate my students to do peer evaluation by removing external obstacles and internal ones respectively. Last, I conduct a questionnaire and interview to reinforce and back-prove that the students do gain a lot through the practice of peer research. It is found that the students make recognizable progress not only in English writing capability, but also in cooperation awareness, mutual understanding, reciprocal appreciation and mind-stretching.

For limitation and future study, there are some points worth considering. While most students accept peer feedback gradually, some believe that it is totally useless and a waste of time and energy. In addition, gender difference in peer evaluation is a valuable direction for future study. Besides, the comparison of teacher review and peer one is another further research perspective.

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APPENDIXES. SURVEY OF PEER FEEDBACK IN CHINESE COLLEGE ENGLISH WRITING CLASS FOR NON-ENGLISH MAJORS

I. Closed questions

1. What kind of assessments do you expect in English writing class?
A. teacher review B. peer review C. both
2. Are you willing to engage in peer feedback in English writing class?
A. yes but with high pressure B. yes C. indifferent
3. Do you think you and your partners are capable of reviewing English compositions?
A. yes B. only some are capable C. no
4. Does peer feedback in English writing class interest and motivate you?
A. a little B. greatly C. not really
5. Are you willing to accept the comments given by your partners?
A. yes B. no C. sometimes
6. Can you offer serious and objective assessments for your partners?
A. yes B. basically yes C. not really
7. Do you think peer feedback is an effective way to improve English writing level?
A. yes B. no C. not sure
8. Which one do you prefer, teacher review or peer review?
A. teacher review B. peer review C. both
9. Which option do you think is more useful for enhancing English writing level?
A. teacher review accompanied by peer review B. teacher review C. peer review accompanied by teacher review
10. What have you learnt from peer feedback?
A. greater sense of cooperation B. better communication with classmates C. greater appreciation of writing work D. broader horizon

II. Open questions

11. What difficulties have you encountered when giving peer feedback?
12. What have you gained though the practice of peer review?
13. What is your opinion on peer assessment? Do you have any suggestions?
14. What else do you want to add concerning peer feedback?

Interview about peer feedback in Chinese college English writing class for non-English majors

Objects:

Russian and French majors from Beijing International Studies University

Number:

6 students

Questions:

1. Have you ever done peer assessment before? If yes, do you feel any differences between your previous experience and the present one?
2. What difficulties have you encountered when doing peer review?
3. Do you think that you improve a lot in English writing through the practice of peer feedback? If yes, can you talk about your gains specifically?
4. Do you learn something else except the training of English writing through the practice of peer feedback? If yes, talk about it specifically.
5. Do you like the mode of teacher review accompanied by peer review? Why or why not?
6. What else do you want to share concerning peer feedback?

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How Can EFL Teachers Help EFL Learners Improve Their English Pronunciation?

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Abstract—One of the important parts of foreign language teaching and learning is English pronunciation because it impacts learners' communicative competence and performance. Lack of pronunciation skills reduces learners' self-confidence and limit their social interactions. EFL teachers can help their learners obtain the necessary skills of pronunciation they need for effective communication. In this paper, the researchers define the term pronunciation, explain the importance of pronunciation, declare the goals of English pronunciation, state the aspects of English pronunciation, elaborate the reason of integrating pronunciation in EFL classes, express techniques for teaching English pronunciation, and mention implications for the learning and teaching of English pronunciation. The review of literature indicates that EFL teachers play a vital role in improving the learners' pronunciation skill.

Index Terms—importance, goals, aspects, integration, techniques, implications

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Elliot (1995), pronunciation is one of the most important features of an individual's speech, but a lot of teachers do not explicitly teach it. It is seldom taught by teachers in the foreign language classrooms. In addition, it is one of the most difficult challenges that language teachers and learners face. If teachers understand the characteristics that impact their learners' pronunciation, they can effectively improve their instruction to increase the accuracy of their learners' pronunciation.

Fraser (2000) stated that ESL/EFL teachers should be provided with courses and materials to help them improve their pronunciation instruction. According to Morley (1991), understandable pronunciation is one of the principal aims of pronunciation instruction not perfect pronunciation and it is an important part of communicative competence. Realistic goals that are reasonable, applicable, and suitable for the communication needs of the learner should be set. Therefore, it is very important for learners learning English speak it as understandably as possible – not just like native speakers of English, but well enough to be understood.

Fraser (2000) stated that pronunciation is the most important oral communication skill. Miller (2004) expressed that pronunciation should be balanced with all of the other communication skills. Miller continued that teachers have a big role in developing this important skill. According to Fraser (2000), being able to speak English involves certain sub-skills such as vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics. However, the most important of these skills is pronunciation. With acceptable pronunciation, a speaker's speech can be understandable despite having other mistakes; with bad pronunciation, his/her speech would be very difficult to understand, despite being accurate in other areas. Julia (2002) stated that pronunciation is one of the basic skills and the foundation of oral communication for EFL learners. Julia (2002) continued that without pronunciation there would be no spoken language and no oral communication.

The aim of teaching pronunciation to learners is not to ask them to pronounce like native speakers. Instead intelligible pronunciation should be the real purpose of oral communication. According to Pourhosein Gilakjani (2011), in order to change the way learners pronounce English words, they should change the way they think about the sounds of those words. This is true not just for individual sounds but for the bigger parts of speech like syllables, stress patterns, and rhythm. Unfortunately, pronunciation instruction remains largely neglected in English language teaching.

In this paper, the researchers define the term pronunciation, elaborate the importance of pronunciation, mention the goals of English pronunciation, explain aspects of English pronunciation, declare the reason of integrating pronunciation in EFL classes, state techniques for teaching English pronunciation, and indicate implications for the learning and teaching of English pronunciation.

II. WHAT IS PRONUNCIATION?

According to Pourhosein Gilakjani (2012) and Yates and Zielinski (2009), pronunciation is the way of producing the sounds that are used to make meaning when speakers speak. It involves consonants and vowels of a language (segments), features of speech beyond the level of the individual segments, like stress, timing, rhythm, intonation,

phrasing (suprasegmental features), and how the voice is described (voice quality). All of the above parts work together when speakers talk so that problems in one part can influence on the other and this can make a person's pronunciation easy or difficult to comprehend.

III. IMPORTANCE OF PRONUNCIATION

People can understand learners who have good pronunciation even if they make mistakes in other areas of language but they are not able to understand those who have unintelligible pronunciation even if they have extensive vocabulary knowledge and know grammar fully (Yates & Zielinski, 2009).

Listeners judge about a speaker's English ability based on his/her own pronunciation. If a speaker's pronunciation is so weak this has a negative impact on his/ her overall language ability. Bad pronunciation is very difficult to listen to and it needs greater effort and concentration on listeners. Bad pronunciation results in misunderstandings even a breakdown in communication. If a speaker has an acceptable pronunciation, listeners judge about the speaker's overall language ability much more effectively, even to the point of tolerating grammatical mistakes (Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012).

Good pronunciation provides a valuable confidence for speaker. Good pronunciation is not 'native-like' pronunciation. If a learner tries to speak exactly like a native speaker he will soon be disappointed because this is not a realistic aim of learning pronunciation. The objective should be to gain a 'listener-friendly' pronunciation; that is, listeners can easily understand it that can make meaningful conversation possible (Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012).

According to Morley (1998), when speakers talk to other persons, the first thing that can create good impression about the quality of their language ability is their pronunciation. Bad and incomprehensible pronunciation will make misunderstanding for both speakers and listeners. Moreover, learners with limited pronunciation skills lose their self-confidence and result in negative impact for learners to assess their abilities.

Good pronunciation can make individuals understand us easily. Bad pronunciation can confuse persons and lead to an unfavorable talking and misunderstanding even if we use advanced grammar or vocabulary. Consequently, we can use simple words or grammatical structures to make people understand us but we cannot always use simple pronunciation (Lund, 2003).

According to Gelvanovsky (2002), pronunciation has an important social value and it should be related to prestige like intelligence, professional competence, hard work, and social advantage. Pronunciation provides information about the speakers' geographical and social characteristics and it is the most important feature of non-native speakers.

Fraser (2000) declared that pronunciation impacts the speakers who are judged by other people and it is the most difficult skill to be learnt. Miller (2004) emphasized that pronunciation problems result in conversation breakdowns. Miller stressed that the significance of pronunciation instruction should be balanced with the instruction of the other language skills.

IV. THE GOALS OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

Intelligibility is an ideal goal for many EFL learners and the goal of these learners is to be understood in conversation but there are other learners who wish to communicate with native speakers. According to Fraser (2000), learners should be able to speak English with their favorite accent which is easily understandable to an English speaker. Jenkins (2002) stated that learners need to be intelligible to both native and non-native speakers. Teachers should help learners become both intelligible and easy to understand.

EFL learners cannot completely pronounce English words exactly like native speakers. Intelligibility is an ideal goal for most learners although some of them like to pronounce more native-like than others for specific reasons (Abercrombie, 1991).

Yates and Zielinski (2009) said that 'intelligibility' itself is not an ideal aim. What is intelligible is dependent on the listener. What speakers interact is just as important as what they say and do. Listeners have their own attitudes, skills, experience, and biases that can impact their views about intelligibility. These involve familiarity with the speaker's accent, ability in comprehending speakers from various levels, and attitudes towards the speaker and the speaker's racial group. Thus, every listener judges the understandability of the same speaker differently due to some factors. These involve how kind they are to the speaker and how familiar they are with the speaker. How much they already know about what is being talked about is also important.

According to Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003), the goals of teaching pronunciation are to develop English that is easy to understand and not confusing to the listener, develop English that meets persons' needs and that results in communicative competence, help learners feel more comfortable in using English, develop a positive self-awareness as non-native speakers in oral communication, develop speech consciousness, personal speech monitoring skills and speech adjustment strategies that help learners develop in and out of the class.

James (2010) and Pourhosein Gilakjani (2012) stated that speakers have understandable pronunciation when other persons can understand what they say and the speaker's English is good to listen to; that is, the speaker is 'comfortably intelligible.' The researchers continued that for some learners, the goal of learning pronunciation is to speak like native speakers. This may be a valuable goal for learners, it should not be the goal of teachers who want to improve their

learners' pronunciation and confidence. Therefore, acceptable pronunciation is not to force learners to have an American or British accent, but teachers should encourage their learners to speak English clearly and understandably.

V. ASPECTS OF PRONUNCIATION

Pennington and Richards (1986) indicated that there are two various viewpoints concerning pronunciation. From the view of many language teachers, pronunciation is the production of individual sounds, stress and intonation patterns of the target language which shows the traditional opinion that pronunciation is related to the referential meaning and individual sounds.

According to Brazil, Coulthard, and Johns (1980), pronunciation is a part of both referential meaning and communication process. Pennington and Richards (1986) expressed that pronunciation is a complex interaction of perceptual, articulatory, and interactional factors in terms of three kinds of qualities: segmental features, voice-setting features, and prosodic features.

A. Segmental Features

Segmental features are minimal units of sound determined in phonetic terms. The basic elements of pronunciation are phonemes; therefore, learning of the target language phonological system is the understanding of the phonemic differences and of the phonetic forms of phonemes that are in particular environments within syllables and words. It is the particular features of individual sound segments (Pennington & Richards, 1986).

B. Voice-setting Features

Voice-setting features are the general articulatory features of stretches of speech. The tendency of speakers of a specific language to pursue some habitual positions of articulation in connected speech are demonstrated in terms of voice-setting features (Pennington & Richards, 1986).

C. Prosodic Features

The last aspects of pronunciation are stress and intonation. Prosodic features are the relative levels of stress and pitch within syllables, words, phrases, and longer stretches of speech (Pennington & Richards, 1986). Yates and Zielinski (2009) expressed that learners should pay attention to all features of their pronunciation that make better their comprehensibility and assist them to decrease miscommunication. What a learner finds very difficult about pronunciation differs from learner to learner and the effect of their first language has a vital role.

According to Yates and Zielinski (2009), it is necessary for learners to pay attention to those features of pronunciation which are related to larger units of speech like stress, rhythm, intonation, and voice quality (suprasegmental aspects) and to how the different sounds of English are produced (segmental aspects). The degree to which segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation intervene with understandability for a specific speaker may differ and in every class teachers may have learners from many backgrounds with many different accents. As a learner becomes more skilled, difficulty with intonation and voice quality may be more significant matters and teachers should emphasize these issues from the very beginning of their instruction (Yates & Zielinski, 2009).

VI. THE REASON OF INTEGRATING PRONUNCIATION IN EFL CLASSES

Too much attention to English pronunciation in EFL lessons shows that pronunciation is an important part of learning English. EFL Learners should know how they speak to others in order to know what to aim for. Previous studies show that EFL teachers are the only persons many learners speak to in English. If teachers don't show the necessary guides towards understandable pronunciation to their learners, nobody will do it. Teachers can perform this through teaching the pronunciation of new words and phrases and setting up suitable anticipations for comprehensible pronunciation in their classes (Yates & Zielinski, 2009).

Teachers can help their learners to generate comprehensible speech and this is one of the most useful things they can bring to English pronunciation teaching and learning. Teachers should find methods to show, practice, and give feedback on pronunciation in a continuous way that is more useful than a large number of pronunciation subjects (Yates & Zielinski, 2009).

According to Pourhosein Gilakjani (2012), some variables are important when integrating pronunciation into the EFL classrooms. They are *learners* including their ages, educational backgrounds, experiences with pronunciation instruction, and motivation, *instructional settings* including academic, workplace, literacy, conversation, *institutional factors* including teachers' educational experiences, focus of syllabus, availability of pronunciation tasks, class size, and accessibility of equipment, and *linguistic variables* including learners' native language, diversity or lack of diversity of native language within the group.

VII. TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

According to Gottlieb (2006), teaching pronunciation needs understanding three aspects of speech: perception, production, and prediction. Perception of oral language includes hearing, listening, seeing, and feeling. This sensing and

thinking about all of the parts of the speech system is necessary for pronunciation: lips, tongue, throat, vocal chords, sinuses, and facial muscles. Production of oral language needs time to listen, process, and form an answer, knowledge of the elements of the language and activation of background knowledge. Prediction of oral communication needs comes through experience different contexts. Through teaching prediction strategies, EFL learners progress rapidly to become independent learners.

The history of language teaching has limited the speaking/pronunciation part to the drill or situational responsive answers. New methods have focused on accurate speaking activities focused on doing real-world speaking activities with attention to a single segmental or spelling, phrasing, rhythm, or tone element of pronunciation (Gottlieb, 2006).

Cook (2001) suggested a number of techniques for teaching and learning English pronunciation. They are use of phonetic transcript, imitation, discrimination of sounds, and communication. Schmitt (2002) mentioned some ways of learning English pronunciation like elicited mechanical production, ear training for sound contrast, and sounds for meaning contrasts.

According to Penny Ur (1996), the goal of pronunciation is not to obtain a complete mimicry of native accent but to make the learner to pronounce correctly to be understandable to other speakers. She stated some methods of pronunciation instruction. They are imitation of teachers or recorded models of sounds, recording of learners' speech and contrast with native model, systematic description and training, imitation exercises, repetition of sounds, different repetition of drills, learning dialogues, rhythms, tongue twisters, and self-correction by hearing to recordings of own speech.

According to Harmer (2006), learners should be given additional information about spoken English and teachers should aid them to gain the aim of comprehensibility. Harmer emphasizes intelligibility rather than perfection as the main goal of pronunciation teaching. Harmer said that the techniques of pronunciation instruction are focusing on individuals sound, minimal pair drill, pronunciation games, sound waves practice, and learning connected speech. Thornbury (2008) demonstrated that intelligibility is vital in English pronunciation. He offers some techniques of teaching pronunciation such as preparing cards of rhyming words, telling story and noticing learners' mistakes and improving them, and presenting speaking exercises.

According to Cheng (1998), teachers can use the following strategies to teach pronunciation:

a) Meaningful materials: Teachers can use real materials for practicing linking, rhythm, stress, or intonation. Consequently, learners become active persons in their team work.

b) Using songs, games, and tongue twisters: These activities can enhance learners' stimulation in pronunciation classes because it is an important factor in pronunciation.

c) Evaluating learners' improvement: Evaluating advancement is a significant factor in keeping learners' motivation.

According to Scarcella and Oxford (1994), techniques for teaching pronunciation are self-monitoring, self-study, individual correction, communication activities, written versions of oral presentations, computer-assisted language learning, the application of known sounds, communication strategies, and affective strategies. Lin, Fan, and Chen (1995) indicated some strategies to teach pronunciation. They are intonation, stress and rhythm, consonants, and vowels. Noll and Collins (2002) mentioned certain strategies in pronunciation instruction. They are finger correction strategies, mime, and gesture strategies.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY TO THE LEARNING AND TEACHING OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

EFL learners cannot learn an intelligible pronunciation without teachers' instruction. Learners can advance through this instruction although it may be done slowly. Both learners and teachers should be patient in obtaining the desirable results of improving pronunciation and should not expect that improvements are rapidly made. That is, the improvement of English pronunciation is a continuous process that is gained in the long term. Teachers should spend a lot of time to help their learners to understand more about the differences between their own pronunciation and more intelligible models.

Due to the fact that EFL learners are different from each other in many ways, there is not a particular approach to pronunciation instruction. A combination of techniques and methods can help learners improve their pronunciation. The following suggestions are useful for pronunciation instruction:

1. A lot of authentic listening activities should be provided by EFL teachers for EFL learners and they should continuously practice them in their classes.

2. Pronunciation should be integrated into other language skills and its learning should be a continuous activity for EFL learners.

3. EFL Teachers should first focus on suprasegmental aspect of English pronunciation because this permits the pronunciation instruction to be integrated into the teaching of spoken language and can meet the needs of EFL learners from different backgrounds. Of course, this does not mean that the teachers should not pay attention to the segmental aspect of pronunciation but they can use them in contexts.

4. EFL Teachers should explain important differences between the sounds of target language and the mother tongue that helps learners to adapt the new nature of the target language. When teachers know the differences and similarities between the sound systems of the native language and the target language, they can understand the difficult sounds that learners may encounter.

5. EFL Teachers should create a good learning environment and involve learners in real-life situations where they are provided with authentic listening materials. As a result, learners can learn native-like pronunciation through imitation, they can also learn gestures and body language by seeing video materials that help them to communicate naturally and give them more self-reliance in the communicative process.

6. EFL teachers should be aware of the pronunciation problems that their learners encounter and they should correct them when they make some mistakes in pronouncing English words.

7. EFL teachers should be trained in teaching pronunciation for their EFL learners. Teachers should have enough instructional facilities such as different kinds of computer software particularly pronunciation software.

IX. CONCLUSION

Pronunciation is an integral part of communication that should be incorporated into classroom activities. EFL teachers should pay attention to the learners' needs and abilities and include pronunciation into their oral skills and other English classes and focus on both segmental and supra-segmental features. EFL teachers should help their learners to produce the English words accurately and increase their awareness towards the importance of pronunciation into their classes. Due to the fact that the change of bad habits in English pronunciation is a long-term process and needs a lot of time, EFL teachers should help their learners to gradually improve their own pronunciation and speaking skills in and outside the classroom. Teachers should use different techniques and strategies for teaching pronunciation. With more techniques and strategies, EFL teachers will feel much more comfortable in teaching pronunciation. EFL learners can increase their confidence through listening and speaking to native and non-native speakers of English. Therefore, they have to improve their listening and speaking skills in different situations. EFL teachers should have knowledge of English phonetics and phonology and receive training in pronunciation instruction to help their EFL learners learn understandable pronunciation.

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Genre Analysis of Nursing and ELT Academic Written Discourse

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Abstract—Since Swales' CARS model (1981, 1990) work on the move structure of research article, studies on genre analysis have been carried out so far among which works on different parts of research article in various disciplines has gained a considerable literature. The present study aims to examine the move structure of research article conclusion sections in two fields of ELT and Nursing based on Yang and Allison's (2003) model of move structure in conclusion sections. Each corpus of the current study contains 25 research articles related specifically to the field under study. The results of data analysis indicated that both corpora contained the moves proposed in Yang and Allison's (2003) model and almost no significant differences were observed in the rhetorical structure of the afore-mentioned fields. Therefore, the authors of both ELT and Nursing had a great tendency to apply this model in the conclusion sections of their articles. The obtained findings of the current study can be useful for linguistic researchers in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) by providing them with a holistic and unitary pattern as an authentic language in use through enriching their understandings and knowledge about the true nature and structure of different disciplines.

Index Terms—corpus analysis, move structure, research article conclusions

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, academic writing has received wide spread attention as a particular means of communication. Research article (RA) as an example of academic writing that has a central role in academic discourse communities has been considered as a separate genre. According to Swales (1990) "a genre is a communicative vehicle for the achievement of goals and the purpose shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences the choice of content and style" (p. 7). In fact, genre analysis is claimed to be related to discourse analysis resulting in a number of practical changes in academic and scientific texts for more than two decades. "The findings of genre analysis, however, bring together the insights of earlier approaches to text analysis, but also a greater sophistication in the examination of the writer's purpose" (Dudley-Evans, 1998, P.4).

Genre analysis in academic texts has resulted in a considerable number of studies concerned with English in various genres such as dissertations, thesis, lectures, and research articles. From among these genres, research articles have known to be an important and a key genre used by researchers of various fields for the circulation of scientific and academic knowledge (Peacock, 2002). Therefore, a substantial number of studies have examined the overall structure and organization of different parts of the research article including abstract, introduction, result section.

Recently, there has been an increasing interest and attention in conducting studies and research on one of the genre-based approaches known as "move analysis" concerning to analyze the structural frameworks of written discourse. Swales (2004) states that "move" is a particular segment of discourse having a specific communicative function. Since Swales' CARS model (1981, 1990) work on the move structure of research article introductions, there has been a considerable attention for analyzing the rhetorical structure and organization of different sections of research article.

This model is known to be the most frequently used analytical tool for exploring the organizational structure of research articles. Most disciplines are in line with the moves and steps of this model; however, interesting variations such as omitting particular steps or moves and varying the order of moves and steps are found in some disciplines. According to this model introduction sections of research articles is examined in terms of having different moves and steps.

Previous studies have been carried out to explore the structural organization of various parts of research articles, for example, Introduction sections by (Swales, 1990; Samraj 2002), the Method sections by (Harwood, 2005; Lim, 2006; Bruce, 2008), Results sections by (Thompson, 1993; William, 1999; Yang and Allison, 2003), and the discussion sections by (Peacock, 2002; Yang and Alison, 2003).

A brief review of the literature reveals that few research studies aimed to explore the organizational structure of research article conclusion due to the fact that conclusion section is considered to be one of the components of the discussion section in a research article. "Conclusion" is one of the most important part of a research article in which the author has the opportunity to review the main topic of the study, indicating the limitations of the study and outline the findings of the study. One of the most important research study that has analyzed the rhetorical structure of conclusion sections of research articles is carried out by Yang and Allison (2003) who wanted to find out how authors in applied linguistics move from results to conclusion. "They found Conclusion section in 13 of 20 research articles (65%) on empirical research, and 6 final sections (30%) on pedagogic implications" (Bunton, 2005, p.209). This study is a pioneering genre-based work that aimed to discover the common features of the structures of research article conclusion section. Their findings about the moves and steps of the research articles under study are presented in Table1.

TABLE 1:
MOVES AND STEPS IN RESEARCH ARTICLE CONCLUSION SECTION

Move 1	Summarizing the study
Move 2	Evaluating the study
Step 1	Indicating significance/advantage
Step 2	Indicating limitations
Step 3	Evaluating methodology
Move 3	Deduction from the research
Step 1	Recommending further research
Step 2	Drawing pedagogical implications

A. Previous Studies Analyzing Conclusion Section

In the last two decades, conducting research studies that are concerned with genre analysis has received an increasing interest among researchers. The early form of genre analysis, which was based on linguistic descriptions, has changed in recent years to the discourse analysis level, providing a larger organizational picture. Different studies have been carried out to examine different parts of research articles. In this section the studies aimed to investigate the rhetorical structure of research article conclusions are presented briefly.

With regard to analyzing the discourse structure of research article conclusions, Aslam and Mehmood (2014) examined the conclusion section of Pakistani research articles in Natural and Social sciences to discover the common features shared by the conclusion sections of different disciplines. The results of their analysis revealed that Move1 titled as summarizing the study was the most frequently occurring move with 100% occurrence in the conclusions of both disciplines. Following this, Move2 and Move3 were interpreted as optional moves in the conclusion sections of the fields under study.

In a research conducted by Tabatabaei and Azimi (2015), an analysis of research article conclusions between English and Persian research articles in the field of social studies. According to the research findings, in spite of the existence of a unitary pattern in the moves across the two languages, there were significant differences in both frequency and the occurrence order of moves in both languages.

Another research accounting for discourse analysis of research article conclusions is conducted to investigate the moves in the conclusion sections of research articles in the two fields of Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics (Jahangard, Rajabi-Kondlaji, & Khalaji, 2014). The final results of their study show that there is no significant difference in the conclusion sections across the afore-mentioned disciplines.

A brief review of relevant studies in the field reveals that the move structure of the conclusion sections across English Language Teaching (ELT) and Nursing has not been investigated specifically and comprehensively so far. The present study intends to analyze the conclusion sections of the research articles from the fields of ELT and Nursing to find out whether they are in accordance with Yang and Allison's (2003) model of move structure in conclusion sections.

With regard to the pedagogical implications, the obtained results of the current study can be useful for instructing the academic discourse to non-native speakers of English. Additionally, the findings of the present study can also be helpful for language learners' understanding of genre structure.

B. Corpus

The theoretical framework for the move analysis of the present study was Yang and Allison's (2003) model of move structure in conclusion sections. The data for this study was collected from two fields of study i.e. ELT and Nursing. To this end a total number of 50 research article were employed. Each field included 25 research articles that were randomly selected from different journals.

II. METHODOLOGY

The present research is exploratory in nature. It intends to offer a move structural analysis of research article conclusions in two fields of ELT and Nursing. To this end, the study takes a qualitative approach to investigate the detailed rhetorical structure of the conclusion section of a considerable number of articles from these two fields. Methodology adopted in the current study examines the extent to which the authors of the articles have written the

conclusion sections based on Yang and Allison’s (2003) model of move structure in conclusion sections. Additionally, this detailed conclusion structural analysis may further serve as an indication to reveal the trends employed by authors of specific disciplines when writing the research conclusion section.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

In the present study, Yang and Allison’s (2003) model of move structure in conclusion sections is used as the central and structural framework to examine the constructive organization and rhetorical structure of the research article conclusions. Since the present study aims to analyze the rhetorical structure of conclusion sections of the disciplines under study (i.e. ELT and Nursing), a total number of 50 articles were selected randomly in which each field included 25 articles. The articles were selected from a range of different journals which were specific and central in the fields under investigation.

The collected conclusion sections were subsequently analyzed in terms of the moves and steps and also the order in which they were written in the texts. Following this, the resulting list of moves and steps, and the order of these moves were screened and coded by two trained raters independently in order to ensure the inter-rater reliability and to increase the objectivity of the study. One of the raters is the first author of the present study and the other rater holds a master degree in TEFL. Then the individual codifications were discussed and compared by the raters to find out to what extent these two codifications are consistent and wherever there was a disagreement about the codification differed of a specific move or step, the raters tried to reach an agreement through a discussion. However, the comparison revealed that the codifications were highly consistent and there was an overlap between the results reported by the two raters.

The results of the analyses carried out by two raters to uncover the structural characteristics of the introduction sections in the fields under study are presented in the following section.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

To make a comparison between the move structures of conclusion sections of the two corpora, the conclusion move analysis model proposed by Yang and Allison (2003) was used. As can be seen from data presented in Table 2, almost all moves and steps that were identified by Yang and Allison’s (2003) model were observed in both corpora. As illustrated in Table 2, the frequency occurrence of each move was estimated to be higher in ELT corpus compared to the Nursing corpus. According to the percentage referring to occurrence of the moves, one can conclude that all three moves in both datasets were considered as conventional moves rather than optional moves. Table 2 shows the frequency of moves and steps along with their percentage identified in conclusion sections of the two corpora.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF MOVES AND STEPS IN CONCLUSION SECTIONS OF THE TWO CORPORA

Moves (M) and Steps (S)	ELT		Nursing	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
M 1: Summarizing the study	25	100%	22	88%
M 2: Evaluating the study	23	92%	14	56%
S 1: Indicating significance/advantage	18	72%	9	36%
S 2: Indicating limitations	8	32%	7	28%
S 3: Evaluating methodology	7	28%	3	12%
M 3: Deduction from the research	21	84%	18	72%
S 1: Recommending further research	12	48%	11	44%
S 2: Drawing pedagogical implications	9	36%	4	16%

To provide a clear picture of structural pattern of the move structure in conclusion sections of the two corpora, moves along with their functions and one example from the original text of each corpus are presented in the following section.

Move 1: Summarizing the study

The primary function of this move is to provide a summary of the research through emphasizing the central findings of the study. Since this move is frequently occurred at the beginning of the conclusion section, it can be easily identified and analyzed by spotting the parts that account for a brief review of the study, objectives, and the findings of the research. This move was found to be the most frequent and also the dominant move in the conclusion sections of research articles of the two corpora. In this move, authors usually use statements that are written in present or past simple tense.

Examples:

ELT (M1) **The study presented here highlights** the complexity and hybrid nature of young people’s language including literacy practices in a multilingual educational setting ...

Nursing (M1) **This paper explored** the perspectives of ART patients and nurses on what constitutes good clinical care...

M 2: Evaluating the study

In this move authors often justify their studies through applying three steps including ‘indicating significance/advantage’, ‘indicating limitations’, and ‘evaluating methodology’. According to the results of the current

study, this move was as frequent as move 1 with a total number of 23 and 20 attestations in ELT and Nursing, respectively.

Examples:

Move 2, Step 1: Indicating significance/advantage

ELT (M2, S1) **The results reached in this study show that** L2 materials developers ignored learner's native culture quite frequently and ...

Nursing (M2, S1) **In addition, this is especially important and helpful** in that new models emphasize and the effectiveness ...

Move 2, Step 2: Indicating limitations

ELT (M2, S2) **The findings of this study are limited to a small group of students and also restricted** to just one junior high school. Studying on larger groups and areas would...

Nursing (M2, S2) **The limitations of the Safewards trial**, stated above, were the large quantity of missing data and the limited degree to which...

Move 2, Step 3: Evaluating methodology

ELT (M2, S3) To present the general pattern of learner's favorable attitudes toward language learning in mobile-mediated environment, **it was necessary to have**...

Nursing (M2, S3) **We included a diverse range of study designs and report** fully how we used...

M 3: Deduction from the research

In this move, the author states that to what extent the results of the study contribute to the existing knowledge in the field under investigation. This move could be easily identified by two steps titled as 'recommending further research' and 'drawing pedagogical implications'. According to the results of the current study, in both corpora, the authors preferred to articulate this move by using Step 1 "recommending further research".

Move 3, Step 1: Recommending further research

Examples:

ELT (M3, S1) For those who are interested in studying the effects of using L1 in L2 learning, **it is recommended to consider other** ...

Nursing (M3, S1) **Future use of this measure** within QI implementation and QI research will determine ...

Move 3, Step 2: Drawing pedagogical implications

ELT (M3, S 2) **This paper provided an insight** on the inferential abilities and pragmatic knowledge to be developed in ESL classes ...

Nursing (M3, S2) **The findings of this study may inform the** academic and clinical nurse leaders to support the use of both ...

1. The analysis of move structure in conclusion sections of the two datasets

According to research findings, three structure patterns of the research conclusion sections were shared by the two corpora including M1-M2-M3, M1-M2, and M1-M3. From among these patterns, it was found that ELT corpus used the first pattern (the linear one) more frequently accounting for about 72%. Following this, M1-M2 and M1-M3 were occurred with total percentage of 20% and 8%, respectively. In the Nursing corpus, as the ELT corpus the most frequently used pattern was M1-M2-M3 accounting for 60% of the conclusion sections. Following this M1-M3 and M1-M2 were the second and the third frequently occurring patterns with total percentage of 28% and 12%, respectively.

Some conclusion sections in both corpora were found to be longer which highlights the existence of a feature called cyclical occurrence of the moves. In all, a total number of 11 research articles in the present datasets, had a longer conclusion section due to the occurrence of the cyclical structures such as M1-M2-M3-M2 and M1-M3-M2-M3 with frequencies of 6 and 5, respectively.

B. Discussion

As mentioned before, the primary objective of this study is to compare the rhetorical structure of conclusion sections of the two datasets (i.e. ELT and Nursing) and also to determine to what extent the conclusion move structure of these fields are in line with the conclusion move structure proposed by Yang and Allison (2003). Based on the research findings, with regard to move occurrence and move pattern, similarities and differences were identified in the two corpora. One similarity is that in both corpora, Move 1 was found to be the prominent and the conventional move. This finding confirms what Morales (2012) stated in his study regarding the conclusion move structure, in which he concluded that Move 1 was employed with a total frequency of 75% and 100% in Filipino and Japanese corpora, respectively. Additionally, Move 3 was occurred frequently in both corpora; therefore, one can conclude that authors of both areas refer to Move 3 as a substantial and conventional move for research articles to be published in journals which are specific and central in the fields under investigation. Also, based on the move analysis of the conclusion sections, it can be assumed that the move patterns of both fields are in line with the proposed model of Yang and Allison (2003). One other interesting finding of this study is the methods employed by the authors of the two datasets to begin the conclusion sections. Almost all conclusion sections in these corpora began this section through statements referring to background and the primary objectives of the study. In other words, authors preferred to open this section by restating the background of the study before providing the central findings.

One distinctive difference between the two datasets is that Move 2 was found to be the least frequent move in Nursing. As can be seen from results analysis, only 14 Nursing conclusion sections contained Move 2 (56%), while this move was observed with a total frequency of 23 attestations (92%) in ELT. This finding about the conclusion move structure in Nursing is not conformed to the results proposed by Morales (2012). In his study, he concluded that Move 2 was estimated as an obligatory move, in which Step 1 titled as ‘indicating significance /advantage’, gained 100% frequency occurrence among the Filipino authors. Following this, the next two steps i.e. Step 2: indicating limitations and Step 3: evaluating methodology, were commonly occurred in Japanese articles accounting for 63% and 50%, respectively.

An important finding of this study that marks a difference between the model proposed by Yang and Allison (2003) and the results of the present study, refers to cyclical occurrence of the moves. In their study, Yang and Allison (2003) concluded that Move 1 (summarizing the results), was the most cyclical move; however, in this study Move 2 and Move 3 were found to have cyclical occurrence.

IV. CONCLUSION

The aim of the current study was to make a comparison between the rhetorical structure of the conclusion sections in two fields of ELT and Nursing. According to results analysis, the move structures in both corpora conformed to the move structures proposed by Yang and Allison (2003); however, there was a difference in the frequency of occurrence of each move in the two datasets. Pedagogically, the study has provided some new information about the move patterns in the two areas of ELT and Nursing. The identification of structural pattern and differences among research article conclusions across different disciplines are considered as essential information that enrich our understanding and knowledge about the true nature and organization of these disciplines which eventually leads to a unified and full-fledged model that can be applied for different genres and disciplines and it is hoped that the findings of the present study will also help non-professional EFL writers to write their research articles in a way that is textually organized. Therefore, writing pedagogy can be developed both in primary and advanced levels. The findings are also likely to provide linguistic researchers in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) with a holistic and unitary pattern as an authentic model of language in use. Furthermore, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses can benefit from the findings of research of this type to raise the awareness of non-native speakers of English and graduate students of different fields of studies about the rhetorical move structures and organizational patterns of research articles.

Like all other works, the current research had a limitation. It refers to the size of datasets used for the analyses purpose; therefore, because of the limited number of articles used in this study, the findings may not be generalized to the total population of academic writers. The findings of the current study obtained from the analysis of 50 research articles of two corpora. Further research with a larger sample size is recommended to provide a better understanding of the rhetorical structure of not only this section, but also all sections of research articles. Because comprehensive studies of such type, can determine how the structure of each section in a research article is related to other sections in order to come up with a clear picture of overall textual organization.

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Group-activity- and New-lesson-based Student Questioning in College Chinese Teaching

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Abstract—Guided by the relevant classroom questioning theories, the author has practiced group-activity- and new-lesson-based student questioning-answering and self-answering model (GANL-SQuASA) in College Chinese teaching for five terms in Tianjin College, University of Science and Technology Beijing. The group activity is focused on the tough points specified in the Teaching Objectives of each lesson to be taught following the students' PPT presentation, after which the usual student questioning and answering happens, but the questioning student has to offer answer to his/her own question and just this last stroke has brought students' potentials into full play and added classroom attraction. At the completion of the course in each term, students found that their critical reading, appreciating, thinking and expressing abilities have obviously improved and they have developed into a habit of researching and a certain degree of academic consciousness which is relatively weak among Chinese undergraduates. The results of the questionnaire also verify that the model is a good try in College Chinese teaching, while the smooth application to other two courses, Introduction to Mao Zedong Thought and Theoretical System of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics and Traditional Chinese Culture proves that the model deserves spreading to the teaching of similar courses.

Index Terms—College Chinese teaching, group activity, new lesson to be taught, student questioning, self-answering, classroom attraction

I. INTRODUCTION

Two major problems have been sticking out in College Chinese teaching among the freshmen in Tianjin College, University of Science and Technology Beijing. One is the low classroom attraction. After more than 10 years of Chinese learning in primary and secondary schools, the students think that they have mastered enough, either the language itself or the highlights in Chinese literature throughout all the times. They should now focus on their major courses and College Chinese as a course can be left out, let alone set as a required one. Under such circumstances, how to ensure that a majority of a class as many as 200 students or more actively attend and participate in the classroom teaching becomes a pending problem. The second problem is that the students' learning concept, methodology and their cognitive level retain at the stage of knowledge and memory. How to shift the students' focus from knowledge mastering to the improvement of critical reading, critical appreciating, critical thinking and expressing abilities (four abilities), how to cultivate their habit of researching into problems (one habit) and how to sharpen their academic consciousness (one consciousness)—all these are to be solved.

There are many trials like task-based, group-activity-based and questioning to stimulate students' learning autonomy, home and abroad, which have raised classroom attraction to varied extents, improved teaching effects and cultivated students' humanistic qualities and the required qualities of a college student. Among all the practices, questioning has attracted much attention in elementary and secondary education, focusing on its functions, classifications and models. Professor Yuanming Yu (2000) from Shandong Liaocheng University, Shangdong, conducted a comprehensive review of Chinese teaching questioning. He generalized the functions into four categories: promoting students' cognitive enthusiasm, cultivating their thinking ability, cultivating their expressing ability in Chinese, and offering feedback information on teaching. He grouped questioning forms from four dimensions: questioning level, questioning in the teaching process phases, questioning content structure and information communication through questioning and into 20 sub-items, among which cultivating abilities of comprehensive questioning and evaluation questioning is what College Chinese teaching is aimed at. Professor Yu listed nine questioning methods, one of which is Repeated Questioning, either in the form of $Q_{\text{Student}}-Q_{\text{Teacher}}-A_{\text{T\&S after discussion}}-\text{Summary}_T$ or in the form of $Q_{\text{Student}}-Q_{\text{Teacher}}-A_{\text{Questioning S \& Audience}}-\text{Summary}_T$. The latter form demands the students' subjective initiative, he stresses. However, his studies are mainly centered on questioning at the primary and secondary education levels. Zhen-shao Song (2003a&b), an associate professor from the Research Center for Basic Education Curriculum, Beijing Normal University, Beijing, proposed three basic questioning models: T-S (Teacher-Student), S-T, and S-S. Under the third model S-S, questions come from the students and are answered by the students. The rights to come up with problems and then get them solved are really returned to the students. Having compared the models with those abroad, Professor Song thinks that domestic researches on classroom questioning are more often of speculative discussion, lacking educational practice. Professor Ru-mi Li and his MA student Cai-ping Chen from Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, specially discussed the concept, value, strategies and operative framework of S-S questioning model (2011). Miss Chen (2012) conducted a study on a Grade-Five math class of 52 students in her internship elementary school for her degree dissertation. She verified the

feasibility of S-S classroom questioning model. However, the inadequate literature on College Chinese classroom questioning is only limited to the combination of questioning arts and comments. Empirical studies are rarely found.

Group topic-presentation in class in PPT is a common scene in China's college classrooms. The topics are often picked up randomly, not of a logic series. The activity is more focused on the PPT contents, often finished at the end of the presentation. The questioning phase is weak. The attention duration and the attentiveness of the audience are hard to ensure, and the questioning followed is often not that indispensable. College classroom questioning is more of a function to check the knowledge taught, improvising questions and leading-in questions to reading being frequently adopted. One-way questioning is most often used and the questioning level is low, in which students have fewer opportunities to think independently and they can hardly break the thinking framework set by their teacher.

In order to cultivate the students' four abilities, one habit and one consciousness mentioned above, the author of this paper tried a model of group-activity- and new-lesson-based student questioning-answering and self-answering (GANL-SQuASA) in College Chinese teaching on 2773 students of all the arts students in Tianjin College, University of Science and Technology Beijing from February 2014 up to now covering five terms. A student self-answering (SA) is added to the traditional questioning routine following the group's PPT presentation, which is a variation of the latter form of the Repeated Questioning described in Yu's paper. Both require the questioning student to answer his/her own question. The difference is that in the author's model, new-lesson-based group PPT activity precedes the questioning and the questions asked are of college level, with depth in themselves, and demand more critical thinking. The questioning model is based on the tough points of the new unit to be taught. Having been informed of the rigid College Chinese Course Regulations (CCCR) formed by the author, almost all the students have to preview the new lesson and think over the contents, identify the tough points and think out the questions to ask and the answers to them. The teaching and learning effects are obviously improved after each term and as they know more about the lesson to be taught, they become more interested in participating in the classroom activities and in the course. Actually, this empirical study covering five terms and three courses is an extension of the previous trial conducted by the author of the Group-Activity-Based Student Questioning model covering three terms of College Chinese teaching. Having received positive responses, the author was encouraged to perfect it, and after making some variations in the model, she extended the application to other two similar courses. (Zhang, 2015)

II. PRACTICE OF GANL-SQUASA

At the first class of each term, the course College Chinese is briefly introduced, including the group activities and the questioning model, the purpose of the arrangement, the importance and the score percentage, all elaborated. CCCR is stressed. Score is an important factor to drive freshmen to work hard. After two classes (i.e. two weeks) of learning and imitating, the experiment starts from the third week for the rest of the term, about 12 to 13 classes. Each time, there are two groups to present their work in PPT. Each group consists of four students or more, grouped at their own will. 7-8 minutes' PPT presentation should be focused on the tough points specified in the Teaching Objectives of the Course Syllabus and the Course Schedule which were already shown and shared at the first lecture. The specific topics were definitely formulated in the Assignment of the lesson one week before, so the students have a week for preparation. To ensure that the audience listen to each group's presentation, think critically and participate in the activity, an SA (self-answering) is added to enforce the presenter to think widely about the content to be delivered and the potential questions to be asked. Questioning is in two forms, questioning autonomously or being asked to question, so that it is possible that each student has the chance to question. This measure helps the students go all out into the new lesson, go deeper into the contents and develop the four aimed academic qualities, the one habit and the one consciousness.

The Procedure of GANL-SQuASA is as follows.

- 1) Students' group-activity- and new-lesson-based PPT presentation (GANL)
- 2) Teacher's comments on the GANL PPT presentation
- 3) Audience questioning on the presentation (SQu_{questioner})
- 4) Presenter answering the question (A_{presenter})
- 5) Questioner self-answering his/her own question (SA_{questioner})

Steps 3 to 5 can be repeated by different students

- 6) Teacher's comprehensive evaluation

The addition of SA_{questioner} to the model raised students' attentiveness throughout the whole process, and the student in question has to elaborate why he/she asks the question and gives his/her answer based on what he/she has seen from the PPT presentation combined with what he/she has acquired through preview of the new lesson and his/her internalized knowledge and experiences. Again, the score consideration drives him/her to deeper original and creative independent thinking.

To ensure the cultivation of the four abilities, one habit and one consciousness, four points should be taken care of throughout the practice of the model. Firstly, make certain that each student actively participates in the SQuASA activity by clarifying the importance of their questioning to the development of their required qualities and to their course score. Score varies between autonomous questioning and being named to question to encourage students to question actively and form really good questions. Secondly, strictly control the time for SQuASA to no more than 5 minutes, the purpose of which is to cultivate the students' consciousness of time allocation and control and to ensure the

smooth continuation of other teaching activities. Thirdly, clearly demand the difficulty level and the depth of the questions asked. Train the students to make use of their time inside and outside class, and to take the advantages of all the resources available, paper materials and e-data, library and the Internet to get familiar with the contents of the new lesson; and train them to find questions in the PPT presentation, analyze and think critically, raise challenging questions, search for the solution to the questions, and develop all these into a habit. As to those questions raised just to get scores, the teacher should ask the questioner to raise one more or two more questions until he/she treats it seriously and thinks hard. For good questions, higher scores will be rated. Fourthly, definitely demand original views in the questions and the answers. The students are not allowed to repeat whatever others say without thinking and understanding. Rather they are encouraged to have clear viewpoints and original ideas, acceptable to the class, with a view to cultivating the abilities of independent thinking and expressing themselves logically as well as creating an atmosphere in which academic discussion, idea communication and mutual advancement are healthily promoted.

In the first two weeks of SQuASA activities, there are cases in which some students refuse to pose or are unable to find any questions. It is mainly because the students have not adapted themselves to the model, at which time, teacher's patience and guidance will be of critical importance. The teacher should help the students develop confidence in themselves; at the same time, the teacher should believe that it is not that the students are unable to find and come up with questions, but that they need time to adjust themselves to college learning style and some practice to get themselves raised to a higher cognitive level. It also could be that the students have not quite got what the PPT presentation conveys and cannot grasp the gist to form any questions. In this case, a little more time should be allowed for the students to read on the scene the PPT pages, think critically on the spot and find questions to ask. The approach enhances the students' improvising performance and makes it clear that the whole class has to take the SQuASA seriously. As to those few from some provinces and cities where dialects are more often used than *putonghua*, one more opportunity is given if needed. Nevertheless, the students should be made to realize that the GANL-SQuASA will go through the whole course (i.e. the whole term).

The following is one of the GANL-SQuASA processes.

GANL PPT topic assignment (given a week before): A brief introduction to *Book of Poetry*¹, covering its contents, features, value and the evaluation received. One of the members presents their group work in the form of PPT.

After the teacher's comment, a student comes up to the platform with questions based on GANL PPT contents either voluntarily or being named. GANL-SQuASA starts.

SQu_{questioner}: Just now you said *Book of Poetry* consists of 6 categories. Can you go into detail with "ritual and banquet poems"?

T: Your question is too simple. Think deeper and ask another question.

SQu_{questioner}: Just now you said *Book of Poetry* has exerted a great influence on the literature of later generations. Do you think we need to learn *Book of Poetry* today? If yes, how should we learn and use it?

A_{presenter}: (answers SQu_{questioner}'s question)

T: Your second question is a thoughtful question, and your own answer to it?

SQu_{questioner}: (answers his/her own question)

T: (gives comprehensive evaluation)

Almost all the students take the GANL-SQuASA activity seriously, spending much time in/out of class preparing, raising questions and answering them enthusiastically. Since they have done a lot on the new lesson beforehand and in the activity, more than 90% of the students in class open their textbooks and participate in the class teaching and learning following the progress of each lesson, which is not easy in a College Chinese classroom, whose task is to cover literature from pre-Qin days to modern times in 14 to 15 lectures in terms of content.

III. SURVEY RESULTS BY QUESTIONNAIRE

After two terms of trial, a questionnaire survey was conducted in December 2014 to a class of 76 freshmen who had just finished the course for 32 class hours. The subjects consist of 17 English majors, and 59 Visual Communication Design majors. There are 9 questions in all covering

- 1) the necessity of setting College Chinese as a required course,
- 2) perception of the classroom teaching and learning pattern,
- 3) opinions on the classroom teaching and learning pattern,
- 4) thinking dimensions in the reading process,
- 5) viewpoints on classroom group activities,
- 6) viewpoints on the GANL-SQuASA,
- 7) viewpoints on the assignments,
- 8) students' sense of achievement, and
- 9) students' intention to take further relevant Chinese courses.

Apart from the four sick leaves, all the 72 responses are valid. As to the necessity of setting College Chinese as a required course (Q1), 70 students (97%) answer "Yes". As to viewpoints on the GANL-SQuASA (Q6), a large majority

¹ *Book of Poetry* is the first collection of poems in China completed in Spring and Autumn Period (722-481 BC).

of the students have sensed its obvious benefits (see TABLE I), among whom 72% say they have developed into a habit of forming their own opinions towards things and phenomena (6B), 50% think the SQuASA urges them to listen attentively in class (6A) and about a fourth acquired a sense of achievement when they raise good questions or answer questions to their own satisfaction (6D). Only 4 students (6%) think that an accepted question is enough to get a score and are not willing to make more efforts (6E). Unfortunately, there are still 10% who feel nervous each time questioning or answering, and wish to delete SQuASA (6C). That is to say, they failed to get adapted to the activity and benefited little from it.

TABLE I.
PART OF THE RESULTS FOR Q6

Q	Choice	Ss	P
6. (Multiple Response) I think GANL-SQuASA	A. urges me to listen attentively in class.	36	50%
	B. gets me to have developed into a habit of forming my own opinions towards things and phenomena.	52	72%
	C. makes me feel nervous each time questioning or answering, and I wish to delete SQuASA.	7	10%
	D. gets me to have acquired a sense of achievement when I raise good questions or answer questions to my own satisfaction.	17	24%
	E. is not that important and an accepted question is enough to get a score and I am not willing to make more efforts.	4	6%

Through a term's training of GANL-SQuASA, most say they are thinking critically when reading (see TABLE II), among whom 68% are thinking about the text author's viewpoints, their own evaluation and different opinions (4C), and 60% will think about the merits and demerits of the article and why it is written that way (4B).

TABLE II.
PART OF THE RESULTS FOR Q4

Q	Choice	Ss	P
4. (Multiple Response) While reading a text or an article, I think about	A. the gist.	38	53%
	B. the merits and demerits of the article and why it is written that way.	43	60%
	C. the author's viewpoints, my own evaluation and different opinions.	49	68%

Through a term's learning of College Chinese, most students have felt obvious achievements, mainly in that their interest in Chinese literature has been raised and their learning attitude has changed (36%) (8E); so have their methods (25%) (8G). Now they are inclined to learn autonomously and independently as well as collectively. Their attack on a problem has become multi-dimensional, 46% saying they have formed a habit of it (8I), and they can organize their thoughts and are ready to express them logically and fluently (32%) (8J). 44% become interested in Chinese literature and plan to read some literary works (8B). Half of the students have sensed their raised level of Chinese, equipped with a systematic storage of the highlights of Chinese literature, from pre-Qin days to network times, from classics like *Book of Poetry* to web blogs (8C). Regretfully, the students' affection for Chinese literature has not been increased as expected (8A), and there are still some students staying passive throughout (8D, 8F & 8H).

TABLE III.
PART OF THE RESULTS FOR Q8

Q	Choice	Ss	P
8. (Multiple Response) After learning for a term,	A. I love Chinese literature more.	12	17%
	B. I become interested in Chinese literature and plan to read some literary works.	32	44%
	C. I have sensed the raised level of my Chinese.	36	50%
	D. my Chinese level has experienced little change.	8	11%
	E. my interest in Chinese has been raised and my learning attitude has changed.	26	36%
	F. my attitude towards learning stays unchanged.	4	6%
	G. my learning methods have changed.	18	25%
	H. my learning methods stay unchanged.	2	3%
	I. my attack on a problem has become multi-dimensional and I have formed a habit of it.	33	46%
	J. I can organize my thoughts and am ready to express them orally, logically and fluently.	23	32%

IV. EXTENDED APPLICATION OF GANL-SQUASA TO OTHER COURSES

Having been accepted by the College Chinese students, the GANL-SQuASA model is then extended to two other courses, Introduction to Mao Zedong Thought and Theoretical System of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics and Traditional Chinese Culture, on 824 and 13 students respectively. The results are favorable as expected.

Introduction to Mao Zedong Thought and Theoretical System of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics is a required course set for the sophomores covering one year, 80 class hours in all. The final takes the form of open-book

examination, in which the students are allowed to refer to textbooks or other reference books. Students often pay less attention to it than they do to their major courses. Therefore, how to arouse students' interest, how to increase their head-raising rate even though the attendance rate is high, and how to get the students to participate in the classroom activities have long been tricky problems. In the two terms of academic year of 2014-2015 and the second term of academic year 2015-2016 (the present term), the author has introduced the GANL-SQuASA model. After elaborating the topics drawn from the textbooks for students to be presented and the requirements in the Course Regulations, the classes become activated. The presenting group present their meticulously prepared PPT enriched with text-related references and their original viewpoints, which infects the whole class. The other students cannot help joining in the discussion. Since the activity is new-lesson-based, the lesson goes on smoothly and effectively. Owing to the big class size, only one opportunity is given to each group for PPT presentation and one opportunity for each student to question, yet all can utter their opinions in the discussion.

In the last term, the author taught the selective course Traditional Chinese Culture (TCC) to English majors, 13 sophomores in the class. They had taken College Chinese with the author for two terms in their freshmen year and experienced the GANL-SQuASA model. In order to arouse their enthusiasm for TCC, the author made three adjustments. Firstly, each group was required to make PPT presentation twice rather than once and groups were reorganized with each member cooperating with new mates, aimed at improving their communicating ability. Secondly, the presentation topics were no longer assigned by the teacher. Instead, students had to select by themselves based on the chapter contents to be dealt with, with a view to training students' ability to find problems. The third change was to ask them to hand in a course essay of 1500-2000 words a month before the end of the term based on the contents of all the PPT activities. Title had to be decided by themselves and academic format and style had to be followed, which is not easy for knowledge-oriented sophomores. However, they showed greater enthusiasm as expected with better PPT presentation and more heated questioning. What is more, they built up some academic consciousness and in the process of writing their essays, they grew up academically.

V. CONCLUSION

Five terms of trial in three-course teaching practice has proved the advantages of the GANL-SQuASA model. It is suitable for College Chinese and the similar courses in Tianjin College, USTB. However, the addition of SQuASA to GANL-based activities is also a tough challenge to the teacher. Though the group activity topic is set by the teacher, the four group members have different channels to draw on the huge amount of information on the new lesson, and the SQu_{questioner} may produce many unexpected questions, even beyond the new lesson and the teacher's imaginations. The teacher has to comment on the whole GANL-SQuASA in terms of the macro-effect, the merits and demerits, the data chosen, the resources used, the difficulty level and the quality, the presentation techniques, the academic consciousness and the language and mechanics problems—all these demand much time and great effort of the teacher. The teacher has to think much more, read much more, and widen his/her vision to the highest degree possible. He/She can never make more preparation, which also serves as an impetus to his/her professional advancement and career development. In the process of SQuASA, the teacher, as an observer and judge, should learn to be patient. Impetuous "final conclusions" will silence different, maybe creative and original, views; on the other hand, a learning atmosphere helps cultivate the students' academic consciousness and research qualities. A good teacher can make use of this process to learn from the students to increase his/her knowledge storage. Sometimes students' inspirations can be of unexpectedly much value to the effects and the quality of the whole activity. In case of extreme opinions, the teacher should ease the students' moods and guide their emotions in a positive and objective direction. The variation with the TCC class in self-searching for topics, self-deciding on the whole presentation poses still greater challenges.

The model of GANL-SQuASA has received good comments from the students who have attended the class, the College supervisors and the author's colleagues who have sat in on my class. However, how to improve the students' learning behavior, getting them to participate more actively, from score-driven and being named to actively and voluntarily taking the opportunity to participate in the SQuASA, and how to elevate students' thinking and cognitive level so as to raise higher-level questions still have room for improvement.

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The Study of Learners' Educational Level and Their Knowledge of True Cognate Words in Iran

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Abstract—Our purpose of the study was to determine the learners' educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words. 385 had been selected from 3,789 statistical population participated in 2014–2015 at three levels of associate, bachelor, and master of Islamic Azad University as well as teachers of English in English educational institutions in Zanjan (Iran). The participants' age was between from 18 to 52. The materials were 45 words of true cognate words from 500 words by doing CVR (content validity ratio) and CVI (content validity index) (Lawshe's table with the index of 88% and 82% respectively). ANOVA (Analysis of variance) was used for studying the effect of educational level on the rate of awareness. The results showed there is no significant difference between the awareness of Associate diploma (A.D.), Bachelor of art (B.A.), and Master of art (M.A.) levels, but there is a significant difference between the level of awareness of teachers group and the other groups in true cognate words. Our result showed that all of them were weak in recognizing true cognate words. It also suggested the mean of true cognates recognized by the students based on educational level had increased trend.

Index Terms—educational level, knowledge, second language vocabulary acquisition, true cognate words

I. INTRODUCTION

It is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the role of learners' educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words. Today's increasing globalization, where people need and use bilingual languages, requires the researchers to understand the importance of bilingualism. There has been a growing interest in research on bilingualism or acquisition of a second or additional language in the last few years (Basnight-Brown & Altarriba, 2007; Bassetti & Cook, 2011; Bultena, Dijkstra, & Van Hell, 2014; Casaponsa, Antón, Pérez, & Duñabeitia, 2015; Gholami, Alavinia, & Izadpanah, 2015. Linck, Hoshino, & Kroll, 2008; Roberts, Davies, & Jupp, 2014; Szubko- Sitarek, 2015).

In this paper, the relationship between EFL learners' educational level (association degree, bachelor, and master of art students) and their knowledge of true cognate words between Persian and English have been compared.

Different world languages have a great deal of contact with each other and have had different impacts on each other. When learning a second language, a student can benefit from knowledge of his/her first language. Cognates are words in different languages which have similar spelling and meaning. These words which have similar spelling and meaning can accelerate vocabulary acquisition and also facilitate the reading comprehension task. The similarity is usually due to either historical reasons (e.g., the Persian word /lab/and its English translation *lip*) or borrowing from one language to another (e.g., the Persian word /keyk/and its English translation *cake*).

True cognate awareness had significant relationship with educational level and it had increased with elevation of educational level. Recognition of cognate has been demonstrated to occur in learners with higher levels of reading proficiency and metalinguistic awareness. Keshavarz and Astaneh (2004) pointed that learners unconsciously do not really admit cognate words as equivalent to their own language words even though these words can be a perfect resource for supposing the meaning and keeping in mind new words.

However, far too little attention has been paid to the learners' educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words in learning, and there are few reports examined it. Learning a new word in a foreign language occasionally consists of connecting a new lexical form with an idea in our mind which is associated to the comparable word in the mother language. The way that this topography is recognized and the way it changes during the time are serious subjects in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). In spite of the number of studies developed to reply these queries (e.g., Bultena et al., 2014; Casaponsa et al., 2015; Sunderman, & Schwartz), they are still object of debate.

The study is true for Persian language in which few studies have been done on true cognate words with English to (the best of) our knowledge. It seems to be the first report and the originality of examples is the representative of modernity of this work. Most of the previous studies have focused on European languages. Therefore, the importance of the present study is that it involves non-European languages, i.e. Persian. In addition, no research has been found that surveyed the learners' educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words in Iran.

The results of the examination may have great focal points for educators and students as they may turn out to be more mindful of lexical and/or linguistic differences amongst English and Persian. Our objectives were to review the learners' educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words in Iran.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

During the past 10 years much more information has become available on true cognate words in European countries. Dressler, Carlo, Snow, August, & White (2011) investigated the effectiveness of the instructional techniques in Spanish-speaking students' use of cognate knowledge to infer the meaning of English words. Dressler et al., (2011) studied twelve fifth-grade students from Santa Cruz, California, which Eight subjects were Spanish-English bilinguals, bilinguals, getting instruction in bilingual classrooms and four monolingual English-speaking students were included for comparative aims. One second of the students in each language group got the Vocabulary Improvement Project (VIP) intervention. The strategy of cognate was the strategy of focus for three of the fifteen weeks. Taught cognates were a subset of the selected academic target words that appeared in the newspaper articles and trade books used as texts in the intervention. (243-255) The authors showed that for the English-language learner (ELLs), correct inferences for Spanish-English cognates, as it was used in 43% of the accurate responses, was associated with use of the Cognate Strategies.

The qualitative results suggested that explicit instruction, students' metacognitive and metalinguistic skills, and the structural characteristics of cognate pairs are associated with recognition of cognate (Dressler et al., 2011).

A similar study was organized by Nagy, Durgunoğlu, García, & Hancin-Bhatt. (1993) to determine how Hispanic bilingual students' ability to identify Spanish-English cognates and their knowledge of Spanish vocabulary relate to their comprehension of English expository text. Within a sample of 74 Spanish-English bilingual, biliterate fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-graders, the authors found out that students only knew 37% of the English words when they did not know the Spanish cognate. They knew 67% of the English words for which they knew the Spanish cognates. Students circled a mean of 41.7 ± 31.2 SD true cognates. The pattern of correlations also showed that knowledge of Spanish target vocabulary was not a very good predictor of performance on the multiple choice test.

Brones and Caramazza (1979) used a lexical decision task with Spanish-English bilinguals to study the effect of cognates on the speed of word recognition. They found out that bilinguals answered faster to L2 (secondary language) cognates than to L2 control words. This cognate facilitation effect was attributed to the theory that cognate words activate the L1 (dominant language) as well as the L2 lexical representation, increasing the activation and speeding word recognition. (212-214)

This experiment supplied the first evidence that lexical access in bilinguals is not language specific. The cognate facilitation effect in L2 has since been replicated in different studies (Dijkstra et al., 1999; Dijkstra & Lemhofer, 2004).

Additionally, research by Lemhofer, Dijkstra (2004) showed that the effect increases with the addition of languages. In an experiment with Dutch- English-German trilinguals, they found out that participants had faster answers to L3 (tertiary language) words that were cognates in all three languages than to words that were only cognates in two. Although Brones and Caramazza's study did not show a cognate facilitation effect when subjects were tested in their dominant language, later research found closer responses to L1 cognate words that the impact raises with the expansion of languages. In a trial with Dutch-English-German trilinguals, they discovered that members had speedier responses to L3 (tertiary dialect) words that were cognates in each of the three languages than to words that were just cognates in two.

Van Hell and Dijkstra (2002) in an experiment with Dutch-English-French trilinguals, demonstrated a cognate effect for L1-L2 cognates and L1-L3 cognates for participants who were extremely good at their third language, French. Dijkstra and Van Hell ascribed their results, which contradicted earlier studies that did not find an L1 cognate effect, to the proficiency of their participants in the L2 and L3 languages. (780-789.)

Fotovatnia, & Taleb, (2012) investigated Mental Representation of Cognates/Noncognates in Persian-Speaking EFL Learner. They investigate the mental representation of cognate and noncognate translation pairs in languages with different scripts to test the prediction of dual lexicon model .Two groups of Persian speaking English language learners were tested on cognate and noncognate translation pairs in Persian-English and English-Persian directions with lexical decision task through masked priming. The findings of the study showed a high level of priming only for cognates with L1 primes. This supports dual lexicon model in the sense that it confirms the role of orthography in establishing shared lexical entries for cognates. Noncognates showed a different pattern from what is predicted by this model.

Marzban, & Chahardahcherik, (2015) have done research about English and Persian Cognates/Pseudo Cognates. Various world languages have had different influences on one another and have a lot of contact with each other. Cognates, words which are similar across two or more languages in several aspects, especially with regard to pronunciation, indicate an interesting and relevant aspect of second /foreign language research and translation.

Overall, most studies on L2 acquisition from a psychological perspective have focused on communicative language learning (CLL) at the lexical level, phonology and morphosyntax and the different factors affecting it. Other linguistic areas such as educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words have been barely considered.

III. METHODS

Three hundred and eighty-five were selected from 3,789 statistical population, 158 of whom were female and the rest of them were male who participated in 2014–2015 academic year at three levels of associate’s, bachelor’s, and master’s degrees of Islamic Azad University.

They were native speakers of Persian who were studying in term one as well as teachers of English in English educational institutions in Zanjan, Iran.

All participants were given a book for their participation in the study and written consent was obtained from all participants. Each educational level was considered as one category with the total sample calculated by using Cochran Formula, and the amount of each category was determined by using appropriate proportion and randomized categorical sampling method.

The participants’ age was between from 18 to 52, with a mean age of 29 years.

The materials were 45 words of recognizing the origin of words (English or Persian), knowing phonological, semantic, or both of them and to be true cognate or false cognate which had been chosen from different dictionaries and the Internet; various sources were used in the project for the data collection from 500 words by doing CVR and CVI (Lawshe’s table with index of 80% and 82% respectively) for being reliable and valid. ANOVA was used for studying the effect of educational level on the rate of awareness. In other words, awareness means have been compared in different educational levels.

IV. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

In this research, inferential and descriptive statistics were used for data analysis and hypothesis testing by run in SPSS 18. In descriptive section, for demographic characteristics analysis, frequency tables as well as statistical figures are used.

As shown in Table 1, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, which assessed the normality of the distribution of scores, were given. If the value of Sig be higher than 0.05, the null hypothesis will be assumed to have normal distribution and if it were not, we would use non-parametric test. The Sig. value for this test was more than 0.05, which was in line with the assumption of normality. The results of the data were normal and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normal distribution variables is shown in Table 1, in inferential analysis section, the hypotheses were being tested using parametric test (one sample t-test, independent t-test, and analysis of one-way variance).

TABLE 1
KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

Variable	Sig	Decision	Test results
Root of word in English	0.67	The null hypothesis (Accepted H ₀)	•Normal distribution
Root of word in Farsi	0.85	Accepted H ₀	•Normal distribution
None of them	0.48	Accepted H ₀	•Normal distribution
Semantic	0.53	Accepted H ₀	•Normal distribution
Phonology	0.38	Accepted H ₀	•Normal distribution
Both of them	0.77	Accepted H ₀	•Normal distribution
True cognate	0.78	Accepted H ₀	•Normal distribution
False cognate	0.37	Accepted H ₀	•Normal distribution

•Sig. value of more than (.05), indicates normality

TABLE 2
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF ANALYSIS OF THE WORDS BASED ON EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Educational Level		English	Persian	None of them	Semantic	Phonological	Semantic Phonological	True Cognate	False Cognate
AD	Number	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Mean	4.46	3.60	1.53	9.73	14.93	3.62	19.46	2.61
	SD	2.50	3.01	2.29	7.62	9.04	8.70	8.37	1.78
BA	Number	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135
	Mean	6.34	6.92	1.90	11.60	14.00	6.85	20.57	2.69
	SD	3.83	4.91	2.09	8.02	8.48	8.19	7.37	2.90
MA	Number	217	217	217	217	217	217	217	217
	Mean	6.14	7.88	2.88	9.89	10.22	7.56	23.4	3.01
	SD	4.08	5.35	2.57	6.22	7.77	8.90	8.61	4.31
Teacher	Number	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
	Mean	9.33	11.55	4.44	15.11	15.22	8.69	27.55	3.25
	SD	2.35	4.48	2.52	11.76	9.48	10.25	6.65	1.81

The result of Table 2 shows the mean of true cognates recognized by the students based on educational level had increased trend. Therefore, the mean of true cognates recognized in the teacher group was higher than the rest.

TABLE 3
PARTICIPANTS' DISPERSION BASED ON FIELD STUDY AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Major		Level				Total
		AD	BA	MA	Teacher	
Management	Count	2	25	26	0	53
	% within major	3.8%	47.2%	49.1%	0.0%	100.0%
Civil Engineering	Count	1	43	54	0	98
	% within major	1.0%	43.9%	55.1%	0.0%	100.0%
Architecture	Count	7	18	28	0	53
	% within major	13.2%	34.0%	52.8%	0.0%	100.0%
Accounting	Count	3	22	30	0	55
	% within major	5.5%	40.0%	54.5%	0.0%	100.0%
Computer	Count	1	19	23	0	43
	% within major	2.3%	44.2%	53.5%	0.0%	100.0%
Microbiology	Count	1	8	56	0	65
	% within major	1.5%	12.3%	86.2%	0.0%	100.0%
English	Count	0	0	0	18	18
	% within major	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	15	135	217	18	385
	% within major	3.9%	35.1%	56.4%	4.7%	100.0%

According to Table 3, the most of participants in all fields of study were in M.A educational level.

TABLE 4
PARTICIPANTS' AWARENESS OF COGNATES

Variable	Number	Expected Score	Sample Mean	SD	Quantity T	Sig	Significant
Root English	385	7.5	6.30	3.94	5.96	0.000	Significant
Root Farsi	385	11	7.55	5.22	12.94	0.000	Significant
None of them	385	4	2.56	2.47	11.72	0.000	Significant
Semantic	385	18.5	10.73	7.35	20.72	0.000	Significant
Phonology	385	22.5	11.96	8.37	24.67	0.000	Significant
Both	385	18.5	7.21	8.88	24.92	0.000	Significant
True cognates	385	18.5	22.47	8.27	9.42	0.000	Significant
False cognates	385	4	2.89	3.72	5.85	0.000	Significant

As the results of Table 4 shows, the mean awareness of participants were lower than expected score in all variables and there was a significant difference between expected score and observed score.

TABLE 5
MEAN AWARENESS OF COGNATES IN RELATION TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Educational level	Number	Variable	Mean	F	Sig	Test result
associate degree	15	Root of word in English	4.46	4.89	0.002	Significant
bachelor	135		6.34			
Master	217		6.14			
Teacher	18		9.33			
associate degree	15	Root of word in Farsi	3.60	7.68	0.000	Significant
bachelor	135		6.92			
Master	217		7.88			
Teacher	18		11.55			
associate degree	15	None of them	1.53	9.29	0.000	Significant
bachelor	135		1.90			
Master	217		2.88			
Teacher	18		4.44			
associate degree	15	Semantic	9.73	3.88	0.009	Significant
bachelor	135		11.60			
Master	217		9.89			
Teacher	18		15.11			
associate degree	15	Phonology	14.93	7.72	0.000	Significant
bachelor	135		14.00			
Master	217		10.22			
Teacher	18		15.22			
associate degree	15	Both of them	3.62	21.38	0.001	Significant
bachelor	135		6.85			
Master	217		7.56			
Teacher	18		8.69			
associate degree	15	True cognate	19.46	23.44	0.000	Significant
bachelor	135		20.57			
Master	217		23.44			
Teacher	18		27.55			
associate degree	15	False cognate	2.61	1.84	0.138	Non-significant
bachelor	135		2.69			
Master	217		3.01			
Teacher	18		3.25			

As the result of variance analysis (ANOVA) in Table 5 shows, the comparison mean of true cognate awareness with educational level increased trend and the relationship was significant.

By the use of Duncan test, it was indicated that in English root of word, there was a significant difference of awareness in A.D, B.A and M.A but there was not significant difference in the level of awareness between teachers' group and the other groups.

TABLE 6
MEAN ATTITUDE TO COGNATES IN RELATION TO PARTICIPANTS' EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Variable	Educational Level	Number	Mean	F Quantity	Sig	Test result
True Cognate	AA	15	3.82	2.15	0.093	Insignificant
	B.A	135	3.81			
	M.A	217	3.90			
	Teacher	18	4			
False Cognate	A.D	15	3.41	2.23	0.078	insignificant
	B.A	135	3.43			
	M.A	217	3.38			
	Teacher	18	3.37			

The results of Table 6 shows that the mean of attitude about true was higher than 3 based on educational level, but there was not statistically significant relationship with educational level among participants.

V. DISCUSSION

In this study, we investigated the learners' educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words in Iran. Our results show that the mean of true cognates recognized by the students based on educational level had increased trend. Therefore, the mean of true cognate words recognized in the teacher group was higher than the rest. The results of this study showed that the awareness of participants were lower than expected score in all variables. True cognate awareness had significant relationship with educational level and it had increased with elevation of educational level. In this regard, several studies have examined cognate knowledge in Spanish-speaking English-language learners. Dressler et.al. (2011) investigated the effectiveness of the instructional techniques in Spanish-speaking students' use of cognate knowledge to infer the meaning of English words. In their study twelve fifth-grade students from Santa Cruz, California, participated.

Eight subjects were Spanish–English bilinguals, getting instruction in bilingual classrooms and four monolingual English-speaking students were included for comparative purposes. One second of the students in each language group got the Vocabulary Improvement Project (VIP) intervention. The strategy of focus for three of the fifteen weeks was the cognate strategy. Taught cognates were a subset of the selected academic target words that appeared in the newspaper articles and trade books used as texts in the intervention. The authors showed that for the English-language learner (ELLs), correct inferences for Spanish–English cognates, as it was used in 43% of the accurate responses was associated with use of the Cognate Strategies.

The qualitative results suggested that students' metacognitive and metalinguistic skills, explicit instruction, and the structural characteristics of cognate pairs are associated with cognate recognition (Dressler et al., 2011). A similar study was conducted by Nagy et al. (1993) to show how Hispanic bilingual students' ability to identify Spanish–English cognates and their knowledge of Spanish vocabulary relate to their comprehension of English expository text. Within a sample of 74 Spanish–English bilingual, biliterate fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-graders, the authors found out that students only knew 37% of the English words when they did not know the Spanish cognate but they knew 67% of the English words for which they knew the Spanish cognates. Students circled a mean of 41.7 ± 31.2 SD true cognates. That Spanish target word knowledge was not a very good predictor of performance on the multiple choice test was also indicated by the pattern of correlations.

There were various interrelated components that may influence bilingual students' utilization of cognates and their insight in their perusing and that may should be checked in the advancement of reasonable instructional practices. Level of bilingualism is one of these variables, while its relationship with education was not significant, the result of above studies in rate of true cognates' awareness was consistent but the relationship with educational level was inconsistent. These results indicated that, students' true cognate awareness was not more. The reason of inconsistency can be differences in the research population of study which in this study they were university students. The result of Perhan's study (2008) showed that there was a significant difference in the means between the Intervention Group and the Target Group on the academic level that is consistent with our study. Jarvis and Odlin (2008) examined Finish and Swedish speakers learning English concluded that none of the variables such as age, length of English instruction, and task type produced as consistent effects as did LI background.

Hence, it could be accepted that age is a controversial variable, which won't influence lexical transfer in any noteworthy way. Holmes and Ramos (1995) have demonstrated that the extent to which cognates are perceived by language learners relies on upon their semantic and orthographic similitude. In an investigation of the cognate awareness with a specimen of local Spanish-and Portuguese-speaking college students who were learning English, Holmes (1995); Gholami, Alavinia, and Izadpanah (2015a) discovered that students were different in what they thought to be a cognate. The significance of orthography in cognate recognition is further underscored by Nagy et al. (1993), who discovered more prominent orthographic coinciding in cognate sets to be connected with higher recognition. An extra quality of cognates thought to impact students' capacity to relate them to each other is the recurrence of the word in composed English and Spanish. This part of cognate similarity was the focal center of a study by Biner (1993) who expected to distinguish Spanish–English cognate pairs within a specific science educational program, and to figure out whether the number of cognates was enough to warrant efficient instructing of this technique. Biner, hypothesized that the cognate strategy depends on the existence of a considerable number of words that appear frequently in Spanish but infrequently in English. In subsequent work, the findings reviewed here suggest that both attributes of cognate pairs and learner variables play a role in cognate recognition. In a detailed way, cognate recognition has been demonstrated to occur in learners with metalinguistic awareness and higher levels of reading proficiency. Keshavarz and Astaneh (2004); Gholami, Alavinia, and Izadpanah (2015b) pointed that learners unconsciously do not really admit cognate words as equivalent to their own language words even though these words can be a perfect resource for supposing the meaning and keeping in mind new words. Pahlavan Nezhad and Zadeh Tavakoli (2013) stated the fact that the only one element which is used in conveying meaning is the actual similarities or dissimilarities of the appearance or form of the words and its meaning. Also the discrimination and judgment of every of learners is important.

The result showed that the mean of true cognate awareness in the teacher group was higher than the learner group and there was statistically significant relationship between two groups. Review of literature showed that there is no similar study to show that relationship. Teachers need to know which cognates facilitate learning and also, which cognates confuse or fail to help their students also many linguists and language teachers agree that dissimilarities and similarities in word meanings, word forms, syntactic structure, morphological properties in two languages play a major role in how quickly and accurately a foreign language will be learned by speakers of another language (Holmes & Ramos, 1995; Ringbom, 1987; Rothman, 2015).

A positive effect of bilingualism on Target Language Acquisition is also attributed to the fact that bilingual students are able to weigh the effectiveness of these strategies due to their experience in learning languages and to use a wider variety of learning strategies and (McLaughlin & Nayak, 1989). Findings from other investigations (Bild & Swain, 1989; Cenoz & Valencia, 1994; Thomas, 1988) confirm this by showing that contrary to the belief that bilingualism hampers the acquisition of an additional language, it actually favors it. In the bilingual domain, some evidence proposes that the frequency effect might even be greater in the second as compared with the first language (Van Wijnendaele, & Brysbaert, 2002).

The results of the experiments and the methods that we propose show that there is no significant difference (Root of word in English) between the mean of awareness in A.D. (4.46), B.A. (6.34), and M.A. (6.14) levels, but there is significant difference between the level of awareness of teachers group (9.33) and the other groups.

“True cognate”: There is no significant difference among groups of the A.D. (19.46), B.A. (20.57) and M.A. (23.44). There is still no significant difference between M.A. and teachers (27.55).

There are limitations to this study as mentioned below. Interested researchers can fill the gaps mentioned in this study and, hence, provide us with more findings in the area of true cognates. They can also replicate this study in different contexts in order to contribute to the generalizability of the findings of this study.

A number of limitations mean that more work is necessary to qualify the findings of this research. Another limitation is the range and number of items used across the studies. Although selecting true cognate items may lead to findings that are more representative of lexical processing in general, a much greater number of items is essential for qualifying the present discoveries crosswise over various tasks. Cross-linguistic similarity ratings and number of interpretations data for a much more prominent number of researchers would also prove ultimately more useful as data for other researchers who are interested in conducting studies with Persian –English likewise demonstrate at last more helpful as information for different specialists who are keen on directing studies with Persian - English bilinguals.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has explained the role of learners’ educational level and their knowledge of true cognate words. This part is committed to convey to the reader a few conclusions for tasks that we handled in this work, furthermore puts a few arrangements for future work to develop our research.

This part is dedicated to bring to the reader some conclusions for tasks that we tackled in this work and also puts into perspective some plans for future work to further develop our research. The main objective of this study was to investigate whether there is relationship between EFL learners’ educational level (AD, BA, and MA students and teacher group) and their knowledge of true cognate words between Persian and English. Our findings suggest that the awareness of participants were lower than expected score in all variables. The most obvious finding to emerge from this study was that there are some differences between teachers group and other groups in some variables. But about true cognates, there is no difference between groups. So true cognate awareness had no significant relationship with educational level.

Various investigations have shown that the native language impacts foreign word recognition and this influence is adapted by the dexterity in the nonnative language. Therefore, we conclude that the level of dexterity is more important than the level of education. In conclusion, it is suggested that the association of these factors to be investigated in future studies and more research on this topic needs to be undertaken.

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Teacher Reflectivity Revisited: Is Teaching Reflectivity Gaining a Foothold in Iran?*

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Abstract—Given that reflectivity could help keep the teaching profession vibrant and responsive, reflective teaching practice has become an essential component of teacher education. In recent years, some efforts have been underway to implement it in our educational system, in general and in language teaching, in particular. The present study aimed to investigate the extent to which Iranian English language teachers are reflective, if at all. To this end, a five-point Likert-scale questionnaire including 26 items, originally developed by Akbari et al. (2010) and validated for the purposes of the current study, was used. The participants of the study comprised 217 practicing EFL teachers selected through random sampling. Data analysis, conducted through descriptive statistics, revealed that Iranian English language teachers are reflective in all dimensions of reflection, though degree of reflectivity varies across these dimensions. This finding is promising and suggests that reflectivity is gaining a foothold in our language education.

Index Terms—reflectivity, reflective teaching, dimensions of reflectivity, language education

I. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of the concept of reflective teaching in ELT is considered as one of the outcomes of the post-method pedagogy (Kumaravadevelu, 1994, 2001, 2003, 2006; Prabhu, 1990). Korkmazgil (2009) believes that as there has been a sense of long-felt discontent with the conventional notion of method as the organizing tenet of L2 teaching and learning, Kumaravadevelu (1994) has introduced a beneficial term ‘*post method condition*’, which can modify the features and the content of L2 teaching, teacher education, and also classroom research. He asserts that there are inherent inconsistencies between method as conceptualized by theorists and method as actualized by practitioners; therefore, the need has arisen to look carefully beyond the concept of method. In the methods era, teachers dictated language teaching methods without influencing the way methods were established in academic circles; furthermore, the relationship between theoreticians and practitioners was of a top-down nature in which teachers have little critical voice (Akbari et al., 2010). According to Johnson (1996), theoretical knowledge was dominant over procedural or practical knowledge.

Undoubtedly, language teacher education was in acute crisis, and a shift of orientation in teacher competencies was clearly required. Theoreticians’ views were encountered with the eclectic approach of practitioners, and no real dialogue existed between these two groups. Thus, in this context of imposition of political nature (Pennycook, 1989), the notion of reflective teaching could be a favorable solution to the crisis. Halliday (1998) states that “it is understandable that the notion of *reflective practice* has been eagerly seized by the beleaguered teacher educators seeking to do something emancipatory and authentic in the act of hostility towards theory, moral deliberation and contextuality in teaching practices” (p. 598). As Ferwana (2006) suggests, reflection can be relevant to teaching in any scientific discipline involving teaching language. Therefore, each teacher, irrespective of what he/she teaches, can utilize reflection in his/her teaching process (Ferwana, 2006). Moreover, teacher educators believe that teachers should be encouraged to involve in some kind of reflection to progress into better professionals. Therefore, attempts are made to authorize teachers to become more reflective and qualified practitioners (Korkmozgil, 2009).

Despite the fact that language teacher education seems to be eager to give more voice and respect to teachers and their knowledge, it has moved to other extremes of the continuum (Akbari, 2007). Akbari (2007) argues that the post-method controversy (Kumaravadevelu, 1992, 1994, 2001, 2003, 2006) can be investigated as one of the reasons for the promotion of reflective teaching in ELT. Therefore, teachers in the field of education have their personal beliefs about teaching, personal styles for teaching, personal perceptions of students’ needs and even personal assumptions of what

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good teaching includes. Farrell (2003) believes that reflection helps teachers to become free from impulsive and routine behaviors. Moreover, he believes that it helps teachers to construct their daily experiences, permits them to act in a deliberate critical manner, bring about consciousness raising and deeper understanding about teaching, and triggers positive change.

Consistent with the points made above, in the current study, an attempt is made to investigate the extent to which Iranian language teachers are reflective, if at all. This is necessary because reflective practice is believed to improve education programs, which, in turn, will contribute to a more efficient teaching education system. The following section will present the components of reflective teaching.

II. REFLECTIVE TEACHING COMPONENTS

Akbari (2007) and Farrell (2003) indicate that reflection helps teachers to become free from impulsive and routine behaviors. Moreover, they believe that it helps teachers to construct their daily experiences, permits them to act in a deliberately critical manner, causes consciousness raising and deeper understanding about teaching, and starts positive change.

Akbari (2007) suggests that personality, beliefs and affective make-up of teachers encourage them to engage in reflection and will influence their reaction to their own images deriving from reflection. Moreover, Hillier (2005) indicates that it is true that one way for teachers to develop their professional practice is to review what they conduct at particular intervals including evaluating their way of teaching continually, thinking how to enable certain students to make progress and also deciding whether to develop new materials or not; however, he asserts that these are reflection in action (Schön, 1983); that is, an online reflection in the real life in which teachers involve as they encounter a problem in the classroom during teaching. Therefore, teachers should move beyond such reflection to ensure that they are able to reflect on their own beliefs and personalities so that they can stand back from their everyday experiences and apply them in bigger contexts (Hillier, 2005). Hence, Hillier (2005) states that “the role of reflection in teaching and training is to both affirm that what works well in addition to helping us to see what could be changed” (p. 219). These scholars believe in metacognitive component of reflective teaching, as discussed in the following paragraphs.

Due to the fact that various contextual factors shape language teachers’ professional duties, it is believed that there are five components for reflective teaching practices (Akbari, et al., 2010). One of these components is metacognitive component mentioned above. Akbari et al. (2010) report that affective component is one which deals with how teachers reflect on their students, how they are learning, and the way in which their students answer or behave emotionally in their classes. According to Zeichner and Liston (1996), this component focuses on reflection towards students, their cultural and linguistic backgrounds, their contemplation and understandings, their interest, and their developmental readiness for specific tasks. Furthermore, this element concentrates on teachers’ reflecting on their students’ emotional answers in their classrooms (Hillier, 2005; Pacheco, 2005; Pollard et al., 2006; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Moreover, Blasco et al., (2006) indicate that as learners’ emotions play a significant role in learning attitudes and behaviors, educators cannot ignore the effect of learners’ affective component in reflective process. However, Hawkey (2006) notes that in the past in western culture little attention was paid to the role of emotion and affective components; nowadays it is believed that emotional aspect of teaching is significant and it is highly emphasized in teacher education (Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Hawkey, 2006). Moreover, Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) note that emotion and cognition are interwoven. Another component is cognitive component. Bandura (1997) and Akbari (2007) believe that cognitive constructions augment teachers’ performance in relation to reflection. Critical component, that is, socio-political aspects of pedagogy and reflections upon them is the third component related to reflective teaching practices. The importance of critical component was firmly established in the literature (e.g., Bartlett, 1997; Day, 1993; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Yesilbursa, 2013; Zeichner & Liston, 1996). These scholars believe that teachers should reflect on importance of politics in their practice and take into consideration topics refers to race, gender, and social class, paving the ways for student empowerment. In addition, Jay and Johnson (2002) believe that by critical reflection, the individual goes back constantly to one’s own understanding of the problem. Besides, in critical reflection the extensive historical, socio-political, and moral context of teaching are taken into account (Valli, 1990). For instance, a history of inequity in schools may affect the direction, and perspectives of the students and their parents (Jay & Johnson, 2002). Moreover, it is believed that critical reflection should be considered as an important factor in teacher education (Hall, 1997; Hatton & Smith, 1994; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Stanley, 1998; Ward & McCotter, 2004).

In addition, another component is practical component. Many scholars consider practical component to be linked with reflective teaching practices (for e.g. Manen, 1977; Valli, 1990). Therefore, it is believed that these components give meaning to messy events beyond a common sense level in order to improve professional development (Boud, 2001; Brookfield, 1995; Dewey, 1991/ 1933; Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004). Moreover, Akbari (2007) indicates that if reflective teaching is considered as a purely cognitive concept, it cannot contribute to the improvement of society.

In all, one of the key critiques of teacher education system in Iran is the prescriptive perspectives of authorities imposed on EFL teachers either in schools or institutes. So many scholars assert that teacher education has failed producing generations of reflective and critical teachers.

A review of literature considering the influence of reflection process and reflective teaching on teacher education indicates a need for new approaches to teaching. Akbari (2007) states that reflection leads to autonomous and creative

teachers who can make decisions for themselves instead of obeying some prescriptive rules coming from authorities. Hence, the aim of the present investigation is to shed light on the status of reflective teaching in ELT in Iranian language institutes to know the extent to which teachers are reflective, if at all.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

In the current study, data were collected from 217 English teachers who provided responses to the questionnaire. All the participants were selected randomly from language institutes in Shiraz, Mazrudasht, and Yasouj. This study is comprised of 112 (51.6%) female and 105 (48.4%) male teachers with 1 to 10 years of experience, holding B.A. (49.8%), an M.A. (48.4%), or Ph.D. degrees (1.85%). 51.6% of them had a degree in TEFL, 20.7% in English translation, and 27.6% in English literature. The age of the participants ranged from 20 to 41 years old. Furthermore, the number of participants chosen in each city was proportionate the population size to be studied.

B. Instrumentation

For the current research question, a five-point Likert scale questionnaire involving 5 dimensions from 'always' to 'never' which consists of 29 items developed by Akbari et al. (2010) was utilized. The first dimension of the questionnaire, 'practical dimension', contains elements which are related to the tools and the actual practices of reflection (6 items). The second dimension of the questionnaire, 'cognitive element', deals with teachers' efforts to have professional development (6 items). The third dimension of the questionnaire, 'learner element' or 'affective element' includes the reflection of teachers on their students and their emotional behaviors in the classes (3 items). Metacognitive element is the fourth in the questionnaire. It takes into account teachers and their reflection on their own opinions and personality and also their influences on teaching practices (7 items). The last dimension is the 'critical dimension' which deals with the socio-political aspects of pedagogy and reflections upon them (7 items).

Before administering the questionnaire in the main study, it was piloted with a sample of 42 English language teachers (with characteristics similar to those who participated in the main study). The participants for the pilot study were randomly selected from one of the cities of the main study, that is, Shiraz. By piloting, the researchers aimed to gain insight into possible administration problems, item quality, and psychometric characteristics of the questionnaire especially validity (content and construct) and reliability. Then statistical analysis namely, descriptive statistics was conducted.

1. Reliability

The reliability of the questionnaire (Cronbach's Alphas if item deleted) was measured and estimated to be 0.84, which is an acceptable high enough reliability. Moreover, the reliability of individual components ranged from 0.60 to 0.88.

2. Face and content validity

Although the questionnaire was standard, four TEFL Ph. D. holders who were completely aware of the aims of the current research were asked to check the appearance and content of the questionnaire. They reviewed the 29 items of the questionnaire, and assured the researchers of the overall appearance and the relevancy of items and components of the instrument.

3. Factor analysis

The 29 items that had the acceptable level of reliability were included in the analysis. Therefore, suitability of the data for factor analysis was calculated by performing Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Furthermore, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.62, which is higher than the suggested value of 0.60 (Kaiser, 1974). This showed that the data were likely to factor well. In addition, the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was statistically significant with the confidence level of more than 99% ($p < 0.001$), confirming that significant correlations existed between variables. To come up with the factorial structure (the exploratory factor analysis (PCA)) of the very questionnaire that was to tap into the subject of investigating English language teachers' reflective teaching practices, all items were reviewed carefully. This revealed that the questionnaire measured five components including (practical, cognitive, affective, metacognitive, and also critical components) as Akbari et al. (2010) believe they do. The items were ordered in terms of the absolute value of their loadings on the component. Three problematic items (as they were not loaded on the correct component) were removed from the questionnaire. Therefore, the final draft of the questionnaire was comprised of 26 items.

Having established the reliability, content, face, and the construct validity of the instrument and having come up with the final form of the questionnaire, the researchers administered the questionnaire to all the participants (217 teachers).

IV. RESULTS

As mentioned in the previous sections, a five-point Likert scale questionnaire was validated to make sure that it was the right instrument to be used in this study. To answer the research question, "to what extent are English language teachers reflective, if at all?", use was made of descriptive statistics including frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation.

The highest frequency and percentage (91, 41.9%) belonged to Item 20. It was the most significant issue in applying reflective teaching practices among the participants of the present study. On the other hand, Item 19 was found to have the lowest frequency and percentage (2, 0.9%). Moreover, the categories of 2 (*sometimes*) and 3 (*often*) are selected more frequently than other options. The option *sometimes* was chosen in 13 items as the most frequently selected option. This was followed by *often* being selected as the most frequent option in 9 items.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCIES & PERCENTAGES OF EACH ALTERNATIVE RATING SCALE¹

Items	Respondent level of agreement (frequency & percentage for each alternative)				
	0	1	2	3	4
Q1	35 16.1%	42 19.4%	57 26.3%	48 22.1%	35 16.1%
Q2	21 9.7%	31 14.3%	74 34.1%	49 22.6%	42 19.4%
Q3	18 8.3%	54 24.9%	72 33.2%	43 19.8%	30 13.8%
Q4	21 9.7%	32 14.7%	71 32.7%	55 25.3%	38 17.5%
Q5	26 12%	39 18%	66 30.4%	66 30.4%	20 9.2%
Q6	24 11.1%	47 21.7%	70 32.3%	52 24%	24 11.1%
Q7	14 6.5%	39 18%	51 23.5%	61 28.1%	52 24%
Q8	11 5.1%	36 16.6%	67 30.9%	58 26.7%	45 20.7%
Q9	22 10.1%	47 21.7%	50 23%	62 28.6%	36 16.6%
Q11	17 7.8%	55 25.3%	62 28.6%	59 27.2%	24 11.1%
Q12	11 5.1%	31 14.3%	71 32.7%	78 35.9%	26 12%
Q13	11 5.1%	25 11.5%	59 27.2%	76 35%	46 21.2%
Q14	6 2.8%	26 12%	74 34.1%	53 24.4%	58 26.7%
Q15	10 4.6%	37 17.1%	78 35.9%	61 28.1%	31 14.3%
Q16	6 2.8%	25 11.5%	64 29.5%	58 26.7%	64 29.5%
Q17	5 2.3%	34 15.7%	62 28.6%	81 37.3%	35 16.1%
Q19	2 0.9%	14 6.5%	58 26.7%	71 32.7%	72 33.2%
Q20	3 1.4%	16 7.4%	47 21.7%	60 27.6%	91 41.9%
Q22	5 2.3%	42 19.4%	60 27.6%	68 31.3%	42 19.4%
Q23	22 10.1%	54 24.9%	49 22.6%	52 24%	40 18.4%
Q24	21 9.7%	38 17.5%	59 27.2%	52 24%	47 21.7%
Q25	17 7.8%	55 25.3%	56 25.8%	65 30%	24 11.1%
Q26	24 11.1%	55 25.3%	59 27.2%	56 25.8%	23 10.6%
Q27	20 9.2%	35 16.1%	55 25.3%	68 31.3%	39 18%
Q28	17 7.8%	35 16.1%	59 27.2%	71 32.7%	35 16.1%
Q29	18 8.3%	31 14.3%	52 24%	73 33.6%	43 19.8%

In order to assess Iranian English language teachers' reflective teaching practices, mean and standard deviation of individual items and the five main factors were calculated (see Table 2). Analyzing the individual items, it was revealed that Item number 20 had the highest mean (3.01) while Item number 26 had the lowest mean (2.00). Moreover, Item 19 was found to have the lowest standard deviation (0.967) while Item 2 had the highest standard deviation (2.208).

¹ The responses with the highest and the lowest frequencies and percentages are in boldface.

Regarding mean and standard deviation of the components in the questionnaire, metacognitive component achieved the highest mean (3.83). This was followed by affective component, critical component, cognitive component, and practical component, respectively. Turning to standard deviation of components, metacognitive component had the lowest standard deviation (0.962) while critical component had the highest standard deviation (1.260).

TABLE 2
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF ITEMS AND COMPONENTS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE²

	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Practical component	3.14	1.143	Metacognitive component	3.83	0.962
Q1	2.03	1.309	Q16	2.69	1.099
Q2	2.28	2.208	Q17	2.49	1.014
Q3	2.06	1.155	Q19	2.91	0.967
Q4	2.26	1.194	Q20	3.01	1.030
Q5	2.07	1.155	Q22	2.46	1.080
Q6	2.02	1.160	Critical component	3.38	1.260
Cognitive component	3.36	1.126	Q23	2.16	1.271
Q7	2.45	1.217	Q24	2.30	1.258
Q8	2.41	1.140	Q25	2.11	1.141
Q9	2.20	1.241	Q26	2.00	1.177
Q11	2.08	1.131	Q27	2.33	1.209
Q12	2.35	1.031	Q28	2.33	1.159
Affective component	3.59	1.067	Q29	2.42	1.196
Q13	2.56	1.100			
Q14	2.60	1.088			
Q15	2.30	1.058			

TABLE 3
TOTAL MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION

	Mean	SD
Total	3.40	0.995

As Table 3 indicates, mean (3.40) and standard deviation (0.995) of all components in the questionnaire were calculated. Judging from the mean value, it could be said that language teachers are reflective in terms of the components identified in the questionnaire. However, in order to obtain a clearer picture of the phenomenon in question based on the data gathered through the questionnaire, it was decided to do further analysis of the data in terms of individual categories in the questionnaire, as in the following figure.

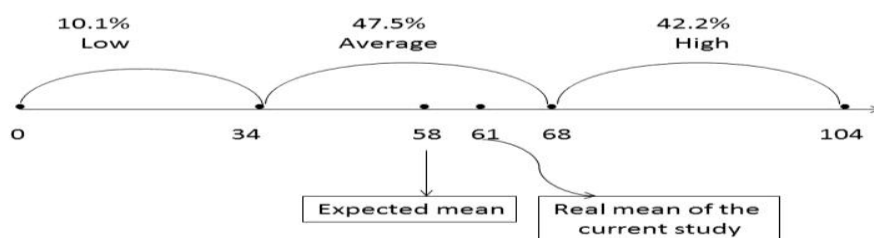


Figure 1 Teachers' reflectivity

As Figure 1 indicates, given that the questionnaire consisted of 26 items, it was necessary to see how the participants answered the individual items. For all the items, assuming that category 'always' was chosen, the highest possible score was 104, and assuming that category 'never' was chosen, this would amount to zero. So, the score would range from 0 to 104. Furthermore, in order to investigate their performance in terms of RT, the participants were categorized into different groups. It is common practice to categorize participants into 3 groups (low, average, high) or five groups (extremely low, low, average, high, and extremely high). The current researcher decided to categorize them into three groups. Given that the scores could range from 0 to 104, by dividing 104 by 3, there were 3 groups of scores. Therefore, 0-34 was considered as the first category (i.e., teachers who are low in terms of RT practices), the second category ranged from 35-68 (i.e., teachers who are average in terms of RT practices), and 69-104 was considered for the third category (i.e., teachers who are highly reflective in their RT practices).

V. DISCUSSION

² The highest and the lowest means and standard deviations are written in bold face.

The research question intended to figure out the extent to which Iranian English teachers are reflective, if at all. According to the results drawn from the questionnaire, the highest mean in the questionnaire belonged to Item 18 (3.01). Interestingly, this item belonged to metacognitive component that had the highest mean among the five components (3.83). Therefore, this showed its significance in ELT contexts.

Regarding descriptive statistics of the five components, the results of this study indicated that the mean values of all components were high (more than two, which is considered as half) and they ranged from 3.14 to 3.83. Therefore, it can be said that English language teachers, in general, considered all components highly important in RT practices.

Furthermore, the participants' answers, that is, the options they chose from among the five alternatives (never, rarely, sometimes, often, and always) were also examined to investigate the degree of importance that teachers attach both items and components in the questionnaire (see Table 1). As indicated in this table, three options of 2 (sometimes), 3 (often), and 4 (always) were selected more frequently than other options. It should be added that Item 18 had the highest frequency and percentage (91, 41.9%) for *always*, which belonged to metacognitive component. It can be said that the first two options (never and rarely) were chosen less frequently than the last three options (sometimes, often, and always), which were indicators of high levels of significance. These findings indicated that English language teachers considered these items and components highly relevant to reflective teaching practices. These findings appear to be consistent with other studies in the literature as well.

As the result of Ferwana's (2006) review of the literature of the influence of reflection on teaching, he suggested that reflection can be relevant to teaching in any scientific discipline involving teaching language. Therefore, each teacher, irrespective of what he/she teaches, can utilize reflection in his/her teaching process (Ferwana, 2006). In the same vein, it is believed that teachers should be encouraged to get involved in some kind of reflection to progress into better professionals. Therefore, attempts are made to authorize teachers to become more reflective and qualified practitioners (Korkmözgil, 2009). As this was significant to the current study, in line with what Ferwana (2006) and Korkmözgil (2009) deemed to be important, a close examination of English language teachers' performances in reflective teaching practices in language institutes in Iran was sought. This was congruent with the results of Akbari (2007) and Farrell (2003) who confirmed that reflection helps teachers to become free from impulsive and routine behaviors. Moreover, they believed that this helps teachers to construct their daily experiences, permits them to act in a deliberate critical manner, causes consciousness raising and deeper understanding about teaching, and starts positive change. As mentioned earlier, one of the main focuses of the current study was taking into account different aspects of reflective teaching practices in fostering reflectivity among language teachers. In the current study, language teachers considered metacognitive component to be the most important factor in becoming a reflective teacher and put high prominence on its sub-components, for instance, thinking of their teaching philosophy, taking into account their strengths and weaknesses, and considering inconsistencies occurring in their classroom practices. Therefore, they should be able to reflect on their own beliefs and personalities and their own feelings. This finding confirms Akbari's (2007) study. He found that personality, beliefs and affective make-up of teachers encourage them to engage in reflection and influence their reaction toward their own image deriving from reflection. In the same vein, as Hillier (2005) indicated, that it is true that one way for teachers to develop their professional practice is to review what they conduct at particular intervals including evaluating their way of teaching continually, thinking how to enable certain students to make progress and also deciding whether to develop new materials or not; however, he asserted that these are reflection in action. Therefore, teachers should move beyond such reflection to ensure that they are able to reflect on their own beliefs and personalities so that they can stand back from their everyday experiences and apply their experiences in bigger contexts (Hillier, 2005). Hence, Hillier (2005) stated that "the role of reflection in teaching and training is to both affirm that what works well in addition to helping us to see what could be changed" (p. 219). In a like manner, this study confirms that affective component (learner component) is strongly associated with reflective teaching practices. This component has the second highest mean in reflective teaching practices. This finding supports the findings of previous studies linking affective factors and success in reflective teaching. According to Akbari et al., (2010), this element deals with how teachers reflect on their students, how they are learning, and the way in which their students answer or behave emotionally in their classes. According to Zeichner and Liston (1996), this component focuses on reflection towards students, their cultural and linguistic backgrounds, contemplation and understandings, their interests, and their developmental readiness for specific tasks. Furthermore, this element concentrates on teachers' reflecting on their students' emotional answers in their classrooms (Hillier, 2005; Pacheco, 2005; Pollard et al., 2006; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Moreover, Blasco et al., (2006) indicated that as learners' emotions play a significant role in learning attitudes and behaviors, educators cannot ignore the effect of learners' affective component in reflective process. However, Hawkey (2006) noted that in the past in western culture, little attention was paid to the role of emotion and affective component. Nowadays, it is believed that emotional aspect of teaching is significant and it is highly emphasized in teacher education (Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Hawkey, 2006). Moreover, Mayer et al. (1999) proposed that emotion and cognition are interwoven. In the current study, all items relevant to this component were indicated as highly important.

Cognitive component was the third significant component identified as related to reflective teaching practices. All the items dealing with teachers' endeavor for the professional development were identified as highly important in ELT contexts and were considered as an essential factor in order to become a reflective teacher. This finding corroborates the

ideas of Bandura (1997) and Akbari et al. (2007), who believed that cognitive constructions augment teachers' performance in relation to reflection.

Critical component, that is, socio-political aspects of pedagogy and reflections upon them, was the fourth component related to reflective teaching practices. All items relevant to this component were considered as highly significant in reflective teaching practices in the current study. The importance of critical component was firmly established in the literature (e.g., Bartlett, 1997; Day, 1993; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Yesilbursa, 2013; Zeichner & Liston, 1996), who believed that teachers should reflect on the importance of politics in their practices and take into consideration topics refers to race, gender, and social class, paving the ways for student empowerment. In addition, Jay and Johnson (2002) believed that by critical reflection, the individual goes back constantly to one's own understanding of the problem. Besides, in critical reflection the extensive historical, socio-political, and moral context of teaching are taken into account (Valli, 1990). For instance, a history of inequity in schools may affect the direction, and perspectives of the students and their parents (Jay & Johnson, 2002). Moreover, it is believed that critical reflection should be considered as an important factor in teacher education (Hall, 1997; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Stanley, 1998; Ward & McCotter, 2004). Therefore, the finding of the current study is in harmony with what has just been mentioned by the scholars in the field.

Finally, the last component was practical component which dealt with actual act of reflection. In the current study, although the mean value of this component (3.14) was not highly different from other components, it is considered as the least significant factor in reflective teaching practices because it has the lowest mean value. This could be due to the fact that various contextual factors shape language teachers' professional duties (Akbari et al., 2010). This study, therefore, is in line with the findings of many scholars who consider practical component to be linked with reflective teaching practices (for e.g. Manen, 1977; Valli, 1990).

In all, it is worth noting that cognitive, affective, practical, metacognitive, and critical components were found to be highly significant in the current study. In the same vein, it is believed that these components are essential elements of reflection in that they give meaning to messy events beyond a common sense level in order to improve professional development (Boud, 2001; Brookfield, 1995; Dewey, 1991/ 1933; Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004). Moreover, Akbari (2007) indicated that if reflective teaching is considered as a purely cognitive concept, it cannot contribute to the improvement of society. This is in line with the findings of the current study in the sense that different factors of reflective teaching are taken into consideration.

VI. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that reflectivity is being incorporated into teaching profession either through teacher training programs or through teachers' own volition and also that reflectivity is gaining a foothold in our language education.

In order to assess Iranian English language teachers in terms of the extent to which they are using reflective teaching practices, mean, standard deviation, percentage, and frequency of individual items and the five main factors were calculated. Analyzing the individual items, it was revealed that Item 18 had the highest mean (3.01) while Item 23 had the lowest mean (2.00). Moreover, Item 17 was found to have the lowest standard deviation (0.967) while Item 2 had the highest standard deviation (2.208).

Regarding mean and standard deviation of the components in the questionnaire, metacognitive component was found to have the highest mean (3.83). This was followed by affective component, critical component, cognitive component, and practical component, respectively. Turning to standard deviation of components, metacognitive component had the lowest standard deviation (0.962) while critical component had the highest standard deviation (1.260). In addition, the mean (3.40) and the standard deviation (0.995) of all components in the questionnaire were calculated. The highest frequency and percentage (91, 41.9%) belonged to Item 18; that is, it was the most significant issue in reflective teaching practices from the perspectives of the participants of the present study. On the other hand, Item 17 with (*never*) was found to have the lowest frequency and percentage (2, 0.9%). This study was conducted to take a hold of the extent to which English language teachers are reflective, if at all. The conclusions drawn from this study could help English language teachers to improve professional development and teacher empowerment.

The current study has practical implications for language teachers, teacher educators, and educational organizations. Language teachers can, in particular, obtain considerable insights as how to use reflective practices to improve their teaching enterprises. They can learn how to reflect on teaching and how to take some steps to progress in their teaching practices. They can better understand the effectiveness of peer observation, become aware of their weaknesses and strengths and also learn to reflect on classroom behaviors. Moreover, teacher educators can take into account the fact that reflective practice needs to be included in teacher-training program to ensure that teachers are equipped with the knowledge of reflective practice if this is to make a difference. Therefore, they can make a change in what to teach and how to teach materials, and also help teachers to be able to behave creatively and critically with the incidents happening in their classes.

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Appraisal Resources in Chinese College Students' English Argumentative Writing

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Abstract—Appraisal system is the new development of Halliday's interpersonal function, which is a very important parameter in argumentative writing since its purpose is to influence and convince readers. Directed by appraisal system, with UAM corpus tool for annotation and statistics, this paper carried out a comparative empirical research in interpersonal meaning on Chinese and American students' 64 English argumentative essays. The study found that the overall use of appraisal resources in Chinese English majors' essays fell far behind American college students, with the only exception of affect resources. In the attitude subsystem, it shows that Chinese college students have a poor vocabulary, colloquial expressions, subjective logic and other problems; in the engagement, students from the two countries have an abundant use, which may be relevant to argumentative writing itself; although graduation resources are the nucleus of appraisal system, they are least used by the two groups of students, probably caused by the reason that graduation meaning are often covert in the text. The study contributes to revealing a comprehensive difference of appraisal resources between Chinese and American college students' argumentative writing, and the teaching of writing in such genre will also be benefited.

Index Terms—systemic functional linguistics, interpersonal function, appraisal system, appraisal resources, argumentative writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Second language writing is not only a great challenge in second language learning, but also a hot research topic (Casanave, 2004; Hyland, 2003). In the late 20th century, studies on the writing of English as a second language gradually developed, and, with its own theories, objects of study, research methods and research teams, it slowly became an independent discipline that carried the clear study scope (Hyland, 2003, 2009; Kroll, 2003; Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008; Silva & Matsuda, 2012). Currently, the study of second language writing covers the following four areas (Archibald & Jeffery, 2000; Atkinson, 2003; Matsuda, 2003a, 2003b): (1) second language writing as process, including cognitive model, strategies of writing planning, learner's individual differences and the stages in writing process; (2) second language writing as product, including text analysis, error correction, comparative analysis, rhetoric analysis, and corpus analysis; (3) second language writing context, including social structure, register analysis and the investigations in knowledge, motivation, needs and other individual differences; (4) second language writing teaching, including the learning process, learning strategies, language development, classroom teaching, writing tests, and web courseware development. These four areas cover almost all fields in second language writing research, incorporating topics such as automatic scoring system (Lu, 2010; Warschauer & Ware, 2006), genre writing (Hyland, 2004b, 2007), cooperative writing (Dobao, 2015; Storch, 2005), grammar correction (D. Ferris, 1999; D. R. Ferris, 2011), writing motivation (Sasaki, 2011), writer's characteristics and differences (Ivanič & Camps, 2001; Shin & Riazantseva, 2015), writing planning (De Larios, Murphy, & Marin, 2002), reader response (J. Liu & Hansen, 2002), writing assessment (Hamp-Lyons, 1990), writing context (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Manchón, 2009), writing teaching (Hyland, 2007), mother tongue transfer (Wolfersberger, 2003), interlanguage fossilization (Han & Odlin, 2006) and so on. In recent years, the focus of ESL writing research is in four areas: genre theory, cooperative writing, grammar correction and individual differences, among which grammar correction has always been a hot topic. In addition, academic writing, corpus-based approach (Aull, 2015; Romero-Trillo, 2014), writer's identity (Ouellette, 2008; Ricento, 2005), as well as cooperative writing based on Wiki (Caruso, 2014; Chao & Lo, 2011; Elola & Oskoz, 2010), have gradually become research focus in recent years.

Over the years, in the field of second language learning, Chinese researchers paid more and more interests in second language writing. As each area is going deeper in the study, Chinese scholars have achieved fruitful research results (Guo, 2009; He, 2014; L. F. Wang, 2005). Chinese second language writing research started late than western world, closely following their research methods and research approaches. After 20 years of development, apart from following foreign studies, Chinese second language writing research also has some of its distinctions, for example it focuses on the following fields: textual and linguistic features of second language writing (Cheng, 2009; Qi & Tang, 2007), factors affecting second language writing, second language writing teaching and second language writing test. Generally speaking, Chinese second language writing research follows a multiple approach, with more scientific and practical

studies and various research methods, and putting particular emphasis on writing teaching (see Figure 1). Although the current second language writing research in China enjoys a rapid development and achieves fruitful results, there is much uneven distribution in the studies: (1) since most researchers come from universities and other educational institutions, so the overall emphasis is on writing teaching, composing 42% of second language writing research (Guo, 2009); (2) most of the participants of empirical studies have been restricted at the university level, only a few involves high school students and almost none includes primary participants; (3) other problems such narrow research areas, heavy repeated studies, heavy quantitative methods, few qualitative researches and restricted variables controls in quantitative studies (Xu & Nie, 2015).

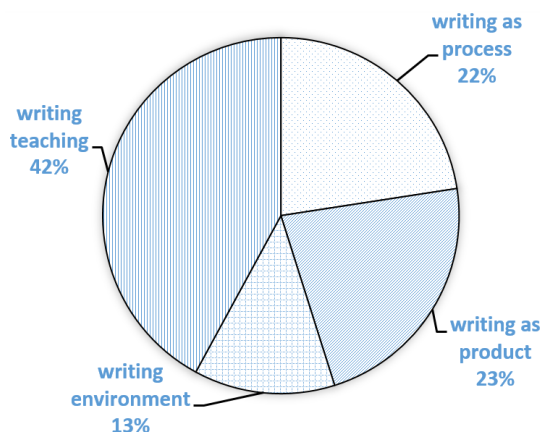


Figure 1 Chinese second language writing research (see Guo (2009))

Throughout Chinese and western studies in this area, it can be found that few scholars carried out comprehensive exploration on linguistic features in second language writing texts based on appraisal system, overlooking language resources that express second language writer's identity, attitude, affect and the relationship of inter-subjects. Especially when writing argumentative essays, the proper use of appraisal resources helps to enhance author's explaining and commenting on related events and issues, promote author's stance, attitude and starting new conversation, mediate and negotiate between different stances and topics, and thus plays an important role in influencing and convincing readers. The appraisal meaning is a great interpersonal resource. "It is the nucleus of any discourse meaning, and any discourse analysis of interpersonal meaning must involve evaluation" (Thompson & Hunston, 2000). This posed a difficult challenge for second language writers and currently there is only a few limited studies in the literature explored the issue (Lee, 2008; Liao, 2011). Most investigations of interpersonal meaning in writing is still confined to academic discourse (Coffin & Mayor, 2004; Gotti, 2009; Hood, 2004, 2006, 2009, 2010; Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Hyland, 2004a; Thompson, 2001; Thompson & Ye, 1991; Ventola & Mauraanen, 1996).

Myers (1989) pointed out that the primary function of writing is interactivity; apart from expressing ideational function that reflects the real world, it also constructs interactive discourse that negotiates and establishes social relations, in doing so making an alliance with readers. Built upon appraisal system (Martin & White, 2005), this research attempts to reveal evaluation features in Chinese college students' English argumentative writing through an empirical comparative study with American college students' argumentative essays.

II. APPRAISAL SYSTEM

Since the creation of systemic functional linguistics (SFL hereafter), its research has been based on lexical grammar, treating clause as the carrier of "exchange", "realization" and "information", exploring text's ideational, interpersonal and textual functions. SFL studies achieved a broad and in-depth investigation of language, however it overlooked the study of semantics of evaluation of interlocutors. In the early 1990s, Martin paid his attention to this blank, proposed appraisal system on the basis of SFL theories, and extended the SFL's interpersonal meaning research (Li, 2002a, 2002b; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005; Rothery & Stenglin, 2000; Z. H. Wang, 2001; Zhang, 2004). Martin and White (2005, p. xxiii) commented on it: "appraisal system is about evaluation, that is, it is the various negotiated attitudes, all kinds of emotional intensities involved and the means of demonstrating values and aligning readers in the discourse". Broadly speaking, the evaluation can be considered as the interpersonal meaning covered in the texts, and it is the resources used to realize the stance and proposition (Hood, 2010). Appraisal, in the first place, is the realization of interpersonal meaning, in other words, the evaluation can be seen as the way to establish interpersonal solidarity between speaker/writer and listener/reader (Li, 2004). In discourse analysis, appraisal does not only concern people's comprehension of rhetoric functional of evaluative lexis in the text (Z. H. Wang & Ma, 2007; Zhang, 2004), but it also takes care of the relationships between interpersonal meaning and social relations (Hu, 2009; T. T. Liu & Liu, 2008; Martin & White, 2005), making it a social-oriented system. Halliday (2008, p. 49) noted that the study of evaluation in lexis complemented his interpersonal studies; Martin further mentioned that the appraisal system is not a theory, but a

language description system based on systemic functional grammar (SFG) (Huan & Wu, 2015).

Obviously, one of the basic points in Martin and White's system is the discourse semantics, the attitudinal meaning (affect, judgement and appreciation) expressed by interlocutors in communication events. They also give the other participant, reader/listener, a special status, taking the communicating as a process of meaning negotiation between the two subjects. Whether it is the expression of appraisal meaning or the dialogue between subjects indicates differences in the value of interpersonal influence and language capacity and the vagueness or clearness in the focus of semantic types. Martin and other SFL scholars elaborated appraisal resources as categorizations, grouping them into three evaluation subsystems: attitude, engagement and graduation (Martin & White, 2005).

Attitude system is a means of expressing emotion, referring to the meaning resources people use to intersubjectively evaluate participant and process with reference to the value system of emotional response and cultural restriction; it includes three subsystems, namely affect, judgment and appreciation. Affect is emotional and is the response to behaviors (directed to the self). It is about people's positive or negative emotions, such as pleasure/pain, confidence/fear, interest/boredom and so on. It is the nucleus of the attitude system that affects judgement system and appreciation system. Judgment is ethical and is the evaluation of the behavior (directed to the others). It can be divided into two categories: social esteem and social sanction; social esteem is often oral without written terms and evaluate people's personality and behavior according to three parameters, i.e. normality, capacity and tenacity; social sanction is often in accordance with written terms, such as state's laws or Vatican regulations, and judges people's personality and behavior according to two parameters, i.e. veracity and propriety. Appreciation system is aesthetic in that it evaluates things, whether is it perfect, beautiful and so on. It is the evaluation of product and process, including natural objects, artificial goods, discourse and abstract structure. Its reference parameters are also with aesthetics, incorporating reaction, composition and valuation.

Engagement system treats language as a "dialogue", which is about how the evaluator builds alliance relationship with the evaluated. Language use in this sense is a kind of interactive activity, a process of interaction between people. Specifically, engagement could be divided into monogloss and heterogloss. While monogloss refers to that the speaker completely ignores other voices in the discourse, heterogloss, divided into contract and expand, implies that the speaker recognizes other sound and chooses to enhance or eliminate certain voice. The semantic space of heterogloss provides with speaker more freedom to quote or assimilate others' words. Heterogloss is further composed of contract and expand, and the former consists of disclaim and proclaim, the latter includes entertain and attribute.

In appraisal system, the most important feature of attitude is the gradability as affect, judgment and appreciation involve varying degree of affirmation and negativity. Gradability is also the general characteristic of engagement system, whose subsystems indicate how much the speaker/author are involved in the discourse. Therefore the graduation system is the nucleus of appraisal system, in which it determines attitude and engagement. Graduation has two axes: the intensity or the quantity and the typicality or the certainty. The former is called the force, mainly referring to the gradable lexes; and the latter is called the focus, referring to non-gradable lexes. Ultimately, the complete appraisal system is as follows (Figure 2):

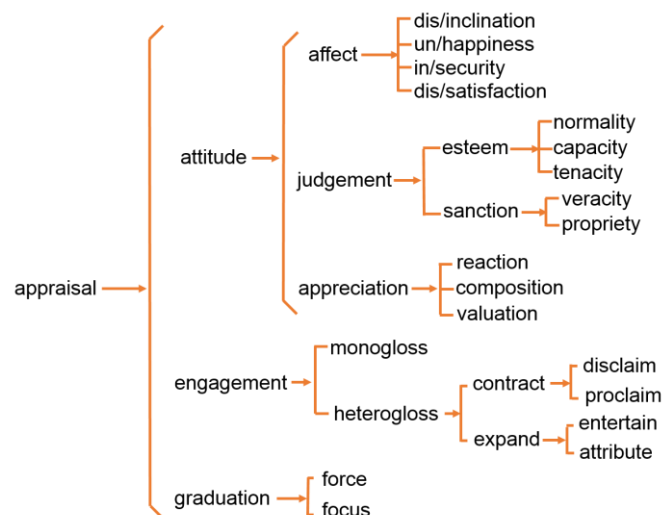


Figure 2 Appraisal system

Three main functions of appraisal can be summarized as: (1) to express the speaker's or writer's opinion, reflecting the personal and social value system; (2) to establish and maintain the relationship between the speaker and the listener and between the author and the reader; (3) to organize discourse. An obvious feature of evaluation is to transfer author's views and feelings to the reader. Affirming writer's mind is one thing, what's more important is that appraisal stands for the public value system, which tends to be built by each evaluation, and this value system, in turn, becomes part of the ideology inherent in discourse. Therefore authors' stance shows the social ideology generated by discourse. The second

function of appraisal is to establish and maintain relationships between writers and readers, and this function is studied in the following three areas: manipulation, hedging and politeness. The manipulation is to use appraisal to control the reader, persuading him to go in an independent way of experiencing things. For example, in advertisement discourse, the actual use of the person is not in line with the first, second and third person in syntax. The third function of appraisal is to organize discourse. The author not only tells his reader what happens, his own points of views, the start of text, the coordination of arguments and the end of interactions. Hunston and Sinclair (2000) believed that evaluation tended to occur at the boundaries of discourse in written discourse. In dialogue, such organizing function is very obvious.

Although currently studies on appraisal system have become one of the focuses in SFL, most of its application are still confined in the field of academic discourse, followed by empirical researches on the genres of the media, legal language, narrative texts, historical texts, education language, etc.. However, there are still few studies to explore argumentative writing, except Lee (2008, 2014) and Wu and Allison (2003, 2007)'s preliminary efforts in the direction.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

The corpora used in this study is from Chinese and American college students' English argumentative texts. The selection on argumentation genre is mainly based on the following considerations: different with narrative and expository's description and illustration on objective world, argumentation asks students to explain and comment on some events or issues according to certain topics, to represent writer's opinions, attitudes and positions, and to play the role of influencing and persuading readers. Therefore students' ability in expressing appraisal resources is easily identified. Based on the idea, the researcher collected 32 English argumentative essays of Chinese English majors in his own class. In order to match the text length, style and writer's age, the researcher collects another 32 argumentative writings from the native corpus LOCNESS (The Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) for a comparative empirical study.

By comparing appraisal resources between Chinese and American college students' English argumentations, this study attempts to reveal Chinese college students' evaluation patterns in argumentative writing, uncover how they express their opinions, attitudes and positions, how they open or press dialogic space, and how to achieve the purpose of influencing and persuading readers.

A. *The Participants*

32 college sophomores in English majors from the Yangtze Normal University are involved in the study, including 11 boys, 21 girls, aging 19-21 years old. Basically they have an English learning experience of 8 years, and have all passed CET-4 and CET-6 (College English Test Band 4 and 6).

B. *Research Question*

Employing appraisal theory, this research seeks to find the differences in interpersonal meaning between Chinese and American college students, and therefore provides a guiding reference for Chinese students' argumentative writing. The study tries to answer the following question: what are the differences and features in appraisal resources in argumentative writings between the two groups of students?

C. *Corpora*

The research corpora comes from two sources: the one is 32 argumentative essays from native corpora LOCNESS, a total of 8300 words; the other is another 32 argumentative writings in the same genre of college sophomores in English major from Yangtze Normal University, a total of 8150 words. LOCNESS corpus contains a total of 324,304 words, consisted of three parts: (1) the United Kingdom pupils' writing corpus; (2) British college students' writing corpus; (3) American college students' argumentative writing corpus. This study chooses American college students' argumentative writing corpus as a contrasting corpora, which includes dozens of topics such as government duties, social welfare, religion, environment, resources, legal system, sports, gun control, news media and higher education. In order to match the comparability in two corpus and meet Chinese English majors' writing abilities, the study picks higher education as argumentative writing genre and selects a similar size from the two corpora.

D. *Data Processing*

The research corpora was annotated by UAM software with a delicacy of four levels, covering all major branches of the appraisal system. In the analysis, each academic term was replaced by a coding system, for example ATT-AFF refers to affect subsystem, ATT-JUD refers to judgement subsystem, ATT-APP is for appreciation, ENG-MON is for monogloss, ENG-HET is for heterogloss, GRA-FOR stands for force, and GRA-FOC stands for focus. See the table below for each code:

TABLE 1
ENCODING OF APPRAISAL SYSTEM

SUBSYSTEM OF APPRAISAL		CODE
ATTITUDE	affect	ATT-AFF
	judgement	ATT-JUD
	appreciation	ATT-APP
	monogloss	—
ENGAGEMENT	heterogloss-disclaim	ENG-DIS
	heterogloss-proclaim	ENG-PRO
	heterogloss-entertain	ENG-ENT
	heterogloss-attribute	ENG-ATT
GRADUATION	force	GRA-FOR
	focus	GRA-FOC

E. Data Analysis

The study is corpus driven and integrates quantitative and comparative research methods to uncover features of appraisal resources in Chinese and American college students' argumentative writings. Quantitative research is used for statistics and analysis of the corpora while comparative study is mainly used to highlight differences between the two groups in various appraisal subsystems. The study follows these steps:

- (1) run statistics for each annotated appraisal item in Chinese college students' corpora;
- (2) illustrate each statistic in Chinese college students' argumentative writing;
- (3) run statistics for each annotated appraisal item in American college students' corpora;
- (4) illustrate each statistic in American college students' argumentative writing;
- (5) carry out comparative analysis of the configuration of appraisal resources in Chinese and American college students' argumentative writing.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

In order to answer the research question, the study will investigate appraisal resources of Chinese and American college students' argumentative essays from its three subsystems, attitude, engagement and graduation respectively. Table 2 lists the students' raw data and the percentage of evaluation, which is calculated by dividing the total number of words by the number of words containing appraisal meaning. As can be seen from the table, Chinese students' argumentative writing is slightly shorter in length than American college students', but the use of appraisal resources is much less than the latter, occupying 10.29% and 14.76% in turn. One cause for this distinction lays in the difference of appraisal resources between native speakers and second language learners. The result is consistent with some other research findings, such as Bednarek (2009), Hyland (2004c) and Lee (2010).

TABLE 2
APPRAISAL DISTRIBUTION IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS

	NO. OF TEXTS	TOTAL WORD ACCOUNT	APPRAISAL EXPRESSION FREQUENCY	APPRAISAL FREQUENCY RATIO	SIGNIFICANCE
CHINESE STUDENTS	32	8321	857	10.29%	0.00
AMERICAN STUDENTS	32	9261	1367	14.76%	0.00
TOTAL	64	17582	2224	25.05%	

To investigate the details of appraisal differences between the two groups of students, each parameter of evaluation system was analyzed (see Table 3). As it can be seen from the table, in argumentative writing Chinese college students use more affect than American college students (57 and 48 respectively), while the latter uses more other 8 appraisal resources than the former. One significant difference between the two groups lays in entertain, and American students are far ahead. A second significant difference is reflected in affect resources and Chinese students are in the lead. This shows that in argumentative essays Chinese college students are good at expressing affect, but weak at judgment and appreciation resources; American students are superior in all other dimensions except in affect evaluation. Also another point should be noted that Chinese students relatively intend to use contracted resources while American students are more inclined to use expanded discussion.

TABLE 3
STATISTICS ON APPRAISAL RESOURCES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

APPRAISAL RESOURCES	CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS	LOG-LIKELIHOOD RATIO STATISTIC	SIGNIFICANCE	
ATTITUDE	ATT-AFF	57	48	21.19	0.00
	ATT-JUD	42	85	3.57	0.03
	ATT-APP	72	87	5.79	0.01
ENGAGEMENT	ENG-DIS	192	239	12.66	0.00
	ENG-PRO	32	60	2.07	0.12
	ENG-ENT	126	380	77.96	0.00
	ENG-ATT	30	37	1.88	0.14
GRADUATION	GRA-FOR	298	409	7.52	0.01
	GRA-FOC	8	22	4.33	0.03
TOTAL	857	1367			

A. *Affect Resources*

Table 4 reflects Chinese and American college students' attitude resources in argumentative writing. In attitudes system, students from the two countries have the most in appreciation resources, 72 and 87 respectively; Chinese students use judgement least (42) while American students use affect least (48); the significant difference of the two group is shown in affect resources. The three subsystems of attitude will be successively discussed in depth.

TABLE 4
STATISTICS ON ATTITUDE RESOURCES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

	CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS	LOG-LIKELIHOOD RATIO STATISTIC	SIGNIFICANCE
ATT-AFF	57	48	21.19	0.00
ATT-JUD	42	85	3.57	0.03
ATT-APP	72	87	5.79	0.01
TOTAL	171	220		

As shown in Table 5, affect vocabularies used by Chinese college students is much more than American college students, and both groups realize affect primarily by verbs and nouns. Chinese students express affect mainly by verbs, and use relatively less nouns and adjectives, while American students use a balanced word class to express affect with just a very subtle variation. This shows that Chinese English majors as second language learners have a restricted vocabulary than native speakers.

TABLE 5
STATISTICS ON AFFECT VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
worry (14)	fear (6)
want (8)	want (5)
need (7)	believe (5)
believe (6)	hope (3)
hope (5)	need (3)
afraid (5)	help (2)
fear (3)	afraid (2)
insist (2)	refuse (1)
burden (1)	
...	...

* Each original verb includes its variants; each noun covers its singular and plural forms

Next, the judgement lexical resources are investigated. American college students have more than twice vocabularies than Chinese students in judgement. Therefore there is a big shortage for Chinese students in this area. At the same time it can also be seen in Table 6 that although the two groups of students write on the same topic, there is a big difference in judgement vocabularies, a sign of their distinctions in social and personal values.

TABLE 6
STATISTICS ON JUDGEMENT VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
good (6)	promising (5)
successful (4)	free (4)
strong (4)	challenge (3)
better (3)	hopeful (3)
bright (2)	responsible (3)
useful (2)	right (2)
hard (1)	helpful (1)
bad (1)	Bright (1)
...	...

Then appreciation resources in the two groups of students are being discussed. This is the most used resources of the

students in attitude system, illustrated in Table 7. The main means of expressing appreciation is by adjectives, but the two groups of students have different focus on words. In judging things, Chinese students are more inclined to express their importance and strength while American students focus on their necessity and novelty. This may be related to the genre of corpora itself, the higher education, which reflects the differences between the two groups on their educational values.

TABLE 7
STATISTICS ON APPRECIATION VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
important (23)	necessary (15)
powerful (6)	new (11)
strong (6)	challenging (10)
clear (5)	peaceful (7)
creative (5)	creative (4)
innovative (4)	powerful (4)
all-round (3)	effective (3)
better (3)	open (3)
...	...

It can be seen from above statistics on attitude system, Chinese and American college students have significant difference in attitude in their argumentations. Chinese students tend to use affect and appreciation resources, and American college students lay particular stress on judgment and appreciation resources. Furthermore, in lexical richness Chinese students still have a long way to catch up.

B. Engagement Resources

An important role of argumentative writing is to explain and discuss propositions involved. Engagement resources reflect writer's subjectivity or objectivity in the, open dialogic space, and make the discourse more negotiable. Therefore engagement plays an important role in argumentation. The distribution of engagement resources in Chinese and American college students' argumentative writing is shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8
STATISTICS ON ENGAGEMENT RESOURCES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

	CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS	LOG-LIKELIHOOD RATIO STATISTIC	SIGNIFICANCE
ENG-DIS	192	239	12.66	0.00
ENG-PRO	32	60	2.07	0.12
ENG-ENT	126	380	77.96	0.00
ENG-ATT	30	37	1.88	0.14
TOTAL	380	716		

From Table 8, the two groups of students make a full use of various engagement resources, but Chinese students use far less quantity than American students. In the four parameters of engagement system, significant differences between the two groups are shown in disclaim and entertain while there is no evident distinction in proclaim and attribute. The details will be discussed below.

Table 9 is the statistics of disclaim in the two groups of college students. It is the most used resources in engagement by Chinese students. As can be seen from the table, the students from two countries have a similar vocabulary, in which adversatives are most abundant, followed by negative words and concessive expressions in that order. This demonstrates that both groups are good at uniting readers and negotiating an alliance with them.

TABLE 9
STATISTICS ON DISCLAIM VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
however (29)	but (28)
but (24)	however (27)
while (24)	not/no (21)
still (18)	although (15)
even (10)	yet (13)
not/no (8)	still (12)
cannot (7)	against (8)
although (7)	cannot (7)
never (6)	even (7)
without (5)	does not (6)
...	...

Table 10 shows the distribution of entertain lexes in students from the two countries. It is an engagement resources that frequently used by Chinese students, and the most used engagement of American students. College students mainly use modal verbs, modal adjuncts and adverbials to make the proposition negotiable. A point to be noted is that Chinese students use more positive words, such as will, can, if, etc., while American students take all possibilities of the results

and use lexes like would, may and should to make the proposition more flexible, realizing a better interpersonal function.

TABLE 10
STATISTICS ON ENTERTAIN VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

ENTERTAIN RESOURCES	CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS	LOG-LIKELIHOOD RATIO STATISTIC	SIGNIFICANCE
will	42	86	2.16	0.08
can	20	14	10.99	0.00
if	15	37	3.87	0.03
should	7	13	0.27	0.61
could	7	13	16.65	0.00
would	7	84	99.41	0.01
must	7	12	0.61	0.32
may/maybe	3	20	11.03	0.02
whether	3	10	0.45	0.49
perhaps	1	7	6.74	0.00
...				

Table 11 is the statistics of proclaim in Chinese and American college students' writing. Students from the two countries have a relatively low usage in this resource, in which Chinese students tend to use certainly, of course, clearly, etc. while American students are more devoted to inevitably, obviously, in fact, etc.. Though the total number of American students' proclaim lexes is more than twice than Chinese students, it can be seen in Table 11 each word has a relatively low frequency, which once again reflects the fact that American students have a rich vocabulary than Chinese students.

TABLE 11
STATISTICS ON PROCLAIM VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
certainly (8)	inevitably (5)
of course (4)	obviously (3)
clearly (3)	in fact (3)
surely (3)	apparently (2)
obviously (3)	of course (2)
apparently (2)	certainly (2)
in fact (2)	be easy to see (1)
...	...

Table 12 shows Chinese and American college students' attribute vocabularies, which is the least used resource in engagement system. In argumentative writing, in order to make more objective and more convincing arguments, the author often borrows evidences or propositions from the third party, a way requiring the use of attribute. Therefore, words such as argue, believe and say have a higher frequency in Table 12.

TABLE 12
STATISTICS ON ATTRIBUTE VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
argue (5)	say (7)
believe (5)	believe (4)
say (2)	argue (2)
claim (2)	according to (1)
agree (2)	hold (1)
think (1)	claim (1)
insist (1)	agree (1)
...	...

* Each original verb includes its variants

C. Graduation Resources

Graduation subsystem is the nucleus of appraisal system in that it determines the attitude and engagement subsystems. Although the constitution of graduation is relatively simple, because of its importance it is necessary to carry out an in-depth analysis for it. Table 13 is the statistics of graduation in students' argumentative writing of the two countries. It shows from the table that American students use much force resources and slightly more focus resources than Chinese students. The two resources will be discussed in detail.

TABLE 13

STATISTICS ON GRADUATION RESOURCES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

	CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS	LOG-LIKELIHOOD RATIO STATISTIC	SIGNIFICANCE
GRA-FOR	298	409	7.52	0.01
GRA-FOC	8	22	4.33	0.03
TOTAL	306	431		

First of all is the force resources, which is the most used by the two groups of students in graduation system (see Table 14). Chinese students use vocabularies such as very, much, many and a lot of most while American students write words such as many, all, more and very most. It can be seen that Chinese students use more quantifiers and, apart from that, American students also uses as many comparatives. These vocabularies effectively enhance the reliability of the proposition, so as to achieve the purpose of aligning and persuading readers in argumentative essays.

TABLE 14

STATISTICS ON FORCE VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
very (25)	many (27)
much (23)	all (24)
many (14)	more (19)
a lot (12)	very (15)
all (10)	much (15)
always (10)	just (13)
just (9)	little (13)
some (9)	a lot (13)
best (8)	only (11)
great (6)	certain (11)
little (6)	a few (11)
...	...

Secondly, it is the focus resources, in which Chinese college students have obvious insufficiency and American students have a richer vocabulary (Table 15). In the detail, the Chinese students use more softened expressions, especially the negative form of real(ly).

TABLE 15

STATISTICS ON FOCUS VOCABULARIES IN CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

CHINESE STUDENTS	AMERICAN STUDENTS
real(ly) (2)	real(ly) (4)
true(ly) (2)	around (3)
large(ly) (1)	true(ly) (2)
some (1)	anything (2)
about (1)	some (2)
...	somehow (1)
	any (1)
	something (1)
	...

V. CONCLUSION

Employed with appraisal system of SFL, the study made a comparative investigation on appraisal resources between Chinese and American college students' argumentative writings. The results show: there are significant differences in the distribution of affect, disclaim and entertain between the two groups of students, and the biggest distinction lays in entertain; except a slightly higher usage in affect resources, Chinese college students have insufficient vocabularies in all other 8 resources than American students. In attitude system, Chinese college students tend to use adverbs and verbs, which indicate a colloquial and emotional inclination, and shows a sign of shortage in indirect attitude resources. In engagement system, it is found that due to the nature of argumentation two groups of students have a lot of employment in this resource, in which disclaim and entertain are the most popular as Chinese students favor disclaim and American students prefer entertain. Students from the two countries use attribute vocabularies least and their abundance in disclaim resources shows both of them are good at aligning with readers. In graduation system, the two groups of students use force resources most and use less focus resources, and here again American college students' rich vocabulary is reflected.

The above research findings demonstrate the distinctions in appraisal resources between Chinese and American college students' argumentative writing, and also show that appraisal system can be successfully applied to the study of college students' writing. The study also indicates: in Chinese college English education there should strike a balance between students' input and output and enhance their abilities in expressing affect, attitude and judgement meanings; learning to analyze model texts helps to increase one's knowledge in writing; as for the teachers, in order to effectively improve students' influence and persuasion in argumentative writing, special attention should be paid in leading

students with interpersonal meaning in teaching argumentative writing; especially when preparing teaching materials. Integrated with Sydney School's genre-based pedagogy, appraisal system may provide effective guidance in teaching Chinese college students argumentative writing (Liao, 2011).

Although the present study contributes to specifying features of appraisal resources in Chinese college students' argumentative writing, and provide support for many similar follow-up studies, it still has some limitations. The first limit is reflected in the sample size of the study. Since the study just selected 64 essays on higher education from Chinese and American college students, it is far from a representative research whether it be on the variation of genre or the overall length of the texts. Therefore the study is limited in its universality. Secondly, there is a great difficulty in analyzing appraisal meaning in texts as the system is roomy and complex, and the judgement of such meanings is subjective. On the one hand, it is not possible at the present to include all appraisal resources and meanings. For this reason, the study investigated appraisal resources in lexical-grammatical level and overlooked semantic level. On the other hand, the application of appraisal system is not an easy work (Lee, 2008; Liao, 2011), not only in annotating sample texts but also in the explanation to students. Thus all of these constraints have limited the representativeness and inclusiveness of the study. However the contribution of the study to appraisal research still cannot be denied.

On the basis of current research, future studies on appraisal system should put the focus on broadening the research scope. It is a necessity for comparative investigation to join other participants, expand the sample size, and cover other genres, so as to make a more comprehensive and in-depth survey on appraisal resources of Chinese English learners. Furthermore, more application and empirical studies of appraisal system are needed to investigate the essential distinctions between second language learners and native speakers, so that Chinese foreign language education can be improved and developed.

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Agrammatism in Adult Persian Broca's Aphasia: A Case Study

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Abstract—The grammar of a right-handed monolingual adult native speaker of Persian who suffered from Broca's aphasia following a left hemisphere frontal lobe lesion subsequent to CVA was analyzed, discussed, and compared with control data. The spontaneous speech and descriptive speech were designed and performed. The data suggested that Persian agrammatism appears like this syndrome in other studied languages; there are severe impairments in the verbs and patients rely more on nouns than on verbs. The patterns of omissions and substitutions of grammatical morphemes seem show extreme variations in different patients, both in terms of the occurrence of errors in different grammatical morphemes as and in terms of the occurrence of omissions versus substitutions. There were also some language-particular patterns.

Index Terms—Broca's aphasia, agrammatism, grammatical morpheme, substitution, omission, Persian

I. INTRODUCTION

Damage to the left inferior frontal lobe generally terminates in so-called Broca's aphasia; a pattern of performance which is characterized by asyntactic comprehension and agrammatic production. Agrammatic speech the patient represents omission or misuse of bound and free grammatical morphemes and has a tendency to omit or nominalize verbs, leading to incomplete, fragmented sentences (Balaguer, et al. 2004, p. 212). The main feature of agrammatism as stated by Lee and Thompson (2004) is slow, effortful and non-fluent speech, which is frequently accompanied by an evident reduction in syntactic complexity and phrase length (Lee & Thompson, 2004, p. 315).

As cited in Wenzlaff and Clahsen (2004), a great number of studies of the last decades have indicated that in agrammatism, not all functional elements are equally affected. For example, conjunctions are comparably well preserved (e.g. Goodglass, 1976; Menn & Obler, 1990), and English-speaking aphasics face less difficulty in regular noun plurals compared to possessive marking (Gleason, 1978).

According to Bastiaanse et al. (2002) the speech of Broca's aphasics has often been featured by the substitution and/or omission of both free and bound grammatical morphemes (Bastiaanse et al., 2002, p. 241). However Chiat and Law (2003) believe that in any language, no error type is common to all aphasic patients with agrammatism; although there do exist general tendencies and patterns, few errors (if any) are found in all patients. Furthermore, a particular type of error which is frequent in one language, is not necessarily observed in other languages, even when the opportunity exists (Chiat & Law, 2003, p. 4).

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

A right-handed agrammatic patient in stable neurological condition, without disorders of "consciousness," with a history of acute disturbance language functions, and who had received a formal education for 8 years was considered in the present study. She didn't have a history of prior psychiatric disorders, learning disabilities, neurological disease, developmental speech/language disorders, drug or alcohol abuse, or hearing deficits.

A control subject, roughly matched for age, gender, language, handedness and education to the aphasic patient, was asked to collaborate in the study. The essential biographic information and lesion data for the patient and her control subject is presented in Table 1. The subjects are indicated by their initials.

TABLE 1
ESSENTIAL BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION ON THE PATIENT AND HER CONTROL

Subject	Gender	Language	handedness	Age at Onset	Years of formal education	Etiology	Lesion site	Time Post onset
SE	female	Persian	Right-handed	16	8	CVA	Frontal lobe	3 years
EM	female	Persian	Right-handed		12			

B. Procedure

The speech corpora analyzed for this paper were collected by asking our subjects to produce the following narratives: a) spontaneous speech via describing her history of illness, Family members, vacations; b) descriptive speech by the description of the Cookie Theft picture, Thief, Farmer and Raining picture (Goodglass & Kaplan, 1972). The examiners asked the patient (and her control subject) to produce a given narrative.

Speech samples were tape-recorded on high-quality cassettes and were collected over several sessions. Then the tapes were independently transcribed by the authors.

C. Scoring

Agrammatic speakers generally produce fragmented speech, i.e., word strings in which the intended grammatical structure cannot be reconstructed. To analyze this feature of our aphasic patient's speech, the words she produced in her fragmented utterances were calculated. The quantitative prevalence of fragmented speech is defined as the ratio of the number of words produced without a recoverable grammatical structure to the total number of words in the sample (produced either correctly or incorrectly). The mean length of utterance (MLU) was measured and preserved after eliminating fragmented speech, according to the lexical criteria (MLU-Lexical). MLU-Lexical correlates to the number of major-class items the patient produces in an uninterrupted, syntactically correct string (Miceli & Silveri, 1989, p. 449-450).

III. LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

Connected Discourse Analysis

1. SE's Linguistic Performance

SE's seven speech samples led to 44 utterances comprising 277 words, with an overall MLU of 6.3. Her production of selected utterances and also grammatical morphemes in the obtained narrative speech and word errors, with their distribution is shown in Table 2 and Table 3.

TABLE 2
SE'S GRAMMATICAL MORPHEME ERRORS AND DISTRIBUTIONS

	Items	Correct		Incorrect		Omission		Total N	Control Subject's Data
		N	%	N	%	N	%		
1	def. art	19	100	0		0		19	0
2	indef. art.	0		0		0		0	16
3	Preposition	7	50	2	14.3	5	35.7	14	22
4	postp. /ra/	0		1	14.3	6	85.7	7	4
5	LINK morph.	1	33.3	0		2	66.6	3	27
6	POSS. morph.	9	75	3	25	0		12	12
7	Pronoun	39	84.7	1	2.2	6	13	46	32
8	DER morph.	7	100	0		0		7	15
9	INTER. CL. conj. /va/	0		0		0		0	10
10	PL. morph	25	2	50	4	25	2	8	13
11	infin. Marker	0		0		0		0	1
12	PST. morph.	2	40	3	60	0		5	4
13	inflect. morph.	91	81.3	12	10.7	9	8	112	104
14	PROG. /mi-/	24	80	1	3.4	5	16.6	30	20
15	IMP. /be-/	7	50	3	21.4	4	28.6	14	6
16	NEG. morph.	2	66	1	33	0		3	5
17	Aux	5	100	0		0		5	7
18	EXTER. CL. conj.	4	57.1	3	42.9	0		7	5
	Total	219	75.1	34	11.6	39	13.3	292	323

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF SE'S LINGUISTIC PERFORMANCE WITH THAT OF EM, THE CONTROL SUBJECT

No.	Narrative	No of Utt.		Total words		MLU		Total Function Words		Substitution		Omission	
		SE	EM	SE	EM	SE	EM	SE	EM	C.W	F.W	C.W	F.W
1	Family Members	4	6	27	22	6.7	3.6	5	7	3	1	0	1
2	Journey	3	4	34	55	11.3	13.7	8	24	8	1	0	1
3	Cookie theft	6	5	33	45	5.5	9	8	19	1	3	0	4
4	Thief	5	5	30	45	6	9	7	16	3	0	0	2
5	Farmer	7	5	43	40	6.1	8	16	3	4	1	1	1
6	Raining	12	3	70	43	5.8	14.3	23	16	29	1	0	8
7	Family Picture	7	5	40	46	5.7	9.2	14	3	4	0	4	4
8	Total	41	33	277	250	6.3	7.6	81	108	52	7	5	21

As shown in Table 3 there were more than two times as many substitutions as omissions (52 vs. 21) in SE's connected speech sample. About 88% of word substitution errors were content words, and about 81% of word deletion errors were function words.

We can describe SE's linguistic deficits as follows:

She has difficulty in the use of Verb Phrases and access to lexical items.

Her grammatical violations may be classified into 5 different types:

- Omission of obligatory free morphemes (prepositions and postposition /ra/)

The omitted morphemes are enclosed in the bracket.

For example:

1. /bæʔd ʔin doxt* zæn-e [be] pesær-eš kot**-goft-eš .../
 Adv pro N N-art [prep] N-Poss PAST-tell-3SG-pro
 then this girl woman [to] son-her told
2. /ʔin telefon [ro] bær-mi-dar-e .../
 pro N [postp] take: PROG: 3SG
 this telephone take

*Paraphasia for 'doxtær' (girl)

**Paraphasia for 'goft' (told)

- Substitution of obligatory free morphemes

For example:

3. /bæʔd mi-ge [ʔin-o] vase mæn be-gir/
 Adv say-PROG: PRES-3SG [Pro-postp] prep pro IMP-get: 2SG
 then says [this] for me get

* 'Vase'(for) is a preposition which is substituted for "'æz' (from).

4. /næ! hævas- ešun* nist hæst/
 Adv N-POSS NEG-be: PRES-3SG PRES-be-3SG
 no attention-their isn't is

*The possessive pronoun 'šun' (their) is substituted for the possessive pronoun 'š' (her).

- Subject-verb disagreement

For example:

5. /baba-m či sær-e kar ne-mi-ræn* /
 N-POSS pro N-LINK N NEG-go: PRES-3PL
 father-my what to work doesn't go

*The 3rd person plural verb 'ne-mi-ræn' (don't go) is substituted for the 3rd person singular verb 'ne-mi-re' (doesn't go). It should be noted that in formal and polite version of Persian, the 3rd person plural verbs such as 'ne-mi-ræn' (don't go) are also used for the 3rd person singular 'ne-mi-re' (doesn't go). According to Saeed (2013), Speakers of many European languages make distinctions between familiar and polite pronouns and verbs. They are committed to revealing their calculations of relative intimacy and formality to their addressees (Saeed, 2013, p. 197). But SE didn't use this form of verb to show politeness and this is considered a subject-verb disagreement.

- Substitution of the verbal element in complex verbs with another verbal element

For example:

6. / bæʔdæn hæh hæge zud-tær peyda mi-kærd
 Adv pro pro -comp Adj-sup beyda [šun] šod*/
 then who who earlier find become -PAST-3SG
 became

*The verb 'šode' (has become) is substituted by 'mi-kærd' (was doing).

- Reconstruction of verb inflectional markers or substitution of bound or free morphemes

Some patients consistently change the inflectional endings of the verbs in each sentence. For example they constantly alter the verb inflection from present to past tense and also drop the negative morphemes. In Persian the past tense of the verb is structurally simpler than present and more similar to the infinitive form (Nilipour, 2003, p. 118). For example:

7. /bæʔd ʔofta -d* .../
 Adv fall-PAST-3SG
 then fell

*The past tense verb 'ʔoft-ad' (fell) is substituted for the present tense 'mi-ʔoft-e' (falls).

8. / bæʔd ʔin doxt zæn-e [be] pesær-eš kot-eš
 Adv pro N N-art [prep] N-POSS tell-PAST-3SG-pro
 then this girl woman to son-her told
- be-de
 [ke] čæt be-m dad* /
 [comp] N prep-pro give-PAST-3SG
 that umbrella give gave

*The past tense verb 'dad' (gave) is substituted for the imperative verb 'be-de' (give).

9. /ʔin bozorg šo-d [-e] /
 pro Adj become -PAST-3SG
 this old became

bærænde
 10. /...værænde* šod** /
 Adj become-PAST-3SG
 winner became

*Phonemic paraphasia for 'bærænde' (winner)

** The simple past tense verb 'šod' (became) is substituted for the past progressive verb 'mi-šod'.

11. /... čunke* ʔesraf næ-kon-e** /
 conj N NEG-do-3SG
 because lavishment doesn't do

* The conjunction 'čunke' (because) is substituted for the conjunction 'væli' (but).

** The negative verb 'næ-kon-e' (doesn't do) is substituted for the verb 'mi=kon-e' (does).

baftæn-i mi-baf-e
 12. /baspæzi* mi-ndaz-e **
 N PROG-throw:PRES-3SG
 weaving throws

* Paraphasia for 'baftæni'

** The verb 'mi-ndaz-e' (throws) is substituted for 'mi-baf-e' (weaves).

- Deletion of dependent clauses

13. /ʔin telefon [ro] bæar-mi-dar-e ke [zæŋ be -zæn-e] /
 pro N [postp] take:PROG: 3SG conj [N SUB-ring- 3SG]
 this telephone takes to [call]

2. Morpheme Errors and Distributions

Each lexical item or grammatical morpheme is scrutinized in Table 2 considering whether it was correctly used, incorrectly substituted, or deleted. The contexts in which there was a dropped or substituted morpheme, were recognized and the patient's utterances were reconstructed as a healthy native speaker would have produced them.

SE omitted around 13.4% of the grammatical morphemes in her utterances, in which about 75.3% of these morphemes were correctly used and the remaining 11.3% were incorrectly uttered.

Definite and indefinite articles: In Persian nouns, definite ones are mostly unmarked, while indefinite nouns are either marked with the suffix /-i/ or used with the word 'yek' (one) or its informal version 'ye'. A noun functioning as a direct object may also be followed by the specific direct object marker /ra/ (Nilipour, 2003, p. 27). SE didn't use the indefinite article at all, but her control subject, EM, used it 16 times which was marked with the suffix /-i/. On the other hand, SE used the definite article 19 times, but her control subject never used it. SE didn't omit the definite article in any of the contexts.

Prepositions: 9 prepositions were produced out of 14 required contexts, 7 correct and 2 *incorrect*.

Postposition direct object marker: SE rarely used the direct object marker /ra/. She produced the informal form of /ra/ (i.e. /-o/) in just 1 out of 7 required contexts, which was incorrect. She deleted the other 6 cases. For example:

1. /ʔin	ʔin	či-ye	ha	zorræt	zorræt	mæn	zorræt
pro	pro	pro-V		N		N	pro
this	this	what-is	yes	corn		corn	I
	ha	zorræt-o	zorræt	zorræt	zorræt	zorræt-e/	
Adv		N-postp	N	N		N	N-V
yes		corn-is	corn	corn		corn	corn-is

Izafe (linking morpheme): "The *izafe* morpheme /-e/ is used to link a head noun to its complements or modifiers" (Nilipour, 2003, p. 29). This morpheme was correctly used just once and was missing once in SE's speech. But her control subject provided it in 27 instances. For example:

2. /pesær-e	pesær-e	væræG	væræG	gereft[-e]	bæray[-e	ʔin]ke
N-art	N-art	N		N	buy- PAST-3SG	prep [-LINK pro]
boy-the	boy-the	paper		paper	bought	for that
baba-š	be-xun-e					
N-POSS	SUB-read-3SG					
father-his	read					
3. /ʔin	tæmam[e]	væs	væsaye[-a-š	.../		
pro	Adv[-LINK]	N	N	N-PL-POSS		
this	all	means		means-his		
4. / baba-m	či	sær-e	kar	ne-mi-ræn		
N- POSS	pro	N-LINK	N	NEG-PROG-go:PRES-3PL		
father-my	what	to	work	doesn't go		

Possessive Morpheme: SE produced the possessive morphemes 12 times: 9 correct and 3 incorrect. Her control subject, EM, also used them in 12 instances.

Pronouns: SE used pronouns 46 times: 39 correct, 1 incorrect and 6 omitted. EM used them 32 times. For example:

5. /mæn noh ta xahær-im.../
 pro Num N-V
 I nine sister-are

Here the 1st person singular pronoun 'mæn' (I) is substituted for the 1st person plural pronoun 'ma' (we).

6. /bæʔdan hærike hærke hæge zud-tær peyda mi-kærd
 Adv pro pro-comp Adj- SUF Adj-[pro] become- PAST-3SG
 then who who earlier find[them] became

Here the 3rd person singular verb 'šod' (became) is substituted for the 3rd person singular verb 'mi-kærd' (did).

Derivational morphemes: These morphemes were used 7 times which were correctly used. The control subject provided them in 15 instances.

7. /pesær-e širn-i širn-i mi-xa-d bo-xor-e
 N-art N N AUX SUB-eat-3SG
 boy-the cookie cookie wants eat

Conjunctions: No coordinate conjunction 'væ' (or its informal equivalent /o/) (and) was used, but EM used it 10 times.

Plural morpheme: 6 plural morphemes were used in SE's speech: 2 correct and 4 incorrect. In 2 of the required contexts, the plural morpheme was missing. The control subject used 13 instances of it.

8. /ʔin mašin bæraye bæra hæmin zoræt[-ha] zoræt[-ha] [ʔæst]
 pro N prep prep pro N[-P] N[-PL] [V]
 this machine for for this corn[s] corn[s] [is]
 pul

9. / pul-a-š-æm bun* mi-gir-e /
 N:PL-POSS-Adv N PROG-get:PRES-3SG
 money-his money gets

10. /ʔin tænum[-e] væs- væsayel-a-š mi-dozd-e /
 pro Adv[-LINK] N N-PL-POSS PROG-steal:PRES-3SG
 this all means-his steals

*'Bun' is phonemic paraphasia for 'pul' (money).

Infinitive marker: No infinitive marker was used in the patient's speech sample. EM used it just once.

11. /væ pedær-e xunevade hæm dær-heyne sigar kešid-æn/
 conj N-LINK N Adv Adv N smoke-PAST-infm
 and father family too while cigaret smoking

Past tense morpheme: Of 5 instances of the use of past tense morpheme by SE, 2 were correct and 3 were incorrect. EM provided it in 4 instances.

12. /mi-xas-t mi-ʔoft ʔofta-d-e ʔofta-d mi-xast bi-ʔoft-e/
 AUX PROG-fall V: PASTP fall-PAST-3SG AUX SUB-fall-3SG
 wanted falls has fallen fell wanted fall

Progressive verb prefix /mi-/: The obligatory prefix /mi-/ which indicates progressive aspect on simple present and past continuous tense was used 25 times by SE: 24 correct, 1 incorrect and 5 missing.

Imperative and subjunctive verb prefix /be-/: It has been produced 10 times out of 14 required contexts, 7 correct and 3 incorrect.

13. /bæʔd čætr čætr[ro] bær-mi-dar-e
 Adv N N [postp] SUB-throw-3SG
 then umbrella umbrella throw

*The subjunctive verb 'be-ndaz-e' (throw) is substituted for the present tense verb 'bær-mi-dar-e' (takes).

Relative clause marker complementizer /ke/: SE provided it in 7 instances: 4 correct and 3 incorrect. EM used it 5 times as the control subject.

14. /ʔin zæn-e ʔab dar-e mi-riz-e čonke * ʔesraf næ-kon-e**
 pro N-art N AUX PROG-pour- PRES-3SG conj N NEG-do-3SG
 this woman-the water is pouring because lavishment doesn't do

*The conjunction 'čonke' (because) is replaced for the conjunction 'væli' (but).

**The negative verb 'næ-kon-e' (doesn't do) is replaced for the present progressive verb 'mi-kon-e' (is doing).

Negative morpheme: SE used it 3 times: 2 correct and 1 incorrect. EM provided it in 5 instances.

Auxiliary: It was correctly used in 5 instances by SE. Her control subject used it 7 times.

3. Token-type ratios of SE's major lexical items

Token-type ratios of SE's major lexical items are given in Table 4.

TABLE 4
SE'S MAJOR CLASS LEXICAL ITEMS (TOKEN-TYPE RATIO)

No.	Narrative	Nouns		Verbs		Adjectives		Adverbs	
			SE		SE		SE		SE
1	Family members		15		2		0		2
2	vacation		7		5		3		8
3	Cookie theft		7		13		0		2
4	Thief		13		7		0		5
5	Farmer		20		7		1		1
6	Raining		40		16		2		6
7	Family picture		17		11		1		5
8	Ratio (total)		119		61		7		29

Nouns: The nouns were the most frequent category in SE's speech: 119 of the 199 content words in her speech were nouns. All were singular except for 2 plurals. There were several preservations, as well as phonemic and semantic paraphasias. Nouns were less susceptible to omission than verbs in this patient's speech samples.

Verbs: The verbs which are inflected for person, number and tense, were the most disrupted lexical category in SE's speech. They were omitted in 3 required contexts. In her control data, 39 lexical verbs were used.

Adjectives: SE used a few adjectives in her speech. She totally produced 7 adjectives.

Adverbs: The number of adverbs in the patient's speech samples was 34. She produced the same number of adverbs as what the control subject did.

4. Summary of SE's Linguistic Performance and that of the Control participant

A summary of the general characteristics of SE's performance and that of EM in tasks is indicated in Table 3. It shows some differences at the syntactic and lexical levels between their linguistic performances. The overall number of utterances and words elicited from SE were more than her control subject (277 versus 250 and 44 versus 33). But SE's MLU is less than EM's MLU (6.3 versus 7.6). This table shows that SE has less access to function words in comparison to EM (81 versus 108), so she has a simpler syntax.

The Table 2 indicates that the number of grammatical categories in EM's speech is more than SE's except for definite article, pronouns, progressive prefix /mi-/ and imperative verb prefix /be-/. SE had a poor access to indefinite article, prepositions, izafe (linking morpheme) /-e/ and the plural morphemes which are necessary for the production of complex noun phrase structures.

Tense and aspect: SE produced fewer utterances than her control subject for the description of her family members (4 versus 6), but she used more words in this task (27 versus 22). She used the simple present tense in this case, except for two instances which were present progressive. SE has used past tense for the description of her journey, but in the cookie theft task she has used different tenses. The use of progressive aspect instead of a non-progressive one seems logical. In her description of the thief picture, SE has used the present progressive tense in most of the utterances, except for one instance where she has used the present perfect. In her description of the farmer picture, SE has used the present progressive tense, except in one utterance where she has used the simple past tense and 2 of the utterances in which the verb is missing. In describing the raining picture; the patient has used various tenses. In her description of the family picture, SE has first used the present progressive and then she has switched to the simple present, simple past and the subjunctive mood. It has been reported that the control subjects favor the present tense for much of their narratives (Menn & Obler, 1990, p. 137).

Pronominal/ Nominal Reference and the Use of Definite and Indefinite Articles

The use of noun versus pronoun: SE has less inclination for the substitution of nouns by pronouns, which shows that she prefers to use the nouns where they are required. SE has never used indefinite article before the definite article. Menn & Obler (1990) believe that the explanation for the use of the definite article on first mention is probably pragmatic: as Gee points out (in personal communication), the use of the definite article in referring to a character in a picture which is visible both to the speaker and the hearer can be considered a deictic use of the article, because the establishment of the referent takes place in the real world, not within the discourse (Menn & Obler, 1990, p. 140). In telling a popular story which the speaker knows that the hearer knows, the actors can be treated as already known by a narrator who does not wish to maintain the convention that he/she is telling the story as 'news' (ibid).

TABLE 5
COMPARISON OF SE'S VS. CONTROL SUBJECT'S RATES OF PRODUCTION

No.	Task	Total Words		Time (seconds)		Speech Rate Words Min.	
		SE	EM	SE	EM	SE	EM
1	Family Members	27	22	31	14	52.2	94.3
2	Journey	34	55	27	30	75	110
3	Cookie Theft	33	45	50	21	39.6	128.6
4	Thief	30	45	91	20	19.2	135
5	Farmer	43	40	100	24	25.8	100
6	Raining	70	43	97	17	43.2	151.8
7	Family Picture	40	46	115	17	20.4	162.3
	Total	277	250	511	143	32.4	126

Production Parameters

Speed: This patient has been chosen so that she has the phonological features associated with Broca's aphasia. So her speech is relatively slow and her MLU is shorter than the control participant. Her spontaneous speech is more rapid than her descriptive speech. She has the most speed in describing the raining picture than describing the other picture.

Mean length of utterance (MLU): SE's MLU in describing her journey is more than her other samples of spontaneous speech. In her descriptive speech samples, she has the most MLU in describing the thief narrative and the least MLU in describing the raining picture.

IV. CONCLUSION

There are various grammatical violations in SE's speech samples which can be classified as:

1. Omission of obligatory free morphemes (prepositions and postposition /ra/)
2. Substitution of obligatory free morphemes
3. Subject-verb disagreement
4. Substitution of verbal element in complex verbs with another verbal element
5. Reconstruction of verb inflectional marker or substitution of bound morphemes

Our findings are in line with the data provided by Nilipour (2003) who believes that in Persian, verb and grammatical morphemes are more vulnerable to disruption than other categories (Nilipour, 2003, p. 43). SE didn't use complex structures and made syntactic simplifications. She tended to omit the free grammatical morphemes and substitute the inflectional morphemes with other morphemes. She had less inclination for the substitution of nouns by pronouns, which shows her preference to use the nouns where they are required.

The performance of the patient studied in this research demonstrates some certain universal and language-specific features of agrammatism. Among universal features, the data show syntax simplification, more dependence on canonical forms, leading to less syntactic variation, and less accessibility of verbs compared to nouns. These general features are parallel to results reported from other languages (Nilipour, 2003, p. 21).

The present data demonstrate that verb phrases (VPs) are more vulnerable compared to noun phrases (NPs). The deficits in NP production appear in the omission of the ezafe linking morpheme /-e/ and also the deletion of the clause-internal conjunction /væ/, which results in a simplified NP. Among free grammatical morphemes, the most vulnerable items to omission were prepositions and the direct object marker /ra/.

According to Berndt (1988), it has been claimed that "verbs are more complex than nouns, (as) they are harder to remember, more broadly defined, more prone to alteration in meaning when conflict of meaning occurs, less stable in translation between languages, and slower to be acquired by children than nouns" (in Lesser & Milroy, 1993, p. 87).

We might expect to find a high incidence of deictic terms in the discourse of relatively fluent aphasic speakers, simply because they offer the speaker a means of producing relatively intelligible well-formed utterances with reduced processing costs (Wepman and Jones, 1996). However, the non-fluent aphasic in this research appeared to prefer nouns to pronouns. As Lesser and Milroy (1993) believe, pronouns are classified with the grammatical morphemes which are frequently omitted in agrammatic speech, which seems to suggest that the use of pronouns may impose a greater syntactic processing cost (*ibid*, 123).

The data elicited in the present article is also in line with Early and Van Demark (1985) who reported that aphasic speakers use the indefinite article considerably less than normal speakers to mark newness of information. This pattern is generally reported in the literature with specific reference to agrammatic patients, but may also occur in the paragrammatism associated with fluent speech (*ibid*, 127).

Are all function words equally impaired?

As cited in Bastiaanse & Grodzinsky (2000), studying the aphasia deficits, it seems that not all of the grammatical morphemes are impaired equally in agrammatic production. Several (nonlexical) elements have already been reported to be spared in agrammatic production: among them case (Menn and Obler, 1990), coordination conjunctions (Menn and Obler, 1990; Friedmann, 1998), and negation markers (Lonzi and Luzzatti, 1993). "Even in the domain of inflections, not all inflections are equally impaired" (Bastiaanse & Grodzinsky, 2000, p. 153). The present study also showed similar findings in Persian agrammatic speech.

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Philosophy-based Language Teaching Approach on the Horizon: A Revolutionary Pathway to Put Applied ELT into Practice

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Abstract—As a unique approach in today's language teaching methodology, Philosophy-based Language Teaching (PBLT) engages learners in dialogues using philosophical question and answer activities to tackle the process of language learning in ELT classes. Accordingly, the present study sought to illuminate the practical ways through which PBLT could be utilized to put Applied ELT into practice. In so doing, the key is to redefine the inherent roles of both English learners and practitioners in an Applied ELT classroom. Bringing a bulk of sample philosophical questions, the paper provides the following recommendations to implement PBLT in Applied ELT classes. First, ELT life syllabus can be designed using the principles of PBLT approach. Second, while dealing with language skills, material designers might reshape the common pre and post task activities including life-related philosophical questions. Moreover, as males and females have different points of view towards life issues, materials should provide a platform to augment learners' thoughts through sharing ideas of both genders in the classroom in answering philosophical questions. Third, along with cross-cultural approaches, PBLT can aid life syllabus design which assists learners to consider themselves as an active member of local and global communities all around the world.

Index Terms—philosophy-based language teaching, Applied ELT, life syllabus, ELT practitioners

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a well-known phenomenon in EFL classes that students become eager to take part in discussions whenever a philosophical question related to the topics in their immediate environment is raised. This was confirmed by different studies including Haynes (2002) and van der Leeuw (2004). Such attempts resulted in enforcing language teaching through asking and answering philosophical questions first in native language (Murriss, 1992) and then in foreign language (Shahini & Riazi, 2010), the latter of which was termed Philosophy-based Language Teaching (PBLT). Since different aspects of daily life can be considered as controversial issues which do not enjoy a consensus among people and are often prone to debates and discussions, they can be regarded as appropriate sources for designing philosophical questions in PBLT which consequently offers a platform to initiate and run life-related discussions in classes.

The idea of including life issues in ELT classes which shifted the field from language-only to life and language phenomenon was first proposed in Pishghadam's (2011) seminal paper under the terminology of Applied ELT. This changed the horizons of ELT to highlight its potentiality in becoming the axis of empowering different domains of life such as emotional intelligence (Hosseini, Pishghadam & Navari, 2010), compassion, harmony, generosity, and kindness (Ghahari, 2012), and critical thinking (Pishghadam, 2008). However, attention to the ways by which Applied ELT can be implemented by practitioners and stakeholders seemed to be under investigated in previous discussions of Applied ELT. This article attempts to bridge this gap by suggesting PBLT approach as a benchmark to put Applied ELT into practice.

II. APPLIED ELT AND LIFE SYLLABUS

With the advent of applied linguistics in 1950s, it has been regarded as virtually synonymous to English Language Teaching (ELT). Dealing with language, ELT was forced to be rooted in theoretical linguistics (Berns & Matsuda, 2006; Strevens, 1992). Therefore, to consolidate itself, ELT had to be completely dependent on the concepts proposed by linguistics. In addition, reading ELT methodology literature in the last 70 years or so reveals the heavy reliance of different approaches and methods on the findings from other disciplines related to learning, including psychology, sociology and critical pedagogy (Richards & Rogers, 2014; Pishghadam, Zabihi, & Shayesteh, 2015). In this sense, ELT practitioners were perceived as mere consumers of other disciplines' scientific findings (Schmitt, 2002). This view was criticized by applied linguists like Prabhu (1990), Allwright (1992), and Kumaravadvelu (1994) who called for a more independent role for the practitioners of the field through teachers' sense of plausibility, reflective teaching, and teacher autonomy.

Such new conceptions of language teaching armed ELT theoreticians with a strong foundation which empower them to apply ELT to other disciplines. Stating differently, the field is now observing a shift from employing "other disciplines' findings including psychology, sociology, neurology, linguistics, physics, etc. to enrich language teaching and learning theories" to "taking a more contributory role" in other fields (Pishghadam, 2011, p.13). Doing so, Applied ELT appointed more synergetic roles to language teaching which have been disregarded so far. Investigating ELT classes, different researchers examined this potentiality in terms of enhancing critical thinking abilities (Khaza'ifar, Pishghadam, & Ziai, 2011; Pishghadam, 2008), emotional intelligence (Hosseini, Pishghadam, & Navari, 2010), home culture attachment (Pishghadam & Saboori, 2011; Pishghadam & Navari, 2009) and metacultural competence (Noshadi & Dabbagh, 2015) all of which revealed the positive effects of ELT classes in improving and developing such life qualities and skills.

Apparently, the enhancing effects on different life skills mentioned above rest on the different atmosphere of ELT classes, compared with other school classes, in which some life qualities can be developed due to the unique features of ELT classes, specifically in EFL contexts where language learners do not have direct contact with English language outside the class. These particular characteristics are related to specific opportunities provided in ELT classes for (a) discussing various social, scientific and political issues, (b) holding pair / group works, (c) comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 cultures, (d) knowing lexis and grammar of L2, (e) showing learners' real self via speaking in L2, (f) taking language learning seriously, and (g) experiencing an enjoyable learning atmosphere.

Such features of ELT classes make it possible for language teachers to go beyond centering teaching / learning activities on linguistic analysis and taking into account life-related issues such as safety, physical health, emotional abilities, job satisfaction, freedom, human rights, etc. as the core of classroom discussions. The idea of moving beyond the content area in teaching to improve life issues has also been acknowledged by philosophers of education such as Dewey (1897), Freire (1998), Krishnamurti (1981), and Walters (1997) who ascertained that the true function of education is to make people ready to face life challenges and be autonomous in seeking personal gain. In addition, educational researchers have tried their best to accentuate the development of different aspects of individuals' lives as the commitment of education including autonomy (Winch, 1999), self-determination (Walker, 1999), happiness (Noddings, 2003), and emotional abilities (Mathews, 2006).

Relying on this background in education and considering the features of ELT classroom, Pishghadam and Zabihi (2012) introduced life syllabus in that "ELT practitioners should design their linguistic syllabus around the life syllabus so that, unlike in previous trends, the ELT profession becomes a life-and-language enterprise, giving priority to the quality of learners' lives in advance of enhancing their language-related skills" [original emphasis] (P.26).

The two features of an ELT class which is prone to the realization of Applied ELT and life syllabus principles more than the others are discussing various social and political issues, and holding pair / group works. These features enable language learners to communicate their ideas and beliefs about different life issues and hence exchange different life qualities. Therefore, applying teaching techniques which can motivate students to have life-related talk inside the class might be a benchmark in actualizing Applied ELT. One such approach can be the use of philosophy, as a discussion-bearing field, in child education.

III. PHILOSOPHY FOR CHILDREN (P4C) APPROACH: A DIFFERENT VIEW ON EDUCATION

According to Vygotsky (1978), higher levels of thinking skills, specifically abstract thinking, can be achieved using mediated tools such as language. The type of language use that can lead to knowledge discovery is dialogic question / answer. In other words, as Barners (1992) indicated, it is the exploratory talk that can involve learners in expanding their knowledge via trying out new ideas and receiving feedbacks from the interlocutor rather than the well-shaped, pre-arranged presentational speech, specifically if the topic of the dialogue is about fundamental philosophical issues. In this sense, the term philosophy, following Lipman, Sharp, and Oscanyan's (1980) paradigm, refers to small 'p' philosophy which tries to help learners construct a critical view to the central concepts in life and not assume whatever being exposed to them as truth.

Dialogic philosophical questioning in education dates back to Socrates around 2500 years ago (Shaw, 2008). Inspired by Dewey's (1933) ideas on "reflexive inquiry", Lipman, Sharp and Oscanyan (1980) revitalized Socrates' philosophical questioning through proposing use of philosophy for children with the primary goal of teaching young children to think critically. This is done by creating a community of enquiry (see e.g. Kennedy, 2004) in that people are participants of knowledge production through deep thinking about different life issues with the help of question and answer (Cam, 1995). More specifically, participants cooperate to build and answer their own philosophical questions out of a certain input resource which can encourage them to take the responsibility for their own learning. Using higher-order thinking skills coupled with cooperation, learners build their own social understanding of fundamental, assumed beliefs and concepts in life, and consequently, strengthen their reasoning skills and self-esteem (Lipman, 2003). Haynes (2002) supported making community of enquiries in the classroom since "children should be encouraged and given room to participate in society from an early age and in contexts that are meaningful to them such as families, schools and other settings where they have a stake" (p. 46).

It should be emphasized that philosophical dialogues within the community of enquiry differs from conversation in that the latter deals with participants' personal ideas while the former tries to construct ideas out of peers' comments to solve problems. As Gardner (1995) stated, the only factor that motivates participants in a community of enquiry to keep on with their talk is the search for truth which is absent in mere conversation.

Although the learners lead the classroom discussions and philosophical question / answer activities, the teacher is not inactive and mediates learners in clarifying and simplifying learners' ideas but does not lead the discussion. As Smith (1995) stated, the mediator values the learners' ability in creating knowledge and interpreting reality hidden in the dialogues.

IV. PHILOSOPHY-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING: A NEW APPROACH TO TEACH LANGUAGE

Lipman's (2003) approach discussed above, found its place in different fields in education such as mathematics (Daniel, La Fortune, Pallascio & Schleifer, 1999) and first language acquisition and literacy (Haynes, 2002; Murriss, 1992; Ofsted, 1997; van der Leeuw, 2004). However, it was first proposed as a communicative approach to second / foreign language teaching by Shahini and Riazi (2011). In their proposition, ELT class is viewed as "a social community" where "students work together to complete a philosophical task" and "use language to learn it" (p. 171) [original emphasis]. They also highlighted the significance of this approach in L2 education as (a) enhancing thinking skills, and (b) improving L2 proficiency, specifically productive skills through asking and answering small 'p' philosophical questions. In Philosophy-based Language Teaching (PBLT), like Philosophy for Children Approach (P4C), by philosophy it is "meant to encourage ordinary students to think critically and creatively about the world around them, to delve deeper into subjects, and not blindly accept or memorize whatever is fed into their minds" (p. 171).

Inspired by Lipman (2003), Shahini and Riazi (2011) proposed a procedure to apply PBLT in ELT classrooms as follows. At first, the learners are given a source of input including an unseen text, a video or an audio track. Then, the instructor invites the learners to make some challenging and small 'p' philosophical questions about something that the content of the input has made them wonder or think about, individually or in peer groups. These questions are read aloud to the whole class so that the most interesting ones are chosen by learners themselves and be set for classroom discussion. Code switching is allowed during the philosophical dialogue. As mentioned above, the role of instructor is only to facilitate, monitor and help learners communicate their comments. More specifically, the instructor "takes some personal notes, writes down the main points raised and the important words used, and translates the L1 words used by students into L2" (Shahini & Riazi, 2011, p. 173). At the end of the discussion, the instructor works on the linguistic points raised up within the philosophical dialogue exchange among learners and puts them on the board.

To date, very few researchers probed the effectiveness of PBLT in language classes. In a pioneering study, Shahini and Riazi (2011) investigated the effect of PBLT on improving writing and speaking skills of EFL learners. Applying experimental design on two groups of 17 students, they found a significant difference regarding writing and speaking enhancement between experimental group who were exposed to 17 texts the content of which were prone to deep philosophical questioning and the control group who followed their normal classroom practice.

In a more recent study, Hemmati and Hoomanfar (2014) whose results highlighted that introducing PBLT can enhance EFL learners' speaking ability and willingness to communicate. The observed speaking performance improvement and willingness to talk was regarded by these researchers as evidence in support of setting PBLT as an alternative to the traditional IRF (Initiation – Response – Follow up) condition for speaking activities.

Considering the aforementioned, it seems that not enough attention has been paid to the practical side of Applied ELT and the ways to put this paradigm into practice in actual English classes. Noting the features of PBLT approach which signify and direct the improvement of classroom discussions on the one hand, and provide opportunities for language learners to discuss diverse social, scientific and political issues through holding pair / group works on the other, the rest of the current paper tried to clarify the ways PBLT can be implemented in an Applied ELT class.

V. PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS TO IMPLEMENT PBLT IN A TYPICAL APPLIED ELT CLASSROOM

A. *Suggestions for Material Developers and Life Syllabus Designers*

Current trends in Applied ELT postulate that the brainwave of teaching life skills in an EFL or ESL classroom context has gone a far distance from practice in the field. Directing the interdisciplinary and scientific nature of ELT as well as thematic links to other subjects across the intended curriculum, the theory of Applied ELT has assigned the field a large role to contribute to other fields of study including psychology, sociology, and philosophy to mention a few. That was the rationale behind the introduction of life syllabus in ELT curriculum by Pishghadam and Zabihi (2012). It should be noted that the primary objectives of such syllabus include the enhancement of learners' whole-person and intellectual development in addition to other life skills critical to learners' real lives. Accordingly, the syllabus should be designed around not only the idea of making meaning out of life but also the optimal holistic development of learners. To this end, the PBLT approach can be set as the fundamental basis in designing ELT life syllabus. More specifically, the teaching topics can be chosen from the fundamental life-related themes, including the development of social and personal skills, family responsibilities, citizenship, and occupational skills, out of which some philosophical questions can be drawn. Such questions can challenge language learners and provide them with food for thought for classroom discussions the result of which is a new vision towards life and life style. This becomes more effective if syllabus designers incorporate a unified approach to education for life which is centered on a paradigm of learner-centered education that ascertains a desired learning quality provided that learning is developed with understanding and learners are actively involved in the learning process and construct knowledge via gathering and synthesizing information along with its integration into general skills of inquiry, communication, critical

thinking, problem solving, etc. (Huba & Freed, 2000). In addition, this approach to syllabus design can encourage open communication between learners, teachers, and the society.

A similar approach can be taken by material designers via adding some life-related philosophical questions as pre and post tasks in dealing with different receptive and productive language skills. For example, for the reading passage (see Appendix 1), the following philosophical questions may be incorporated in the material as pre and post tasks to enhance learners' reading. Learners are going to discuss the provided philosophical questions either in pair or group arrangements.

Philosophical questions as pre-task:

Answer the following questions.

1. How important is it for you to join a book club?
2. Do you think that the social aspect of book clubs is more important than the intellectual facet? Why or why not?
3. Do you agree that starting your own book club is better than joining an existing one? Explain your ideas.
4. Is a casual approach risky when starting and running a book club?

Philosophical questions as post-task:

After reading the passage, answer the following questions.

1. What makes you introduce a book club to others?
2. Why is kick-off meeting required to hold a book club?

Moreover, as males and females have different points of view towards life issues, a very important point to be taken into account by material developers in this regard is the subject of gender differences. Accordingly, materials might be designed in the way they enrich learners' thoughts via sharing ideas of both genders in the classroom in answering philosophical questions. This means that material developers should not incorporate male- or female-specific issues in the materials for the classes run in PBLT to the extent it does not impair linguistic side of the course. In other words, issues which have nothing to do with one gender are better not to be added into the materials. This pertains to the fact that in a PBLT class, learners should have a full understanding of the content they are going to discuss with each other. In this regard, if some learners have no idea of the content, the discussion flow may break down and learners lose their self-confidence in sharing their ideas.

In addition, since materials are going to be designed based on authentic life-related issues and problems, learners' immediate environment and community must be considered in material development, life syllabus design, and curriculum planning. Stating it differently, the philosophical questions in an Applied ELT class should be chosen from the locally significant ones for learners which can include planning and managing money, staying healthy, and problem solving, among other issues in the Iranian context. Thus, developing materials in this way would provide the ground for learners to practice philosophical questions around the topics familiar for learners which helps them go beyond superficial questions and seek for more detailed philosophical ones.

Finally, considering the collaborative and cooperative nature of culture in Applied ELT on the one hand and the role of life syllabus in globalization (Azizi, 2012) on the other, the implementation of PBLT through the use of the cluster of cross-cultural approaches in the design of a life syllabus could undoubtedly provide the ground for learners to be considered as active members of local and global communities all around the world. Through such implementation of culture-related philosophical question and answer, the learners will develop their critical understanding of the very complicated nature of social and cultural identity. Also, the skills that learners accomplish through this approach make it possible for them to be successful in cross-cultural communications in outside the class and international contexts. As Noshadi and Dabbagh (2015) stated:

"Designing tasks that can raise awareness of English learners of the differences between English and other cultures' conceptualizations provides a benchmark for Applied ELT to advance its horizons of life syllabus and include cultural issues as a facet in life qualities in the present globalized world" (p.60).

B. Suggestions for English Language Practitioners

Along with the introduction of Applied ELT as a super-ordinate and scientific field for contribution to other knowledge areas, English teachers were expected to be experts in both ELT and other disciplines (Pishghadam, Zabihi, & Norouz Kermanshahi, 2012). In other words, it was highly advocated that English teachers were simply educational language teachers. That is to say such practitioners are to address a majority of life skills through inviting the learners to make philosophical questions in the class about life issues including critical thinking, problem solving, presentation skills, interpersonal and intrapersonal relationship skills, free time activities, influencing others, decision making, health education, etc. For the case of critical thinking and problem solving, for example, the practitioner can ask the learners to break down the concepts under discussion and analyze their component parts so as to gain better understanding of them. In this way, the learners can raise questions about situations and the way the items are related to each other. In addition, for intrapersonal relationship which calls out the inner monologue and happens within an individual for the sake of clarifying ideas or analyzing a situation, the practitioner may concentrate on various facets of the relationship such as self-concept, perception, expectation, and motivation. Therefore, due to the difficulties the learners encounter in running a philosophy-based discussion in an applied ELT classroom, specifically for lower-intermediate language learners, in order for the English teacher to appropriately implement PBLT in the class, he or she must decide on the best way to directly convey the content in the classroom so that the learners could properly perceive the objectives of the content under discussion.

In addition, the teacher should be patient enough to let learners discover or explore philosophical questions themselves out of the material exposed to them through pair work or group discussion. Also, the teacher must always be available for learners'

reinforcement or follow-up process on the progression of life skills both inside and outside of an ELT classroom. Moreover, through a close examination of interdisciplinary areas in other syllabi than English in the curriculum, such as ethics, geography, physics, etc., the English teacher could decide on the appropriate time that the learners are ready to be allowed to find their own answers to the teacher-made philosophical questions or design the questions themselves related to the topics they have covered in those courses other than English. Finally, to take linguistic difficulties into consideration, the instructor explains the problematic issues brought about within the philosophical dialogue upon completion of the pair or group work.

It should be mentioned that the suggestions above are in line with humanistic education which supports the idea that “education should empower people to lead a meaningful and purposeful life by boosting their intellectual and emotional abilities as well as their other types of relationships, attitudes, values and thinking styles” (Ketabi, Zabihi, & Ghadiri, 2012, p. 2).

Finally, using philosophical questions on the part of English practitioners, learners involvement in the process of learning is enhanced which in turn results in higher-order cognitive processes required for their continual development and building confidence in language learning.

C. *Suggestions for English Language Learners*

In an ELT class held in PBLT, learners are expected to develop personal-social, daily life, and occupational skills at the end of the course taken. One way to gain the skills mentioned is through an active engagement in discussing philosophical questions as well as raising challenging life related issues in dialogues. In order to manage their immediate environment and community, learners need to develop critical thinking, problem solving, and interpersonal skills. Being aware of such requirements make learners mentally ready for the progress within the whole classes. In addition, learners are expected to acquire the capability to relate the issues which are addressed in the ELT class to career affairs too. This necessitates them to have prior understanding and awareness of the carriers of their own interest.

Learners can also involve English language practitioners by asking for help in connection to the questions raised on the issue under discussion, which is a unique way of including practitioners while crating collaborative environment between learners and teachers.

VI. CONCLUSION

The current paper was an initial movement in the utilization of PBLT as an innovative approach to put Applied ELT into practice. As was already stated, introducing small ‘p’ challenging philosophical questions into ELT classes can motivate language learners to participate actively in classroom tasks and activities. This is specifically so if the philosophical questions are about life-related issues which students are in contact with in their everyday lives. This may combine the procedure suggested for PBLT (Shahini & Riazi, 2011) with life syllabus principles which sets a benchmark for a better implementation of Applied ELT in ELT classes.

The application of the approach not only encourages the learners' development of critical thinking but also makes classroom discussion easier and promotes learning among learners.

The overall outcome of the present study reveals that the actual versus perceived effectiveness of the PBLT approach is to be determined by the researchers in the field. Future studies will expand the efficiency of PBLT approach to include the attitudes of the English language practitioners on the approach and determine which type of philosophical questions would help students make better improvement in the process of language learning. Other considerations in this regard include gathering data about how small ‘p’ philosophical questions are utilized to promote critical thinking and decision-making as two key life related issues of English language learners.

Creation of focus groups comprising syllabus designers, material developers, practitioners, and learners, to determine pros and cons on the use of the approach as well as to delineate the extent of the use of the approach would also be beneficial to all the stakeholders in the field.

APPENDIX

Book clubs are a great way to meet new friends or keep in touch with old ones, while keeping up on your reading and participating in lively and intellectually stimulating discussions. If you’re interested in starting a book club, you should consider the following options and recommendations. The first thing you’ll need are members. Before recruiting, think carefully about how many people you want to participate and also what the club’s focus will be. For example, some book clubs focus exclusively on fiction, others read nonfiction. Some are even more specific, focusing only on a particular genre such as mysteries, science fiction, or romance. Others have a more flexible and open focus. All of these possibilities can make for a great club, but it is important to decide on a focus at the outset so the guidelines will be clear to the group and prospective member. After setting the basic parameters, recruitment can begin. Notify friends and family, advertise in the local newspaper, and hang flyers on bulletin boards in local stores, colleges, libraries, and bookstores. When enough people express interest, schedule a kick-off meeting during which decisions will be made about specific guidelines that will ensure the club runs smoothly. This meeting will need to establish where the group will meet (rotating homes or a public venue such as a library or coffee shop); how often the group will meet, and on what day of the week and at what time; how long the meetings will be; how books will be chosen and by whom; who will lead the group (if anyone); and whether refreshments will be served and if so, who will supply them. By the end of

this meeting, these guidelines should be set and a book selection and date for the first official meeting should be finalized. Planning and running a book club is not without challenges, but when a book club is run effectively, the experience can be extremely rewarding for everyone involved.

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How to Integrate English Language Teaching and Academic Study in Chinese-foreign Joint Bachelor's Degree Programmes in Local Universities: The Case of Hubei Engineering University*

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Abstract—This paper made a statistical analysis on the basis of some data coming from a survey in Hubei Engineering University. It discussed about problems in Chinese-foreign Joint Bachelor's Degree Programmes in Local Universities. Based on Engeström's activity theory, it further provided some suggestions by focusing on integrating English language teaching and academic study. It expected to bring the outcome (in Engeström's ending point of the model) of harmony and unity of teachers' life world, vision of curriculum and classroom activities.

Index Terms—Chinese-foreign joint Bachelor's Degree programmes, local Universities, activity theory, English language teaching, academic study

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools is a positive and effective policy in education internationalization, which plays an important role in today's higher education in China. The earliest Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools can be traced back to the late Qing dynasty's westernization movement, which put forward the concept of "Chinese-style westernization". It has played a promoting role on higher education in the early modern China. In the early years after liberation, China underwent higher education reform following the pattern of Soviet Union. After the reform and opening up, China ushered in the rapid development of Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools. In 1995, Chinese Ministry Education issued the Interim Provisions on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools. In 2003, the State Council promulgated the Regulations on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools, which paved the way for legalization and standardization of Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools. By the push of globalization of education, more and more colleges and universities in China are promoting the improvement of Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools in order to cultivate high-level interdisciplinary high-end talents. Outline of China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020) says, "It is essential to reform and develop education by opening it to the outside world, carrying out education exchanges and collaboration at multiple levels and in a broad scope, and raising education's internationalization level. Advanced concepts and experience in education in the world shall be assimilated to boost education reform and development at home, and to enhance the nation's global position, influence and competitiveness in the field of education. To meet the requirement of opening up the Chinese economy and society to the world, large numbers of talents shall be cultivated that are imbued with global vision, well-versed in international rules, and capable of participating in international affairs and competition." Since it is quite a new trend in China, there are few researches on Chinese-foreign joint Bachelor's Degree programmes in China. Among those few researches, there are three major types. One is the researches on generic taxonomies and overview (Christine & Yang Fujia, 2007). The second type is those on current development of transnational higher education (Lin Jinhui & Liu Zhi-ping, 2007; Ka Ho Mok & Xiaozhou Yu, 2008; Guo Qiang & Zhou Nanping, 2014). The third is on English teaching and learning in joint programmes (Qin Cailing, 2014; Zeng Jianlan, 2015; Chen Bei & Liu Liyun, 2015).

This paper will start from the statistical analysis of Chinese-foreign joint Bachelor's Degree programmes (hereinafter referred to as joint programmes) in China, especially those joint programmes in local universities in Hubei Province. It will then, taking statistics coming from Hubei Engineering University as the example, discuss further the issues in joint programmes based on Engeström's activity theory. And it will focus on how to integrate language teaching and academic study in joint programmes.

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II. CURRENT SITUATION OF JOINT PROGRAMMES IN LOCAL UNIVERSITIES IN HUBEI PROVINCE

Hubei province, as one of China's major education provinces, responds positively to the national plan and actively promotes Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools. But compared with other provinces, it still has not had very big impact. In those local universities in Hubei province, Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools, especially the joint Bachelor's Degree programmes are quite new.

THE PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS (TOTAL NUMBER: 1084)

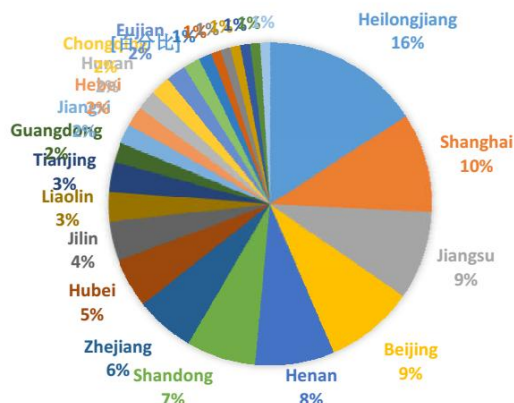


Figure 1. Chart of the percentage analysis

From Figure 1, we can see there are altogether 1084 joint programmes in China, with Hubei accounting for 5%. There are altogether 58 joint programmes in Hubei province, among which only 12 are in local universities, accounting for 1% among national joint programmes. The percentage of joint programmes in local universities among Hubei province is 21%. They mainly concentrated in Huanggang Normal University (3 joint programmes), China Three Gorges University (2), Hubei Engineering University (2), Hubei University of Science and Technology (2), Yangtze River University (1), and Hubei University of Arts and Science (1). The major cooperation countries are the UK, the USA, Japan, New Zealand, Germany and Australia, among which the cooperation with universities in the UK accounts for the largest percentage. Most cooperation models are based on giving priority to Chinese curriculum with introduction of advanced resources from foreign universities. The specific ways are not the same. Basically there are three ways, which are “3 + 1”, “2 + 2” and “4 + 0”. Some of the introduced core major courses are personally taught by foreign teachers. Teaching contents, teaching methods and assessment methods are carried out in accordance with the foreign way completely. Programmes attach great importance to the English teaching and learning.

Those universities in “985 projects” and “211 projects” in Hubei province have certain advantages in terms of funding, geographical position, hardware and software facilities, and ranking. These will help them to attract more excellent foreign resources. The local universities can't compete with them. The best way to promote joint programmes for local universities is to improve the teaching quality, enhance the level of teachers' teaching and scientific research ability, and promote the teachers' personal and professional development.

III. INTEGRATING LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ACADEMIC STUDY IN JOINT PROGRAMMES

In all joint programmes, English is very important not only in guaranteeing normal communication with foreign teachers and in taking in knowledge, but also in personal development. English language teaching content and training objectives should take cultivation of students' communicative competence and enhancement of students' English application ability as the key point. English language in international education is a tool for them to communicate, to acquire new knowledge, and to find ways to explore unknown fields of research. In local universities, due to many reasons like the cost of studying abroad, students' language level, personal willingness and other factors, only part of students will eventually study abroad. Quite a number of students will remain in China.

A. Methodology

Every semester, there is a mid-term evaluation about both teaching and learning in Hubei Engineering University. Students will have seminars and discussions with teachers and administrative staffs. There will also be a survey for students about their learning, campus living and university management. From the seminars and discussions with students in joint programmes, we can know some students think too much English learning is not suitable for their demands for learning. They may even think that teachers' too much involvement in IELTS is a waste of time. They prefer the teaching emphasis being put on College English Test, i.e. CET-4 or CET-6, which is one of the prerequisites for students to get their Bachelor Degrees in universities in China. Too many English courses will outweigh students learning ability, which may relatively reduce the amount of time students spent in the professional study, resulting in difficulty in gaining professional knowledge and skills. I have chosen here three items from the survey related to language learning and academic study in joint programmes and will analyze the data.

B. Results

A total of 82 students participate in the survey, with 43 freshmen and 39 sophomores. Those three items are as following:

1. Evaluation for bilingual professional courses undertaken by Chinese teachers;
2. Evaluation for amount of English language courses;
3. Evaluation for professional courses undertaken by foreign teachers.

TABLE 1
EVALUATION FOR BILINGUAL PROFESSIONAL COURSES UNDERTAKEN BY CHINESE TEACHERS

options classes	A (taught totally in English)	B (bilingual)	C (taught totally in Chinese)	D (based on complexity of the course and language level of the teacher)	E (other opinions)
sophomores	0	3	23	13	0
freshmen	1	4	14	23	1
Total number	1	7	37	36	1
Percentage	1.2%	8.5%	45.1%	44%	1.2%

In E (other opinions), 1 freshman suggests both course books and the language in class should be in Chinese.

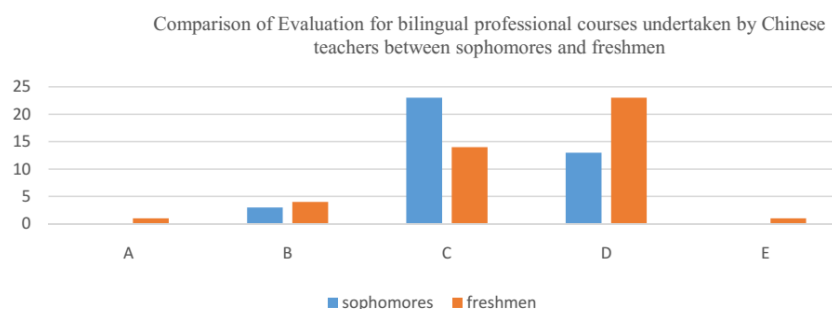


Figure 2. Chart of comparison of evaluation for bilingual professional courses undertaken by Chinese teachers between sophomores and freshmen

TABLE 2
EVALUATION FOR AMOUNT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE COURSES

options classes	A (too much)	B (appropriate)	C (not enough)	D (other opinions)
sophomores	8	25	4	2
freshmen	12	24	3	4
Total number	20	49	7	6
Percentage	24.4%	59.8%	8.5%	7.3%

In D (other opinions), one sophomore thinks the courses are of low quality, the other thinks there are some repetitions between oral and listening course. One freshman suggests to reduce the amount of English language courses, one suggests to strengthen the assessment and the examination, one feels he has learned nothing in class, and one suggests to open some courses on professional English.

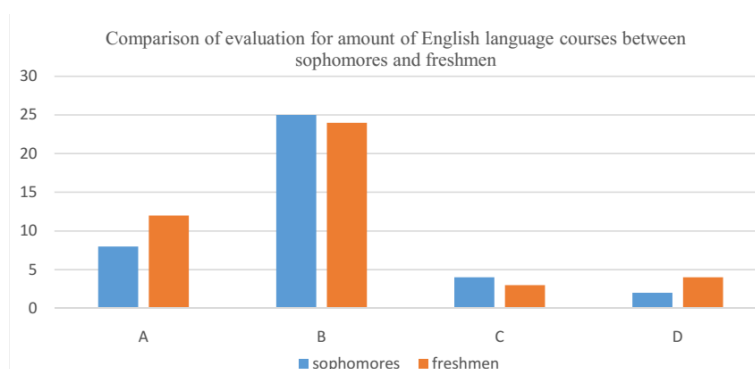


Figure 3. Chart of comparison of evaluation for amount of English language courses between sophomores and freshmen

TABLE 3
EVALUATION FOR PROFESSIONAL COURSES UNDERTAKEN BY FOREIGN TEACHERS

options classes	A (Very good)	B (Not bad)	C (Not good)	D (other opinions)
sophomores	2	12	24	1
Percentage	5.1%	30.8%	61.5%	2.6%

At the time when the survey was carried out, there are professional courses undertaken by foreign teachers for sophomores. Freshmen haven't started those courses. One sophomore thought it useless to go into professional courses undertaken by foreign teachers.

C. Data Analysis

In table 1, 45.1% of all students advocated to be taught in Chinese. In figure 2, the numbers of sophomores who advocated that are more than the numbers of freshmen, even though sophomores have undergone a year of language training. 44% thought that whether the course should be taught in Chinese or English should be based on the complexity of the course and the language level of the teacher. The numbers of sophomores are less than that of freshmen. Only 8.5% thought that the course should be taught bilingually. Hardly any student advocated using English in professional courses.

In table 2, 59.8% of all students thought the amount of English language courses is appropriate. 24.4% thought the amount of English language courses is too much for them. In figure 3, the numbers of sophomores who thought like that are less than the numbers of freshmen, because sophomores have undergone a year of language training. 8.5% thought the amount is not enough for them.

In table 3, 61.5% did not think highly of the teaching effect of professional courses undertaken by foreign teachers. 30.8% thought those courses acceptable. Only 5.1% thought those courses had achieved expected effect.

In the further discussion with both students and teachers, the major problems lie in the following aspects.

1. Students can't adapt completely to professional courses taught in English due to their limited language level.
2. The objective of using English language as a tool for exploration in academic study can't really be realized due to language teachers' lack of professional knowledge.
3. There are few professional teachers who can really use English language, foreign teaching styles and foreign teaching philosophy to teach due to their language level and their understanding of western culture and western way of teaching.
4. Those professional courses undertaken by foreign teachers are only added to the Chinese teaching curriculum. There is a misunderstanding. Many Chinese teachers think bilingual courses are courses taught in two languages or in English language. There is no re-integration of professional courses in foreign universities and in China universities.

D. Suggestions

How to integrate language teaching and academic study in joint programmes becomes the key issue. As both manager and teacher of joint programmes in Hubei Engineering University, I am participating directly in the application, running and teaching of the programmes. On the basis of Engeström's activity theory (1999), I am trying to put forward the corresponding countermeasures.

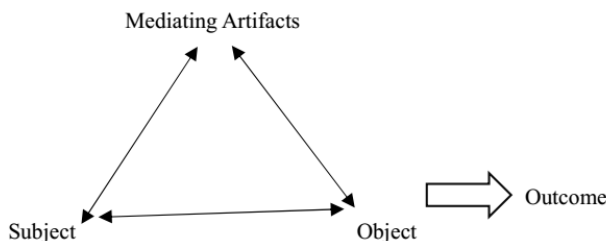


Figure 4. Engeström's activity theory model

In figure 4, subject refers to the analyst and the analyst's concept and behavior. Object refers to activities that lead to the final outcome. Object represents the direction of the whole activity system. Mediating artifacts are materials or methods used or applied by an individual or a group to finish all activities. Wu Zongjie (2005) has pointed out that Engeström's activity theory system contains four contradictions. Based on this contradiction theory, I am trying to analyze those factors involved in joint programmes.

In joint programmes, subject refers to both teaching staff and administrative staff. Object refers to realization of teaching objectives in joint programmes, which is clearly stated in China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020). "Large numbers of talents shall be cultivated that are imbued with global vision, well-versed in international rules, and capable of participating in international affairs and competition." Mediating artifacts here refers to different ways, methods and activities adopted to realize the objectives.

Within this triangular model, there are four levels of contradictions. The first level of contradiction is the internal ones within each component. For subject, those factors as different ages, educational background, gender and educational or administrative philosophy will have different influences on students. For object, different stages, different teaching aims, and different disciplines will have different ways of operation and cooperation. For mediating artifacts, English language courses and professional courses will adopt different teaching and management models, examination modes, and assessment methods. The second level of contradiction is the contradiction between components. The aim of teaching English grammar and structure will be in conflict with the goal to cultivate

communicative competence. The aim of being employed by a domestic company will be of some differences from being in an overseas enterprise or in a multinational company. The third level of contradiction is the one between the dominant activity system and its developmental system. It can refer to the conflicts between the existing Chinese teaching system and a foreign one. It can also refer to the conflicts between the ideal system and the existing system. The last level of contradiction refers to the one between the center activity system and peripheral system. For example, differences between Chinese and western education mode and Chinese and western culture do exist. Differences between Chinese and western ideology and thinking mode and Chinese and western social system can't be neglected.

The key point here is how to integrate language teaching and academic study in Chinese-foreign joint education programmes in local universities in Hubei province.

1. Promotion of collaborative teaching to strengthen the cooperation

Collaborative teaching advocates the optimal fusion of education resources, which emphasizes on mutual communication, mutual learning, and mutual inspiration between teachers, between teachers and students. In-class assisting tutor model has been being practiced for a period of time in Hubei Engineering University. When the foreign teacher comes to China to teach, a Chinese teaching assistant will be sitting in the classroom. While helping in the process of teaching, Chinese teachers are making classroom observation. The typical foreign teaching model will not involve too many explanation and lecturing. Some spaces are left for students to find solutions through problems set. Various means are applied according to the degree of students' mastery of knowledge. And constant adjustments are made in class. Classroom teaching is student-centred, with students' participation in different activities. They share knowledge, experiences, ideology and even emotions, which forms a learning community, aiming at mutual development.

2. Project-based Learning in English language courses

According to the Buck Institute for Education (BIE), Project-Based Learning is "a teaching method in which students gain knowledge and skills by working for an extended period of time to investigate and respond to an engaging and complex question, problem, or challenge." Teaching contents should be closely around the discipline knowledge and information. The teacher acts as guide and adviser, providing opportunities for students' language output, problem-solving activities, and exploration of knowledge. Based on personal experiences and discipline knowledge, students complete their learning tasks by using English skills, e.g. listening, speaking, reading and writing as the tool. The teaching in joint program should combine language teaching objectives with certain professional contents. Professional knowledge and language skills should be taught at the same time, which puts forward a higher demand on teachers. The teachers in joint programs should not only have comprehensive language knowledge and skills, but also have rich professional discipline knowledge. And at the same time, teachers should have the awareness of adopting different teaching strategies when facing different types of students.

3. Improvement of bilingual professional courses and professional courses in English

Knowledge explanation, group discussion, pair work, simulation class, case investigation and case analysis are all different ways adopted in class. Bilingual professional courses or professional courses in English are not purely language training. These courses should include methodology design and project management. Case study, professional literature reading, science and technology thesis writing, and presentation ability should all be the teaching contents. The cooperation between language teachers and professional teachers should be strengthened. They can form a team, deciding on teaching contents, teaching methods, teaching activities design and establishment of assessment system.

4. Improvement of students assessment

Outline of China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020) says, "We will keep records of students and improve the assessment of comprehensive quality. Diverse evaluation approaches that help promote student development shall be explored to encourage students to be optimistic and independent and become useful persons." Formative assessment and summative assessment shall be used accordingly. Students' comprehensive ability shall be the emphasis. Students' portfolios should be set up, which will help students to monitor their own studies and cultivate autonomous learning ability.

5. Innovation of professional courses and research cooperation

Reasonable introduction of foreign advanced courses involves not only the contents but also research methods, which highlights the theoretical characteristics of professional courses. But this doesn't mean complete and blind followship. Trade-offs of teaching contents and necessary screening are very important, which must be done based on the characteristics of Chinese course systems and students to ensure the scientificity and effectiveness of teaching. More chances should be provided to the teaching staff to go abroad to learn, to communicate, and to do research in partner universities in foreign countries. Chinese teachers and foreign teachers can have a try to do research together, to develop online courses and videoed courses, to develop resource sharing public courses and distance education.

6. More chances provided for teacher training and professional development

Universities in China need to provide opportunities for teachers undertaking bilingual teaching, English teachers, and those administrative staff to receive teacher training in foreign universities. Through direct contact and experience in foreign countries, they can update educational concepts and professional knowledge, and at the same time improve their English language level. They can get in touch with different teaching models, teaching mechanism, management system

and high-quality education resources. By constant comparison between and summary of teaching and management concepts in both Chinese and western culture, they can improve their teaching and management abilities.

7. Setting up Chinese-foreign cooperative education institution

“GATS will, when WTO member countries implement the agreement, focus on facilitating academic mobility via

- Cross-border supply. This mode may include distance education (e-learning) and franchising courses or degrees. It does not necessarily require the physical movement of the consumer or provider.

- Consumption abroad. The consumer moves to the country of the provider. This mode includes traditional student mobility.

- Commercial presence. The service provider establishes facilities in another country including branch campuses and joint ventures with local institutions.

- Presence of natural persons. This mode includes persons, including professors and researchers, who temporarily travel to another country to provide educational services.” (Philip G. Altbach & Jane Knight, 2007)

A Chinese-foreign cooperative education institution is a further cooperation on a higher level and wider range. Two parties of cooperation will both invest in forms of fund, physical objects, land use rights, intellectual property rights and other property. The institution will set up the president or agency head. The foreign teachers and management staff will come into the institution to work together with Chinese teachers and management personnel. It will independently carry out the education teaching activities in accordance with the law. Such deep cooperation is bound to bring in the significant advantages in several aspects as the teachers, teaching facilities, and high degree of internationalization. At present a total of 3 such institutions have been set up in Hubei province. None is set up in local universities. It is both an opportunity and a challenge for local universities. It will be more feasible to seek such further cooperation on the basis of the existing joint programmes.

IV. CONCLUSION

The concrete embodiment of Internationalization of education in China is Chinese-foreign joint education programmes. In the higher education system in China, this new model of running schools has obtained the certain development, which is based on the introduction of foreign advanced educational modes and management experience, combined with the actual situation of its own development. It has become one of the important forms of international cooperation and exchanges. This paper is trying to provide pragmatic suggestions to the promotion of Chinese-foreign joint education programmes based on Engeström’s activity theory and data analysis coming from the case of Hubei Engineering University. It expects to bring the outcome (in Engeström’s ending point of the model) of harmony and unity of teachers’ life world, vision of curriculum and classroom activities.

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Some Insights into Iran's English Curriculum Based on Iran's Major Policies

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Abstract—The study aimed to investigate Iran national curriculum, foreign language part. The curriculum analyzed according to major documents of Iran; 20-year Iran's vision plan and Comprehensive map of science. Moreover, it was analyzed based on current issues in language teaching. The qualitative study reached at some setback in curriculum. Curriculum centered on language teaching without appropriate culture, while aim of major documents was non-stop communication with world. As a result, there were some weak points toward national curriculum.

Index Terms—curriculum, national curriculum, Iran's vision plan, foreign language curriculum, educational system

I. INTRODUCTION

Education is significant feature in achievement of country as it is the major criteria in the future success and improvement. Each educational system has its own duty to reach to this goal, which should be considered as the core, because they trained future leaders. Leaders are responsible for social and economical developments of a country, transferring cultural values, introducing new findings to society for the sake of the humanity (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995).

Moreover, it is educational system responsibility to upper the standards of the society. When they influence the individuals as students, this situation effects the social upheaval (Bowen, 1980). As English is the lingua franca of the world, learning and teaching English keep its importance as one of the significant issues for the governments.

This responsibility was emphasized in major policies of each country. Iran as a strategic country in its region needs to be in contact with world. Therefore, it works based on *Iran's 20-year vision plan*. This plan was administered from ten years ago; therefore, Iran is in the middle of its strategic way. The plan is made of distinct parts and education is one of its main issues.

Importance of language learning, especially English language was not mentioned exactly in a separate part, but it was mentioned covertly as a prerequisite to reach its purposes in the world. Based on this plan, national curriculum was revised. Therefore, analyzing new curriculum based on major documents specially *Iran's 20-year vision plan* is necessary to find if it was revised in the line of major plans or not.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Foundations

1 What is curriculum?

What is a curriculum as we now understand the word? It has changed its meaning as a result of the curriculum movement. It is not a syllabus – a mere list of content to be covered – nor is it even what German speakers would call a *Lehrplan* – a prescription of aims and methods and content. Nor is it our understanding a list of objectives. ...Let me claim that it is a symbolic or meaningful object, like Shakespeare's first folio, not like a lawnmower; like the pieces and board of chess, not like an apple tree. It has physical existence but also a meaning incarnate in words or pictures or sound or games or whatever. [...] Who made it? (Stenhouse, as cited in Moore, 2015, p.43)

Defining curriculum is not an easy subject. Possibly the most frequent definition draw from the word's Latin root, which means 'racecourse'. Definitely, for many students, the curriculum is a race to run which contains a series of obstacles or difficulties (subjects) to be passed. (Marsh, 2004)

"Curriculum in the postmodern era becomes an aesthetic engagement and a search for deeper understanding that will lead to justice, compassion, and ecologically sustainability where the boundaries between the center and the margin are blurred, and all students have access to the text." (Slattery, 2006, p. 281)

Evidently, the obvious point is that the meaning of curriculum differs depending on the perspective, which is viewed. Therefore, standpoints of scholars in defining curriculum determine the importance of characteristics of curriculum for them and based on those significances they establish a new curriculum.

In Acedo & Hughes' (2014) ideas, curriculum consisted of "at least four facets of learning: the written curriculum (how these intentions are laid out), the taught curriculum (what happens in the classroom), and the hidden curriculum (subconscious, institutional intentionality), and the intended curriculum (what we intend students to learn)." (p. 504) The intended curriculum necessitates an educational institution capable of implementing it and benefits the organization of learning opportunities and procedures adapted to the diversity of students. (Tedesco, Operti, & Amadio, 2013)

2 Curriculum Evaluation.

"The process of measuring and judging the extent to which the planned courses, programs, learning activities and opportunities as expressed in the formal curriculum actually produce the expected results. If carried out effectively, this process can enable decisions to be made about improvements and future progress." (UNESCO IBE, 2013, p. 10)

Curriculum evaluation is "looks at all aspects of curriculum design to see if the course is the best possible. Evaluation requires looking both at the results of the course, and the planning and running of the course." (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 123) Therefore, curriculum evaluation is the last phase of founding a new curriculum. The process of curriculum analysis is about collecting verification for the decision makers and providing rationales behind the selection of specific program. (Altaieb, 2013)

Therefore, curriculum evaluation "become little more than an assessment of the teachers' effectiveness in 'delivering' it; and, as we have already seen, evaluation has degenerated into school inspections." (Kelly, 2004, p.154) Curriculum evaluation is a process which gauges the effectiveness of each part of curriculum in educational context and search for whether it needs minor adjustment or major revision.

B. Related Studies

Language policy in major part is significant in different countries. Japan as an eastern country tries to develop English teaching and learning at the educational system both for students and teachers. "Japanese with English Abilities" centered on teaching English at primary school, sending teachers abroad, and appointing specific level for each grade at school. (Honna & Takeshita, 2005)

Ó Laoire (2011) in a study explored the trajectory of languages in education policy (LED) in Ireland. He suggested, "a new understanding of the policy process because they epitomize the kinds of local contexts and specific circumstances that implementers confront not only in Ireland but also in regions and areas where societal bilingualism is beginning to change into or compete with multilingualism in an LEP." (Ó Laoire, 2011, p.17)

Kinsiz, Ozenici, and Demir (2012) believed the barrier to Turkey's foreign language teaching is foreign language policy. They analyzed foreign language policy from macro- and micro-level planning in Turkey. It was obvious that language played an important role in each country. In Pakistan, "language played a significant role in the movement to make Bangladesh a nation separate from Pakistan." (Kachru, 2006, p.427)

In Iran, there were few studies which centered on national curriculum. Alavimoghaddam and Kheirabadi (2012) studied the national curriculum of Islamic Republic of Iran in field of teaching foreign languages (especially English). According to their critical analysis, "national curriculum of Iran holds some considerable advantages, the successful application of its elements in area of teaching foreign languages requires preparation of some prerequisites." (p. 27)

Some of scholars in Iran focused their studies on importance of major revision to national curriculum. Rahimi and Nabilou (2009) analyzed Iran national curriculum based on major documents such as *Iran's 20-year vision plan* and its comparison with world's knowledge in teaching English as a foreign language. Kiany, Navidinia, and Momenian (2011) searched for unity of Iran's national curriculum and compared it with *Iran's 20-year vision plan*. They believed that national curriculum was not in the line of *Iran's 20-year vision plan*.

As the place and nature of language planning in education is one of the main dimensions of the relationship between language and social life, governments make deliberate choices (Liddicoat, 2004), it is important to analyze Iranian national curriculum, English language part, and compare it with major plans and documents. It was claimed that major documents were cornerstone of adapted national curriculum.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

1. Is national curriculum base on modern world of teaching methodology?
2. Is national curriculum in the line with major documents?

IV. METHODOLOGY

In order to answer research questions Iran's national curriculum was the main source of investigation, English language 37-38. To answer first question, major documents *Iran's 20-year vision plan* and scientific map of Iran were analyzed and compared them with Iran's national curriculum. In order to answer first question, it is necessary to know about language and its changes during time in Iran.

V. DISCUSSION

A. First Question

1 Evolution of Language in Iran.

The official language of Iran is Persian, which is known as Farsi. It is an Indo-European language, although in Iran there are different regional languages such as Azari (Turkish), Kurdish, Arabic. Besides regional languages, there are many dialects, which can be found in each province or even small cities. None of these languages and dialects is not taught at schools and universities. Major foreign languages are Arabic and English. Arabic receives more attention at schools because Iran is an Islamic country and their holy Quran is in Arabic. At university, English receives more attention because policy makers believe that English is the language of science and university students should understand it very well.

There are four stages in the history of Iran regard to language. The first stage referred to Old Persian in Sassanid dynasty. The second stage started with Arab wars against Iran which led to introduce Arabic language to Iranians. At that time, Iran's religion changed to Islam and it made a major revolution with itself because Iranians' language, behavior, culture, economy and politics followed Islamic rules. Therefore, Persian language "welcomed and incorporated Arabic terms and the two languages mixed with each other to a great extent." (Riazi, 2005, p. 101)

The third stage referred back to Qajar dynasty, when western culture was introduced to Iran. In 1851 Dar-al-Fonoon (The House of Techniques) was founded as the first institution in Iran. At that institution, western teachers who did not know Persian taught Persian students, therefore gradually English and French language were the language of institutions and some of main organizations like oil company, under control of British.

"English became an important requirement in the Iranian military because a good command of English was needed for the army personnel to go to the US for further specializations." (Farhady, Sajadi Hezaveh, & Hedayati, 2010, p. 10) Moreover, Frhady and et.al. (2010) stated teaching English language became a social requirement and private language schools mushroomed in the capital and many large cities.

Gradually English language became part of school curriculum. English was taught at Iranian schools during the six years of secondary education in the period 1934 to 1970. After 1970, when the new system of education was put into practice, English was taught for seven years: three years at guidance and four years at high schools.

After world war II, universities in Iran expanded and in some of them English was the main language like Shiraz university. At that university students had to studied English two-month then began their formal education. Therefore, English was the major second language of the country and was included in the curriculum of both schools and universities.

The last phase of language in Iran is after Islamic Revolution in 1979. By Islamic Revolution, a great change occurred in all levels of Iran. Downplay of western culture even educational system was the main change in Iran. "The education system was the very first target. Curriculum change in order to eradicate elements of Western thought and to replace this with Islamic-Iranian values was the major agenda of the policy-makers and curriculum-developers." (Riazi, 2005, p. 107)

In this period, English language was not eliminated from school curriculum but it was limited to English book in guidance- and high school. As a result, Western thought and culture was removed from all books even English books and students just learnt vocabularies and grammar. Nevertheless, its importance cannot be denied and even after Revolution Imam Khomeini, Iranian leaders, stressed language learning's importance.

The major problem after the Islamic Revolution, however, has been the lack of an official language-planning blueprint in the country to determine the status of available languages, as well as expectations from language teaching and learning curricula in the formal education system... As regards teaching and learning language, a reductionist approach towards language instruction has been followed at all levels, from primary schools to postsecondary levels. Graduates of high schools, colleges and universities usually lack a 'functional' proficiency in their L2 and even they are unable to use their L1 with its total capacity. This is mostly a result of the language curriculum and teaching methods prescribed for the educational settings including schools and universities. (Riazi, 2005, p. 108)

English was viewed as a purely scientific and international language, the use of which had become an indispensable part of developing the educational system to address recurrent waves of globalization and modernization. Accordingly, Persian consolidated its status as the predominant medium of instruction, but English continued to be taught as a foreign language in both private and public schools. (Hayati & Mashhadi, 2010, p. 31)

"Although the state's policy towards the English language is not the vast dissemination of the language, the process of globalization has nevertheless exerted its own pressures to promote the learning of English as a hidden curriculum." (Riazi, 2005, p.113) Besides globalization, cultural and political survival has a strong impact on the status of languages in Iran.

Given the status of English as a global language, English has remained the main foreign language offered in educational system. Even now, English is still taught for seven years at junior and senior high schools with roughly the same methodology and practices that it had under the previous educational system. Iranian educational policy for English mostly centers on grammar and reading. (Hayati & Mashhadi, 2010, p. 34)

It seems that gradually, English language found its real place in the Iranian society and nobody can deny its necessity, because it is the main language in science, international conferences, air traffic in international airports and sea navigation. (Talebinezhad and Aliakbari, 2002)

2 English curriculum in Iran.

At Iran's public schools, two foreign languages are taught; Arabic and English. National curriculum divided both into two different fields of study. Therefore, tenth part of curriculum named as learning foreign language, which was not referred to Arabic language. It did not mention English language directly instead remarked whatever languages will be considered to teach by educational ministry (p. 38). "Teaching foreign languages is a proper basis for understanding, gaining, and cultural communication which led to transfer science in oral, face to face, and written form" (National Curriculum, p. 37).

"Knowing other languages to communicate with other countries is the importance of teaching foreign languages at school. Moreover, knowing other languages affects economy like tourism, business, technology, science, and social-political awareness." (p.37) The scope of language learning focused on solving a problem and communicating. According to the scope of national curriculum, "foreign language curriculum should contain structures and vocabularies to assist students in making successful connection with world." (p. 37)

Teaching foreign language starts at 7th grade, teaching four skills and familiarizing students with skills of communication. From 10th grade, students should understand intermediate texts, write short articles, and be able to communicate in foreign language.

Major attitudes in teaching foreign languages in national curriculum were:

"Teaching foreign languages should go beyond universal methods and attitudes, and consider it as a scope to develop national culture, beliefs, and values... at the beginning of teaching, students became familiar with national subjects like health, daily routines, values, and culture in an interesting framework. In advanced level, subjects of study are cultural, scientific, economical, and political issues..., which have to be in accordance with other fields of studies at school. At the end of high school, students have to be able to understand proficient texts and write an article. Therefore, from 10th grade proficient vocabularies are introduced to understand special texts and make a scientific communication." (p. 39)

3. Criticism toward National Curriculum.

Supporting national curriculum, Alavimoghaddam and Kheirabadi (2012) believes that "national curriculum of Iran holds some considerable advantages" (p. 27) included extending time of teaching foreign languages, changing books, and working on four skills.

Foreign languages were the 10th course elaborated while it did not mention which language should be taught. It revealed, "there was not any need analysis based on major goals of country in the perspective document and they were unaware of students' needs and English language function as an international language." (Kiany, Navidinia, & Mo'menian, 2011, p. 199)

English is introduced only at high school and it is taught at a very basic level. At high school, it is studied for two to three hours a week for six years as one of the main courses of study. "The proclaimed purpose of this course is to enable students to read simple English texts and improve their reading comprehension through passages built around newly introduced vocabulary items." (Hayati & Mashhadi, 2010, p. 34)

Although most of serious concepts in English language were mentioned in The National Curriculum Document, at least two issues were ignored: first, mentioned concerns were too broad to include all complicated aspects in foreign language learning policies. Stated Policies need more elaborations and discussion to clear ambiguities in these regard. (Kiany, Mirhosseini, Navidinia, 2011)

"Secondly, the strength of The National Curriculum Document in including a diversity of theoretical views and approaches in foreign language education could itself be a weakness as well." (Kiany, Mirhosseini, Navidinia, 2011, p. 62) mixing political features of language learning with method of teaching, benefiting of different school of thought in language teaching were examples which showed lack of involvement of foreign language education experts in the process of setting policy guidelines within the National Curriculum Document. (Kiany, Mirhosseini, Navidinia, 2011)

Therefore, due to the weaknesses of the English curriculum program at schools and the necessity of learning English language, different EFL institutes have been established in all over the country (Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006). Therefore, private section under control of educational ministry of Iran "has shouldered the responsibility of helping the public sector meet the country's demand." (Hayati & Mashhadi, 2010, p. 34)

In fact, although the educational system of Iran found the importance of English language learning, it acted inefficiently and unable to fulfill learners' need at schools. (Razmjoo, Ranjbar, & Hoomanfar, 2013).

In criticism of English national curriculum, Rahimi and Nabilou (2009) stated "although teaching English language is a threat to local language, it cannot be forget that learning English is the key of making relationship with the world." (p. 121) Therefore, they believed in hardship of educational ministry of Iran, which should be careful about teaching English on the one hand and be careful about local language, Persian, on the other hand.

There were some suggestions to Educational Ministry of Iran to adopt and change English curriculum: 1. Change the method of teaching, 2. Teach English language teachers, 3. Analyze students' needs, 4. Change goal of learning language, 5. Producing new materials, 6. Change the method of assessment.

B. Second Question

Curriculum “has arguably changed very little over the last 100 years or so, either in terms of its officially stated purposes or in basic curriculum content and design” (Moore, 2015, p. 1) To analyze English curriculum in Iran, it is necessary to have a look in *Iran's 20-year vision plan in 2025* (in 1404 H.Sh.). The 20-year National provision is a document with macro strategies that lead the country through the twenty years of comprehensive development to the aims of the nation. (Kiany, Mirhosseini, Navidinia, 2011) Iran's 20-year vision plan is a governmental perspective of Iran, which views Iran in next 20 years as a developed country, which reach to the first class in economy, science and technology in the region, with the Islamic and the revolutionary identification, and inspire the world of Islam with the constructive and the effective interaction in international affairs.

In this document, Iranian economy, scientific and technology will achieve to the first level in the South West Asia (including Mid-Asia, Caucasia, the Middle East, and the neighboring countries). Putting emphasis on software movement and science production, fast and constant economic progress, and ... having constructive and effective interaction at world based on glory, wisdom and expediency principles. The document was administered from ten years ago in 2005.

Accordingly, the perspective was divided into four 5-year Development Plan. The first two 5-year based on 20-year vision plan focused on educational system as one of important issue to be improved. Therefore, vision plan is an obliging reference to all ministries, especially educational ministry.

Educational ministry of Iran used these documents as a reference and prepared Iranian national curriculum. The national curriculum is macro program for eleven fields of study which foreign language was the tenth. The curriculum was approved in 2011. The curriculum tried to make a relationship and cooperation among teachers, students, and parents.

Based on curriculum, teachers should pave the way through mental and spiritual life and guide students in their educational and true lifelong. These ideas came from Islam who believes in teachers as prophets and teaching is prophets' profession. Therefore, teacher is the main character in leading students toward well educated in both education and real-life. (National Curriculum, p.12)

In a comparison between new Iranian national curriculum, based on Iran-provision, and Council of Europe in its framework of reference for languages, centered on “choices between kinds and levels of objectives” (p. 135) in curriculum design, we can find some similarities. First, have a look to some of Council of Europe's objectives for languages learning, teaching, and assessment:

- a) Development of the learner's general competences
- b) The extension and diversification of communicative language competence
- c) Better performance in one or more specific language activities
- d) Optimal functional operation in a given domain
- e) The enrichment or diversification of strategies or in terms of the fulfillment of tasks

It can be inferred that Iran's provision in 20-year leads Educational Ministry of Iran to work for some of mentioned objectives. Because of importance of science, students should have general competency to understand the depth of science. As well, the most important part of Iran's provision in 20-year is science production and its rank among Middle East and Islamic countries, therefore the prospective emphasize the enrichment in terms of the fulfillment of scientific tasks.

According to Iran's provision in 20-year, comprehensive map of science of Iran announced science as the main mean of development. The map emphasized on incorporation of teaching, training, research, and proficiency. It searched for presenting education to all people and leading them to be responsible and independent in society.

The map considered more religious and regional issues like Islamic science, promotion of Islamic idea in society, and Iranian-Islamic culture. It tried to promote a research base culture and persuaded students to be qualified teachers and researches by smoothing problems in this way. The document is an interval between Iran's provision in 20-year and national curriculum and its focus is on regional and Iranian-Islamic culture. The map divided priorities into three levels. At each level, number of subjects was mentioned but foreign language was ignored at three levels.

Comparison of national curriculum and major documents.

As the national curriculum is based on 20-year Iran's vision plan, there is not any special hint to foreign language learning, while government try to “reach the first place in science and technology among Islamic countries and has an active communication with world” (20-year Iran's vision plan, p.24)

“The prospective was not included how to teach foreign languages and in the other view it was not about education. Of course it did not mention exactly about teaching foreign languages but comprised hint for educational program, especially foreign languages.” (Kiani, Navidinia, and Momenian, 2011, p.199)

Moreover, in accordance with all criticisms toward English language teaching in Iran, Rouhani, President of Islamic Republic of Iran, in a ceremony to greet teachers' day in Iran on May 4th 2015 mentioned that, students

“may attend to other classes to learn language (English language). If they did not learn it in classes, they attend to private classes. He (student) knows that language (English language) is essential in contemporary life... Do not forget, some of languages are the science languages, therefore without them we cannot reach to heart and depth of science... Each language has its own characteristics and points, for instance if you read Quran in its Persian translation 10 times, it is different from a person who understands Arabic language completely.” (Educational ministry's cite)

Comprehensive map of science of Iran was too broad and repeated what was mentioned in the 20-year Iran's vision plan in other expressions. This map led human science to improve base on Islamic ideology and regional needs while ignores international needs of that human. Therefore, it was obvious that in all parts of map, even human sciences, foreign languages were disregarded.

In this regard, foreign language part of national curriculum ignored western culture and emphasized on learning foreign language apart from its appropriate culture. "At beginning of teaching, should be accord with regional subjects like health, daily life, believes, and (regional) culture...at higher level it should lead to comprehend scientific, cultural, economical, political text".

VI. CONCLUSION

The study investigated Iran's national curriculum and compared it with major documents of Iran. As educational system in Iran is a governmental department, all of documents were designed according to major documents. Therefore, there is congruency among all documents. The other strong point of national curriculum is its focus on regional issues led to understanding different dialects and different cultures in Iran.

On the other hand, one of weak points of national curriculum was ignorance of teachers, students, and parents in planning it. Teachers place was mentioned in both Comprehensive map of science and national curriculum but when curriculum was designed, they were ignored. As a result, teachers in Alavimoghaddam and Kheirabadi (2012) view are central group who should understand curriculum, teach it, and evaluate students. While in Iran national curriculum, teachers were passive in designing national curriculum.

In line with Kiany, Navidinia, and Mo'menian (2011) there is insufficient explanation on teaching foreign languages in national curriculum. Teaching foreign language part in national curriculum was less than two pages while teaching foreign language is a broad subject with different subparts.

It can be mention that major documents comparing with national curriculum guided Iran to reach first place of science in east west of Asia and to be in contact with world. The question here is with which language they make connection? If answer is science language (English), what president Rouhani said, why Comprehensive map of science ignored importance of it and did not mention it as one of its priorities? At the same line of map, national curriculum did not mention foreign language importance in major objectives of country.

The other problem with national curriculum was disregarding appropriate age of learning second language. In Iran, foreign language is included into curriculum when students are 13 years old, which is against researches in appropriate age. Before 2015, English language was an obligatory course at private primary schools, but in 2015, it was proscribed by educational system and private schools were forced to remove it from their curriculum.

Language without culture was the obvious setback of national curriculum and comprehensive map of science against 20-year Iran's vision plan to be in contact with world and emphasis on producing science in science language. While to have efficient and non-stop communications, both sides need to understand each other without any misapprehension. disregarding culture leads to misunderstanding and in some cases stop communication. Therefore, in agreement with Rahimi and Nabilou (2009) curriculum needs adaption.

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The Effect of Two Attention-drawing Techniques on Learning English Idioms

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Abstract—This study investigated the effectiveness of three methods for teaching idioms. Sixty two intermediate EFL learners from a language school in Kerman were divided into three classes to be taught in three conditions: the etymological elaboration experimental group (N=20) was taught 16 target idioms in a text along with the etymology of each idiom; the typographic salience experimental group (N=20) was taught the same text as the previous group but the 16 target idioms were in boldfaced type and red; and the traditional control group (N=22) was taught the same text in plain typeface with no etymology for idioms. The participants in the three groups were not informed about the posttest and the delayed posttest. The results of the comparison between the posttest and the delayed posttest scores of all the three groups indicate that the participants in etymological elaboration outperformed the participants in the other two groups in terms of idioms' retention and recall. These findings are suggestive that the most effective method of teaching idioms vis-a-vis their retention and recall is etymological elaboration.

Index Terms—etymological elaboration, typographic salience, formulaic sequences, idiomatic knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

Formulaic sequences (FS) or multiword expressions (MWE) are ubiquitous in and constitute the backbone of any type of natural language. The ubiquity and centrality of these multiword units has been attested by scholars and researchers in the field of second language learning and teaching (Carter, 2004; Boers, et al., 2014; Hayati, et al., 2013; Martinez, 2013; Siyanova-Chanturia, 2015; Stengers, et al., 2014, Wood, 2010;). Thus, if FSs are so pervasive, then language learners are constantly exposed to a bombardment of figurative expressions throughout their learning process and they have to create a large repertoire of figurative expressions for active usage (Boers, et al., 2004). On the other hand, Learning FSs presents a big challenge to foreign language (FL) learners. Apart from the challenge faced by FL learners, researchers and teachers acknowledge the importance of teaching and learning formulaic sequences in the foreign language classroom because these FSs serve a number of communicative functions (Peters, 2012). Nevertheless, little research has been undertaken on the most effective techniques, especially the implementation of attention-drawing techniques, in teaching formulaic sequences (for the type of recommended techniques, see Boers et al., 2006; Jones and Haywood, 2004; Peters, 2012). The purpose of this study is, thus, to investigate the effect of two techniques on Iranian EFL learners' retention and recall of English idioms (idioms are subsumed under formulaic sequences). The two techniques that are intended to prompt learners to take notice of the idioms are the etymological elaboration, whereby the origins of idioms are presented to the learners, and typographic salience through which target idioms are underlined and in red.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Siyanova-Chanturia (2015) enumerates different kinds of formulaic sequences, such as, *collocations* (fast food), *binomials* (black and white), *multi-word verbs* (rely on), *idioms* (tie the knot), *speech formulae* (what's up?), *discourse markers* (by the way), *lexical bundles* (as well as), *expletives* (damn it!), *grammatical constructions* (the -er the -er), and many more. These types of FSs abound in everyday discourse. Several studies have reported on the frequency estimates of FSs in written texts and everyday speech of native speakers. Erman and Warren (2000) estimated that 55% of any written text is comprised of FSs. From the spoken discourse perspective, Foster (2001) concluded that 32.3% of native speakers' speech, mostly unplanned speech, consisted of FSs. Also, Pollio, et al. (1977) estimated that every minute of native speakers' spoken language contained four FSs on average.

It's due to this abundance of FSs in everyday written and spoken discourse that apart from traditional classroom interest in them, FSs are the main focus of interest in different fields, such as *computer assisted language learning*

(CALL) (Stengers, et al., 2014), *mobile learning* (M-learning) (Hayati, et al., 2013), *machine translation* (Cholakov, et al., 2014), *eye tracking* (Siyanova-Chanturia, 2013; Siyanova-Chanturia, et al., 2011; Carrol and Conklin, 2014, 2015), *neurolinguistics* (Boulenger, et al., 2012; Zhang, et al., 2013), and *brain diseases/damages* (Reuterskiöld, and Van Lancker-Sidtis, 2013; Van Lancker-Sidtis, 2006).

Thus, it goes without saying that with regard to the facilitative role of FSs in language processing (Hsu, 2014) and their pervasiveness, especially idioms, in the everyday discourse of English speakers, learners' attention should be directed toward learning this type of FS. The mastery of the meaning and form of idioms are very crucial in the process of language learning because the former may pose interpretability problems for L2 learners (Martinez and Murphy, 2001) and the latter helps students use and produce the idiom themselves. This latter case, in turn, will cause students to come across fluent and native-like (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2008).

Etymological elaboration vs. typographic salience in teaching idioms

Attention-drawing techniques have mostly been used in the teaching of vocabulary (Peters, et al., 2009; Schmitt, 2008), and only recently in the instruction of FSs (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2009). One of the techniques for directing the learners' attention toward English idioms is etymological elaboration (= a term coined by Boers, et al. (2004), which means providing learners with the literal, original use of an idiom). According to Stengers, et al. (2014) there are at least two reasons for incorporating information about the origin or literal uses of idioms: 1) it lends concreteness and imaginability to the idiom whereby facilitating learning, a phenomenon at the heart of Dual Coding theory; 2) after being familiar with the origin of the idiom, the learner can make an educated guess at its abstract (idiomatic) meaning.

In a series of studies, Boers, et al. (2004, 2007) have zeroed in on the effectiveness of this particular technique on L2 learners' idiom retention and recall. In their 2004 study, Boers, et al. provided the experimental group with the literal, original use (etymology) of the target idioms, while no information regarding the etymology of the idioms was given to the control group. The findings of the study showed that the scores of the experimental group was significantly higher than those of the control group, thereby supporting the assumption that etymological elaboration effectively helps learners retain and recall idioms.

Also, Boers, et al. (2007) investigated the learning of idioms through etymological elaboration. In this study they examined two possibilities: 1) using etymology as a channel for the comprehension of idioms, and 2) using etymology as a channel for learners' appreciation of the informal nature of certain idioms. Their experiment regarding the first possibility revealed quite encouraging results, whereas the second possibility was less convincing.

Another technique in drawing the learners' attention toward English idioms is typographic salience, for example by italicizing, underlining, or boldfacing a certain item or even using a different color. Since FL learners may not take note of idioms while reading a text, typographic salience could be a useful technique to alleviate this problem.

There are few studies whose main focus has been on typographically salient items. One of these studies is Bishop's (2004) computer-based research which revealed that those words and formulaic sequences which were typographically salient, that is, those items in red and underlined, were clicked on more by the experimental group (N= 21) compared to the control group (N= 23) who read the same text as the experimental group but with plain target words and formulaic sequences. Participants in the experimental group clicked more on the FSs so as to find out their meanings. One thing that is lacking in Bishop's study is that it did not demonstrate whether typographic salience had any positive effect on the recall of FSs.

In another computer-based study which investigated the clicking behavior and text comprehension of French L2 learners, de Ridder (2002) used blue-font hyperlinked words in the text. Her findings revealed that while reading the text, the learners were inclined to click on the highlighted words to discover their meanings. Nevertheless, de Ridder found no positive effect regarding the impact of increased clicking on the word retention by the learners.

In her recent study, Peters (2012) made an attempt to investigate the effect of two techniques, namely, instruction intervention and typographic salience, on learners' form recall of single words and formulaic sequences. The results of this study showed that although instruction (whose purpose was to draw the participants' attention to formulaic sequences while reading a text) had an effect on the recognition of formulaic sequences, it had no effect on the recall of formulaic sequences. Typographic salience seemingly facilitated the learning and recall of vocabulary, but like the experimental group, the treatment group received the lowest recall scores. Thus, there was no difference between the experimental group (N= 14) and control group (N= 14) regarding their recall of formulaic sequences.

Rational and research questions

The appropriate and correct application of idioms either in spoken or written production presents a big challenge to English learners, especially EFL ones, from elementary to even advanced learners. Not only do foreign language learners make more errors when producing formulaic sequences, the findings of previous studies also suggest that they tend to overuse some formulaic sequences (Peters, 2012). Despite the fact that the mastery of idiomatic expressions is pivotal in achieving a native-like fluency in language production and use, the paucity of research in the area of multiword expressions seems evident in different fronts. From the processing perspective, there is a regrettable lack of research into the processing of L2 idiomatic expressions by language learners (Cieslicka, 2006; Durran and Schmitt, 2010; Siyanova-Chanturia, 2015). Regarding the place of multiword expressions in ELT syllabi, Martinez (2013) rightly states that:

“... to date there has been a general lack of any kind of principled integration of multi-word expressions in ELT syllabi, and it is often the textbook that guides the scope and sequence of language that is presented (p. 185).”

Finally, from a pedagogical angle, there has been little research into the most effective methods of teaching formulaic sequences (Alali and Schmitt, 2012).

Research to date has yielded mixed results regarding the impact of pedagogical techniques on formulaic sequences, especially idioms, retention and recall and no study has compared the effect of etymological elaboration and typographic salience on learners’ retention and recall of idioms. This study tries to make an attempt to find out which technique is most useful regarding: 1) the retention of the target idioms, and 2) the recall of those idioms. Thus, the current research will try to address the following research questions:

- 1) What is the effect of etymological elaboration on the retention and recall of the target idioms?
- 2) What is the effect of typographic salience on the retention and recall of the target idioms?
- 3) Which attention-drawing teaching method is more effective in terms of idioms retention and recall?

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 62 male and female adult students ranging in age from 20 to 30 years. Initially, 76 intermediate students studying English at Qeshm language institute in Kerman took the pretest. Out of these students, 14 students who received high scores were excluded from the study because their scores showed that they were already familiar with the target idioms. Then, the remaining students were randomly assigned to three groups, each of which receiving instruction on the same target idioms used in a text in three different methods, namely the etymological elaboration method (N= 20), typographic salience method (N= 20), and traditional method (N=22). The ANOVA analysis of the participants’ pretest scores showed that the participants in these three groups were homogenous with regard to their idiomatic knowledge or *formulaic competence* (Celce-Murcia, 2008).

Materials

A key step in the development of the material was the selection of the target idioms. In the previous studies on idioms, researchers have used various criteria for choosing their target idioms. Boers, et al. (2007) chose idioms based on their thematic classifications (source domains). Other researchers (e.g., Hayati, et al. 2013) used available textbooks as their sources of idioms. Author’s intuition has also been another way of idiom selection (e.g., Guo, 2008). A more scientific way for choosing idioms is first consulting dictionaries, and then using frequency bands of idioms to decide on the suitability and frequency of use of the target idioms (e.g., Boers, et al. (2004)). This study made use of this last criterion for idiom selection. Firstly, forty idioms were chosen from four different dictionaries: *Oxford Dictionary of Idioms* (Siefring, 2004), *Red Herrings and White Elephants* (Jack, 2005), *The American Heritage Dictionary of Idioms* (Ammer, 1997), and *Dictionary of Idioms and Their Origin* (Flavell and Flavell, 1992). The criteria for the selection of the idioms were as follows: 1) Care was taken to include idioms that were not taboos or culturally loaded; 2) Those idioms that had direct L1 equivalence were factored out; and 3) The selected idioms’ frequency bands were looked up in *Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)* (Davies, 2008) to make sure that the idioms were frequently used in English¹. (See Table 1 for the frequency of the target idioms.)

After selecting the idioms, all of them were sent to an English native speaker to concoct a text in which sixteen idioms were randomly used out of the complete list of the idioms. After the text was written, it was emailed to five more English native speakers to rule out any inconsistencies with regard to the appropriate use of the idioms.

TABLE 1:
FREQUENCY OF THE TARGET IDIOMS

<i>Idioms</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Spoken</i>	<i>Fiction</i>	<i>Magazine</i>	<i>Newspaper</i>	<i>Academic</i>
Off the beaten track	95	9	12	42	20	12
A bone of contention	104	29	8	13	28	26
Bite the bullet	118	44	13	21	29	11
To the bitter end	222	48	43	45	61	25
A chip off the old block	35	8	14	5	7	1
At the drop of a hat	140	32	42	35	20	11
Nip something in the bud	11	2	0	4	4	1
Keep a stiff upper lip	81	30	21	13	15	2
Barking up the wrong tree	36	12	10	5	9	0
At the end of one’s tether	75	14	17	31	12	1
By hook or by crook	28	9	5	5	2	7
On the back burner	234	63	20	59	65	27
Know the ropes	20	3	5	8	3	1
Go belly up	44	10	4	8	19	3
A dime a dozen	101	18	38	18	21	6
Lose one’s marbles	2	0	1	1	0	0

Later on, two versions of the text were prepared for the study. In one format, the target idioms were highlighted in red and underlined. This version was intended for the group that was to receive typographic salience method of instruction. The second format which included plain target idioms was intended for etymological elaboration and

traditional methods, but for the etymological elaboration method of instruction a PowerPoint slide was prepared for each idiom which contained the meaning and origin of the idiom.

Procedure

This study was carried out with three classroom groups, two experimental groups and one control group. Two weeks after gauging the participants' idiomatic knowledge through pretesting, they were randomly assigned to one of the three groups. Then, the experiments commenced. Three teachers, including the researcher himself, simultaneously taught the three groups, each in a one-hour-long session. Three different methods of instruction were also utilized to teach the educational material which was a text containing 16 target idioms. The traditional classroom (control group) read the plain text and the teacher just explained the meaning of each target idiom to the participants.

For the first experimental group, that is, the typographic salience classroom, the target idioms had previously been highlighted in red and underlined. The meanings of the idioms had also been glossed. After the participants read the text, the teacher explained the meaning of each idiom to them. As for the etymological elaboration classroom (the second experimental group), the same plain text as that of the traditional group was read by the participants. But, in addition to reading the text, the participants were shown 16 slides each of which contained the meaning and the origin of an idiom. Like the text for the typographic salience group, the meanings of the idioms had been glossed for the second experimental group as well. Immediately after the experiments, the participants in all groups took the posttest. The posttest was the same as the pretest with just some changes regarding the place of choices for multiple-choice questions.

A month after the immediate posttest and without any forewarning, the participants took the delayed posttest. This test was a modified version of Computer Adaptive Test of Size and Strength (CATSS) which was developed by Laufer and Goldstein (2004). CATSS was originally made for the testing of individual words. To test the receptive and productive knowledge of meanings and form of words, CATSS utilizes translations. But in its modified paper-and-pencil version, the translation section of CATSS was eliminated and the form and meaning recognitions were all in English. In the original version of CATSS there are no multiple-choice items. For the purpose of this study, multiple-choice tests were prepared. In the form recognition section of the test, one word of an idiom was replaced by another word, rendering it non-idiomatic.

In order to check for the validity of this adapted version of CATSS, a few pilot studies were conducted. In the first stage, it was emailed to three English native speakers to check for any incomprehensibilities or problems. Then, five nonnative English teachers read the questions on the test to make sure that the test items were not too easy or too difficult for the participants. In the final stage, 25 students who were similar to the research participants, but were from another language school took the test. These students were quite unfamiliar with the test and the results showed that they could not guess the answers of each item. These results indicated that the tests were well-written for the purpose of the study.

Table 2 shows a schematic representation of the design of the study.

TABLE 2:
THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

<i>Participants</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>Activities</i>
1- 62	three groups	pretest: multiple-choice test
1-20	etymological elaboration (experimental)	reading a plain text+ origins of the idioms
21-40	typographic salience (experimental)	reading a text with idioms underlined and in red
41-62	traditional (control)	reading a plain text
1-62	three groups	posttest: multiple-choice test
1-62	three groups	delayed posttest: CATSS modified version

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Table 3, the descriptive statistics for all three groups obtained from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest clearly indicates that in all three groups there has been an overall improvement in the participants' idiomatic knowledge vis-à-vis the effect of teaching methods.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND DELAYED POSTTEST

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Pretest</i>		<i>Posttest</i>		<i>Delayed posttest</i>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Etymological elaboration	13.50	1.960	24.40	2.873	21.25	2.04
Typographic salience	12.20	1.105	19.60	2.137	16.95	3.08
Traditional	13.36	.658	15.86	2.145	13.50	2.06
Total	13.03	1.487	19.82	4.256	17.11	4.008

A *repeated-measures* ANOVA was also run to check for any significant difference between the results of the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest in each group. As the data in Table 4 shows, the mean scores of the participants were significantly different from pretest to posttest and delayed posttest in each group ($p= 0.01$). These scores demonstrate that the three methods of teaching idioms were effective in terms of increasing the participants' knowledge of idiomatic expressions.

TABLE 4:
THE SUCCESS RATE OF PARTICIPANTS IN ALL GROUPS

Groups	Test	n	Mean	SD	F	df	p	Size effect
Etymological Elaboration	Pretest	20	13.50	1.960	74.68	19	0.01	0.88
	Posttest	20	24.40	2.873				
	Delayed posttest	20	21.25	2.048				
Typographic Saliency	Pretest	20	12.20	1.105	129.79	19	0.01	0.84
	Posttest	20	19.60	2.137				
	Delayed posttest	20	16.95	3.086				
Traditional	Pretest	22	13.36	.658	14.38	21	0.01	0.65
	Posttest	22	15.86	2.145				
	Delayed posttest	22	13.50	2.064				

The analysis of covariance between the instructional methods

Following the *repeated-measures ANOVA*, a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to determine any statistically significant differences between the posttest and delayed posttest scores of the three different instructional methods. The independent variable was the type of instructional method, and the dependent variables consisted of the posttest and delayed posttest scores, respectively. Participants' scores on the pretest were used as the covariate in the analysis. Also, initial tests were run to ensure that the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurement of the covariate were not violated. According to Table 5, there are significant differences between the teaching methods vis-à-vis the posttest ($F(2, 58) = 66.19, p = .01$) and delayed posttest ($F(2, 58) = 55.96, p = .01$) scores of the participants. Although the pretest scores of the three groups were almost similar, indicating that the participants were homogeneous in terms of their idiomatic knowledge, statistically significant differences were found between the posttest and delayed posttest scores. In Table 5, the posttest effect size (Partial eta squared = 0.69), as well as the delayed posttest effect size (Partial eta squared = 0.65), are also included which are indicative of the presence of a magnitude of differences between all the groups. These effect sizes, in turn, zero in on the significant differences derived from the results.

TABLE 5:
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Posttest	768.377	2	384.189	66.190	0.01	0.69
Error	336.650	58	5.804			
Delayed posttest	641.490	2	320.745	55.967	0.01	0.65
Error	332.393	58	5.731			

As Table 6 illustrates, to determine which method of instruction was more effective in terms of idioms retention, Bonferroni test, which compared the posttest scores of the three groups, followed. Through multiple comparisons, statistically significant differences were found between the mean score of etymological elaboration group and typographic saliency group's mean score ($p = 0.01, mean\ difference = 5.038$). The mean score of etymological elaboration group also was significantly different from that of traditional group ($p = 0.01, mean\ difference = 8.561$). By comparing the mean scores of typographical saliency group and traditional group, it is clear that typographic saliency method of instruction was more effective in helping the participants retain the idioms ($p = 0.01, mean\ difference = 3.523$).

TABLE 6:
BONFERRONI TEST RESULTS FOR MULTIPLE COMPARISONS BETWEEN POSTTEST SCORES

(I) methods	(J) methods	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound		Upper Bound
Etymological Elaboration	Typographic Saliency	5.038*	0.821	0.01	3.396	6.681
	Traditional	8.561*	0.745	0.01	7.070	10.053
Typographic Saliency	Etymological Elaboration	-5.038*	0.821	0.01	-6.681	-3.396
	Traditional	3.523*	0.793	0.01	1.936	5.110
Traditional	Etymological Elaboration	-8.561*	.745	0.01	-10.053	-7.070
	Typographic Saliency	-3.523*	.793	0.01	-5.110	-1.936

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In terms of idioms recall, the results of Bonferroni test (Table 7) revealed that, like idioms retention, etymological elaboration group outperformed both typographic saliency group ($p = 0.01, mean\ difference = 4.835$) and traditional group ($p = 0.01, mean\ difference = 7.806$).

TABLE 7:
BONFERRONI TEST RESULTS FOR MULTIPLE COMPARISONS BETWEEN DELAYED POSTTEST SCORES

(I) methods	(J) methods	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Etymological Elaboration	Typographic Saliency	4.835*	0.816	.01	3.202	6.467
	Traditional	7.806*	0.740	.01	6.324	9.288
Typographic Saliency	Etymological Elaboration	-4.835*	0.816	.01	-6.467	-3.202
	Traditional	2.971*	0.788	.01	1.394	4.549
Traditional	Etymological Elaboration	-7.806*	0.740	.01	-9.288	-6.324
	Typographic Saliency	-2.971*	0.788	.01	-4.549	-1.394

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Thus, it can reasonably be said that the most effective method of teaching idioms is etymological elaboration because the statistics above indicate a significant difference between this instructional method and the other two methods vis-à-vis their impact on the participants' retention and recall of English idioms.

The results of the study indicate that the most effective method for teaching idioms is the presentation of etymology of the idioms through etymological elaboration method. One possible explanation for the success rate of the participants in learning the idioms via etymological elaboration method is that explaining the origin of idioms to learners has a mnemonic effect to it. According to Boers, et al. (2007), etymological elaboration is likely to call up a mental image of a scene which can be stored in memory alongside the verbal form, and which can subsequently provide an additional pathway for recall. This lies at the core of Dual Coding theory (Paivio, 1986) that utilizes verbal representations and mental images, the latter functioning as a mnemonic in processing the verbal input. The concreteness and imageability given to idioms (Strengers, et al., 2014) by etymological elaboration is also at the heart of the Levels-of-processing theory (Cermak, and Craik, 1979) which claims that deeper levels of analysis bring about more complex, permanent, and robust memory traces.

Another plausible account for the effectiveness of etymological elaboration method is that learners enjoy an extra context for learning idioms. In addition to the context in which the idioms are used, learners are exposed to the origins and stories of how the idioms came into being. Hence, enhancing the possibility of learning the idioms due this additional exposure. Meanwhile, the etymologies of idioms are interesting enough *per se* to encourage learners to pay more attention to the meaning, and possibly to the form, of idioms.

The findings of this study are in line and favor of the findings of Boers, et al. (2004, 2007) that assume presenting learners with the literal etymology of figurative idioms generally enhances their idiomatic knowledge.

Typographic saliency, on the other hand, appears to be a more effective teaching method than its traditional counterpart. The results of the study are in accord with the studies by Peters (2012) and Bishop (2004) because, in general, these scholars found supporting evidence that typographic saliency mode of instruction is an effective method which aids learners to learn the target idioms successfully.

V. CONCLUSION

This study aimed at gauging the effectiveness of three methods for teaching idioms, namely etymological elaboration, typographic silence, and traditional methods. In general, the findings of the study are indicative of etymological elaboration being the most effective method in assisting learners to learn the target idioms. The comparison of the posttest and delayed posttest scores of all the three groups indicated that etymological elaboration had a long-lasting effect on idioms' retention and recall.

Since in plain texts idioms may not be noticed by learners, one way to help them recognize these formulaic sequences is through typographic saliency whereby idioms are highlighted to be noticed. But simply highlighting idioms may not guarantee the successful learning of idioms on learners' part. Etymological elaboration, on the other hand, has reasonably proven to be an effective method of teaching idioms, for it provides learners with the origin of idioms, hence aiding them to master the idioms even permanently. Etymological elaboration is a sort of mnemonic technique which is in line with the assumptions of Dual Coding theory and Levels-of-processing theory whose final outcome is the rather permanent mastery of idioms by learners.

With regard to the application of etymological elaboration for teaching idioms some questions are raised: "To what extent can teachers make use of etymological elaboration?", "Can they find the etymology of all the idioms they intend to teach?", or "Will they have sufficient time to present the etymology of idioms in classroom?" The answers to these questions may appear discouraging, but teachers should incorporate etymological elaboration in their teaching of idioms whenever possible because it will function as a mnemonic technique, resulting consequently in a long-lasting effect on learning idioms.

Note:

Martinez (2013) believes that data banks provide information about the frequency of a particular item in that corpus, but not what that frequency figures mean, thus, because an item does not appear frequently in a corpus should not necessarily indicate that it is not useful.

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A Highlight of Same-sex Ethics in Baldwin's Novels*

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Abstract—Homosexuality occupies an important place in Baldwin's novels. The paper interprets the desire, dilemma, frustration and the final fruition in same-sex, especially in male homosexuals. In Baldwin's eye, love between the homosexuals can also be a way out to solve the race conflicts. He believes that homosexuality is a natural and normal behavior like heterosexuality. His intention is to try to break the existing duality relations that are generally considered to be reasonable, and to rebuild the harmonious sex relations without the differentiation of gender. His writing of the real life of homosexual is rather helpful to demonstrate the development and change of the life and ideas of that special group in that generation.

Index Terms—ethics, homosexual, Baldwin, pedagogy, critical, school teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Homosexuality is always a difficult subject to touch upon for the writers. To Baldwin, a Negro in America, due to the mystification surrounding the Negro and his sexual prowess, the difficulties are even greater. In Baldwin's time, seen from the aspect of mainstream culture, homosexuality is a negative identity. The reason that it is regarded as negative perhaps lies that it suggests possibility that otherwise heterosexuals are drawn to. Homosexuals become even a marker for immortality in much the same way that black sexuality does for whites. Most importantly to Baldwin, for both the mainstream and the marginalized, the very existence of identity categories in the culture might ruin the prospect of healthy sexual relationships. As a black, gay man, Baldwin does have a particularly vivid awareness of this cultural problem. But, through his efforts, Baldwin adds a new dimension to sex in Negro novel, even if Baldwin's ethics of same-sex embedded in his novels have reversed the ethics of tradition to some extent.

II. DESIRE AND DILEMMA: "LOVE" DENIED

Besides the inharmonious relationship and the denied love in the black family, desire for the same sex is another hinted topic that Baldwin emphasized in his first novel, *Go Tell It on the Mountain*. The abuse and contempt of the hero's stepfather and brother give the teenager a spiritual wound that cannot be healed. However, the mother withstands the pressure of his father and gives her considerable care in every possible way. Psychoanalysis believes that when the man in childhood is lack of an appropriate gender role of father, but he is influenced by the tender mother who has a good image of women, he will not completely identify the self of being a male.

Gabriel, John's stepfather, refuses to love, even accept John although he had once made a promise to Elizabeth to care for her illegitimate son. The phallic imaginary used to convey John's fear and hatred of his father's body is extended to fear of his own and hatred of the heterosexual relationship, which, as it is the product of "hideous nakedness" is itself, hideous: "I heard you, spitting and groaning, and choking – and I *seen* you, riding up and down, and going in and out. I ain't the Devil's son for nothing" (Baldwin, 1968, p.227).

Symbolically emasculated by his stepfather, John is sexually attracted to the three-year older, more virile young boy Elisha for his compensatory affection. Denied by father's love, John manages to find a homosexual surrogate. John's severe Oedipus complex propels him toward homosexuality and his abhorrence of the copulation between the sexes is in sharp contrast with his relationship with Elisha.

In the novel, Baldwin uses the way of an implied narrative to portray John's homosexuality with Elisha, that is, the narrator does not directly or clearly articulate his point of view, but arouses the reader's suspicion by describing the actions and mental state of the roles. For example, in the portrayal of Elisha in John's eye, Baldwin writes that John was distracted by the new teacher, Elisha, and he stared at Elisha almost without blinking all during the lesson, "admiring the timbre of Elisha's voice, much deeper and manlier than his own, admitting the leanness, and grace, and strength, and darkness of Elisha in his Sunday Suit" (Baldwin, 1968, p.13). The almost empathic relationship between the two boys is actually a form of latent homosexuality. Homosexuality is implied here thoroughly in the text but without using the term such as "gay" or "homosexual". Certainly, Baldwin does not put John in the pole of homosexual or heterosexual, but in

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the middle of two vaguely.

There might be several factors that make Baldwin not give us a clear and definite conformation to John and Elisha's homosexual relationship even at the end of the novel. On one hand, as a black writer and former church pastor, Baldwin employs black's suffering experiences of slave history and values of black church as the theme of his first novel. He puts more emphasis on the "racial issues and culture of black religion". On the other hand, due to the strong influence of social conventional values of heterosexual orientation, he does "not dare" to dig and interpret in-depth the issue of homosexuality. This is a product of that particular era, when homosexuality is "not a public topic discussed openly" (Mi, 2012, p.89). In that period, it is not only impossible for such a young boy to clearly recognize this affection, but also lack of the courage for him to admit his inclination publicly.

bell hooks (1993) has once said that "race and sex have always been overlapping discourses in the United States" (p.57-59). To be frank, Rufus is in one way a victim of racism in America in its various forms. The vivid portrayal of Rufus' death by Baldwin as "black corpse floating in the national psyche" is a real charge against the "hostile and malicious conventional social ethics which are based on the rigid racial identity categories in America" (Leeming, 1994, p.201). Rufus' tragedy is actually an example of the result of both the denial of his racial identity and sexual orientation by the traditional social ethics and social bias, which is already roughly mentioned in his relation with Leona in the previous chapter. Baldwin's inquiry into the complexity of sexuality, especially his personal preference for homosexuality as a vehicle for the expression of love, is demonstrated more directly in *Another Country*.

The complicated same-sex romances among Eric, Rufus and Yves, including shy Richard are carefully described in *Another Country*. The relationships, especially the sexual ones of the characters in the novel are extremely chaotic. Much of Rufus' immediate despair derives from his tormented affair with Leona. Vivaldo, Rufus' best friend from Brooklyn, struggling to write a novel, falls in love with Rufus' sister Ida. Richard, Vivaldo's former teacher, and his wife Cass, as we exposed before, are an oddly matched pair.

From the beginning to the end, *Another Country* is filled with prevailing homophobia in New York, which can be seen through Rufus's fear of confronting his sexual orientation and the intolerance of his "abnormal" "deviant" same-sex attractiveness from people around him. By nature, Rufus distrusts all whites he comes in contact with. However, this cannot prevent him from getting along well with white Vivaldo. For the cause of the same experience of coming from poor neighborhoods and living through a difficult adolescence, they have formed a sincere friendship, regardless of the difference of their skin color. Rufus had tried to overpass the barriers between heterosexuality and homosexuality to obtain Vivaldo's love.

Although Vivaldo's friendship with Rufus has a kind of an obvious gay color, yet, facing Rufus' inquiry, Vivaldo has retreated. His refuse to Rufus also made himself be trapped in absolute loneliness (Zhang 2002, p.61). He had often thought of his loneliness as a condition that "testified to his superiority". Vivaldo's own loneliness magnified so many million times that it "made the night air colder" (Baldwin, 1968, p.60).

Compared with the detailed description of the intimate relationship between Rufus and Vivaldo, the relationship between Rufus and Eric is not so laboriously portrayed. We mainly know some of the detailed information from the fragmentary memories, but the mentioning of it does have a very significant connotation. Despite Rufus' prostituting himself to other white men for being destitute and desperate, Eric is the only male figure arranged by Baldwin to have homosexual sexual behavior with Rufus. Although despising and ridiculing Eric for his homosexuality, Rufus believes that Eric loves him. However, Eric's departure for France has left Rufus in a state of great confusion. In the bottom of Rufus' heart, he refuses to accept the fact that Eric and Leona are exceptions although he knows that both of the two do not really have any kind of a racist attitude toward him. Rufus is unable to confront his own homosexuality aroused by Eric. Gounard argues that we "should understand [Rufus'] homosexuality as a deep and intense desire to return to a state of pure innocence which would place him above American's social, racial, and sexual norms" (1992, p.239). Recalling their romance, Eric wonders more than one time if he earned Rufus's hatred just for his own unconsciousness to racism. He ponders if he had ever really once loved Rufus and Rufus' hatred had simply been rage, nostalgia, guilt, or shame. He is not sure whether it was the body of Rufus to which he clung or the bodies of dark men. Because Rufus believes that being homosexuals is to violate the social ethics and norms, his behavior of ridiculing and feminizing Eric is probably one way of achieving his goal to convince himself of his black masculinity, to keep a seemingly safe identity of being social normal, and to seek release from his emotional quandary of the guilt of being homosexual.

III. DISORDER AND DISTORTION: "LOVE" SPOILED

People suffer the torment of love in *Another Country*. They long for and pursue love, but they make fun of love and spoil love. Love is turned into deformation, dislocation and distortion. There are divergence, racial or ideological barriers, and gender confrontations among them. All these are one particular miniature of the inner life and emotional disorder in modern American world. One of the important reasons that even the black people are so uncomfortable about the same-sex eroticism perhaps mainly lies in the root of Black Nationalism. The racial conflicts and discriminations have not substantially changed in American society. The discrimination leads to anger and hatred in their hearts, which makes the normal love twisted.

Black nationalists, with Cleaver as the representative, have a strong sense of the danger and threat of their extinction. This threat can be minimized through the sex that does not invoke interracial or homosexual eroticism, and this is what

is called the “appropriate” sex. Rufus’ relations with Leona, the white girl, and Vivaldo and Eric, the white males, signifying the behavior of both miscegenation and homosexuality, obviously go to the opposite direction of this objective. In the eyes of black nationalists, the method to deal with the threat of extinction is to exist and maintain the existence forever. The necessity of the reproduction of the nation through heterosexual and mono-racial sex is primarily significant to their politics. They deem that interracial sex (Rufus’ relation with Leona) cannot deliver the pure “black” children, and homosexuality (Rufus’ relation with Eric) is never able to reproduce the next generation at all. To them, such kind of sexual acts can never serve the purpose to engender a sexually and racially homogenous nation. In the 1960s, for most black nationalists, homosexuality was perceived as the “white man’s disease,” and consequently black homosexuality was viewed as a form of “racial self-hatred”, as the ultimate sign of black male’s exploitation by and “submission” to white society (Cleaver, 1968, p.97-106). Therefore, together with what we discussed in the previous chapter, one of the reasons of Rufus’ suicide might be that he cannot go on living in loneliness for the lack of “real” understanding love he thought from Leona, and Eric’s love has threatened his independence and his freedom of movement in the society he hates.

As the only black figure in *Another Country*, Rufus seems to be “a failure of the idealized image of black masculinity and a weak, craven-hearted ghost who has been slandered by Baldwin” (Cleaver, 1968, p.106). Seen from the principle of black nationalists, Rufus’s suicide is simply another way of failing to be a black man. Actually, in a world regarding phallic normativity and compulsory heterosexuality as norms, the feminization of men will probably lead to the loss of power and authority.

Baldwin, the black writer, is not a heterosexual either. Therefore, it is fairly reasonable for him to be unable and difficult as well to separate the oppression and discrimination against him for his race from that opposed to him due to the orientation of his sex. Cleaver thinks that Baldwin’s homosexuality, embodied in Rufus, is an “interracial homosexuality and he makes black gay characters lose the value of black masculinity” (Cleaver, 1968, p.108). Meanwhile, in *Another Country*, the denial of one’s sexual orientation and racial identity by the traditional social mainstream ethics — whites particularly — is also evidently demonstrated. As a black, Rufus cannot face his own homosexual affections surrounded by the rigid sexual culture, and he cannot liberate himself from the stigma of white supremacists’ racism in history in New York either. As a matter of fact, the causes like these kinds of constant denials of Rufus’ real self result in the pain of Rufus and foretell his fatal tragedy.

The problem of race has always been complicated by “inhibitions, fears and false conceptions about sex”, and it is therefore necessarily to “conquer the sexual fears and frustrations before one can move into assigning the race problems to its proper role” (Brown, 2010, p.153). The homosexual figures in the novels have the necessity to fight against prejudice and discrimination surrounding them.

Baldwin, with profound sentiment, has depicted the unfulfilled desire for the same sex of John, and the tragic fate of Rufus. Seen from the analysis, most of the male figures in Baldwin’s novel are actually denied by “love”, heterosexually or homosexually. Actually, Baldwin wishes to speak of men’s hopes and their disappointments from the aspect of the sole nature of human being rather than from the angel of heterosexual or homosexual.

IV. FRUSTRATION AND FRUITION: “LOVE” FULFILLED

Baldwin has illustrated homosexuality from the aspects of social ethics and personal experiences, which is different from Freud’s focus on the psychological mechanism on homosexuality. He denies the dichotomy of heterosexual and homosexual, advocating that homosexuality is a personal choice rather than an innate quality. He believes that there is not any kind of release channel of sex which can be considered to be normal, orthodox, typical, or representative.

His viewpoint on homosexuality is the critique of modern capitalist system which despises human eros and damages humanity. He has proposed the idea of the freedom of sexual orientation, verifying the possibility of the establishment of a non-repressive sex civilization. He recognizes the sex anomaly, believing that the basis of such behavior is the release of the repression of human potential and spontaneity.

Eric is the significant character in *Another Country* who himself feels that he “grew up” in Paris. He has homosexual experiences with Rufus, Yves, Cass and Vivaldo respectively. Some critics have argued that Eric represents himself like the almighty Redeemer who heals the wound of every suffering being with the sexual love and settles all the sexual identity confusion of other characters in the novel.

When Eric returns to New York, his sexual affair with Cass seems to restore her to herself by helping her face courageously her marriage in-name-only with Richard, for whom she has no love left. To Vivaldo, Eric’s sexual encounter reconnects him to his fears and allows him to face his feelings toward his intimate friend Rufus.

Baldwin shows to us, that pain, suffering, and removal of safety might enable one person to begin another way of leading life, which is quite different to one’s past type of life style, but it may be a perverted one. That is probably one of the reasons that have caused Vivaldo to love Eric. It is Eric, being regarded as a symbol of love by Baldwin, who has saved the lonely Vivaldo from harassment of social prejudice and made Vivaldo unfold himself to echo Eric’s love boldly. To some extent, Eric’s sexual affair with Vivaldo symbolically enlightens Vivaldo on his long repressed homosexual desire and enables him to have a renewed recognition of himself of confronting the sexual secrets that alter the way of his life.

According to Baldwin’s portrait, Yves and Eric seem to be the only pair of homosexual harboring true love without

being interfered. Evidently, compared with other figures in the novel, Eric is not a victim of New York's suffocating culture and social ethics, at least after he moved to Paris. The relationship between Eric and Yves is ideal and free of the plague of lack of understanding that the other characters are invariably confronted with. In Baldwin's opinion, "the love between Eric and Yves is not being polluted by social attitudes and conventions" (Zhang, 2002, p.181). Therefore, their love is sincere and divine. And they two have lived relaxed and comfortably.

When Baldwin writes about Eric's sexual experience with Yves, he also describes the scenic surroundings of the bedroom. The bedroom also has an entrance on the garden and the mimosas press against the window. There are two or three orange trees beyond these, "holding hard, small oranges, like Christmas balls" (Zhang, 2002, p.195). Through the environment Baldwin created for them, Baldwin seems to try to defend Eric's homosexuality with Yves by depicting the place they live as an idyllic and paradisiacal picture. Their affairs, in its peace, tranquility, and unsulliedness, remind us the Garden of Eden, which are free from the suffocating prejudices of race, class, and sexuality in New York. Baldwin's real purpose might be to express his longing for the kind of freedom that transcends any racial and sexual categorizations or norms.

In order to achieve his goals of racial equality and sexual freedom, Baldwin boldly arranges the characters to be involved in a series of interracial and bisexual eroticism. His face is "a footnote to the twentieth century torment", in precisely the way that great music depends, and on great silence, this masculinity was defined, and made powerful, by "something which was masculine" (Zhang, 2002, p. 330). It was a quality that a great number of people would respond to without knowing to what it was they were responding. That is, Eric's face is neither masculine nor feminine, and it is not even "androgynous". It is unidentified and would only be another limited identity, but it suggests the truth about human nature, and suggests to the other characters in the novel an alternative to live and love.

Talking about being "androgynous", Freud has a say based on the observation of man and woman. He believes that for humans, from sense of psychology or biology, "pure male or female does not exist". On the contrary, everyone shows its sex characteristics as a way of the "mixing with the features of the opposite sex", and the "combination of activeness and passiveness", regardless of whether such characteristics are in line with their "biological characteristics" or not (Freud, 1987, p.79). Anima (femininity) is also hidden in men's psyche and animus (masculinity) is lying in women's psyche as well. However, because western social ethics attach too much importance on the consistency of person's character while discriminating the femininity on man and the masculinity on woman, the archetype of anima and animus is often not fully developed but in a depressed state.

Historically speaking, the development of gay literature and its comments are closely related to its historical and cultural backgrounds, value orientations, and social structures. In ancient Greece and Rome, male homosexuality is a relatively common phenomenon, which is presented mostly in myth and poetry. But in general, it fails to integrate into the mainstream literature. Moreover, it falls in darkness and doldrums in the Middle Ages when gays or free sexes are subject to severe repression. The authorities at that time did not approve of the mention of homosexuality and even banned the homosexual acts. Nevertheless, Homosexuality in this period does not really vanish, but the manner of its performance is even more obscure. From the Renaissance to the 19th century, the gay literary writing and its comments present a phenomenon of "pendulum", that is, sometimes profound and clear, sometimes hesitant and obscure. The pluralism of ideology and the two World Wars lead to the great change of people's ideology. They begin to treat homosexuals in a more scientific and objective attitude. The writing of gay literature and its comments appear a protruding tendency and begin to seep into mainstream of literature (He and Ou, 2011, p.84). Under such circumstance, it is relatively "safer" to explore the topic for Baldwin in that period, which is also echoing Baldwin's interpretations of the cause of homosexuals from the perspective of human nature. Perhaps one of Baldwin's purposes is to avoid emphasizing the racial cause of Rufus' sexual orientation and avoid the misunderstanding of the readers that homosexuality is a black matter. Although the state of bisexuality is also absolutely against the principles of black nationalists who abide the assumption that an individual's sexual identifications should be necessarily stable or singular, yet, compared with the absolute gay or homosexuals, it is safer to tap this topic by portraying them as bisexuals, because their behaviors are almost similar to that of the heterosexuals, which are much easier for people to accept.

Baldwin concludes the novel with the wise maxim that love, equality, and brotherhood are the indices of a just society. According to Baldwin's ethics and norms, the "other country" should be the country where equal protection and equal access would be guaranteed to all the people without regard for one's gender, race, or sexual orientation. And all these good things should be realized in America, which are what Baldwin most desired to see. Furthermore, Baldwin's satisfied ideal is to see a country in which both Americans and African Americans, together with other minorities, whites or non-whites, would have one's own nation's history respectively but they together solve the persistent problem of racial caste and live in harmony.

Baldwin's ideal of hoping to redeem the human mind through love without gender differences has been fully embodied in the relationship of Eric and Yves. He shows his particular high expectations to the homosexuals. In Baldwin's eye, love between the same sex can also be a way out to solve the race conflicts and rescue those people living lonely on the margins of society (Mi, 2012).

In fact, Baldwin's role, in the tumult of the nineteen sixties, is to claim the spirits by preaching love and harmony between blacks and the white Americans. However, if we examine Baldwin's mind closer, we can perceive that, just like what Bone declares that, in the portrait of Eric, Baldwin has desired above all to be "faithful" to his own experience.

Central to his experience is a “rebellion” against the “prevailing sexual” attitude, the same as “racial mores”. Baldwin can neither “falsify nor go beyond it”. But on either plane of experience, Baldwin faces “an emotional dilemma”. It is painful to persist in his rebellion, and it is suffering to give it up. Just like “Satan” and the “fallen angels”, it is “unthinkable to defy them totally, but to reconcile with it is also difficult” (Baldwin, 1968, p.235). It is just this awareness that gives him the strength to rise and achieve a final acceptance of his sexual orientation and play the role of angel to help others who are suffering in the same dilemma with his former self. And the love of Eric himself also gets its fruition with Yves, that is, his homosexual love is fulfilled finally after the frustration though.

The gay literary writing characterizes the collision among the replacement of combination and separation, hope and despair, and puzzlement and expectation. It has explored the essence of human nature and the origin of life. As a black homosexual writer in the 20th century, Baldwin plays a very important “transitional” role to be brave and bold in facing the challenge in the development of the gay literature of the United States (Mi, 2012). Goldstein(1989) has pointed out that “the sexual issues are always closely related to racial issues, and if Americans can be mature enough to deal with racial issues, then they will also be mature enough to cope with the problems of sex” (p.173). Baldwin tries to explore the issue of homosexuality, the problems both whites and blacks are likely to face. He focuses on the society as a whole rather than merely blacks to explore a common social problem—alienation between people, between ethnic minorities and mainstream culture, and between the gay community and the entire moral society. By doing so, the writers can inquire into various problems and puzzles that the human being as a whole have faced in society.

Although the gay literature is often in the state of marginalization, yet, because it stresses ethics of the individual and society and describes the personal experiences and pain for being excluded, its topic about human nature is universal, and it is an inseparable part of American literature. The rise of this narrative form in American literature abandon the previous description of homosexuality as a pathological practice, deconstructs alternative myth of homosexuals depicted by the mainstream society, and negates the opposite and incompatible binary mode of thinking toward heterosexuals and homosexuals. Baldwin makes great efforts to seek a breakthrough in the cracks of the conventional ethics of racial ideology and gay conception. Just like a number of homosexual writers of his times, he manages to persuade the heterosexuals to fix their attentions on the similarities that they shared with the homosexuals.

V. CONCLUSION

Brown (2010) comments Baldwin’s achievement in homosexuality as “for the first time we have the exploration of homosexuality and black emasculation, and not only are they fully treated but a philosophy is worked out around them” (p.133). Baldwin believes that homosexuality, the same as heterosexuality, is not an abnormal but a natural and normal behavior. The sentiment of homosexual is also the real revelation of human nature. He opposes to divide persons into two poles, and he believes that human sexual relations are one unity of heterosexual and homosexual. The essence of his intention is to try to transcend the differences of race and gender, to break the existing duality relations that are generally considered reasonable, to subvert the bottom line that only heterosexual is the orthodoxy, and to rebuild the harmonious sex relations without the differentiation of genders.

Baldwin has promoted the experience and expression of individual desires that were prohibited in both white and black cultural traditions, most notably interracial romance and homoerotic love. In his novels, Baldwin manifests the theme of interracial homosexual issues and defends homosexuality. Therefore, it is inevitable to touch off people’s controversial debate on issues of ethic and morality in his novels. Although his description of sex and homosexuality has its negative and obscene side, yet, he focuses on the individual and the social relationship, describes the experience and personal pain of the “other”, pours forth his unique experience of survival and life, and interprets the objective substance of human sex. He believes that the acceptance of the “forbidden” desires would help to remedy racism – the most extensive, virulent, and destructive manifestation of the denial of desire.

Baldwin’s efforts have promoted the development of the homosexual liberation movement and gay literature, which has special historical significance in leading homosexuals to seek identity. His intentions of writing the real life and the inner world of homosexual are helpful to demonstrate the development and change of the life and ideas of the special group in that generation.

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2. Zhong J. (2011). Six Memos for the Next Millennium —The Analysis of the “anti-theme” Phenomenon in the writing of Calvino. *Translations* 2011.8, 46-55.

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