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Linguistic World Picture: Logoepisteme - domain - linguocultureme

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Abstract—The paper considers the components of language worldview (including literary worldview) in its relationship with the world model and the world image. The constructive role of a word, a domain and a logoepisteme in modeling the world image is revealed. The authors are intended to prove that an integral image of ethnic culture is the basis of the semantic space of language. Another basic idea is that literary worldview consists of two interrelated aspects: 1) the *existential* including sensual about times everyday and (subconscious) substantive work, and 2) *reflexive* (conscious), which includes language and speech meanings.

Index Terms—language worldview / model / world image, logoepisteme, domain, linguocultureme

I. INTRODUCTION.

In linguo-cultural studies, language worldview (WV) is considered to be a base category which helps to reveal the way the universal and individual knowledge is displayed in verbal and cogitative activities. However, WV is rather difficult to study because of its diversity, ambiguity, and vague structure. To solve this problem, it is necessary, first of all, to identify the nature of this phenomenon and the way it is related to allied concepts, to find “working” unit of study. In linguo-philosophy, they distinguish scientific and naïve worldview (WV) (Bartminski, Zinken, 2012). Linguo-cultural studies focus on the latter one. Linguists also define naïve worldview as *world model* and *world image*. However, these terms represent concepts which, although similar, still have differences that cannot be ignored.

II. FROM WORLD MODEL TO THE LANGUAGE WORLDVIEW

In this paper, we state that that world model is a “coordinate grid” by means of which people perceive reality and build up the world image in their minds. Consequently, the image of the world is a secondary category, a derivative formation, projected by the world outlook model. This is not a “grid” and not a scheme, but a full-scale mapping of the objective world in the human mind (Leontiev, 2001). Besides, the word *image* in this context is supposed to have a corporate meaning: an integral unity of interconnected individual (particular) images which displays certain angles of value-semantic perception of the world in ethnic conscious. Thus, the world image is a category of ethnoculture (Hutchins, 1980, p. 143; Wertsch, 1985, p. 273). This means that the world image is determined by the value-semantic matrix of worldview through which ethnicity interprets environment of its existence in the semantic space of a language (Casson, 1981, p. 437; D’Andrade, 1981, p. 179). As a result, previously collectively generated world model becomes filled with personal meanings, shaping not only real, but also “possible worlds”. As V. I. Postovalova points out, “People perceive the world, behold it, learn it, conceptualize it, interpret it, reflect and display it, dwell in it and imagine “possible worlds” (Postovalova, 1988, p. 14). Consequently, the world image originates from our experience in the following aspects: axiological processes of gestalt attitude (visual and spatial perception of the reality), outlook, orientation, worldview, and conception. World image is formed by the integration of the various traces of human interaction with objective reality. As A.A. Leontiev concludes, “the world image comprises both the direct, or situational, reflection of reality and the conscious (reflexive) one” (2001, pp. 260-271). It is very important to consider this feature when we are displaying a world image in the literary texts, where a literary WV is created through individual images of the characters’ reality. Literary WV should not be identified with the world image of the individual. The latter is, according to A.A. Zalevskaya, “simultaneous, holographic and multifaceted”, is operating at different levels of conscious and always comprises both “knowledge” and “experience”. For this reason, it is “not completely amenable to verbal description”. (Zalevskaya, 2001, p. 43). Thus, in cognitive linguo-poetics it is important to use discourse analysis to understand those aspects of WV which are impossible to explicit verbally. (Rosch, 1975; Paivio, 1986). Having this in mind, we can conclude that “literary worldview” is a broader concept than “world image”. On the other hand, the *world image* is a broader than the common notions of the world related to the cognitive experience, reflection and emotions of an individual. World image develops throughout our life, in the course of their age-long relations with the nature and society. The result of those relations is a system of images through which not only the world is recognized, but also the nature of ethical values, including the estimation of events described in a literary text. Thus, we can assume that different subjects

of communication possess the equal world model as a “coordinate grid”, but literary WV created by them may differ significantly from its model. This might result from the fact that one and the same world model is influenced by different discursive factors of a communicative, cognitive, pragmatic and sociocultural nature.

So, the world model is a scheme which is filled by images of reality displayed in the minds. The result is a variety of personal and ethnosocial images of reality (Child, 1968, p. 82). Their structured aggregate forms an invariant world image. When interpreted in a particular communicative situation, it becomes a literary WV.

From the perspective of cognitive linguo-poetics, the core (the invariant) of a “world image” is formed by linguistic meanings, common to the whole ethno-cultural community. The semantic space of our native language is based on a complete image of ethnic culture. It consists of two interconnected layers: 1) an *existential* one, involving sensual images and ordinary substantive activity, which is undertaken, as a rule, unconsciously and 2) a *reflexive* one (see Zinchenko, 1991), which is conscious, because it includes the meaning and sense of linguistic characters which serve as names for cognizable objects and phenomena.

The idea of the world model, the description of WV and the reflection of world image are formed by the information which is fixed in the collective consciousness and objectified in language. This structured knowledge of the world, fixed by nominative, grammatical and other functional means of language, forms the so-called linguistic WV, which is regarded as special derivation participating in learning the world. It sets interpretation samples of perceiving text in dynamic retrospect. Regarding the linguistic WV as diachronic category opens up new perspectives in understanding ethno-cultural specificity of words by relating it to the concept in general and the literary concept in particular.

III. WORD, DOMAIN AND LOGOEPISTEME

The scope of the notion “domain” is determined by its correlation with the terms “linguocultureme”, “mythologeme” and “logoepisteme”. However, to define its semantics does not mean to reveal its nature. On the contrary, the confusion the domain with its related phenomena can create jumble of terms. Identifying domain with the word, or rather with its meaning, which is recently observed, does not seem correct too. It should be noted that, that it’s the ontological properties of the domain that give the reason for this confusion. The semantic content of a domain is close to the semantics of words in two aspects: a) as protosemantic idea and b) as a derivative of the lexical-semantic implicational. In the second aspect, the domain comprises both the lexicographical and encyclopedic information carried by a word. Semantic content of the domain integrates the denotation and connotation, the “nearest” and “further” meanings of a word, knowledge about the world and a person who is the learning the world. A.A. Zalevskaya defines the domain as a perceptual, cognitive and affective forming of dynamic nature which objectively exists in the human mind, unlike the notions and meanings which are products of scientific description (the constructs) (Zalevskaya, 2001, p. 39).

Terminological definition of the word *domain* could eliminate the current confusion in its use and, thus, solve some problems linguo-cognitive science is presently facing. One of the first steps in this direction could be a distinction between the domain and logoepisteme. While the domain is alongside with such phenomena as the meaning, sense, notion, noeme and idea, the logoepisteme primarily continues the semantic projection of an episteme.

The syncretic nature of logoepisteme (Foucault, 1985) is encoded in its etymology: Greek. *logos* ‘word’, speech + *episteme* ‘knowledge’. However, this is not a simple conjunction of the two concepts. Comprising a spiritual content and a language form of its objectification, logoepisteme reflects the folk mentality. Mentality, according to V.V. Kolesov, is the outlook represented by means of the categories and forms of one’s native language, which combine typical intellectual, spiritual and volitional aspects of the national character during the process of cognition (Kolesov, 2004). Seen this way, the logoepisteme is such an ideal construction, which acts simultaneously as the fragment and the mode of the soul of both the individual and the community in general, or, as Wilhelm von Humboldt put it, a way of expressing “national spirit”. Being an element of cognitive basis of Homo Loquens, logoepistememes have a wide associative potential that promotes the formation of expressive and emotive speech. So, it is easy to notice the similar features between the concept and the logoepisteme. However, the latter one differs from the former because it harmoniously combines the universal, which originates from ideas, and the ethnocultural, that roots from the national language. This is the essence of informational and energy understanding of “national spirit”, in contrast to its rationalistic interpretation.

Ethnocultural specificity of a logoepisteme develops from three main components: (a) cognitive component, which encodes and represents the knowledge from different areas of our axiological and semantic space; (b) the pragmatic component, which determines the ethno-cultural specificity of communication; (c) the motivation component, resulting from the understanding of personal involvement in associative-shaped primary source of verbalized ideas. Thus, we can say that a logoepisteme determines a subconscious feeling of man’s spiritual kinship with his native ethnic culture. To understand logoepistemic model of culture means to understand the way the values and language of a community are formed. It should be noted that initially, E.M. Vereshchagin and V.G. Kostomarov posed the term *logoepisteme* as a unit of culture-through-language studies (Vereshchagin, Kostomarov, 2005) to describe the methods of representation of specific knowledge about the reality in the national language. Such a linguo-cognitive content is primarily enclosed in the term that represents this concept: “logoepisteme is a linguistic expression of the trace of reality reflection which is enshrined by socio-cultural memory in the minds of the language speakers as a result of understanding (or creating) their cultural values of national and world cultures” (Kostomarov Burvikova, 2002). We must say, this role was prescribed to other phenomena, too: a linguocultureme (V.V. Vorobyov), a linguo-cultural universal (V.M. Shaklein) a

national socio-cultural stereotype (Y.E. Prokhorov), a domain (Y.S. Stepanov), a linguo-cultural domain (V.I. Karasik and G.G. Slyshkin). In our opinion, we should exclude linguo-cultural universal and national socio-cultural stereotype out of this logoepistemic series. The point is that the logoepisteme (not as a universal stereotype, but as a socio-cultural one) is not always verbally expressed (Bragina, 2009). So it can be the episteme, but not the logoepisteme. There are also some differences between the other terms. However, these differences are often based on different grounds: logoepisteme is an element of the word meaning; linguocultureme (as interlevel unit) is not localized in a word; the domain is an operational meaningful memory unit; socio-cultural stereotypes determine the nature of linguistic connotations and serve, metaphorically saying, as the oldest semiotic skeleton of human existence.

Trying to find the properties signs that bring together domains and socio-cultural stereotypes, V.I. Karasik, G.G. Slyshkin suggest the term *linguo-cultural domain* and emphasize the verbalized and culture-bearing nature of its semantic content. Linguists see specific features of the linguo-cultural domain in its mental nature, because it is located in the collective or individual mind (Karasik, Slyshkin 2003, p. 76; cp.: Langacker, 1991). In general, we share this view, but it is true for logoepisteme as well, because it is also an element of mentality. We suppose that the point is not in the mental nature of linguo-cultural domain, but in the appropriateness of the detachment of its generic term “domain” at all.

Emphasizing the term “linguo-cultural” domain is also supported, oddly enough, by S.G. Vorkachev. The strangeness of this position is that the author himself states that any “domain is a culturally marked verbalized meaning, which is presented in terms of a number of its linguistic implementations, forming the corresponding lexical-semantic paradigm” (Vorkachev, 2002; emphasis – N. A.). So, it is not only the linguo-cultural domain that is “culturally marked” and “verbalized”.

Of course, the very desire to narrow the search of the essential properties of this term can only be welcomed, since, unfortunately, it has already turned into a “terminological phantom”. Y.E. Prokhorov in his book “In Search of the domain” (Flinta, 2001) tries to get to the bottom of the existing terminological and conceptual confusion. Numerous definitions of the domain given in this book prove that the term “domain” refers to quite different phenomena. Unfortunately, too “free” use of the term leads to a kind of “devaluation” of the underlying notion.

Still, despite the variety of definitions referring to the term “domain”, researchers agree that the domain is a conditional mental structure. It has purely cognitive status and doesn’t exist beyond human mind. The complexity of the domain is “determined by the two-way communication between language and consciousness, because the categories of consciousness are implemented in the language categories and are determined by them at the same time” (Vardzelashvili, 2004, p. 39). Rightly stressing that culture determines the domain, the author believes that the relationship between language and culture is more complicated than it seems at first glance. After all, the language is both a part of the culture and its external factor. Doubtless, the domain is actualized by language units. However, the assertion that a “concept-thought, being designated with a word becomes a domain”, seems somehow simplistic without further clarification. This feeling is further enhanced by the following statement: “from the standpoint of cognitive linguistics, according to the author, it is proved that the use of the term *notion* in its traditional sense does not meet the requirements of the current stage in the linguistics” (Vardzelashvili, 2004, p. 40). The author argues that it is time to replace the term *notion* with the term *domain*, which “corresponds to the representation of those values, images, ethno-specificities which a person is founded on and which he operates in the process of thinking” (Vardzelashvili, 2004, p. 41). Further, it is concluded that it is the concept that “captures the essence of the epistemological process and human functioning” (ibid.). But what is wrong with the term *notion*? As we believe, it has its own niche in the structure of human thinking, and this niche was determined in the Middle Ages. The domain is more than just a notion which is only “approximate to the domain, the presentation of a domain in one of its substantial forms” (Kolesov, 2004). The same idea is emphasized by Y.S. Stepanov, who perceived the notion as one of the incarnations of the domain. Apart from the notion, there are such forms of the domain existence as feelings, images and experiences of a subject who is thinking and perceiving the world. These non-notional incarnations of domains clearly explain the nature of “fuzzy” definitions of the domain. Although they lack the terminological certainty, they are still quite capable of grasping their cognitive essence. Indeed, the domain is a mental formation, a cognitive mental structure, the clot of meaning, etc. Cp.: **1.** Domain is a mental entity which replaces “undefined set of items of the same kind” (Askoldov, 1997, p. 269). We can agree with it: domain is indeed a multiplicity, but not any multiplicity is a domain. **2.** Domain is a cognitive psychic structure, arranged to provide the capability of reflecting the reality in the unity of aspects (Kholodnaya, 2002, p. 23). We do not think that reflection of the objects of reality in the unity of affine aspects is the prerogative of the concept. **3.** Domains are “the meanings that constitute basic cognitive subsystems of opinions and knowledge” (Pavilenis, 1983, p. 241). But this definition is true for logoepistemes as well. **4.** Domains are the units of thinking which are characterized by separate integrity of the content and do not really dissolve into smaller thought (Chesnokov, 1967, p. 173). To what extent is that assertion true nowadays? We have no doubt that since the domains have semantic content, their components are elementary meanings included in the content of the domain. With this terminological ambiguity the multi-featured essence of the domain reminds elusive firebird from a famous Russian fairy tale.

IV. DOMAIN: BETWEEN IMAGE AND NOTION

When it is difficult to determine the nature of the phenomenon, human brain usually tries to use its hidden metaphorical resources. Modern researchers express associative-shaped “genetics” of a domain with very vivid metaphors like

gene or *clot of culture* (Y.S. Stepanov), “multilateral clot of sense” (S.H. Lyapin), “a kind of meaning potency” (D.S. Likhachev). Deep metaphors, no doubt! But they are forgotten when some researchers try to refer to domains those phenomena which were traditionally considered as concepts, categories or images. Besides, this kind of metaphorical characteristics could be as well applied to logoevisteme. Obviously, in this case it is advisable to involve the arguments which fall into the category of anthropological linguistics and shed some light on the interrelation between the *domain* and *linguistic identity*, *domain* and *language*. After all, according to T.B. Radbil, “domain is what I see in my mind (*being a linguistic identity – N.A.*) when the words are spoken, sometimes even unconsciously to myself, and what has value to me, and what has sense for me, although sometimes I do not know exactly what kind of sense” (Radbil, 2010, pp. 206-207; see also: Wierzbicka, 1985). Indeed, an object or a phenomenon which cannot cause the *experience*, cannot give rise to the domain. No one would ever call the back of a seat or a chair leg a domain. It’s the objects of knowledge which serve as a source of axiological and semantic perception (like *a spring*, *a heart*, *a hearth*) that are conceptualized. Each of these domains can become a source of implicit connotation of the word due to their association-shaped energy. For example, the domain “Spring” involves a fairly wide range of axiological and associative-shaped experiences. It is only natural that the springs, which were worshiped by pagans for many centuries, gave birth to the literary domains of Mikhail Lermontov (*in my soul... there is an unknown and virgin spring, // Full of simple and sweet sounds*), Ivan Bunin (*In the forest there is a mountain spring, lively and ringing*), Igor Severyanin (*A spring, full-flowing, full-sonorous, // My mother, my natural spring, // Again to you (you cannot bore me!) // I clung insatiably*).

The direct meaning of the word *spring* – ‘water source, bubbling, flowing out of the depth of the earth’ - usually raises the domains of moral purity and filial devotion. Modern perception of this domain is presented in the songs of Oleg Gazmanov: *Springs, oh my springs, // I’ll go back to you, wherever I would be // And will drink your holy water // Right in the heart of Russia*.

In speech, figurative and sensitive components of this domain actualize the allegoric meaning represented by the word “spring”: *spring* is ‘what is the source of anything, where anything originates from’: *love spring*, *spring of soul*, *spring of grace*, *spring of goodness and light*, *springs of poetry*, *springs of wisdom*, *springs of inspiration*, etc. Such a rich semantics of the domain is determined by its multilayer structure. The most important are the three layers empathized by Y.S. Stepanov (1997, p. 47): 1) a basic, actual property; 2) an “extinct” property, which became irrelevant, historical for our consciousness, and 3) an etymological property which is not usually realized and which serves as blurred internal form of the domain. A special linguo-poetic role is played by the actual and etymological layers, which generate a certain context associative-shaped halo of words. For example, discursive associations in the song of V.S. Vysotsky: *My springs of silver, my gold placer!* Within the ethnocultural subconscious of the poet the springs as treasures of the soul correspond to Slavic symbols of Family and ancient archetype: silver as a symbol of the moon and gold as a symbol of the sun. Archetypes and symbols are the main sources of culture-bearing meanings of literary texts in cognitive linguo-poetics.

In contrast to the domain that expresses a certain idea (see Alefirenko, 2011, p. 116), an embryo of thought, the “grain of primary meaning” (V.V. Kolesov), logoevisteme carries already “matured” semantic content, information and knowledge. Often this knowledge takes the shape of a statement: “Everything had got all mixed up at the Oblonskys”, “Battle of Kulikovo”, “Ilya Muromets”. Moreover, the whole contexts of Russian culture stand behind such statements; therefore the logoevistemes can be understood as systems of cultural meanings expressed in semiotic and symbolic form. Thus, we can say that logoevistemics is a “fundamental culture code” that identifies specific forms of associative and imaginative perception of reality, the originality of their textual representation. Finally, the system of logoevistemes serves as the indicator of literary thinking style in the author’s linguistic WV.

V. CONCLUSION

Unlike the word linguocultureme has a more complex significatum: its content splits up into the linguistic meaning and cultural sense. Mythologeme refers to stable and repetitive constructs of national perception of the world, generally reflecting the reality in the form of material and concrete personifications which were conceived as quite real by archaic consciousness. (E.g.: mythologeme World Tree, mythologeme Flood etc.) Logoevisteme is a set of cultural meanings which are expressed in the semiotic and symbolic form; domain is a common, naive notion, an “embryo” of the divine Logos and the archetype of thought. Finally, considering this correlation between basic categories of linguistics, we define the literary WV as the axiological and semantic space, which displays the sphere of domains of culture-bearing text as a product of discursive human activity. Therefore, the WV should concern the cultural linguistics only in its verbally presented aspect, i.e. as linguistic WV. For this reason, it is important to keep an interdisciplinary balance of harmonious understanding of cognitive and cultural ingredients of linguistic WV within the linguo-cultural study: on the one hand, to refer to the fundamental possibility of verbalization of any result of comprehension of reality, and on the other hand, to take into account author’s variations of ethnic and cultural stereotypes of consciousness represented in the literary text.

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A Preliminary Investigation into Some Aspects of Time Reference in Tshivenda

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Abstract—When one wakes up in the early morning of the day, one is struck by all activities performed which, are controlled by time. Every task that one performs, one takes time into cognizance. When one stands on the pavement of the road, one is struck by jostling people going up and down the streets in a haste. Some are running while others are walking leisurely. When one enquires why some are running like that while others are walking slowly, the response that one gets is: "time is running out". Sometimes employees observe time while other employees do not observe it. Both parties (the employees and employers) are not satisfied with how each manages time. This practice of not observing time compelled the researcher to attempt to explore the various ways in which time is expressed in Tshivenda. Having explored different ways of expressing time would assist people to consider the importance of time in their everyday activities. The paper investigates the extents of analysing various word categories with properties of expressing time in Tshivenda.

Index Terms—preliminary, investigation, some aspects, time, reference, Tshivenda

I. INTRODUCTION

Many scholars of linguistics have defined 'time' differently. The Americans define time in terms of money; time utilisation as an organising and control system. In addition, time is seen in terms of urgency. The Collins Pocket Reference Thesaurus in A-Z Form Dictionary (1998) defines 'time' as:

Age, chronology, date, duration, epoch, era, generation, hour, interval, period, season, space, span, spell, stretch, term and while.

From the preceding definition, 'time' is not a specific indicator. The explanation goes further to show that Kirkpatrick (1998) refers 'time' to mean instance, function, occasion, point, stage or allocated space, day, duration, life, lifespan, life time and seasons. Kirkpatrick (1998) argues that:

'Time' may also be considered in reference to day, hour, and peak. Sometimes 'time' may be considered in specialized context, for example, music beat, measure, metre, rhythm and tempo. 'time' may be used in several ways to mean all the time, 'always', 'at all times', 'constantly', 'continually', 'continuously', 'ever', for the duration and 'perpetually throughout'.

Klein (1994) on the other hand asserts that there is no apparent uniform concept of time. In modern cultures metrical calendar times plays an important role, so important that we are inclined to take it as self-evident our life is largely organized around this time. The basic time concept is most often expressed by grammatical categories and by simple adverbs. Greenberg (1978) indicates that, in order to refer to time or perhaps more properly a sequence of events or state in natural language, one or more points or reference are required, that is, the moment of speech (that is point or span of time in which the speaker produces an utterance, the relative time that is any point or span of time occurs before, after or contemporaneously with the moment of speech) and function as a surrogate moment of speech which serves as the basis for predications involving time relative itself. According to Posthumus (1990)'s assertion:

Time does not provide any landmarks in terms of which situation can be located. It is necessary to establish some arbitrary reference point, which reference to which situation in time can be located or to express time in terms of conventionalized time units. The basic units of time reckoning and measuring are the prominent cycle or day and night lunar, months, seasons and years. Such units can be used as measure relative to some fixed point or reference or they can be used calendrically to locate events in relation to some origin or some part of that natural cycle.

Time is also referred to as a clock control, measure, for regulate, schedule or set. Sometimes 'timeless' is used to mean, 'abiding, ageless, ceaseless, changeless, deathless, endless, enduring, external, everlasting, immoral immutable, imperishable, indestructible, lasting, permanent, persistent, undying. 'Time' on the other hand refers to appropriate, at the right time, convenient, judicious, opportune, prompt, propitious, punctual, reasonable, suitable, and well timed. Posthumus (1990) concluded by saying that 'time can be anchored to some important events such as our year measure which is calculated in relation to the birth of Christ'. From the above explanation of what time is, one realises that there are different ways and different word categories of expressing time in a language. It is the aim of this research article to explore different ways of expressing time when using different word categories such as verbs, nouns, adjective, and prepositions, etc.

II. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

The research will be accomplished by analysing word categories from published and unpublished works to find out those word categories which refer to time. This will be verified by consulting speakers of the language to ascertain whether the word categories really refer to different times in Tshivenda.

III. TIME REFERENCE IN TSHIVENDA

In this section, an investigation of different categories with properties of expressing time in Tshivenda will be carried out to find out how different times are expressed in Tshivenda.

a. Time of the watch

Watch is an instrument or small clock to be worn or carried, at which, one keeps on looking to find out how time is recorded. The time shown on the watch is related to the position of the sun. The time shown in the watch is divided as follows; a second is a length of time equal to 1 out of 60 parts of a minute: Therefore one may state in Tshivenda a time in seconds.

i. Second time

(*Ho sala mithethe miḽ anu uri mbekanyamushushumo kha TVI swike magumoni*).

There are five seconds left for the TV programme to come to an end

In the preceding example *mithethe* 'seconds' are used to express the length of time equal to one out of sixty parts of a minute.

ii. Minute time

A minute is one of the 60th parts into which an hour is divided into small particles.

(*Ndi ḽo vhuya nga minethe dza fumi u bva kha awara /iri ya malo*)

I will come back at 10 minutes past 8'0 clock (08h10)

The preceding example expresses the exact time that the speaker would come back. He/She says this after he/she had looked at his/her watch. The time referred to is the exact time on the dot.

iii. Hour time

There are twenty-four (24) hours in a day.

(*Ro swika nga awara /iri ya rathi*)

We arrived at 6'o'clock (18h00)

In the preceding example, the exact time of arrival is shown by *awara / Iri ya rathi*. This shows specific time of the watch at which the person had arrived

b. Periods of the day

Sometimes time is expressed by using periods of the day. There are 24 hours in a day.

matsheloni: (*Ndo swika nga matsheloni*)

I arrived in the morning

Masiari: (*Ndo ḽa nga masiari*)

I came during the day/I came in the afternoon

Tshiswiḽ ulo: (*Ndo swika nga tshiswiḽ ulo*)

I arrive at lunch time

Mathabama /tshitheu: (*Ndo swika nga mathabama /tshitheu*)

I arrived in the afternoon

ḽamusi: (*Ndo mu vhona ḽamusi*)

I saw him/her today

In the preceding examples, the words *tshitheu* and *ḽuvha* are used to express time in Tshivenda. The same is true with the day, weeks, months, seasons and years. In Tshivenda a time may be expressed in terms of days, weeks, months, seasons, years and events such as follows:

ḽuvha: (*Mushumo wo fhedza ḽuvha ḽ oḽ he u fhela*)

The work took one day to finish

Vhege: (*Ndo fhedza vhege mbili ha hawe*)

I spent two weeks at his/her place

ḽwedzi: (*O fhedza ḽwedzi woḽ he ha hashu*)

He/she spent the whole month at my place

(*O ḽa ha hashu nga Nyendavhusiku*)

He/she came to our place in December

Khalaḽ waha: (*Tshikolo tshi vha tsho vala Vhuria*)

The school is closed during winter season

Mahoḽ a: (*ḽwana o ḽa mahoḽ a*)

The child came last year

ḽwaha: (*Ndo swika ḽwaha wo fhelaho*)

I arrived last year

ḽaḽ waha: (*Ndo pfuluthela fhano ḽaḽ waha*)

I relocated here this year

c. Incidents used in expressing time

Incidents that occurred in Tshivendǀa history or culture may be used in the expression of time.

(*O bebwa nga n̄waha wa nzie tshikume*)

He/she born in the year 1923

(*O bebwa nga n̄waha wa nndwa ya u thoma ya / ifhasi*)

He/She was born during the First World War (1914-1918)

d. Prepositions denoting exact time

Prepositions may be used preceding words denoting time. When used in this context, the preposition would denote exact time.

(*Mashudu o swika nga iri ya rathi*)

Mashudu arrived at exactly 6'o clock

Sometimes when the preposition *nga* is used preceding words, they sometimes denote time. It will have the property of denoting unspecified time.

(*O swika nga vhuya*)

He/She has arrived later

In the preceding example the preposition *nag* precedes *hula* which, means that they arrived at a later time, somewhere in the region unspecified. In the example for instance, it is clear that the time is not specified. It is taken as the time later than the exact time. It means that the time could be some minutes later or hours later. When used in this context time in question is not specific.

(*Watshi i tshi swika kha iri ya vhuraru ni mmbudze*)

When the watch strike 3'o clock, you should tell me.

In the preceding sentences, the preposition *nga* and *kha* precede words that denote time respectively. The time referred to above such as 6'o clock and 3'o clock are exact. There is no doubt that the prepositions *nga* and *kha* denote time in Tshivendǀa when preceding words that denote time.

e. Unspecific time reference

This is a manner in which time is not referred to, exactly. We are not speaking of an exact time. There are categories of words in Tshivendǀa that may be used to express time that is not specific. Some of the categories with these properties in Tshivendǀa are as follows:

i. Nouns with properties of expressing time

Crystal (1991) defines a noun as:

A term used in the grammatical classification of words, traditional; defined as the name of a person, place or thing.

Richards, et al (1991) on the other hand defines a noun as a word which can occur as the subject or object of a verb or the object and complement of a preposition. It can be modified by an adjective. It can be used with determiners (*in English*). Nouns typically refers to people, animals, places, things or abstractions. The second definition concentrates on the position in which a noun can be used syntactically in a sentence. Nouns can be used to express time in Tshivendǀa.

(*Vhana vho swika Venǀa madekwe /vhusiku / tshithew/ mathabama nga bisi*)

The children arrived in Venǀa a last night/in the night/afternoon/by bus

(*Mudededzi u ǀo ǀa matshelo /nga maǀ avhelo/ Maǀ ambanǀou / lufhimavhaeni / tshiswiǀ ulo / tshilalelo*)

The teacher will come tomorrow/in the morning/--/in the evening/ at midday, at supper

U / a zwiǀ iwa n̄amusi

He/She eats food today

(*Ndo mu vhona mulovha / mbamulovha / mbamatshelo*)

I saw him/her yesterday/day before yesterday/day after tomorrow

In the preceding examples, the words *madekwe* 'last night', *matshelo* 'tomorrow', *n̄amusi* 'today' and *mulovha* 'yesterday' are nouns of class 5/6. When used in the context they refer to times of the day. One can say that nouns can be used to indicate or show different periods in the day.

ii. Demonstrative pronouns denoting time

Poulos (1990) defines demonstrative pronouns in terms of functions. The demonstrative has two basic functions. In the first instance, it may be used in the discourse to indicate the actual position in which some or the referent occupies.....The function is commonly referred to as the 'deictic' function of the demonstrative. The second function of the demonstrative pronoun, according to Poulos (1990) is that "it may be used to refer back to the antecedent". The demonstrator pronoun refers to the distance away from the speaker. In Tshivendǀa, there are other function of a demonstrative. It may refer to time and not referring to positions away from the speaker as it is traditionally known.

{*Vhana vho vhuya zwino tshikoloni (zwino < zwenezwino)*}

Children came back now

(*Ndi ǀo vha dalela zwino /zwenezwino /zwenezwiǀ a*)

I will visit you now/immediately/then

The word *zwenezwino* 'soon' is a demonstrative pronoun. The word *zwenezwino* is a demonstrative pronoun. In the preceding example *zwi-* is identified with the concordial agreement of Class 8 and prefix *zwi-*. The concordial element is

followed by the second syllable in each case consisting of the suffix-no. Instead of the demonstrative pronoun referring to position, it is demonstrative pronoun expressing time i.e. *wino* 'now' and *zwenezwino* 'soon'.

f. Conjunction expressing time

Conjunction is a word that links words, phrases and sentences to one another. According to Crystal (1991), a conjunction is a term used in grammatical classification of words to refer to an item or a process whose primary function is to connect words or other constructions. The conventional sub-classification of these 'connective' items distinguishes coordinating conjunction and subordinating conjunctions. In addition, the function of the connecting words or other construction is that of expressing time.

(*Munna o swika musu vho eḑela*)

The man had arrived when /while they were asleep

(*Nwana u ḑo swika zwenezwino vho eḑela*)

The child will arrive while/at that time they were asleep

In sentences above the words *musu* 'when' and *zwenezwino* 'that time' has been used as conjunctions connecting two sentences *Munna o swika*. 'The man had arrived' and *Vho eḑela* 'They were asleep', *Nwana u ḑo swika* 'The child will arrive' and *Vho eḑela* 'they slept' respectively. In addition of these words connecting parts of a sentence, and a phrase in a language, they also express time.

g. Auxiliary verbs expressing time

Ziervogel, *et al* (1972) defines an auxiliary verb as a predicate which is seldom used by itself. It must be followed by the main verb or in a number of cases by a noun as its complement. On the other hand, Crystal (1991) asserts that an auxiliary verb is a term used in the grammatical classification of words to refer to the set of verbs, subordinate to the main lexical verb, which helps to make distinctions in mood, aspect, voice, etc. In the preceding definition nothing specific has been said about an auxiliary's function of denoting time. In Tshivenḑa, an auxiliary verb may have the properties of denoting time as here below:

(*U ḑ wa o dzula fhasi*)

He/She spends his/her time sitting down/He/She is always seated

(*Ndi ḑo ḑ uwa ndi tshi ni rwa*)

I will beat you soon

(*Ndo dzula ndi tshi zwi ḑivha*)

I always knew about it

In the preceding examples, the words *ḑ wa* 'spend/always', *ḑ uwa* 'go' and *dzula* 'sit, stay' are auxiliary verbs. They help the main verbs such as *dzula* 'sit/stay', *rwa* 'beat' and *ḑivha* 'know' in the above sentences respectively. When used in the preceding contexts, the meaning expressed by the auxiliary verbs would refer to the time although auxiliary verbs are traditionally known as helping verbs. The time expressed at this instance means 'always' referring to a thing that will take place respectively.

h. Adverbs expressing time

An adverb (ial) is one of the word categories in Tshivenḑa. Crystal (1991) defines an adverb as a term used in the grammatical classification of words to refer to heterogeneous group of items whose most frequent function is to specify the mode of action of a verb. The preceding definition refers to the function of an adverb in a sentence excluding the properties of expressing time. In Tshivenḑa, an adverb maybe used to express time as here below:

(*Mufumakadzo o ḑa kavhili tshikoloni*)

The woman came twice at school

(*Munna uyu o ḑa kanzhi hayani*)

This man came several times/many times to our home

In the above examples, the adverb *kavhili* 'twice' and *kanzhi* 'several times/many times' indicate that the action of 'coming' took place twice whereas the action of 'eating' took place several times or many times. The actions refer to time because the activity is controlled by the time and hence the adverb could be used to express time in Tshivenḑa.

i. Infinitival locative of time

Some locatives are formed by suffixing *-ni* to a noun to form a locative. There are locatives derived by affixing the Tshivenḑa suffix *-ni* to an infinitive clause to indicate to locative noun. According to Crystal (1991, p176), an infinitive or infinitival is defined as a traditional term for the non-finite form of the verb usually cited as its unmarked or base form. In Tshivenḑa, the infinitive is derived from Class 15 prefix-followed by any verb, e.g.

(*U tshimbila*)

Walking/to walk

When the above infinitive is used to derive a locative by affixing suffix *-ni* at the verb stem, it becomes:

(*U swika + -ni > U swikani*)

During arrival/On arrival

(*U vhuya + -in > U vyhuyani*)

During coming back/On coming back

In the preceding two sentences above, the infinitival locatives could be used as:

(*Ndo mu vhone u swikani hawe*)

I saw him /her on/during his/her arrival
 (*Ndo / a zwi/ iwa u vhuyani havho tshikoloni*)
 I ate food during/on their coming back from school

In Tshivenḑ a, the above infinitival locatives may be used to express time like in the above sentences. The clause *U swikani* refers to ‘during /on the time of arrival whereas the clause *U vhuyani* means ‘during /on the time of his/her coming back’. In both instances, the infinitival locatives show that the action took place during specified times and have been indicated.

j. Idiophone expressing time

The Idiophone is one of the word categories in Tshivenḑ a. According to Crystal (1991) an idiophone is a term used by some linguists to refer to a speech sound identifiable with reference to a single idiolect. The preceding definition does not refer to time but it says much about speech sounds. In Tshivenḑ a, the idiophone has the property of expressing time as in the following examples:

(*O rema muri e ri khe! /Ni ri ḥo zwino!*)
 He/She chopped a tree with a bang/Be quite now!
 (*O wa fhasi e bi!*)
 He/She fell down with a thud
 (*O ri taku, a ḑ uwa*)
 He/She immediately stood up and goes

In the preceding examples, the idiophones *khe!* ‘chopping noise’ *bi!* ‘fall with a thud’ and *taku!* ‘Stand up immediately’ has the properties of expressing time in Tshivenḑ a respectively. The idiophone imply that the action *bi/khe!* and *taku!* Meaning that something is happened immediately.

k. Interjections denoting time

An interjection is defined by Crystal (1991) as a term used in the traditional classification of parts of speech referring to a class of words which are unproductive, do not enter into syntactic relationships with other classes and whose function is purely emotive. This implies that the term may refer to emotion .This term has the function similar to an idiophone as shown above. When used in Tshivenḑ a, the interjections may indirectly reflect the length of the time that the action is taking place .The length of time employed in saying an interjection brings about different shades of meaning.

(*E! Ni khou rwa ḥwana?*)
 Surprise interjection! Are you beating the child?
 (*Ee, ndi khou zwi pfa*)
 Slowly Yes, I understand/hear it
 (*A! No rwa ḥwana?*)
 Surprise interjection! Have you beaten the child?
 (*Aa! Hu ita hani?*)
 Greeting interjection! How are you?

In the preceding instances, the interjections in the above sentences are uttered very fast, not drawn out. In the second and fourth sentences, the interjection take a long length of time to pronounce expressing time of confirmation and that of greeting showing friendly responses.

l. Copulative expressing time

Sometimes the copulative verb may be found expressing time in Tshivenḑ a, whereas Crystal (1991) defines a copulative as a term in grammatical description to refer to a linking verb, i.e. a verb which has little independent meaning, and whose main function is to relate other elements of clause, especially subject and complement. In Tshivenḑ a, the preceding term may refer to time, e.g.

(*Mbudzi i tshee tshitumbani*)
 The goat is still in the goat pen

When used in this context, the copulative verb *tshee* refers that the goat is still in the goat pen. The copulative verb *tshee* ‘is still’ has the properties of relating to the time.

IV. MOODS EXPRESSING TIME

Crystal (1991) defines mood as a term used in the theoretical and descriptive study of sentence clause type and especially of verbs they contain. The preceding definition does not relate moods with time. Although there is no relation between moods and time, there are instances in Tshivenḑ a where moods denote or express time .The following moods will be investigated.

a. Participial (Participle) mood denoting time

Crystal (1991) defines participial/participle mood as a traditional grammatical term referring to a word derived from a verb and used as adjective. The preceding definition does not refer to time but in Tshivenḑ a, the participial/participle mood may express time although it can also express three tenses, i.e. present tense, past tense and future tenses. This mood is visible with the participle formative *tshi* which comes between the subject or object concord/agreement and the

verb in Tshivendǀa. This *tshi* should not be confused with the class 7 prefix *tshi-*, subject concord and objective concord/agreement *tshi* in Tshivendǀa:

(*Ndo wana n̄wana a tshi / a zwi / iwa*)

I found the child (when) eating food

The preceding instance shows that the two activities occur simultaneously. It means that the activity of finding is occurring at the same time or together with the activity of eating. The above sentence therefore could be interpreted as 'during' which relate to or denotes time in Tshivendǀa.

b. Consecutive mood expressing time

The consecutive mood is known as the narrative tense/mood. It consists of consecutive formative *-a* which is affixed to the subject concord/agreement. The formative *-a* supersedes the vowel *-I* of the subject concord/agreement and becomes a narrative tense as in the following sentences:

(*Ndi / a zwi / iwa*) -Indicative mood

I eat food

(*Nda < Ndi-+a > Nda / a zwi / iwa*) -Consecutive Mood

I then ate food

In the preceding instances, the subject agreement *ndi* in the indicative mood in sentence 18 (a) has been affixed with a consecutive formative *-a* to form a consecutive subject concord/agreement *nda* i.e. [*Ndi- +a > Nda*]. One interprets to mean that the consecutive formative *-a* shows that the activity under explanation had taken place at a time somewhere in the past. When used in this context, there is no doubt that the interpretation means that the action took place in the past.

c. Imperative mood expressing time

Imperative verb expresses a command. Crystal (1991) defines it as a term used in the grammatical classification of the sentence type, and usually seen in contrast to indicate, interrogative, etc. It refers to the verb forms or sentence/clause type in the expression of commands. The preceding definition talks about the imperative relationships to sentences forms. Although there is no reference to time it is realized that the imperative has the property of expressing time. When utters a sentence in the imperative mood one implies that the activity expressed by the verb should be carried out with immediate effect. If one understands the command, one would act immediately without wasting the time. When a command given it means that the receiver of the command should act immediately.

(*ǀuwa!*)

Go away immediately!

(*Tshimbila!*)

Walk away immediately!

In the preceding example, the utterance of the imperative mood implies time. When a command is uttered, it implies that the action of *ǀuwa!* 'go away immediately' and *tshimbila!* 'walk away immediately' expressed by the verb should be carried out with no wasting of time.

V. TENSES DENOTING TIME

Crystal (1991) defines tense as:

Tense is a category used in the grammatical description of verbs along with aspect and mood referring primarily to the way the grammar marks the time at which the action denoted by the verb took place. Traditionally a distinction is made between present, past and future tense. As far as tenses are concerned we have to look at how tenses express time in present, past and future tenses.

a. Present tense

Present tense is a tense that indicates that the action is taking place now or in the present time. It is found in different moods. The present tense consists of the following tenses.

i. Simple present tense

There are two tenses under this section, i.e. the short form and the long form of the simple present tense.

(a) *Short form*

(*Ndi / a vhuswa*)

I eat food

The short form of the present tense is identified by the fact that there is no formative between the subject concords/agreements of the sentences and the verbs. When used as such, one knows exactly that the action is taking place at a time in the present tense. In the preceding example, the subject concord/agreement of the first person, singular is *Ndi* followed by the verb *-la* 'eat'. There is nothing found between the subject concord/agreement and the verb *-la* 'eat'. In that sense the action seem to take place during the time in the present.

(b) *Long form (formative-a)*

The present tense with long form is identified by the long tense formative *-a* which, is found between the subject concord /agreement and the verb stem.

(*Ndi a / a zwi / iwa*)

I eat food

The preceding example is in the present tense. It is an extension of previous short for b of the present tense. It shows that the action is taking place in the present tense but at a time that is later than the present tense shown previously. It is identified by the long form tense formative-a which is inserted between the subject concord /agreement *Ndi-*(Indicative Mood) and the verb stem *-/ a 'eat'*.

ii. Present continuous tense

Present continuous tense shows that the action is continuing to take place. It is expressed by *khou*. Some scholars call it a continuous tense formative which immediately follows the subject concord/agreement in the present tense:

(*Vhana vha khou vhala dzibugu*)

The children are studying books

In the preceding instance, the action of studying books is continuing in the present tense. The action is continually taking place in the present tense. The tense is expressed by the formative '*khou*' that is found between the subject concord /agreement *vha* 'they' and the verb *-vhala* 'read/study'.

iii. Progressive tense expressing time

The progressive form is in the present tense. It is shown by the progressive tense formative *kha /tsha /i* found between the subject concord U 'He/She' and the verb stem *-/ a 'eat'* in the example given below. This form indicates that the action is still progressing or persisting as the process of talking goes on.

(*Nwana u kha /i /tsha /i / a zwi/ iwa*)

The child is still eating the food

In the preceding example, the progressive tense formative *kha /i /tsha /i* 'still' expressing the time because one knows that the action is still in progress in the present tense or as we are busy talking.

b. Past tense as expression of time

The past tense may be divided into simple past tense and relative in the past tense

i. Simple past tense denoting time

Ziervogel, et al (1972) defines past tense or perfect tense as a tense form expressing a complete action. The perfect tense of the predicate consists of the subject concord to which the perfect formative *-o* is added followed by the verb:

(*Nwana o / a zwi/ iwa*)

The child ate the food

In the above example, the past tense is indicated by subject concord /agreement which was formed as follows:

(*Nwana u / a zwi/ iwa*) -Present tense

The child eats the food

(*Nwana o (<u+-o) / a zwi/ iwa*) -Past/Perfect tens

The child ate the food

The preceding examples show that the past or perfect tense *-o* expresses time because the action expressed by the verb had already been completed. By that it is meant that the action of eating had already taken place during the time in the past as we are talking now.

i. Relative past tense-e expressing time

This is a past tense that is found in Tshivenḑa, it is formed by the past tense formative-e attached to the relative pronouns, which is followed by a relative concord/agreement and a verb

(*Muthu ane a vhala bugu*) -Present Relative

The person who reads/studies books

(*Muthu we a vhala bugu*) -Past Relative

The person who had read/studied books

In the above instances, the first sentence is a relative sentence with relative pronoun *ane* 'which' and a relative concord *a* 'he/she', followed by a verb *-vhala* 'read/study'. The sentence is in the present tense. The second sentence is a relative with the relative pronoun *we* followed by relative concord/agreement-a and verb *-vhala* 'read, study' is also a relative. The sentence is in the past tense.

When used in this content the relative pronoun *ane* in the present tense has been changed by the past tense formative-e of the relative. The formative *-e* just like the perfect tense formative *-o* has the properties of denoting time in Tshivenḑa. This means that the action or function expressed by the verb of the sentence that took place in the past in the relative past tense. When used in this context the relative past tense expresses time in Tshivenḑa.

c. Future time as expression of time

Future tense refers to the fact that an action will take place in the time later than the present time. The future tense is constructed by the future tense formative-*o* which, is always found between the subject of the sentence and the verb. This means that the future is characterized by the future tense formative which, is placed between the subject concord /agreement and the verb of the sentence:

(*Ndi / a zwi/ iwa*) -Present tense-today

I eat food

(*Ndi /o / a zwi/ iwa*) -Future tense (any time after the

Present time

I will eat food

The preceding instance indicates that the future tense formative *do* expresses ternerities found between the subject of the sentence *ndi*-‘I’ and the verb *-/ a’eat’*. It indicates that the action expressed by the verb takes place in the past tense of the time we are speaking. The future tense therefore indicates that the action will take place in the future time.

VI. ASPECTS DENOTING TIME

Crystal (1991) defines an aspect as a term used in the grammatical description of verbs (along with tense and mood)referring to the way the grammar marks the duration of temporal denoted by the verb---there is a perfective /imperfective contrast---the former often referring to the completion of an action, the latter expressing duration without specifying completion. In short, the explanation refers to the duration of time. Some verbs do not have an aspect. The following sentences will be investigated to find out whether they have properties of denoting time.

a. Aspect *-/i* denotes time

The aspect */i* may be placed between the subject concord *a* and a verb

(*Muthu u /i /a*)

A person always comes

When the aspect */i* is used in the preceding context, it may express ‘always’; that is, any time that is not specified. In other words, the action expressed by the verb takes place at any time. The aspect */i* therefore has the property of expressing time in Tshivenḑa.

b. Aspect ‘*mbo*’denoting time

The aspect *mbo* can be used between the subject concord/agreement and the verb. When used in this manner it may have the property of denoting time in Tshivenḑa.

(*Maemu a mbo swika tshikoloni*)

Maemu, unexpectedly arrived at school

The aspect *mbo* ‘unexpectedly’ has the property of denoting unspecified time. When used in this manner it may mean that unexpectedly or contrary to expected time. This aspect *mbo* is also followed by */i* to form aspect another aspect *mbo /i*.

c. Aspect ‘*mbo /i*’ denoting time of immediacy

Sometimes the aspect */i* may be preceded by ‘*mbo*’ and becomes an extended aspect ‘*mbo /i*’ in Tshivenḑa. The aspect is found between the subject concord / agreement of the sentence followed by the verb.

(*Munna a mbo /i /a*)

The man immediately came

In the preceding example, the aspect *mbo /i* is found between the subject concord /agreement and the verb-*/a*. When used in this context it expresses how an action took place .In the above instance the aspect *mbo /i* has the potential of expressing time of immediacy and how an action took place in an unexpected time or in a fast manner.

d. Negative aspect expressing time

The negative is a word that means the opposite of affirmation. According to Crystal (1991), negative/negation is defined as a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis, which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentence’s meaning. The negative formatives are found between the subject concord and the verb. The negatives in question here are *athu* and *tsha* .These negatives formatives have the properties of expressing time.

(*A thi athu u mu vhona*)

I have not yet seen him

(*Nwana ha tsha lwala*)

The child is no longer sick

VII. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that, time in Tshivenḑa is expressed by using different word categories. When one expresses time one can use seconds, minutes, day, week, month, season, year measure, cyclic units, calendrical units. Apart from that time may be expressed by using word categories i.e. nouns, preposition, infinitival locatives , auxiliary verbs, etc. We find that tenses play the most important role in expressing time in Tshivenḑa. There are three tenses i.e. simple present tense, past orb perfect tense and future tense. In addition. Moods also have the properties of denoting time and such moods are the indicative, participial, consecutive and imperative mood. Different words falling under aspect e.g., *no*, *mbo*, *mbo/i* as well as negatives *athu* ‘not yet’ and *tsha* ‘no longer’ have the properties of denoting time in Tshivenḑa. By looking at these words, one could conclude that an action is taking place at certain times.

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Reading Passages and Skills in Jordanian High School and University EFL Textbooks: A Comparative Analytical Study

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Abstract—The study aimed to examine the appropriateness of the reading content in Action Pack 11 (AP11) which is taught for grade 11, Action Pack 12 (AP12) that is taught for grade 12 at the schools of The Jordanian Ministry of Education and New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate (NHWP) that is taught for Communication Skills (LC 099) at Yarmouk University. The researcher analyzed the types of reading passages and the reading skills taught by the reading exercises in the three textbooks, The content analysis of the reading passages showed no significant differences between the three textbooks and that three textbooks exposed the students more to the descriptive and expository types of passages than to the narrative passages and that the persuasive passages were almost excluded. Furthermore, the analysis of the reading skills showed that “pre-reading activities, skimming, and activities of locating details” were the dominant reading tasks in the secondary stage textbooks whereas “following-up activities that lead to writing, scanning, locating details, and identifying main ideas” were the dominant reading tasks in the university- level textbook (NHWP). The study recommended that a better communication between universities and schools should be established to bridge the reading gap.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, content analysis, reading skills, postsecondary reading

I. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Reading is one of the most important skills that are highly appreciated in any community. Levine, Ferenz, and Revez (2000) state that “The ability to read academic texts is considered one of the most important skills that university students of English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) need to acquire”. Without adequate reading comprehension, students pursuing higher education are vulnerable to failure (Giuliano and Sullivan, 2007). Ideally, students who graduate from high school should have the ability to read the postsecondary material. However, this is not often the case. Although secondary school graduates may be able to successfully study the high school course content, a number of them may not be able to handle the kind of textbooks they encounter at the university level.

Reading comprehension is considered a prerequisite for successful learning. If there is a gap in secondary school and university textbook requirements, students will suffer from a deficiency in their performance. If such a gap exists, students of successful secondary school could appear to be unprepared since their reading skills are insufficient for postsecondary texts. Thus, it is essential to ensure that students’ reading be efficient and that all reading material be at an appropriate level of difficulty; that is, it must be neither too difficult for the students nor too easy to provide challenging practice (Leslie and Caldwell, 1997).

Although English in Jordan has received a great emphasis and although reading is the core of Jordan’s EFL curriculum in schools and universities, many university students in Jordan complain about the difficulty of the reading component in EFL courses. In spite of the educational and financial support, there is an observable weakness on the part of students in the reading comprehension skills. Jordanian universities have a series of compulsory courses which all aim to improve the students’ ability in the four main skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. One of these courses is the English Language Course (LC) 099 which is the first introductory EFL course students study at the university in case the student could not pass an EFL proficiency test. A person may know the importance of a course like LC 099 once he notices the huge numbers of freshman students enrolled in the sections of this course. For example, in the first semester of the academic year 2011/2012, 2711 students distributed into 35 sections studied the course.

By teaching LC 099, universities exert an effort on the improvement of reading comprehension. In spite of this emphasis on reading comprehension, many instructors of English in the Jordanian universities complain that there is an observable weakness in reading comprehension skills on the part of the students who fail to deal with the whole text as a unit. This weakness impairs their utilization of texts within and outside the academic context (Al Haddad, 1996).

This deficiency in reading comprehension may be attributed to many factors among which is the reading material and how reading material and reading skills are presented in the textbooks at high school and university. According to

Armbruster and Anderson (1988), reading comprehension is affected by various factors including text structure, vocabulary load, appropriateness of the reading material, and the background knowledge.

Educators are responsible for determining the appropriate reading level for students and monitor how well students comprehend the books they read. Students' success with books, their areas of interest, their backgrounds, their ability to meet academic challenges, and other factors provide the data educators need to guide book selection and make sure that students get the greatest benefit from their reading. One way to evaluate the appropriateness of the reading material to the level of the students is content analysis. Content Analysis is a systematic, objective research method used to evaluate texts in order to analyze words, terms, concepts, themes, phrases, paragraphs, characters, items, concepts, semantics, or sentences within texts for the purpose of identifying the frequency of the subject's presence there (Palmquist, 2005).

Presley (2008) states that one characteristic differentiates content analysis from other types of analyses that is the attempt to meet the standards of the scientific method. The literature in the area of reading textbook analysis is very vast. A large number of studies have been done on textbook analysis in Jordan or elsewhere. Unfortunately, very little research has actually examined the reading material of high school in contrast to those of university to determine if there is a gap between them. This lack of studies in this field has led the researchers to investigate the types of the reading content and the balance of the reading skills in Action Pack 11 (Hereafter AP11) and Action Pack 12 (hereafter AP12), taught for grades eleven and twelve in the schools of The Ministry of Education in Jordan, and in New Headway Plus Pre-Intermediate (hereafter NHWP) that is taught for LC 099 course at Yarmouk University.

A. *Statement of the Problem*

In Jordan many university students suffer from deficiency in their reading skills. Such deficiency in the students' reading can be attributed to different factors including the preparation of the students at school and the gap between the school and the university textbooks. To ascertain whether the gap is purely a performance gap or whether there is also a textual gap requires that reading passages and skills be studied.

This study addressed the following questions:

1. What types of reading passages are presented in Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 in Contrast to Those Presented in New Head Way Plus Textbook?
2. What is the relative balance of the reading skills that appear in AP11, AP 12, and NHWP textbooks?

B. *Purpose of the Study*

This study aimed at finding out how the secondary school EFL curriculum in Jordan prepares students for university level reading skills. In other words, the study aimed to analyze the types of the reading content and the balance of the reading skills in Action Pack 11 which is taught for grade 11, Action Pack 12 that is taught for grade 12 at the schools of The Jordanian Ministry of Education and New Head Way Plus that is taught for LC 099 at Yarmouk University.

C. *Significance of the Study*

The findings of this study are significant for those who are concerned with selecting EFL courses and evaluating and developing students' proficiency in reading comprehension in secondary schools and at universities. Moreover, this study came out with results and recommendations for textbook selection and for the teaching of reading comprehension at this critical stage in order to make learners' transition from school to university smoother.

Furthermore, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, no study has been conducted in the Jordanian EFL situation that tackles the relation between the reading material in school textbooks and in university textbooks. No study has tackled whether or not the types of the reading content and the balance of the reading skills in Action Pack 12 prepare students to university reading demands. Therefore, it was a primary purpose of this study to identify the extent to which Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 prepare students for the university reading demands. Such a study provided essential data about the alignment between the reading content in Action Pack series and New Head Way Plus.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The current study investigated the types of the reading passages and the balance of the reading skills presented in the Jordanian secondary stage EFL textbooks (Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12) and in an EFL textbook taught for first year students at Yarmouk University (New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate). This stage involves students who move from secondary school (high school) to postsecondary education and known as "Transition to postsecondary education".

As students progress through grades, increased proficiency in reading skills is needed in order for them to match with the growing demands of the curriculum. The secondary school provides the last opportunity for most students to obtain guidance in reading proficiency. Macklin (1978) indicates that reading instruction at the secondary level might be perceived as helping the reader to acquire information and develop specific techniques needed for handling the reading materials in each discipline. Chall (1983) presents a detailed understanding of the distinction between teaching reading in different academic stages. He believes that high school students need to learn to read for multiple viewpoints, which include critical reading for comprehension of various ideas presented in the text. At this level of reading, basic facts and ideas are presented, then additional facts and ideas from opposing or corresponding views are also given. The high

school reader must connect various facts and ideas to gain complete understanding of the text. According to Chall, students who are not proficient readers because of weak development during the previous stages struggle because they cannot deal with assimilation of print recognition, idea acquisition, layers of facts, various theories, and multiple viewpoints.

Chall (1983) adds that college students, on the other hand, should read to construct and reconstruct ideas, including comprehension through analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information presented by the author. This stage of reading development forces the reader to master selective reading skills. The reader "...knows what not to read, as well as what to read". As students read what authors write, they access previous knowledge, select similar experiences, and construct new knowledge or reconstruct previous knowledge. When readers have broad general knowledge of the text, they read quickly, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating as they speed through the text. However, if the text addresses an unfamiliar topic, the student will read at a slower more deliberate pace. The student determines the pace for reading and quantity of material to read. They determine the quality of reading through the process of "...high level abstraction and generality".

Many studies in the Jordanian context and other contexts used content analysis to analyze EFL textbooks but a few studies were completely devoted to analyzing the reading content of EFL textbooks. Masri (2006) investigated the readability level of the tenth grade EFL textbook (Jordan Opportunities) in reference to the reading abilities of the 10th grade students in Tafila Directorate of Education. The results of the study showed that the readability level of Jordan Opportunities was very low (12.7). It was in the frustration level, which means that the students were not able to understand the passages even with the help of the teacher.

Ababneh (2007) analyzed the content of Jordan opportunities and investigated the teachers' and supervisors' perspectives concerning its content. He found that the tasks, grammar and reading tasks had the highest frequency and percentage among the other elements. Overall, the study found that there was an agreement on the suitability of Jordan Opportunities for the tenth grade Jordanian students.

Ghabashneh (2010) analyzed the content of Action Pack 11 in light of several criteria and interviewed five members of the Jordanian Reviewing and Adaptation Committee to find out what criteria they employed when reviewing Action Pack for the eleventh grade. The findings showed that the activities of grammar, vocabulary, and the four language skills in the student's textbook were well stated, varied and sequenced. The focus was on the productive skills and that speaking was integrated with listening on one hand, and writing was integrated with reading on the other hand. The analysis of the workbook exercises revealed that there was focus on grammar, vocabulary and only reading and writing of the four skills. Teacher's book was found to be presenting guidance which ranged between excellent and good. The listening material was found to be clear, suitable, authentic and realistic to students' lives. Furthermore, the study indicated that the members of the Review and Adaptation Committee followed certain criteria that corresponded with the researcher's criteria when reviewing the textbook.

Regarding the text of reading material, many aspects of the text might make the reading process difficult. Although the language of the text is known to be the major variable, there are other factors like aspects of text content, text type, text organization, and sentence structure. For instance, it is generally assumed that abstract texts will be harder to understand than texts describing real objects. The text will also be more readable if it is more concrete, imaginable and interesting. Certain types of texts are more suitable for specific ages and purposes than other types.

Upon reviewing literature, it was found that the term text type has been used interchangeably with other terms such as genre, text structure, discourse type, and rhetorical structure. Meyer and Freedle (1984) pointed out that different discourse types would affect readers' expectations differently during reading. Commenting on the interaction among types of organizational structure and reader expertise, Meyer and Freedle stated that "their interaction affects the mechanisms of cognitive processing that form a representation in the reader's mind" (P.45). Steen (1999) uses text types in the sense of the traditional four-part rhetorical categories of narrative, exposition, description, and argumentative.

Narrative and expository texts are the most commonly used types of texts in textbooks. Narrative texts are stories written to entertain; the most common element found in narrative texts are characters, event sequences and themes. In contrast, expository texts are materials written to communicate information, to help readers learn something. Examples of expository texts are newspaper and magazine articles and manuals (Gordon, 1990). The National Assessment Governing Board in America NAGB (2008) suggests that expository text presents information, provides explanations and definitions, and compares and contrasts". Argumentative and persuasive text "seeks to influence through appeals and directs readers to specific goals or specific beliefs" (P.10).

Barton (1997) assumes that narrative text is the most common text type in which instruction occurs in the early grades. He indicates that as children progress through the primary grades, they increasingly encounter expository texts and by high school, they spend the majority of their instructional time reading expository texts. Barton (1997) noted that exposition is the primary mode of discourse in academic texts because textbooks in general are aimed to inform their readers.

Empirical evidence indicates that for most students, expository reading poses a greater challenge than does narrative reading. Although many factors contribute to the difficulty students experience with expository reading, Saenz and

Fuchs (2002) indicates that the four most commonly cited difficulties are text structure, conceptual density, vocabulary knowledge and prior knowledge.

Other studies proved that text type affects students' reading achievement. Shin (2002) examined the relative effects of subskills and text types on reader performance simultaneously. The Results showed the effects of having various numbers of text types and subskills on the scores on this reading test.

Regarding reading comprehension skills, they are perceived by Holloway (1999) as essential to the academic achievement of middle and high school students. Revising the related literature of reading comprehension skills shows that there is no consensus among the writers in considering the reading comprehension skill as a global skill or distinct subskills. Abbot and Wingard (1981) pinpointed the following subskills of reading comprehension: anticipating form and content, identifying the main ideas, recognizing and recalling specific details, recognizing the relationship between the main ideas and their expansions, following a sequence, inferring information from the text, drawing conclusions, and recognizing the writer's purpose and attitude.

Many studies have attempted to discover whether reading is composed of subskills that might relate to one another within a taxonomy of skills. There are many taxonomies that have been drawn varying in length from three to four skills to long lists comprising thirty or forty reading subskills. However, there is little consensus in the content of these taxonomies as pointed out by Williams and Moran (1989). An example of such taxonomies is that of Spearitt (1972) who claimed there were four separate subskills in reading: recalling word meaning, drawing inferences from the content, recognizing a writer's purpose, and following the structure of the passage.

Greenall and Swan (1992) suggest another division of reading comprehension skills which includes: extracting main ideas, reading for specific information, understanding text organization, predicting, checking information, inferring, dealing with unfamiliar words, knowing the function of linking words, understanding complex sentences, understanding writer's style, evaluating the text, and writing summaries.

Heinrichs and LaBranche (1986) analyzed the content of 47 textbooks (14 reading skills texts, 6 learning skills texts, 13 combined reading and study skills texts, 6 specialty texts, and 8 resource and supplementary texts) with a reading and learning skills checklist. This checklist consisted of two main categorized content and organization with each category having sub-categories. The content part included vocabulary, main idea and details, speed reading, reading comprehension, critical reading, patterns of organization, note taking, study systems, memory, test taking, content areas, reasoning/ problem solving, and library/ dictionary skills. The organization part of the checklist contained reading passages, instructors' manual, answers, index, glossary, and overall quality. The results showed that vocabulary was included in almost all of the texts, with reading comprehension and critical reading often included. Reading speed was taught about 60% as often as comprehension and critical thinking. A few books covered note-taking. Heinrichs and LaBranche concluded that none of the studied textbooks was right for every person. Besides, reading and studying skills for particular content areas were very high and that few textbooks examined were inclusive.

Liyang (1995) analyzed the textbook "Integrated Reading and Writing" which was taught for a pre-session course at the University of Reading. The analysis included the frequency of reading skills trained through 103 reading tasks designed in the textbook. The analysis categorized the reading skills into main idea, scanning, skimming, structure, follow-up, pre-reading and, vocabulary. The study found that 33% of the tasks in the textbook were designed to train the skills of reading text or parts of the text more slowly and carefully to extract all the relevant information. That was about as many tasks as those designed to train the skills of skimming and scanning. The Skill of understanding unknown words was also practiced in 15% of the tasks. On the other hand, a questionnaire which the researcher administered to the students and the teachers showed that there was a gap between what the book presents and what teachers think in one hand and what students think they need on the other hand, as students rated skimming and selective reading as the most important part of their English for Academic Purposes (EAP) reading.

Other researchers studied the extent school textbooks facilitate the processes of transition to the university reading courses. Sidek (2011) examined how well the Malaysian EFL secondary reading curriculum prepares students for tertiary reading in English. The findings showed an emphasis on reading, types of reading task, and the levels of cognitive demands of reading tasks indicated that the curriculum only partially prepares secondary school students for tertiary reading in EFL. Williamson (2008) examined whether 11th- and 12th-grade students' exposure to high school texts sufficiently prepares them for textual material they might encounter in their postsecondary endeavours. The study demonstrated substantial differences between the materials that high school students are expected to read and the materials they may encounter after high school. High school material reflected a substantially higher text demand from students in the postsecondary lives.

III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

A. *Instruments of the Study*

The researcher applied the content analysis tool in order to analyze the reading content in AP11, AP12, and NHWP. The analysis included the Student's Book in each of the three textbooks.

B. *Choice of the Textbook Level for Analysis*

For a number of reasons, the reading content in grade 11, grade 12, and LC 099 were chosen as the levels of textbooks to analyze. Grade 11 and 12 make the secondary stage in the Jordanian educational system. On the other hand, LC 099 is the first EFL course that the majority of the university freshmen study if compared to other courses. The period including the secondary stage and university first year represents the transition from school to university. The researchers were interested in this stage when they planned their research as this stage is a crucial one in the students' academic life and it has not been studied as shown by the literature review. Therefore, it is hoped that this study presents an insight into some aspects of this stage by investigating the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in the textbooks under study.

C. Criteria of Analysis

The criteria of analysis in this research study were:

- 1- the extent of incorporating the text types (narrative, expository, descriptive, and argumentative) in the books.
 - 2- the extent of incorporating different types of reading skills presented in the reading activities of the textbooks.
- After revising the documents related to teaching reading in the secondary stage and in Yarmouk University Language Centre and having revised the previous literature on reading skills in this stage, the researchers adopted Liying's (1995) scheme that classifies the reading skills into (pre-reading, skimming, scanning, vocabulary, details, main idea, passage structure, writer's purpose, follow-up activities, reading aloud).

D. Unit and Category of Analysis

The reading texts and activities served as the units of analysis in the study. The units of analysis were coded precisely as they appeared in the books. The categories of analysis were the text types and skills trained by the reading activities.

E. Validity of the Content Analysis

To establish the validity of content analysis, the researchers defined the concepts operationally, prepared the criteria, units and the categories for analyzing the three books. The researchers consulted some experts in the field of language teaching who had experience in content analysis and there was agreement among the experts on the procedure. The second analyst who assisted the researchers in analyzing the textbooks in order to establish reliability of the content analysis suggested adding "reading aloud" to the categories of analyzing the reading skills which he noticed upon surveying the textbook.

F. Reliability of the Content Analysis

To establish the intra-rater reliability of the content analysis, one of the researchers analyzed the reading content of the textbooks under study according to the categories of the study and he repeated the analysis after two weeks using the same units and categories of analysis. To achieve the inter-rater reliability, Scott coefficient was used to compute the consistency coefficient between the two analyses carried out by the same researcher himself. The reliability coefficient of the whole analysis was 0.94 which is considered high. Table 1 shows the inter-rater reliability coefficient.

To establish the inter-rater Reliability: Another analyst was asked to conduct the analysis using the same categories and units of analysis. The second analyst is a PhD holder in TEFL and used content analysis as a main instrument in his dissertation study. The two analyses were done separately on all the activities, text types, and comprehension questions under study. The inter-rater reliability coefficient was calculated. The results are presented in Table 1. The inter-rater reliability coefficient was 0.93 which is considered high.

TABLE 1:
SCOTT COEFFICIENT FOR THE CONSISTENCY OF THE ANALYSES OF THE READING CONTENT IN AP11, AP12, AND NHWP

Book	Dimension	Intra-rater	Inter-rater
AP 11	Reading Texts	1.00	1.00
	Reading Skills	0.91	0.94
	Comprehension Questions	0.95	0.88
	Total	0.95	0.94
AP 12	Reading Texts	1.00	1.00
	Reading Skills	0.90	0.90
	Comprehension Questions	0.89	0.89
	Total	0.93	0.93
NHWP	Reading Texts	0.95	0.95
	Reading Skills	0.90	0.90
	Comprehension Questions	0.93	0.93
	Total	0.93	0.93
Grand Total		0.94	0.93

G. Data Analysis

To answer the research questions, the researcher applied statistical analysis to the questions.

The answer of the first research question is divided into two parts:

1. To answer the first part, the researcher calculated the frequencies for the types of the texts included in the study (narrative, descriptive, expository, and persuasive). In addition, the statistical method of chi square (χ^2) cross tabulation was used to determine if *AP11*, *AP12*, and *NHWP* differ in the proportions of the four text types.

2. To answer the second part, the frequencies and percentages of the four text types included in the study (narrative, descriptive, expository, and persuasive) in the three textbooks were classified into secondary stage (*AP11* and *AP12*) and university stage (*NHWP*). Chi square (χ^2) cross tabulation was used to determine if the secondary stage textbooks and the university stage textbook differ in the proportions of the four text types.

The answer of the second question:

1. To answer the first part, the researcher calculated the frequencies for the types of the reading skills included in the reading activities of the textbooks under study (Pre-reading, Skimming, Scanning, Vocabulary, Details, Main Idea, Passage structure, Writer's Purpose, Follow-up Activities, and Reading Aloud). In addition, the statistical method of chi square (χ^2) cross tabulation was used to determine if *AP11*, *AP12*, and *NHWP* differ in the proportions of the reading skills.

2. To answer the second part, the frequencies and percentages of the reading skills included in the study (Pre-reading, Skimming, Scanning, Vocabulary, Details, Main Idea, Passage structure, Writer's Purpose, Follow-up Activities, and Reading Aloud) in the three textbooks were classified into secondary stage (*AP11* and *AP12*) and university stage (*NHWP*). Chi Square (χ^2) cross tabulation was used to determine if the secondary stage textbooks and the university stage textbook differ in the proportions of the reading skills. It is worth mentioning here that in all applications of the Chi Square (χ^2), the 0.05 level of significance was established.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Results Related to the First Question

The first research question was “**What types of reading passages are reflected in Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 in contrast to those reflected in New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate?**” The results of this question are presented in two parts, the textbook level and the stage level.

First: textbook level

To answer this question, one of the researchers analyzed the reading content of the Student's book of *Action Pack 11*, *Action Pack 12*, and *New Headway Plus* in light of the types of reading texts and the percentage of these texts each of the textbook includes. In this analysis, the unit of analysis was the text and the text type (narrative, descriptive, expository, and persuasive) was the category of analysis. The three textbooks contained varied numbers of reading texts as follows: *AP11* included 10 reading passages. *AP12* included 11 reading passages, and *NHWP* included 22 reading passages. The total of 43 reading passages was obtained from the three textbooks.

Frequencies of the texts were calculated according to their types in addition to calculating the percentages of these texts in each of the textbooks. Chi Square was used to determine if there was a relation between the three textbooks and the occurrence of the four text types among them. These data are reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF THE TEXT TYPES IN THE AP11, AP12 AND NHWP AND RESULTS OF X2 TEST OF INDEPENDENCE REGARDING TEXTBOOK

Text Book	Statistic	Text Type				Total
		Narrative	Descriptive	Expository	Persuasive	
<i>AP11</i>	Count	2	5	3	0	10
	% within Text Book	20.0	50.0	30.0	0.0	100.0
<i>AP12</i>	Count	1	5	5	0	11
	% within Text Book	9	45.5	45.5	0.0	100.0
<i>NHWP</i>	Count	5	9	7	1	22
	% within Text Book	22.7	40.9	31.8	4.5	100.0
Total	Count	8	19	15	1	43
	% within Text Book	18.6	44.2	34.9	2.3	100.0
χ^2		N of Cases		Df	Sig.	
2.315		43		6	0.889	

Table 2 shows that there is no relation between the three textbooks and the type of reading text which indicates that the distribution of the noticed frequencies corresponds with the expected frequencies. It can be noticed that the individual percentages of the text types across the three textbooks were very close except with very slight differences.

Table 2 also shows that reading text types were presented in the following order according to their inclusion (Descriptive, expository, narrative, and persuasive), descriptive and expository texts were dominant in the three textbooks, descriptive texts had the highest occurrence across the three textbooks, and that persuasive texts were not incorporated in *AP11* and *AP12* and appeared only once in *NHWP*.

Second: Stage level

Frequencies of the texts were calculated according to their types in addition to calculating the percentages of these texts in each of the stages (university, secondary). Chi Square was used to determine if there was a relation between the two stages and the occurrence of the four text types among them. . These data are reported in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF THE TEXT TYPES IN THE SECONDARY AND UNIVERSITY STAGE TEXTBOOKS AND RESULTS OF X² TEST OF INDEPENDENCE REGARDING STAGE

Stage	Statistic	Text Type				Total
		Narrative	Descriptive	Expository	Persuasive	
Secondary	Count	3	10	8	0	21
	% within stage	14.3	47.6	38.1	0.0	100.0
University	Count	5	9	7	1	22
	% within stage	22.7	40.9	31.8	4.5	100.0
Total	Count	8	19	15	1	43
	% within stage	18.6	44.2	34.9	2.3	100.0
χ^2		N of Cases		Df	Sig.	
1.597		43		3	0.660	

Table 3 shows the frequencies and percentages of the four text types across the two stages produced insignificant Chi Square Value that does not indicate the existence of a relation in the appearance and distribution of the four text types across the two stages. Table 3 also indicates that the reading text types in the two stages were presented in the following order according to their inclusion (Descriptive, expository, narrative, and persuasive). The persuasive reading text type was not incorporated in the secondary stage textbooks and appeared only once in the university textbook.

B. Discussion of the Results of the First Question

The first question asks about the types of reading passages in “Action Pack 11”, “Action Pack 12”, and “New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate”.

The results of this question showed that there were no significant differences between the three textbooks in light of the types of reading texts exposed in each textbook. The results also showed that the reading text types were presented in the following order according to their inclusion (Descriptive, expository, narrative, and persuasive), descriptive and expository texts were dominant in the three textbooks, descriptive texts had the highest occurrence across the three textbooks, and that persuasive texts were not incorporated in AP11 and AP12 and appeared only once in NHWP.

Stage wise, the results of this question indicated that reading text types in the two stages (secondary stage and university level) were presented in the same order according to their inclusion, and that the persuasive reading text type was not incorporated in the secondary stage textbooks and appeared only once in the university textbook. Therefore, at later stages, students might face difficulty processing persuasive or argumentative texts.

This result indicates that the reading content in the EFL secondary stage textbooks and in university first year communication skills textbook expose students significantly more to the descriptive and expository types of passages than to the narrative and persuasive passages. Except for the fact that persuasive text type was almost excluded from the three textbooks, such result seems to agree with the assumptions of adult reading. Barton (1997) indicates that exposition is the primary mode of discourse at the academic texts as textbooks in general are aimed to inform their readers, and that narrative text is the most common text type that occurs in the early grades. Barton indicates that as children progress through the primary grades, they increasingly encounter expository texts and by high school, they spend the majority of their instructional time reading expository texts.

Regarding text type, and contrary to the studies that found the reading content in the studied textbooks appropriate and suitable for its students’ grade levels (Ababneh, 2007; Ghabashneh, 2010), the current study showed that the reading content is not properly tailored for the level of the students. This result is clear when a person takes into consideration that the persuasive text type is almost excluded from the textbooks at a level where the students need this type most.

C. Results Related to the Second Question

The second research question was “What is the relative balance of the reading skills that appear in Action Pack 11, Action Pack 12, and New Headway Plus Pre- Intermediate textbooks?”

The three textbooks under study contained varied numbers of reading activities as follows: AP11 included 101 activities, AP 12 included 49 activities, and NHWP included 63 activities. Two hundred and thirteen activities were obtained from the three textbooks.

To answer this question, frequencies of the reading activities included in the three textbooks under study were calculated according to the type of the reading skill (pre-reading [prediction, anticipation, and surveying], skimming, scanning, vocabulary, details, identifying main ideas, identifying Passage Structure, identifying writer’s purpose, Follow-up activities that lead to writing, and reading aloud). The percentages of the activities among these skills in each textbook were calculated in addition to calculating the adjusted residual where needed in light of Chi Square Test for Independence. The data are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF THE TYPES OF THE READING ACTIVITIES IN AP11, AP12, AND NHWP AND RESULTS OF X2 TEST OF INDEPENDENCE REGARDING TEXTBOOK

Task	Statistic	Text Book			Total
		AP11	AP12	NHWP	
Pre-reading ¹	Count	18	8	7	33
	% within Text Book	17.8	16.3	11.1	15.5
	Adjusted Residual	0.892	0.184	-1.145	
Skimming	Count	17	3	6	26
	% within Text Book	16.8	6.1	9.5	12.2
	Adjusted Residual	1.958	-1.483	-0.775	
Scanning	Count	7	7	10	24
	% within Text Book	6.9	14.3	15.9	11.3
	Adjusted Residual	-1.901	0.761	1.378	
Vocabulary	Count	5	9	6	20
	% within Text Book	5.0	18.4	9.5	9.4
	Adjusted Residual	-2.109	2.455	0.043	
Details	Count	22	11	8	41
	% within Text Book	21.8	22.4	12.7	19.2
	Adjusted Residual	0.891	0.648	-1.571	
Main idea	Count	11	4	8	23
	% within Text Book	10.9	8.2	12.7	10.8
	Adjusted Residual	0.042	-0.677	0.579	
Passage Structure	Count	1	4	5	10
	% within Text Book	1.0	8.2	7.9	4.7
	Adjusted Residual	-2.427	1.308	1.449	
Writer's purpose	Count	0	0	2	2
	% within Text Book	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.9
	Adjusted Residual	-1.349	-0.777	2.192	
Follow-up activities ²	Count	15	3	11	29
	% within Text Book	14.9	6.1	17.5	13.6
	Adjusted Residual	0.500	-1.743	1.061	
Reading aloud	Count	5	0	0	5
	% within Text Book	5.0	0.0	0.0	2.3
	Adjusted Residual	2.383	-1.237	-1.466	
Total	Count	101	49	63	213
	% within Text Book	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
χ^2	N of Cases		df	Sig.	
35.650	213		18	0.008	

¹Pre-reading activities include prediction, anticipation and surveying. ²Follow-up activities lead to writing

Table 4 shows that there is a significant relation between textbook and the type of reading activities. This relation is clear when moving from AP11 to AP12 and then to NHWP. The difference is very clear when moving from AP11 to AP12, there is a noticed increase in the percentage of vocabulary activities, and when moving from AP12 to NHWP, there is a noticed increase in the percentage of writer's purpose activities.

The frequencies and percentages in Table 4 show that three reading skills in each textbook were presented in about 50% of all the tasks in the textbook. In AP11, for example, the categories related to the skills of pre-reading, skimming, and locating details were presented in 56.4% of all the tasks in the textbook. In AP12, pre-reading, vocabulary activities, and locating details were represented in 57.1% of all the tasks in the textbook whereas 58.5% of the reading activities in NHWP were designated for follow-up activities that lead to writing, scanning activities, and locating details and identifying main ideas sharing the same percentage.

Furthermore, Table 4 shows the differences in the inclusion of these activities among the three textbooks. In AP11 the activities were presented in the following order: locating details, pre-reading, skimming, follow-up activities that lead to writing, identifying the main idea, scanning, reading aloud and vocabulary activities equally, and understanding passage structure. In AP12, the activities were presented in the following order: locating details, vocabulary activities, pre-reading, scanning, identifying main ideas and understanding passage structure equally, follow-up and skimming exercises equally. In NHWP, the activities were presented in the following order: follow-up, scanning, pre-reading, identifying main ideas and locating details equally, skimming and vocabulary exercises equally, understanding passage structure, and identifying writer's purpose.

It can also be noticed from Table 4 that some reading skills disappeared in each textbook. In AP11, no activities were found that represented the skills of identifying writer's purpose. In AP12, there were no activities that train the skills of identifying the writer's purpose and reading aloud. In NHWP, the skill of reading aloud was not represented.

At the stage level, frequencies of the reading activities included in the two stages under study (secondary stage and university level) were calculated according to the type of the reading skill (pre-reading [prediction, anticipation, and surveying], skimming, scanning, vocabulary, details, identifying main ideas, identifying passage structure, identifying writer's purpose, follow-up activities that lead to writing, and reading aloud). The percentages of the activities among

these skills in each stage were calculated in addition to calculating the adjusted residual where needed in light of Chi Square Test for Independence. The data are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5:
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF THE TYPES OF THE READING ACTIVITIES IN THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL AND SECONDARY STAGE TEXTBOOKS AND RESULTS OF X2 TEST OF INDEPENDENCE REGARDING STAGE

Task	Statistic	Stage		Total
		Secondary	University	
Pre-reading ¹	Count	26	7	33
	% within stage	17.3	11.1	15.5
Skimming	Count	20	6	26
	% within stage	13.3	9.5	12.2
Scanning	Count	14	10	24
	% within stage	9.3	15.9	11.3
Vocabulary	Count	14	6	20
	% within stage	9.3	9.5	9.4
Details	Count	33	8	41
	% within stage	22.0	12.7	19.2
Main idea	Count	15	8	23
	% within stage	10.0	12.7	10.8
Passage Structure	Count	5	5	10
	% within stage	3.3	7.9	4.7
Writer's purpose	Count	0	2	2
	% within stage	0.0	3.2	0.9
Follow-up activities ²	Count	18	11	29
	% within stage	12.0	17.5	13.6
Reading aloud	Count	5	0	5
	% within stage	3.3	0.0	2.3
Total	Count	150	63	213
	% within stage	100.0	100.0	100.0
χ^2	N of Cases		df	Sig.
15.451	213		9	0.079

¹Pre-reading activities include prediction, anticipation and surveying. ²Follow-up activities lead to writing

Table 5 shows that there is no significant relation between the reading skills as shown in the percentages of the activities and the stage (secondary stage and university level). Yet, the table shows some differences in the occurrence of the activities among the specified skills. The table shows that a number of reading skills are dominant in the secondary stage in contrast to the dominant ones at the university level. In the secondary stage textbooks together, pre-reading activities, skimming activities, and activities of locating details altogether were presented in about 42.6% of all the tasks in the textbooks of the stage whereas follow-up activities, scanning activities, locating details and identifying main ideas altogether were presented in about 58.8% of all the activities appearing in the textbook.

Table 5 also shows the differences in the occurrence and inclusion of these activities among the two academic stages. In the secondary stage, the activities appeared in the following order: locating details, pre-reading activities, skimming, follow-up activities that lead to writing, identifying main ideas and vocabulary exercises equally, and identifying passage structure and reading aloud equally. On the other hand, the reading activities appeared in the university level textbook in the following order: follow-up activities that lead to writing, scanning activities, locating details and identifying main ideas equally, pre-reading activities, skimming and vocabulary activities equally, and identifying passage structure. It is worth mentioning, however, that some skills disappeared in each of the two stages. In the secondary stage textbooks, there were no activities that presented the skill of identifying the writer's purpose whereas the university textbook did not include any activity that presents the skill of reading aloud.

D. Discussion of the Results of the Second Question

It was expected that the same pattern of reading task emphasis would emerge in the three textbooks. On the contrary, the frequencies and percentages of the reading skills show that the three textbooks had different patterns of emphasis on the reading skills. The results show significant differences between the three textbooks in light of the focus on the reading skills. Moreover, the results show some differences in the inclusion of these activities among the three textbooks.

Stage wise, the results show that there is no significant relation between the reading skills as shown in the percentages of the activities and the stage (secondary stage and university level). Yet, the results show some differences in the occurrence of the activities among the specified skills. The results show that a number of reading skills are dominant in the secondary stage in contrast to the dominant ones in the university level.

For better discussion of the results of this question, the discussion was divided into two categories; in the first one, the researchers discuss the findings related to the types of reading skills in each textbook individually, and in the second one, the researchers discuss the findings of this question collectively.

Action Pack 11

In comparison with the other two textbooks, AP11 emphasises significantly the skill of “reading aloud”. The results show some dominating reading skills in AP11. The categories related to the skills of “pre-reading, skimming, and locating details” were trained in 56.4% of all the tasks in the textbook. Moreover, the results show that the skill of “identifying the writer’s purpose” is not included in AP11. The reading activities in AP11 were presented in the following order according to their inclusion: locating details, pre-reading, skimming, follow-up activities that lead to writing, identifying the main idea, scanning, reading aloud and vocabulary activities (understanding unknown words) equally, and understanding passage structure.

Action Pack 12

In comparison with the other two textbooks, AP12 emphasizes significantly the reading skill of “understanding unknown words in the text”. In AP12, “pre-reading, vocabulary activities (understanding unknown words), and locating details” were represented in 57.1% of all the reading tasks in the textbook. The reading activities in AP12 were presented in the following order: locating details, vocabulary activities, pre-reading, scanning, identifying main idea and understanding passage structure equally, follow-up and scanning exercises equally. It is worth mentioning that the reading skills of “reading aloud and identifying the writer’s purpose” are not included in AP12.

New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate

In comparison with the other two textbooks, NHWP emphasises significantly the reading skill of “Identifying the writer’s purpose”. In NHWP, “follow-up activities that lead to writing, scanning activities, and locating details and identifying main ideas” were represented in 58.5 of the reading activities in the textbook. The reading activities in NHWP were presented in the following order according to their inclusion: follow-up, scanning, pre-reading, identifying main ideas and locating details equally, skimming and vocabulary exercises equally, understanding passage structure, and identifying writer’s purpose. It is worth mentioning that the no reading-aloud activities appeared in NHWP.

All Textbooks

The results show some differences in the occurrence of the activities among the specified skills in the three textbooks. A number of reading skills are dominant in the secondary stage in contrast to the dominant ones in the university level. In the secondary stage textbooks, pre-reading activities, skimming activities, and activities of locating details altogether were included in about 42.6% of all the tasks in the textbooks of the stage whereas follow-up activities, scanning activities, locating details and identifying main ideas altogether were included in about 58.8% of all the activities appearing in the university level textbook.

The results also show some differences in the occurrence and inclusion of these activities among the two academic stages. In the secondary stage, the activities appeared in the following order: locating details, pre-reading activities, skimming, follow-up activities that lead to writing, identifying main ideas and vocabulary exercises equally, and identifying passage structure and reading aloud equally. On the other hand, the reading activities appeared in the university level textbook in the following order: follow-up activities that lead to writing, scanning activities, locating details and identifying main ideas equally, pre-reading activities, skimming and vocabulary activities equally, and identifying passage structure.

In terms of the types of reading tasks, the reading content of the three textbooks within the two stages, in general, incorporates primary reading skills such as skimming, scanning, identifying main ideas, locating details, and identifying passage structure, tasks that are important for effective reading comprehension. In addition to the primary reading tasks, the three textbooks also reflect the use of reading subskills such as pre-reading activities, vocabulary, and follow up activities that lead to writing. The incorporation of these primary and secondary reading skills can be considered strength for the reading content in the three textbooks because an effective reading curriculum should include the only major skills of reading, but also subordinate skills (Burmeister, 1978; Hill, 1979).

However, the results of this study concerning types of reading skills in the reading content of the three textbooks understudy show that there was a misalignment between the secondary stage EFL textbooks and the university communication skills EFL textbooks in terms of the distribution of types of the reading tasks related to the skills of reading aloud and identifying the writer’s purpose. Reading aloud was one of the reading skills included in the secondary stage textbooks and was not included in the university textbook which is reasonable as reading aloud is considered one of the skills in the primary stage. Furthermore, “identifying the writer’s purpose” was not included as a skill in the secondary stage EFL textbooks though it is considered one of the high- cognitive reading tasks that belongs to this academic stage (Mutch, 2005), and this skill is given a special attention in the Guidelines of Jordanian English Language Curriculum (MOE, 2006). One of the specific expected outcomes of teaching reading in the secondary stage is to “agree or disagree with author’s point of view” (MOE, 2006, P.56). Thus, the design and balance of the reading tasks in the secondary stage EFL textbooks should be in better alignment with the design and balance proposed in the EFL General Guidelines and Specific Outcomes document.

In light of the results of this study, the researchers feel that it is necessary to submit the following recommendations:

1. The Ministry of Education and universities should solicit teachers’ and instructors’ opinions before, during, and after preparing or adopting a textbook.
2. It is recommended that there should be communication between secondary schools and universities to bridge the reading gap between schools and universities and to enable schools prepare the students for the expected reading

demands at the university level. This articulation mainly includes the expected reading level, the desired reading skills, and the suitable materials to achieve these purposes.

3. It is recommended that other research studies be conducted on larger samples and in other areas in addition to reading. More research studies are needed in the area of transition from school to university in all fields of study.

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Examining Classroom Transformational Spaces Using the Third Space Theory in Developing Students' Sense of Shared Identity

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Abstract—This article reports the investigation that seeks to address the possibility of using selected texts in the English language classrooms that could develop students' sense of shared identity. In so doing, this study attempts to examine perceptions of teachers and students about classroom collaborations between students-student and student-teacher using case-based narratives which was selected by teachers. It also seeks to identify how their collaborative acts can be suggestive to transforming a linear classroom lesson to a more vibrant and effective one and simultaneously develop students sense of shared identity. A qualitative inquiry employing semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and group interviews with 12 secondary English language school teachers and their students were conducted. Teachers' classroom practices (and instructions) are then analysed to gauge their impact on students' interactions with each other during task completion. The preliminary results indicate that teachers' were reluctant to relinquish their authority and power to students for various reasons which could be detrimental to the construction of shared identity. Teachers, more than students felt that their authoritative figure were one of the key indicators of classroom progress in a result-driven education system. The results obtained aim to be informative in pointing to the viability of providing avenues for syllabus designers or other stakeholders to take into considerations texts types which could be used for secondary schools English Literature syllabus in developing students sense of shared identity. Meanwhile, it is also found that students' sense of shared identity could be halted without teachers' support and encouragement of these transformational learning spaces.

Index Terms—shared identity, transformational learning spaces, teacher-student collaboration, narrative inquiry, classroom interactions, Third Space theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Students are constructed agents in the classroom should they be given the chance to do so. However, in the exam oriented, result-driven education system such as the one in Malaysia; more often than not, students have very little say in classroom transactions. With the federal government's effort to bond all races with its 1Malaysia concept, the fundamental aspect which is the curricula was almost neglected or sidelined. This study in an attempt to contribute to the aspects of unity in diversity, seeks to look at the English Literature texts for the secondary schools in Malaysia and obtain teachers and students' perceptions of their classrooms transactions whilst working on the pre-selected text suggested by the researcher.

Research Questions

This investigation seeks to answer two main research questions:

1. To what extent do teachers feel the need to provide 'spaces' in developing student sense of shared identity in the classroom?
- 2a. What are students' perceptions working on local-based texts selected by their teachers?
- 2b. How do teachers and students respond to the idea of using case-based narratives in transforming classroom traditional spaces to develop students' sense of shared identity?

In order to answer these research questions, teachers' perceptions of their students' classroom interactions while studying selected Malaysian short stories are sought; students' perceptions of their engagement with their peers and the texts selected by their teachers in their literature lessons are also explored. In addition, interactions via discursive engagement in the Third Space in a hybrid multicultural classroom between teacher-student and student-student are also examined.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW: THIRD SPACE AS TRANSFORMATIONAL SPACES

'*Third Spaces are hybrid spaces that bring people together*' (Bhabha, 2004). It is a postcolonial sociolinguistic theory of identity and community realized through language enunciation. Bhabha explains that Third Space theory describes the uniqueness of each person, actor or context as 'hybrid'. Thus, in the present study, the hybrid spaces are not only the availability of groups of students from different cultural backgrounds in what could be conceived as

'convenient hybridity' in the classroom, but also the active introduction of Malaysian short stories which can be perceived as induced hybridity, in the integration and amalgamation of knowledge from the official and unofficial curriculum. The official curriculum (text used) in this context is the prescribed texts used by all the students in Malaysia, while the unofficial text is the one selected by the researcher. Convenient hybridity mentioned above carries the meaning of the readily available multicultural students in a classroom. In this study, students from different backgrounds are not taken from several schools but are all in one single school. This aspect of convenient hybridity is akin to the convenience sampling technique when carrying out research. Induced hybridity, on the other hand, is the 'planned' hybridity in which the Malaysian short story selected by the researcher is used. The induced hybridity is to optimise responses from the participants, so 'familiar ground' (a Malaysian story) is chosen to induce reciprocity.

Other education-based studies which utilise the concept of Third Space include the work of Pane (2007). In her study, Pane investigated how the blend between face-to-face and online instruction supports the development of Third Space content-area in a reading education course. She identifies the Third Space in her study as a 'zone of transformation' that is generated when teachers and students socialise together in and through language, integrating everyday and academic knowledge. Similar to the context of teaching and learning derived from Pane, the Third Space in this study is identified as an area (zone) where students and teachers explore the Malaysian short story and link the story to their everyday experiences of 'reality' in society. With the ability to link stories to reality (the favourable and unfavourable events happening in society), teachers may also be able to facilitate the construction of shared identity by getting the students to critically reflect on their own experiences in a direction which recognises the importance of unity amidst their differences.

In tune with the concern to recognise differences, Kostogriz (2002), by contrast, asserts that the Third Space is not about finding a solution to differences or searching for familiar ground in literacy representations and practices. He contends that the main purpose is for students to be aware of contradictions and ambivalence and their acceptance of situations where ambivalence could help in their learning and also their lives. By this he means that the students would be able to understand conflicts more readily in their lives from being aware of the differences that exist amongst themselves. His perspective fits well with the intention of this study in that by understanding cultural conflicts, students can develop the notion of shared identity in a more sensible way.

Gutiérrez and her associate (1999) have a slightly different perspective to that of Bhabha on Third Space. They perceive the Third Space as a link between community/home-based Discourse and school-based Discourse (Moje et al., 2004). However, Gutiérrez in her more recent study of the Third Space proposes that a paradigm shift is needed in literacy education for young people in which the collective Third Space and 'sociocritical literacy' (Gutiérrez, 2008) are emphasised. Sociocritical literacy, according to Gutiérrez (Ibid: 148):

...historicizes everyday and institutional literacy practices and texts and reframes them as powerful tools oriented toward critical social thought.

In her study, students in their everyday social environment re-examine who they are and what their potential could be to enable them to achieve academically and beyond. In other words, students are encouraged to critically re-conceive their 'self' and the 'others' around them. Gutiérrez focuses on the design of a particular social environment of development (learning ecology) in which the construct of a collective Third Space is developed. She contends that the construct of this Third Space is very much akin to that of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978).

Gutiérrez's perspective in this sociocritical view of literacy, however, challenges contemporary definitions of the Zone of Proximal Development in which Vygotsky's (1978) construct of ZPD is at the heart of scaffolding. In ZPD, learners are given support by their teacher or a more competent peer until the learner decides the support is no longer required. Gutiérrez's notion of ZPD is conceptualised in the Third Space from three different aspects. First, the Third Space is a 'movement' in which the reorganisation of school-based concepts takes place. Second, the main activities suitable to learners' development reorganise everyday functions in this Third Space, and finally, the development in this Third Space is grounded as the transformation of the individual learner (Gutiérrez, 2008). From her perspective, Gutiérrez believes that learners' development and their sociocultural environment '*actively seek to change the other to their own ends*' (p.153). This is Gutiérrez's point of departure from ZPD.

To this end, Gutiérrez's work resonates with the focus of this study, insofar as firstly, there is a reorganisation of 'movement' in terms of the utilisation of the Malaysian short story in the literature classroom. The 'movement' resembles the progression from the official text prescribed in the syllabus to the unofficial texts (a Malaysian short story). Then there are the main activities which constitute teaching and learning in the classroom, similar to the day-to-day literature lessons but comprising carefully orchestrated (planned) participation. Thirdly, there is the development in the Third Space which Gutiérrez cites as the transformation of the individual learner through carefully designed, ecologically-grounded practice. However, Gutiérrez's call for learners and their sociocultural environment to actively seek to change the other to their own ends is not applicable to this study as the main aim of this investigation is for the students to understand the other not 'to change' them. Teachers and learners and their sociocultural environment in this case actively use their understanding of difference (of self and other) to aid the formation of a shared identity.

The advantages of exploiting the Third Space

Scholars in the realms of Third Space have highlighted the potential of exploiting this space. Gutiérrez and her colleagues (1999) state that the construct of Third Space has been advantageous in helping educators to understand the

complexity of learning environments and their transformative potential – *'Hybridity in diversity serve as the building blocks of Third Space'* (p.287). By this they mean that the careful use of hybridity and diversity permits the transformation of activities into becoming a strong developmental context in which students can learn.

In their 2004 study, Moje and colleagues go on to show that by connecting marginalised and conventional knowledge, there is an increase in academic engagement when the Third Space is utilised in the classroom context. Secondly, the Third Space serves as a 'navigational' space where students are able to bring resources from home to the classroom context. In this way, learners are able to take advantage of the different resources they bring to the classroom to support their abilities to operate in different contexts by drawing upon the different skills learned in different situations. Thirdly, the Third Space provides a place where the integration of resources from home (experience) and school Discourses produce new learning patterns. This space is characterised by the Discourses and roles adopted by the actors (the teachers, students, parents and community) within them and generates new knowledge which can sometimes challenge their sense-making of the subject in relation to the knowledge generated from home and the world outside the classroom. Moje et al (2004, p.44) suggest that:

The few studies of classroom practices that seek to challenge dominant knowledge and Discourses generally demonstrate gains in students' academic literacy skills because of the bridges that are built even as students move toward developing new knowledge.

Thus, Moje and associates urge the need for more studies of the Third Space in the classroom context using a variety of methods in which every day and academic Discourses can be challenged and new knowledge produced.

Wolf (2008) delineates several advantages to be gained from the exploration of the Third Space, and suggests that the Third Space should not be seen just as a 'space' but rather as a contact zone for controversial potentials, a space for transition that helps make visible *'the idea of something incompatible, concealed, unconscious'* (p.13). This space of transition could be one that has long been avoided by teachers (and family members or society) such as discussions of controversial issues including ethnic stereotyping and the 'privileges' awarded to certain groups of people by those with 'power' vested in them. The controversial potential is what Bhabha (1994, p.39) refers to when he says *'Self can be experienced as the Other'*. In the literature-teaching context in this study, what Bhabha indicated in the quotation above can be interpreted as the role play students create and present to the class - 'them' in the shoes of the characters they carry. Thus, the Third Space is a space of transition to being 'them' to becoming someone else, from the narrative used. As a consequence of the Third Space as a space of transition, Wolf points out that it can be a platform for negotiation, and in this study negotiation between students and other students and also students and their teacher. The Third Space is an interactive arena where conflicts and differences between students can be transposed into constructive features.

The Third Space as described in the studies mentioned above fits very well with the aims and objectives of the present study - using Malaysian a short story so that students and teachers alike can share their home experiences with the others in the classroom. These different experiences not only heighten their knowledge about the other cultures around them but also of the complexity of 'reality' in society, which can then strengthen the drive to construct a shared Malaysian identity. The Third Space as a hybrid space can open up avenues and broaden access for the students to renegotiate their identities, thus taking steps beyond their normal unitary 'fixed' identities (as Malays, Chinese or Indians) to a hybridised space that is negotiable and fluid.

Locating the Third space

Luke and Luke (1999,p.234) conceptualising the Third Space, assert:

The third space is the site and moment of hybridity, of ambivalence, or reworking and renaming, of subverting and recreating identity from among multi-embedded social constructions of Otherness. These constructs are not exclusively the representations of the dominant culture, but intertwine with community, family, or nation narratives that index 'home', 'race', 'origin' and 'culture'.

Therefore, the concept of the 'Third Space' has considerable ramifications for the possible construction of shared identity in a space where cultures collide and beliefs and values can tend to contradict each other. As highlighted by Luke and Luke above, the hybrid space is where re-identification or reformulation can occur without the superiority of the dominant culture. In the context of this study, this is the culture of the Malays. It offers the possibility of cultural politics whereby polarities between different ethnicities can be avoided. It is not a halfway space but, rather, centred on the adaptation and transformation of the culture and identity of a society that attempts to reconcile differences. Meredith (1998) affirms:

The concept of hybridity and the third space contributes to an approach that avoids the perpetuation of antagonistic binarisms and develops inclusionary, not exclusionary, and multi-faceted, not dualistic, patterns of cultural exchange and maturation.

Thus, the ultimate goal in locating the Third Space in this study, following Gutiérrez, is to create rich zones of development (Gutiérrez et al., 1999). In this sphere, students learn collaboratively by participating in activities through which they share ideas, materials, experience, language and also their cultural resources.

The notion of hybridity is exemplified in the use of local narratives (a Malaysian short story), proposed as the mediating tool for the construction of shared Malaysian identity. This notion of hybridity according to Moje et al. (2004) can be applied to the integration of competing knowledge and discourses. By this they mean:

[...] to the texts one reads and writes; to the spaces, contexts, and relationships one encounters; and even to a person's identity enactments and sense of self. Hybridity theory connects in important ways to Third Space, because Third Spaces are hybrid spaces that bring together any or all of the constructs named above.

The constructs, as they are referred to by Moje and colleagues above, require collaborative participation (Oxford, 1997) from the actors (text, space and context). Fundamental to the idea of collaborative participation is the conception of hybridity which is a crucial element in knowledge generation in the Third Space.

Moje et al. (2004:43) further argue that the Third Space can become an effective hybrid cultural space under certain conditions:

...rather than a fragmented and angst-ridden psychological space, only if teachers and students incorporate divergent texts in the hope of generating new knowledge and Discourses.

Accordingly, the use of a Malaysian short story in this study (unofficial texts) fits the purpose of creating a Third Space in the literature classroom where not only new knowledge can be produced but also the awareness of the need to construct an identity that is responsive to the development of a more integrated society.

Constructing the Third Space in the classroom

The Third Space is a theoretical construct which emerged out of the data analysis. From the data, it emerged that students and teachers were positive about the different ideas that could be introduced in their teaching and learning. In addition, according to the literature, the understanding which takes place through sharing experiences through dialogues of argumentation, negotiation and explanation can strengthen the foundation of knowledge generation (Wells, 2000). I realised that these new ideas could benefit students' learning if teachers were aware of ways in which the Third Space can be a transformational space for teaching and learning, and that if the Third Space was beneficially exploited, any new curriculum ideas could be introduced without having to adhere to a prescribed official syllabus, at the same time attaining the intended learning outcomes and still getting students to work towards their examination objectives.

In the discussion of hybridity and the Third Space, I have drawn upon concepts from Moje et al.'s (2004) study based on hybridity theory. These authors assert that '*people in any given community draw on multiple resources or funds to make sense of the world*' and that being '*in-between several different funds of knowledge and Discourse can be productive and constraining in terms of one's literate, social, and cultural practices*' (p. 42). The findings in this present study indicated that students only drew on their home and community experiences and knowledge during their lessons, if the teachers gave explicit instructions to do so when using the Malaysian short story, so that they were able to link and connect their own experiences to the problems and conflicts presented in the story. However, from the observations, students often seemed detached from the content of lessons in that they were not able to bring their home or community experiences into the classroom as there was very little opportunity to do so and no attempt or guidance from the teachers to encourage them. This suggests that there could be value in explaining the relevance of this Third Space in the classroom to teachers by indicating its parameters and boundaries and ways in which it can become a medium for the construction of collective identity.

In explaining the relevance of the Third Space as a medium of shared identity construction, a possible framework could involve three applications following Hulme, Cracknell and Owens (2009): a **recognised space** in which students and teachers can negotiate their learning and teaching; an **excursion space** where the space is used to travel into their designated lesson activities such as in the forms of role-play, drama, dialogues and a **transmission space** in which communication, information and correspondence are exchanged.

Ideally, activities based on all three modes can be planned as 'excursions into learning' whereby messages and values are translated into role-play, drama and dialogues between and amongst the students as well as in teacher-student interactions. Finally, messages that are translated through excursions (drama, role-play, dialogue) can be transmitted to the rest of the class so that information can be exchanged and communication reciprocated. Through the course of these transactions, the Third Space can actively serve as a platform for the students to construct collective identity through their heightened knowledge and awareness of 'others' around them.

III. METHODOLOGY

Data Collection and Analysis

A qualitative inquiry employing the semi-structured interviews with 12 teachers from six different schools around Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, focus groups discussion with 6 groups of students and pre and post non-participant classroom observations were carried out. An inductive thematic analysis was conducted in the analysis of data.

Selected Text and Workshop

Deep Fried Devils by Shih Li-Kow, a Malaysian writer. It depicted a story of how a Chinese couple had arguments with a Malay couple. Both were hawkers and sold similar delicacy. They pointed fingers at who stole whose delicacies. At the same time, another hawker (immigrants) put up their stall and sold the same food. Realising that both of them were at a losing end, they stood united.

During the Pre-workshop observations, teachers taught using the prescribed text issued by the Ministry of Education Malaysia. Teachers attended a workshop meant to introduce the text Deep Fried Devils and possible ways in using it. Teachers were given the opportunity to exploit the text anyway they pleased during post-workshop observation.

IV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Transforming Classroom Spaces into Shared Space

Autonomy in the classroom

One important aspect in the investigation of the different perceptions of teachers and students in this study is around the degree to which students were given control over their own learning activities. Some teachers felt they had given some autonomy to the students in their decision making in group work formation; however, several students tended to disagree. From the analysis, students' decision making about group formation was more often than not overruled by their teachers, if the teachers felt that the combination of group members did not match the lesson objectives. In addition, most students were observed to have had minimal negotiations with their teachers regarding group formation. The implication is that the differences in teachers' and students' perceptions can probably indicate differing purposes in group work formation. Whilst teachers were mostly prepared for completing the syllabus and gearing students for examinations, students, on the other hand, demonstrated their eagerness to have their own 'voices' heard in classroom processes of decision making. Thus, teachers' openness to other voices is crucial for laying the foundations for the success of multi-ethnic group work, fostering 1Malaysia and paving a pathway for a tangible use of the Third Space construct.

In relation to the issue of autonomy discussed above, firstly, some students were seen to demand from their teachers more 'voice' and decision making in their quest for task completion such as when selecting group members. I asked teachers to comment on this issue.. RA had this to say:

There are not many Chinese and Indians [in the classroom]. So, if there happened to be more [Chinese and Indians], then I think they would probably choose their own kind...easier to communicate, may be. But I will always emphasise in using the English Language in my classroom. (RA 95)

[] indicates my additions)

Another comment akin to RA's comment came from SN:

Sometimes if you give them the freedom, the students will find their own friends from their own race. But then again the majority are Malay. So the tendency of having more Malay students cannot be avoided. (SN37)

FN made a similar comment:

I give the freedom for the students to choose. I noticed sometimes the students like to stick to their own race. (FN26)

Secondly, in contrast to some students' contrary opinions, teachers were explicit about what students had to learn and how it should be learnt. Teachers and students have different ways of interpreting and making sense of 'autonomy'. Benson (2007) states that, by and large, teachers view autonomy essentially as related to classroom learning arrangements and that this falls within what has been indicated in the syllabus. This goes hand in hand with what most teachers in this study generally believed: that they (teachers) should determine the plan for teaching and learning, not the students. Some students felt that a degree of student autonomy in decision making about classroom learning would enable them to better communicate their ideas, by selecting group members for collaborative problem-solving tasks.

Little (2007:16) asserts that '*the essence of learner autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's own learning*'. However, Chan (2000) attests to the notion that it is problematic for teachers to have room for learner autonomy in exam-driven contexts such as Malaysia, where the classroom teaching and learning is run '*in a formal and structured manner*' (p.78). From my observations, it seems that there was little learning autonomy (i.e. choices for students) in any other aspect of classroom learning such as self-assessment, goal-setting and self-reflection (although these aspects of learning were not directly within the scope of this investigation).

Common things shared with friends from different cultural backgrounds

The idea of food (as discussed in the text *Deep Fries Devils*) as a unifying factor is ubiquitous. Food, according to Phillips, (2006) has long functioned as a commodity in global production and trade systems in that the idea of globalisation itself has been cultivated through food. In the process of looking for the combination of ingredients which could make up the elements of a shared Malaysian identity, I asked the students to discuss the things they had and would share with everyone despite their differences in culture, language and religious backgrounds. The discussion about this issue was exhilarating and amusing as they shared their experiences and also contributed some new ideas about things which could be shared by the people of this country.

The most common idea the group members suggested was the gastronomy, which play a crucial part in Malaysian people's lifestyles. To reiterate, a lot of activities revolve around food. Food is considered one of the most important elements of being Malaysian as a large number of people would look for something to eat throughout the day. Eating outlets are aplenty and available round the clock everywhere, especially in big cities and towns. Most students agreed that food could be the unifying factor. The questionnaire findings (E5C) supported this statement in that 81% of the students agreed that eating local foods would provide a better platform for the construction of a shared Malaysian identity. LH from WM5 commented:

I think being Malaysian, we eat our local foods. Malaysians are more open nowadays compared to a few decades ago. I think...during the times of my grandparents... emmm...'roti canai' or 'chee cheong fun' was almost unheard of ... never mind eating them. (WM5L 12 M, M)

BM from WM5R agreed that foods had made different people come together; and eat in the same place regardless of religious and cultural backgrounds. This statement was supported by YTL from PU1, and DH and LH from SJI in

saying that different foods from different cultures had long been enjoyed by Malaysians, such as *Nasi Lemak*, *Roti Canai* and Chinese noodles.

SV from PU1 said that it would be wonderful if we Malaysians could come up with one dish that represented all the races. When asked what that could be, he responded: '*nasi lemak*' with Malay, Indian and Chinese food gravy... how about that?' (PU1 48 M, I).

The discussion about food by the SJI group resulted in similar responses by the group members. Most of them mentioned types of food that could represent Malaysia in the eyes of the world.

The NMC group was asked to discuss how they would identify themselves as Malaysian if they were living far away from home. Some interesting responses were gathered from them. INM said '*It's easy... I eat loads of Malaysian foods...that make me more Malaysian I guess...*' (NMC47 M, M)

However, AIZ from the NMC group had a different idea; he was convinced that the most important unifying factor was language. He said '*Speak Malay [Bahasa Melayu]. Bahasa Melayu... emm... I share BM [Bahasa Melayu] with friends from other races...*' (NMC 50 M,M). He further added that it would be good if everyone in Malaysia was able to speak Malay fluently so that there would be better communication among all the people in this country. Once again, the statement from AIZ above is in tune with the findings of the questionnaire which indicated that 72.6% strongly agreed and agreed that speaking the national language (Bahasa Melayu) regularly could increase the success of constructing shared Malaysian identity.

On the other hand, KL disagreed with AIZ and said:

... but the Chinese and Indians will ask why Malay? ..not Tamil or Chinese? The Malays should also speak Tamil and Chinese as fluently as what they have been doing [speaking the Malay language]. (NMC 53 F, M)

MH who had been listening to the conversation between KL and AIZ said '*It'll be good if Malaysian schools have [offer subjects] like... Mandarin, Tamil or other languages...make it a compulsory subject to others who do not speak the language...*' (NMC 85 M, M). When I probed further on the issue of making the subject compulsory, MH responded:

Yes...at least until UPSR ...or when they are about to go to secondary schools and then later...emmm...they could choose whether they want to pursue the extra language they had learnt in primary school...but it must be available [offered] in the secondary school. (NMC 97 M, M)

Currently, students in public secondary schools are not given an opportunity to do extra language courses, unless they request to do a public exam, for example, French (which is offered as an examined subject) but has to arrange a private tutorial outside school hours. The suggestion from MH above is an idea which can be taken up by Curriculum Development Centre in Malaysia.

On elements, besides food and language, that could unite Malaysians, IKH from WM5R said there were other things that could unify Malaysian such as its unique cultures. SRA from WM5L on similar note added:

We Malaysians wear clothes that originate from other races. For example now, many Chinese girls wear 'baju kurung' to school. They have the choice of wearing a pinafore but many are comfortable wearing 'baju kurung'. So I think that is the Malaysian spirit (WM5L 14 F, M)

This was supported by a similar comment by MAY from WM5R:

Wearing traditional dress like the 'Cheongsam' or 'Baju kurung' by people from different races will definitely prove that we are absolutely Malaysian... Now many Chinese and Indian girls wear 'baju kurung', especially to school. (WM5R 18 F, C)

These ideas and opinions are valuable and should be carried further as the voice of the younger generation and what they feel are the factors that could bring people together; and 'them' in particular. Among some other things that students indicated having in common was the celebration of festivals in Malaysia and becoming involved in activities run by different groups of people in Malaysia. The students believed that school could be just the right place to support the idea of a more unified Malaysian society and felt that their teachers could be more supportive in ensuring that tasks involving diversity worked in their classrooms.

Students' views of the texts used in their literature lessons

Quite a number of students voiced their preferences for stories related to their lives as teenagers, which had kept them interested in the subject. SH from WM5R mentioned '*Shakespeare was interesting. I like to read about the way people lived during that time, the language and the love story*' (WM5L 25 M,I). On the other hand, DJ from the same group said otherwise. He said that it was difficult to understand Shakespeare or Jane Austen as the stories were set in a different century and the settings were strange. He said:

It's definitely difficult [Shakespeare]. We have to rely on the teacher to explain it to us. It's quite boring too. If it's simplified... then it'll be more interesting. I think if it's something like Twilight... emmm... I wonder why girls go crazy watching that movie... [hilarious laugh] (SJI 79 M, I)

When the students were asked to discuss the kinds of texts they preferred to use in the classroom, many had their own preferences and their own ideas of what would most interest them and also their friends. SH from PU1 said:

I have read a book by Mitch Albom, '*Tuesdays with Morrie*'... so I would love to share this story with my friends because it's interesting...because it discusses the flaws of human... (PU1 24 M,)

SRN from PU1 had his own opinion about stories to be used in the classrooms. He said '*If I have a choice I would like to bring in the Harry Potter series*' (PU1 32 M, C).

From the discussion above, some students clearly preferred world literatures which according to them were able to capture their interests based on the themes or plot of the stories. For them, stories from around the world widened their knowledge of the world or/and new approach to fictions (such as the Harry Potter series).

IKH from WM5R had a more 'local' idea. He said '*I like Lat's cartoon and it's very interesting. It shows a lot of Malaysian scenes and how different races live together*' (WM5R 32 M, M). Lat, a famous and prolific Malaysian cartoonist, has produced volumes of cartoons depicting multicultural Malaysia. In most of his cartoons, the presence of Malay, Chinese, Indian and Punjabi characters are almost mandatory. Most of the characters in his cartoons are drawn from aspects of his own life when he was young and growing up in a village where many people from different cultural backgrounds coexisted and worked together closely. Many of his cartoons have been turned into series of cartoon programmes on television and recently (in 2009) a cartoon strip was drawn on a famous Malaysian budget airline Air Asia. (Refer to Appendix 14 for a sample of Lat's cartoons). Lat's cartoons according to MH are embedded with values that could unite the different ethnic groups with simple and direct message such as 'respect your neighbours'.

Discussions about the differences between locally written stories, or stories from around the world which could be used to cultivate students' understanding of other cultures in the Malaysian classrooms drew similar ideas from the students. They generally felt that a combination of local stories and stories from around the world should be used as long as they were based on good values that encouraged all students to work together despite their cultural and religious differences. KL from NMC had this to say:

I think there should also be a combination of Malaysian people's stories and also the western cultures so that Malaysian students will not be left out by not knowing the cultures of the world...but it is still good to know the culture around and within us first. (NMC 111 F, M)

AIZ said:

It's good to have a combination of stories as this will expose us to more stories from around the world... but more emphasis on Malaysian stories where Malay, Chinese and Indian cultures are emphasised. It's good because we tend to know more about each other's culture, because even though we live side by side with each other, we still don't know a lot of things about them (friends from different cultural background), their culture and so on. (NMC 87 M, M)

The importance of creating a dialogic interactional space in the classroom

The use of dialogic talk in small group interactions can be seen as a platform for acquiring the skills necessary for the construction of a collective identity. To reiterate, the term 'dialogic', from Wells (2000), signifies the establishment of a classroom community working together towards a shared goal in the search for an understanding which involves dialogue rather than a teacher monologue.

Teachers, however, were observed to focus on immediate classroom priorities such as finishing the syllabus before the examination, and emphasised the important aspects that would be examined rather than developing the skills required for students to interact with each other by working in pairs or groups. From the interviews and observations carried out with teachers, they believed that the responsibility for constructing shared identity amongst students was by no means an easy task. Some teachers were enthusiastic about the idea, some were less so. SN commented:

Most of us are pretty much busy with completing the syllabus and getting the students ready for exams. At the end of the day, the administration and parents want to see results. So how much room is the teacher left with to get the students to think about how they can actually understand each other or to (be) involve (d) in each others' festivities? (SN 158)

Besides the difficulties in finding extra time for other activities apart from academic encounters the teachers' attitudes towards the introduction of 'new ideas' varied. These attitudes can be divided into negative and positive attitudes towards 'new ideas' – which may not be new to some teachers, but only mean a new task for them to take on. Students' achievement in exams was prioritised. Thus, it was not surprising that providing more interactional space such as allocating time for pair and group work (see Table 1 below) for students would have seemed to inhibit teachers' objectives in completing their syllabus on time.

TABLE 1:
APPROACHES TEACHERS USED IN LESSONS DURING THE PRE-WORKSHOP OBSERVATIONS

Teacher	Whole class teaching	Individual work	Pair work	Group work
PL	√	√	√	X
RA	√	X	X	X
FN	√	X	X	√
SR	√	X	√	√
SL	√	√	X	X
SN	√	X	X	√
AN	√	X	X	X
PL1	√	X	√	X
RA2	√	X	X	X
FN2	√	X	X	X
SR2	√	√	X	X
SL2	√	X	√	X
SN2	√	X	X	√
AN2	√	√	X	√

Table 1 above would seem to indicate that teachers were more comfortable carrying out whole class teaching throughout all the lessons, more so than putting students into groups or encouraging pair work to induce more interaction between them. After each lesson, the teachers were asked their reasons for opting for a whole class teaching approach during. In my notes I wrote:

No group work for this lesson as the teacher said that this was just a 40-minute lesson and she normally would have group work during a double period lesson. Moreover, the class was in the chemistry lab, so it was difficult to organize group work with a lot of apparatus around. (PrePL)

The conclusion that I reached when observing lessons before and after the workshop confirms the urgent need to provide spaces for students to be more interactive with their peers and their teachers. Long and Porter (1985) in their study of group work, interlanguage and Second Language Acquisition, acknowledge that group work does not only increase language practice opportunities; it also improves the quality of student talk, motivates the learners and promotes a positive affective climate for both peers and teachers, the subject and the learning environment. What can be drawn from the classroom observations in the present study is that teachers could make their lessons interactive if they wished and could, without great difficulty, turn a linear classroom teaching session into an interactive one that captured students' attention. As stated by Blatchford et al. (2003:175) '*teachers are the best judge of what works best in the specific context in which they practice...*'.

I also noted that there were striking differences in students' reactions before and after the workshop intervention in that, teachers in their day-to-day lessons had somehow neglected to consider the role of student interaction in achieving their teaching objectives. In the observations after the workshop, on the whole, students enjoyed working together with their friends regardless of their ethnic and cultural backgrounds because teachers had in general made greater effort to create a 'space' for more interactions and dialogues to occur. In this regard, Wells (2000) reminds us that 'covering' the syllabus should not be the ultimate goal in education; this argument perhaps is not convincing for teachers who feel a need for time to prepare students for examinations.

Students' participation in classroom discussion can be motivated by a combination of factors, ranging from how the discourse is structured to the content of the lesson and the comfort of surroundings, and the extent to which they provide a supportive atmosphere (Consolo, 2002). So, a number of students are willing to 'take risks' to enable classroom communication. The observations suggested that the more favourable atmosphere provided by teachers during the literature lessons was largely generated as a kind of 'imposed action' whereby the teachers accommodated the atmosphere due to 'the research', not because they believed in the importance of a favourable atmosphere. In other words, the teachers provided the 'space' for students due to the research investigation. Otherwise, the 'space' was more likely to be ignored under the more normal conditions of their day-to-day classroom teaching.

Pierce (1995) suggests that when teachers provide a positive classroom interactional space, students respond in a more meaningful way, thus increasing student motivation, which in turn leads to higher achievement. This assumption is supported by Hall and Verplaetse (2000:10), who affirm that:

It is in their interactions with each other that teachers and students work together to create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development.

Thus, it can be concluded that as part of the desire to construct a shared Malaysian identity, first and foremost, teachers should be willing to create this dialogic interactional space, from time to time, in order that students can practise the dialogic intercultural skills necessary to move forward towards the construction of a collective identity.

From classroom observations and interviews conducted in this study, some students' found that they were likely to be more 'connected' in groups of friends from similar ethnicity in their classroom decision making. Teachers on the other hand, were seen exerting their cognitive understandings which seemed to best serve their teaching objectives for that particular lesson.

The findings, however, suggest that although there is a clear aim on the part of the teacher for the students to achieve the intended learning objectives in group discussions by making meaning through collaboration, it does not always work out as planned. Some teachers are more likely to perceive that group work collaboration at times inhibits knowledge construction since it takes more time for students to collaborate than to undertake individual work. Therefore, it was not surprising that some teachers in this study were skeptical and excluded group work from their lessons. An example is RA's pre- and post-classroom observations in that he executed a whole class teaching approach through the entire lessons.

What can be concluded from the similarities and differences of perceptions between teachers and students mentioned above is that their insights into teaching and learning are inextricably related and contribute to different overarching ideas about the teaching and learning process. By giving a greater degree of 'voice' to the students and more autonomy to the teachers, as well as students, in their classroom decision making, schooling would arguably provide the best terrain for the cultivation of any new, positive inter-ethnic relations in a multi-ethnic country such as Malaysia.

Implications for Teaching and Learning

Power and hegemony

The policies reflected in the curriculum which are put together by curriculum designers (who are appointed by the ruling government) delineate what should be included in the curriculum and what students should learn in school. The

prescribed curriculum also reflects what sort of knowledge is considered important, and therefore is strongly emphasised and vice versa. Through power and hegemony (mentioned briefly in previous section), suitable attitudes are dictated to members of educational institutions. Within the hegemonic curriculum, ‘*measurable “excellence” and maximum efficiency has contributed to the proliferation of standardized tests*’ (Bonikowski, 2004:14). This is one of the main foci in the process of schooling in many parts of the world, including Malaysia.

From the analysis of this investigation, the hegemonic power exerted by the formal curriculum through the education department, then to school management and finally to teachers was apparent in the teachers’ responses. In the teachers’ interviews, they were aware that there were other aspects of learning such as understanding cultural values, student autonomy and agency that could be media for understanding ‘others’ better. Due to the stringent and rigid curriculum specifications, however, teachers generally had little alternative but to follow syllabus requirements strictly and adhere to stipulated timetables.

V. CONCLUSION

A great deal of teaching preparation at this time involved equipping students for the examination. An exam-oriented curriculum had been in place in the Malaysian education system since it was introduced during the colonial era by the British. Although the curriculum had been revised many times over a period of more than five decades, assessment had been an integral part not only in schools but also at tertiary level. Teachers realised that they needed to gear their students towards the exam as pressure from every corner awaits them; the Ministry of Education demands schools produce good, intelligent students; the local education department pressurises heads of schools to produce excellent results, who then order teachers to do their best to at least beat the results of neighbouring schools, not to mention being under pressure to meet the expectations of parents who want their children to do well under the guidance of the teachers.

So, how does this study fit in to the situation mentioned above, when teachers play a very limited role in decision making in the syllabus design? They are just disseminators; at least, that was what they led me to understand. That was why teachers said that they had to focus on finishing the syllabus and carrying out revision in time for the more important examination at the end of the term.

Thus, in the context of this study and the Malaysian classroom setting:

- The Third Space was promoted through the official curriculum by the use of Malaysian short stories; teachers were given the opportunity the use a text other than the ones prescribed in order to engage the students in the construction of a shared identity.
- Teachers were encouraged to integrate Malaysian short stories within the official curriculum so that the amalgamation could possibly facilitate students’ own version of shared Malaysian identity.
- The development of Third Space within a hybrid discourse context is a tool for navigating students through unfamiliar learning contexts and/or theories while building on their everyday knowledge and discourse. These unfamiliar learning contexts, also known as border crossings, (Giroux, 2006) emphasise differences amongst students, and making the strange (or new ideas) familiar.

In this sense, the Third Space provides an avenue for ‘differences’ in beliefs, customs and traditions to be able to make an appearance, unlike in the course of day-to-day classroom practices through which students tend to be geared towards a general acceptance of a phenomenon where differences are set aside.

Thus, the points discussed above indicate some possible ways in which the Third Space could become an active medium of transformation with the potential to generate genuine interests in the construction of shared identity.

A corollary from the analysis of classroom observations is that student sense of shared identity can be exploited in getting students to be more involved in classroom decision making, provided teachers are willing to relinquish a certain part of their authority to the students. The point of departure is the willingness of teachers to take ‘pedagogical risks’ and try out methods and materials outside the restrictions of the syllabus. From their feedback, however, teachers were certain that a wider selection of materials based on home grown products (Malaysian short stories) would enhance the meaning-making in teaching and learning literature and be highly advantageous for developing interactive skills which would transfer later to the world of work and all spheres of social interaction. This suggests the teachers would be prepared to take such risks.

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The Effect of an Integrative Skills Program on Developing Jordanian University Students' Select Multiple Intelligences

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of an integrative skills program on developing Jordanian university students' select- multiple intelligences. It also aimed at investigating the effect of gender and the interaction between gender and the instructional program on intelligences. The participants were 122 university students. The study adopted a quasi-experimental design. The experimental group was instructed using the integrative program. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to analyze the students' full degrees on the intelligence test. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the adjusted mean scores of students' intelligences due to the teaching method in favor of the experimental group. The data revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the adjusted mean scores of students' intelligences due to gender in favor of the females in the linguistic and interpersonal intelligences and the males in the logical and intrapersonal intelligences. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the adjusted mean scores of intelligences due to the interaction between the teaching method and gender in favor of the females in the linguistic intelligence and the males in the logical intelligence.

Index Terms—multiple intelligences, linguistic intelligence, logical intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, MIT, Jordan

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the idea of the integration of the four skills has greatly influenced second language education in order to help learners attain the ultimate goal of communicative competence and performance. Dawid (2004) stresses that the integration of the four skills invites the learner to become active and responsible for learning, provides students with opportunities to use the language collaboratively in realistic settings with authentic content and helps the teacher to shift focus from quantity covered in a lesson to the quality of learning that takes place.

Gardner challenged the traditional definition of intelligence which is measured by intelligence quotient (IQ) that measures only a narrow range of verbal/ linguistic and logical/mathematical abilities of a person. Gardner (1993), however, in his book entitled "Frames of Mind: the Theory of Multiple Intelligences" provides an alternative definition of intelligence according to which intelligence is defined as "the ability to solve problems or to create products that are valued within one or more cultural settings" (P.11). Gardner proposed a theory that defined human intelligence as multiple abilities. Gardner suggested verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily- kinesthetic, spatial-visual, interpersonal, intrapersonal, natural, existential, spiritual, moral and laser intelligences.

Gardner and many other researchers and educationalists believe in the teachers' roles to develop learners' intelligences by using a variety of approaches to the subject matter (Armstrong, 2000; Gardner, 1994; Gunst, 2004). Furthermore, other researchers suggest that improving language acquisition for diverse students through the application of multiple intelligences strategies is possible (Armstrong, 2005; Barrington, 2004; Brim and Wooten, 2004; Chan, 2006; Diaz- Lefebvre, 2006; Komhaber, 2004; Madkour, 2009; Wallace, 2010).

According to Gardner, linguistic intelligence refers to the sensitivity to the spoken and written language and the ability to learn languages. Logical-mathematical intelligence refers to the capacity to analyze problems logically, solve mathematical problems, and investigate issues scientifically. Gardner believes that these two intelligences dominate intelligence tests. He adds that there are also two personal intelligences: interpersonal intelligence which is the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people and to work effectively with them; and intrapersonal intelligence which refers to the ability to understand oneself, including one's weaknesses, strengths, moods, intentions and desires.

Gardner (1983) argues that students should use multiple intelligences in order to increase academic achievements. Haley (2004) reveals that the use of the MIT in language learning benefits learners and has a positive impact on the achievement of the students. Gardner and Seana (2006) suggest that using multiple intelligences as integrated abilities

can help students develop cognitive and metacognitive skills which are important for language proficiency. On the other hand, Bas (2010) finds that students who are educated by multiple intelligences are more successful and have better attitude toward learning English.

Gardner encourages teachers to incorporate multiple intelligences to teach language skills. According to Gardner (1983), linguistic intelligence is a mental ability that allows understanding, explaining, and using the language effectively. Gardner (1983) argues that students use the logical-mathematical intelligence to solve problems, understand syntax, and analyze the semantics of the language. Gardner (1999) asserts that students who use interpersonal intelligence enhance social and language skills, Gardner (1999) adds that the use of intrapersonal intelligence helps people use language skills in order to communicate successfully as groups, he stresses that interpersonal intelligence helps people apply the language in various real-life situations while intrapersonal intelligence is important for improving metacognitive skills that are necessary for self-reflection and self-assessment. Gardner (1983, 1999, and 2004) notes that students can use logical- mathematical intelligence to understand the deep structures of the sentences and solve grammatical problems. He emphasizes that learning a language involves using linguistic intelligence along with the other multiple intellectual domains in order to enhance language performance through interactions with various social settings.

Since the four language skills are rarely used in segregation in everyday life, the researchers aim to integrate them in a proposed instructional program in order to investigate the effect the integrative program on developing Jordanian university students' linguistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and logical mathematical intelligences and improving the students' abilities to communicate efficiently various situations.

Problem, Purpose, Questions, and significance of the study

Despite the fact that English is a key language taught in the Jordanian EFL context, the researchers noticed a salient weakness in Jordanian university students' communicative competence during their experience as instructors of English; the students lack the ability to communicate effectively and easily in English. Despite the major goal of integrating the four language skills, it seems that there is a gap between theory and practice with regard to transferring those skills to the out-of classroom practices.

Based on the MIT suggested by Gardner, everyone may be able to develop all the intelligences to a reasonably high level if given appropriate encouragement, enrichment, and instruction. In light of the findings of the reviewed literature, the researchers aim to implement a program of integrative skills to investigate its effect on developing the students' intelligences. To the researchers' best knowledge, the effect of an integrative skills program on developing Jordanian University students' select multiple intelligences has never been researched.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of an integrative skills program on developing Jordanian University students' select multiple intelligences. More specifically, the authors seek answers to the following questions:

1. Are there statistically significant differences in students' intelligences (at $\alpha.05$) due to the instructional program?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in students' intelligences (at $\alpha = 0.05$) due to gender?
3. Are there statistically significant differences in students' intelligences (at $\alpha = 0.05$) due to the interaction between gender and the instructional program?

The findings are potentially significant for the students since they are expected to develop their linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. The professors in the Jordanian educational context may reconsider the syllabus with regard to increasing the number and quality of integrative skills.

II. PREVIOUS LITERATURE

Whole Language Approach (WLA) is considered an effective methodology in foreign language teaching classes. It has been emphasized as one of the recent approaches that develop students' communicative ability within real contexts and attain the ultimate goal of communicative competence.

Many specialists emphasize the importance of MIT in English Language teaching. Gardner (1983) stresses that humans use interpersonal intelligence to understand and relate to other people. Moreover, Gardner (1999) adds that those learners who develop the intrapersonal intelligence, develop their intrinsic motivation and reflect on personal performance to develop their academic standards. With regards to the same issue, Cummins (1981) stresses the close relationship between developing conversational language proficiency and interpersonal skills. Likewise,

Many educationalists believe that it is important to develop the various intelligences (Gardner, 1983; Armstrong, 2003). Many different research papers were conducted in different educational contexts and the researchers found that the linguistic intelligence as well as the other types of intelligences adopted by Gardner can be developed (Bellflower, 2008; Fink, 1991; Harriman, 2010; Harris, 1991; Janes, Koutsopanagos, Mason and Villaranda, 2000; Lazear, 1999; Silver, Strong and Perini, 2000).

Other researchers argue that there are differences in the various domains of intelligences which can be attributed to the gender of the participants. When women are asked to estimate their own intelligence, they tend to give themselves lower scores than men, both within and across particular cultures (Furnham, 2001; Rammstedt and Rammseyer, 2002). With regards to the same issue, Halpern (1997) reviews gender differences in intelligence and notes that women tend to outperform men in verbal fluency, spelling, reading comprehension, writing synonym generation, and knowledge of foreign languages. Halpern adds that men, on average, outperform women on tests in the logical\mathematical domain.

In their study of differences in the various domains of intelligences according to gender, Furnham, Hosoe and Tang (2001) reported that male participants reported significantly higher estimates of IQ than female participants. The researchers explain these gender differences by indicating that males may overestimate their gender factor intelligence as a matter of male pride emerging from sociocultural influences. In their study about the relationship among gender, attitude toward intelligence, and self-estimation of multiple intelligences for self and parents among Portuguese adolescents in secondary schools, Neto, Ruiza and Furnham (2008) reported that males rated themselves higher on overall, mathematical, spatial, intrapersonal, spiritual, and naturalistic IQ compared with females. In another study about cross-cultural differences in beliefs about intelligence and self- and other-estimated intelligences among 172 British and 272 Turkish students, Furnham, Artech, Chamorro-Premuzic, Keser and Swami (2009) reported that, among other results, males rated their overall, verbal, logical, spatial, creative and practical intelligence higher than females when they were asked to complete a three-part questionnaire.

In a study about the use of multiple intelligences in George Washington University second language classroom, Shore (2001) indicates that utilizing multiple intelligences based lessons has led to a higher self-efficacy and therefore a greater achievement in English language learning. In his study of the effect of a multiple-intelligences-based teaching program on Jordanian tenth grade students' paragraph writing ability in English, Khamis (2005) reported a statistically significant difference in all students' paragraph writing ability on English. In her study of the effect of multiple intelligences strategies comprising logical/mathematical intelligence, verbal/linguistic intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence on EFL ninth graders' achievement in reading comprehension, Jallad (2006) reported difference in the students' reading comprehension due to the teaching strategies while she reported no significant difference in the students' reading comprehension due to the students' gender.

In another study that explored the relationship between gender and multiple intelligences, Snyder (1999) reported that females tended to be stronger than males in the intrapersonal, linguistic and musical intelligences while the male students were more gifted than the females in the bodily-kinesthetic, logical/mathematical and visual-spatial intelligences. In their study of different intelligence types among Jordanian students at different public and private universities in Jordan, Al-Faoury, Khataybeh and Al-Sheikh (2011) reported that there were significant differences among Jordanian students in the linguistic and interpersonal intelligence in favor of the females.

Gardner (2004) argues that every intelligence can be nurtured and strengthened or ignored and weakened. He adds that every intelligence can be developed in different degrees and students may excel at only one or two of the intelligences and so he emphasizes that students should not be penalized for that. Thus, applying an integrative program in foreign language classes might help develop the communicative abilities and the intelligences of the students.

III. METHOD AND PROCEDURES

This research is essentially quantitative. The sample of the study consisted of 122 students studying English Communication Skills (102) at Philadelphia University in the first semester of the academic year 2011/ 2012 and were chosen purposefully. The researchers chose the students in the courses which one of them taught in order to apply the program of the integrative skills, the first group (N= 62) was the control group (male and female students). The second group (N= 60) was the experimental group (male and female students). The experimental group was instructed using the integrative skills program. The participants were informed about the experiment in the sense that it was a study about an integrative skills program. The distribution of the sample according to the variables of gender and teaching method is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS DUE TO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES (GENDER AND TEACHING METHOD)

Teaching Method	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female			
	#	%	#	%	#	%
Traditional	34	27.9	28	23.0	62	50.8
Integrative	35	28.7	25	20.5	60	49.2
Total	69	56.6	53	43.5	122	100.0

A content analysis research tool was conducted to find out the percentages of integrative skills and logical, linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in the first six chapters in Intermediate *New Headway Plus*. The criteria of analysis in this research included the extent of incorporating the four skills in the units and activities under study and the extent of incorporating the logical, linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in the units and activities under study. The unit of analysis in this study was the activity and the categories of analysis were the integrative skills and the linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in the Students' book.

An analysis of the activities under study was conducted by one of the researchers in light of the categories of the analysis in order to establish the reliability of the content analysis of integrative skills and the linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Regarding the intra-rater reliability, a repetition of the analysis three weeks later was attempted using the same unit and categories of analysis. The percentage coefficient of the whole analysis of the integrative skills was 98%, and the percentage coefficient of the whole analysis of the linguistic, interpersonal and

intrapersonal intelligences was (97.6), which are considered very high. Regarding the inter-rater reliability of integrative skills and the four intelligences, the other researcher with another analyst familiar with content analysis conducted the content analysis on all of the activities under study using the same categories and unit of analysis. The three coefficients of the whole analysis of the integrative skills are (97.8%, 98% and 97%) and the three coefficients of the intelligences are (97%, 98.1%, 97.9%), which are considered very high.

As for testing the linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences, the researcher benefited from the related literature about multiple intelligences and included items that measure linguistic intelligence, logical intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence. In the linguistic intelligence domain, students were asked to write two possible meanings for the given sentences which measure the students' ability to analyze the semantics of the language in order to express the meanings of the surface and the deep structure of the sentence. In the first question of the logical intelligence, they were asked to put the jumbled letters in the right order in order to find out five words that mean almost the same as angry. In the second question of the logical intelligence, they were asked to figure out what the given letters mean in order to figure out a very old English puzzle "I see you are too wise for me), In the third question of the logical intelligence, they were asked to carry out basic arithmetic operations logically in order to find out the right answers for the given questions. In the first question of the interpersonal intelligence, they were asked to write the correct functions for the given sentences. In the second question of the interpersonal intelligence, they were asked to respond correctly and appropriately for the given situations. In the third question of the interpersonal intelligence, they were asked to select the best polite choice of the choices offered for each of the given situations. In the intrapersonal intelligence, the students were given a 10 -item questionnaire adapted from Gardner's MI model, they were asked to complete each section by placing a "1" next to each statement they feel accurately describes them and to leave the space provided blank if they do not identify with a statement.

The intelligence test was used in order to collect the data of the present study; it was compiled, modified at some points and rewritten by the researchers. A jury of experts judged the content validity of the multiple intelligences test which consisted of five questions measuring the students' linguistic intelligence, ten questions measuring the students' logical intelligence, ten questions measuring the students' interpersonal intelligence and ten statements measuring the students' intrapersonal intelligence. The jury had a few suggestions and recommendations which were taken by the researcher and modified accordingly.

Difficulty and Discrimination Coefficients were calculated for each individual part of the test: linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. The items of linguistic intelligence were related to each other with correlations ranging between .44 and .77. The items of logical intelligence were related to each other with correlations ranging between .50 and .77. The items of interpersonal intelligence were related to each other with correlations ranging between .40 and .66. The items of intrapersonal intelligence were related to each other with correlations ranging between .41 and .73 as shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2:
DIFFICULTY AND DISCRIMINATION COEFFICIENTS FOR THE INDIVIDUAL PARTS OF THE INTELLIGENCE TEST

Dimension	Item ID	Difficulty Index	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
Linguistic Intelligence	1	0.75	0.48
	2	0.36	0.44
	3	0.66	0.63
	4	0.32	0.48
	5	0.40	0.70
	6	0.32	0.45
	7	0.57	0.69
	8	0.32	0.47
	9	0.43	0.77
	10	0.35	0.65
Logical Intelligence	1	0.65	0.59
	2	0.74	0.62
	3	0.75	0.70
	4	0.59	0.64
	5	0.64	0.55
	6	0.36	0.50
	7	0.41	0.71
	8	0.32	0.77
	9	0.32	0.63
	10	0.41	0.73
Interpersonal Intelligence	1	0.75	0.50
	2	0.71	0.63
	3	0.36	0.57
	4	0.56	0.46
	5	0.38	0.40
	6	0.38	0.66
	7	0.32	0.53
	8	0.74	0.63
	9	0.74	0.58
	10	0.36	0.52
Intrapersonal Intelligence	1	0.56	0.46
	2	0.35	0.57
	3	0.60	0.41
	4	0.40	0.70
	5	0.60	0.45
	6	0.54	0.60
	7	0.40	0.42
	8	0.68	0.55
	9	0.40	0.73
	10	0.41	0.63

To establish the internal consistency, the test was applied on a pilot group of 30 male and female students studying English Communication skills (102) who were excluded from the study sample using test/ retest method. The value of stability index for the intelligence test was computed using Cronbach's Alpha, as shown in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3:
STABILITY INDEX AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCY COEFFICIENTS FOR THE ACHIEVEMENT TEST

Pearson Correlation	Linguistic Intelligence	Logical Intelligence	Interpersonal Intelligence
Logical Intelligence	0.14		
Interpersonal Intelligence	0.19	0.15	
Intrapersonal Intelligence	0.05	0.15	0.16
MI	Cronbach's Alpha	Stability Index	N of Items
Linguistic Intelligence	0.89	0.88	10
Logical Intelligence	0.84	0.94	10
Interpersonal Intelligence	0.86	0.87	10
Intrapersonal Intelligence	0.82	0.89	10

Table 3 shows that the value of stability index ranged between .82 and .89. The value of the retest reliability was .89 and it ranged between .87 and .94. The values of interconnections range between .5 and .19; it is less than .3, which proves that the domains of the intelligence test are independent.

Having analyzed the integration of the skills in Intermediate *New Headway Plus*, the researchers developed an integrative skills program which was used in the present study. The instructional program was carried out during the first semester of the academic year 2011/ 2012 for the experimental group and lasted for four months. Likewise, the control group was taught by one of the researchers using the material in *Intermediate New Headway Plus* during the same semester. To answer the questions of the study, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to analyze the students' whole achievement in the intelligence test.

A systematic content analysis for the integrative skills and the logical, linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in New Intermediate Headway Plus textbook was carried out by the use of frequencies and percentages and repeated three weeks later by one of the researchers. The other researcher conducted separate content analyses with another analyst on all of the activities of the Students' Textbooks using the same unit and categories of analysis. The linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence test was constructed. Validity and reliability of the instruments were established. The multiple intelligences test was rewritten by the researchers and distributed to the sample of the study. The instructional program was constructed in which the activities were redesigned in light of the findings of the content analysis and according to the integrative method. The integrative skills program was applied by the researchers in the experimental group for four months while the controlled group was taught the textbook conventionally. The multiple intelligences test was reapplied as post tests in order to investigate the effect of the integrative skills program on developing the students' linguistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and logical intelligences.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the research questions, which seek to identify whether or not there are any statistical differences in Jordanian students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences due to the teaching method, the gender of the students and the interaction between the teaching method and the gender of the students, means and standard deviations of the pre and posttest scores were investigated, as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE PRE AND POSTTEST SCORES IN INTELLIGENCE TEST
AS A RESULT OF THE TEACHING METHOD AND GENDER

MI	Teaching Method	Gender	Pretest		Posttest			
			Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Adj. Mean	Std. Error.
Linguistic Intelligence	Traditional	Male	2.912	2.21	4.059	2.36	4.209	0.29
		Female	2.607	1.69	4.071	1.61	4.341	0.32
		Total	2.774	1.98	4.065	2.04	4.275	0.22
	Integrative	Male	4.057	2.27	7.771	1.99	7.473	0.29
		Female	3.520	2.86	9.280	1.09	9.192	0.33
		Total	3.833	2.53	8.400	1.83	8.333	0.22
	Total	Male	3.493	2.30	5.942	2.86	4.558	0.21
		Female	3.038	2.34	6.528	2.96	5.841	0.20
	Logical Intelligence	Traditional	Male	4.500	2.77	5.588	2.41	6.349
Female			6.571	2.62	6.575	2.77	6.210	0.31
Total			5.435	2.87	6.000	2.60	6.279	0.21
Integrative		Male	6.200	2.44	9.257	1.17	9.156	0.28
		Female	7.120	2.22	8.272	1.60	7.704	0.33
		Total	6.583	2.37	8.847	1.44	8.430	0.22
Total		Male	5.362	2.72	7.449	2.63	7.752	0.20
		Female	6.830	2.43	7.336	2.44	6.957	0.23
Interpersonal Intelligence		Traditional	Male	5.794	2.57	6.441	2.23	6.997
	Female		7.143	2.10	7.500	2.44	7.342	0.29
	Total		6.403	2.45	6.919	2.37	7.169	0.20
	Integrative	Male	7.543	1.99	8.543	1.62	8.173	0.26
		Female	6.960	2.23	9.312	1.13	9.251	0.31
		Total	7.300	2.09	8.863	1.47	8.712	0.20
	Total	Male	6.681	2.44	7.507	2.20	7.585	0.19
		Female	7.057	2.14	8.355	2.12	8.296	0.21
	Intrapersonal Intelligence	Traditional	Male	5.206	1.98	6.235	2.18	6.525
Female			7.179	2.16	7.180	2.01	6.237	0.31
Total			6.097	2.27	6.468	2.10	6.381	0.20
Integrative		Male	5.400	2.38	9.183	1.34	9.393	0.27
		Female	6.200	2.04	8.720	1.54	8.605	0.32
		Total	5.733	2.26	8.990	1.44	8.999	0.21
Total		Male	5.304	2.18	7.730	2.32	7.959	0.20
		Female	6.717	2.14	7.679	2.05	7.421	0.22

Table 4 indicates an observed difference between the means of the students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in the posttest due to the teaching method and gender. To examine whether or not this

difference between the mean scores of the aforementioned groups was significant, two-way interaction ANCOVA was used for the scores of the students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in the posttest, based on IVs after avoiding the students' scores in linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in the pretest, as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5:
ANCOVA FOR THE STUDENTS' MEAN SCORES OF THE INTELLIGENCE POSTTEST DUE TO
THE TEACHING METHOD, GENDER AND THE INTERACTION BETWEEN THEM

MI	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
Linguistic Intelligence	Linguistic Intelligence (Covariate)	93.304	1	93.304	33.667	0.000	22.35%
	Teaching Method	468.319	1	468.319	168.986	*0.000	59.09%
	Gender	25.392	1	25.392	9.162	0.003	7.26%
	Teaching Method * gender	18.824	1	18.824	6.792	0.010	5.49%
	Error	324.247	117	2.771			
	Total	1023.879	121				
Logical Intelligence	Logical Intelligence (Covariate)	194.620	1	194.620	72.887	0.000	38.38%
	Teaching Method	131.798	1	131.798	49.359	*0.000	29.67%
	Gender	17.365	1	17.365	6.503	0.012	5.27%
	Teaching Method * gender	12.734	1	12.734	4.769	0.031	3.92%
	Error	312.411	117	2.670			
	Total	781.040	121				
Interpersonal Intelligence	Interpersonal Intelligence (Covariate)	165.327	1	165.327	69.294	0.000	37.20%
	Teaching Method	69.051	1	69.051	28.941	*0.000	19.83%
	Gender	15.029	1	15.029	6.299	0.013	5.11%
	Teaching Method * gender	3.830	1	3.830	1.605	0.208	1.35%
	Error	279.148	117	2.386			
	Total	585.546	121				
Intrapersonal Intelligence	Intrapersonal Intelligence (Covariate)	90.608	1	90.608	36.148	0.000	23.60%
	Teaching Method	203.390	1	203.390	81.143	*0.000	40.95%
	Gender	7.830	1	7.830	3.124	0.080	2.60%
	Teaching Method * gender	1.841	1	1.841	0.734	0.393	0.62%
	Error	293.270	117	2.507			
	Total	585.052	121				

Table 5 shows that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the adjusted mean scores of students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences due to the teaching method in favor of the students in the experimental group who were taught using the integrative method. The size of effect was 59.09% for the linguistic intelligence, 29.67% for the logical intelligence, 19.83% for the interpersonal intelligence and 40.95% for the intrapersonal intelligence which indicates that there exists a high correlation between the teaching method and the linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences.

The same table also shows that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between adjusted mean scores of students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences due to gender in favor of females in the linguistic and interpersonal intelligence and the males in the logical intelligence.

The same table also shows that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between adjusted mean scores of students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences due to teaching method and gender. To clarify the interaction, figures 1 and 2 were presented below.

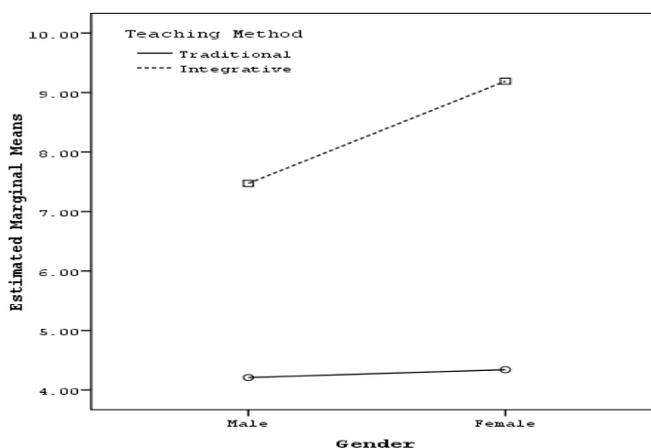


Figure 1: The Interaction between Gender and the Teaching Method and on the Linguistic Intelligence

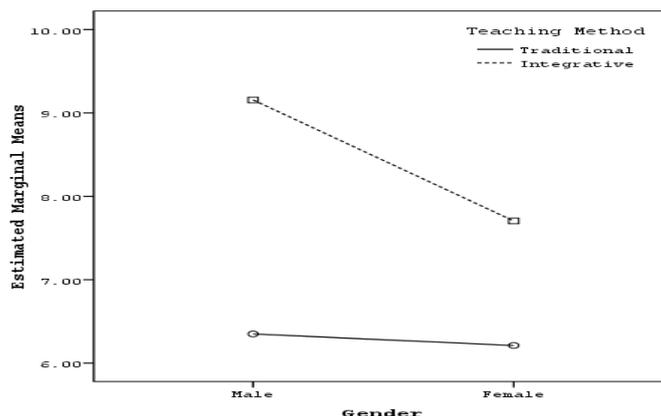


Figure 2: The Interaction between Gender and the Teaching Method and on the Logical Intelligence

Figure 1 shows that female students have made more progress than male students in the experimental group in the linguistic intelligence, while figure 2 shows that male students have made more progress than female students in the experimental group in the logical intelligence.

V. CONCLUSIONS, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

It was clear from the findings of the study that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ in the adjusted mean scores of students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in the posttest due to of the teaching method in favor of the students in the experimental group who were taught using the integrative program. The size of effect was 59.09% for the linguistic intelligence, 29.67% for the logical intelligence, 19.83% for the interpersonal intelligence and 40.95% for the intrapersonal intelligence which indicates that there exists a rational correlation between the teaching method and the linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. As can be concluded from these numbers, there was a significant difference between the mean scores in favor of the experimental group due to the effect of teaching students according to the proposed teaching program.

It is clear by the scores of the experimental group that the instructional program does have a positive impact on the students' linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Utilizing WLA and the integrative method might contribute a lot to improving the linguistic intelligence that is represented in the students' abilities to understand, explain, and use the language effectively during English lessons in the classroom. In the linguistic intelligence of this study, some students were able to find out that the sentence "The chicken is too hot to eat" might either mean that "the chicken is spicy" or "the temperature of the chicken is high", other students expressed that the word "chicken" might be tricky because it might mean "bird" or "meal". In the second sentence of the linguistic intelligence "Flying kites can be dangerous", some students were able to recognise that the sentence might either mean that "the process of flying kites can be dangerous" or "the kites which are flying can be dangerous". In the third sentence of the linguistic intelligence "The students were asked to stop smoking on campus", some students were able to recognise that this sentence might either mean "students were commanded to stop smoking on campus" or "it was a request for students to stop smoking on campus", or "students were allowed to smoke in the past but they are not allowed now" or "on campus only, students were not allowed to smoke". Other students wrote that the word "smoking" is tricky and they suggested the two following meanings "students were asked to extinguish the fire on campus" and "students were asked to extinguish the cigarettes on campus". In the fourth sentence of the linguistic intelligence "Visiting relatives can be boring", some students were able to recognise that this sentence might either mean "the process of visiting relatives might be boring" or "relatives who visit might be boring". In the fifth sentence of the linguistic intelligence "Old men and women went first", some students were able to recognise that the adjective "old" might either describe men only or describe men and women.

WLA might contribute a lot to improving the logical-mathematical intelligence that is represented in students' abilities to study problems, carry out basic arithmetic operations logically and analytically, understand syntax, analyze the semantics of the language and solve problems. In the logical intelligence of this study, many students were able to find the answers for the given arithmetic operations. In the logical intelligence test, the researcher found that the fifth part of the first question and the second question were the most difficult parts in the logical domain; few students were able to find out that the word "irritated" means almost the same as angry, and few students were able to solve the puzzle "I see you are too wise for me". Despite the fact that males performed better than females in this domain, there were some females who got the full mark in this domain.

WLA might contribute a lot to improving the interpersonal intelligence that is represented in students' abilities to understand the intentions, needs and desires of others made in varying social contexts, interpret expressions and situations accurately and work effectively with them. In the first question of the interpersonal intelligence test, many students were able to write the right functions for the given sentences. In the second question, many students responded

well for the given situation “I am dying for a drink”; students responded with “I will get you one”, “Do not worry! I will bring you one”, “I have to bring you one” and “Ok, we can go to the shop and buy one”. Other students changed the statement into interrogative form and responded with “Shall I get you one?”. In the second situation, many students responded well for the given situation “I’ve had a quarrel with my parents”; students responded with “You have to talk to them”, “I am going to talk to them”, “I have to talk to them”, “I advise you to talk to them”, “It is better to talk to them”, “I want to talk to them”, “That’s too bad, try to talk to them” and “Calm down and go to talk to them”. Other students changed the statement into interrogative form and responded with “Do you want me to talk to them?” and “Why do not you try to talk to them?”. In the third situation, many students responded well for the given situation “My hair looks terrible”; students responded with “You must go to the hairdresser”, “You should go to the hairdresser”, “You had better go to the hairdresser” and “It is necessary to go to the hairdresser”. Other students changed the statement into interrogative form and responded with “Why do not you go to the hairdresser?”. In the third question, many students were able to choose the best of the choices offered for the given situations.

WLA might contribute a lot to improving the intrapersonal intelligence that is represented in students’ ability to judge their own desires, fears, their relative strengths and weaknesses and use this information to make sound life decisions.

These results are supported by the theoretical assumptions cited in the background of the study (Bellflower, 2008; Fink, 1991; Harriman, 2010; Harris, 1991; Janes, Koutsopanagos, Mason and Villaranda, 2000; Lazear, 1999; Silver, Strong and Perini, 2000) which emphasize that all types of intelligences adopted by Gardner can be developed. The afore-mentioned findings are in line with the findings of other researchers (e.g. Cummins, 1981; Gardner, 1999; Madkour, 2009) who emphasize the positive correlation between developing linguistic, logical, intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences and helping students use social skills and produce meaningful communicative dialogues.

It was clear from the findings of the study that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the adjusted mean scores of students’ linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences due to gender and the interaction between gender and the teaching method. It was clear from the findings of the study that there was a statistically significant difference at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the adjusted mean scores of students’ interpersonal intelligence in favor of females. (Al-Faoury, Khataybeh and Al_Sheikh (2011) stress that females outperform males on a test in the interpersonal intelligences.

It was clear from the findings of the study that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the adjusted mean scores of students’ logical intelligence in favor of males. This result is supported by the findings of other researchers (e.g. Snyder, 1999). Furthermore, this result agrees with the theoretical assumptions cited in the background of the study. Halpern (1997) stresses that men, on average, outperform women on tests in the logical/mathematical domain.

It was clear from the findings of the study that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the adjusted mean scores of students’ linguistic intelligence in favor of females in the linguistic intelligence. This result is supported by the findings of other researchers (e.g. Al-Faoury, Khataybeh and Al_Sheikh, 2011; Snyder, 1999). Furthermore, this result agrees with the theoretical assumptions cited in the background of the study. Halpern (1997) note that women tend to outperform men in verbal fluency, spelling, reading comprehension, writing synonym generation, and knowledge of foreign languages. This result is different from the findings of some other studies (e.g. Furnham, Arteche, Chamorro-Premuzic, Keser and Swami, 2009) who conducted survey paper research and their results showed that males rated themselves higher than females. The disagreement between the results of the studies in the linguistic intelligences could be due to the differences in the sample and the context of the study.

It was clear from the findings of the study that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the adjusted mean scores of students’ intrapersonal intelligences in favor of males. This result is supported by the findings of other researchers (e.g. Neto, Ruiza and Furnham, 2008). This result is different from the findings of some other studies (e.g. Snyder, 1999) whose results indicated significant differences in students’ intrapersonal intelligences in favor of females. It is also different from the findings of Khamis (2005) which indicate no statistically significant difference due to program/gender interaction. The disagreement between the results of the studies in the intrapersonal intelligence could be due to the differences in the sample and the context of the study.

To sum up, the findings of the current study came in line with many of the theoretical and practical studies. The findings also provide evidence for the close relationship between developing students’ multiple intelligences and developing students’ language abilities in general and students’ linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences, in particular. In conclusion, within the limitations of this study, it appears that integrating listening, speaking, reading and writing develops students’ logical, linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences.

Based on the findings of this study, researchers are recommended to analyze the extent of integration in syllabuses of English communication skills taught in different language centers and to conduct further research studies on the significance of teaching integrative skills on developing other intelligences. Furthermore, Jordanian universities are recommended to design training courses and workshops for EFL teachers on the strategies of developing the multiple intelligences of students and to include multiple intelligence tests and integrative tests in the syllabuses. Local Textbook writers are recommended to incorporate activities that stimulate students’ different multiple intelligences while learning

English as a foreign language and to design more integrative activities that provide students with opportunities to use the four skills meaningfully in every exercise.

EFL teachers are recommended to recognize the importance of WLA which calls for student-centered learning environment, to provide students with more activities in order to help them develop their multiple intelligences, to provide students with more activities that stimulate students' ability to use the four skills in an integrative manner and to incorporate integrated activities in assessment practices in order to develop the students' intelligences and academic linguistic achievement in English.

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Historicity of Categories of Fiction: Virginia Woolf's Concept "Modern Fiction"

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Abstract—This article attempts to construct Woolf's concept of "modern fiction" in modern context within the two dimensions: fiction's category and historicity. Firstly, based on the essay "Modern Fiction", the article aims to construct the connotation of "modern fiction", which takes "historical consciousness", "the duration of life", "man's subjectivity", "the complexity of psychological structures" and "the relativity and pluralism of reality" as its contents. Then, this article mainly demonstrates the categories of "modern fiction", which is employed to reveal the properties and attributes of fiction and regulates its fundamental mode of existence. Woolf's "modern fiction" serves as a substance, around which the categories revolve. They are composed of "look within", "impression", "memory" and "feeling", "the moment of importance", "the psychological time" and "the flow of consciousness". Thirdly, this article attempts to discuss the historicity of categories of "modern fiction", namely the finiteness and openness of categories. For Woolf's part, the categories of traditional fiction in the historical vision must be replaced by new ones due to its finiteness. In the discontinuity of the historical process, Woolf proceeds with the openness of categories of fiction, reflects the mental disorder of people, instills order in literary works and dissolves the dichotomy of man and self, man and the other, man and nature. Finally, the article concludes that in Woolf's literary criticism, the categories of fiction are an open system. Woolf's concept of "modern fiction" and its categories in modern condition guarantee the openness of fiction.

Index Terms—Virginia Woolf, modern fiction, concept, Aristotle, category theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Having evolved from the alarming crisis of the Western world, Virginia Woolf's concept of "modern fiction" is one of the most significant concepts in literary criticism in the 20th century. When the long-dominated "rational mechanism" in Western civilization is thrown into confusion, fiction strives to seize and mirror the mental state of modern people. Under the impact of monopoly capital, the disintegration of social order and the chaos of modern mind, "modern fiction" not only involves itself within the present cultural context, but also explores the existence of its proper form in order to undertake the task of interrogating human nature and the external world. Based on the current modern condition, Woolf endeavors to construct the significance of fiction through constant experiment. She gets rid of the portrait of the external verisimilitude, turns to the internalized truth and redefines her concept of "modern fiction", which is deemed to be a mirror reflecting and presenting faithfully the modern heart of human beings, a vehicle delivering modern experience and also an access to the achievement of spiritual identity.

II. VIRGINIA WOOLF'S CONCEPT "MODERN FICTION"

The essay of "Modern Fiction" by Woolf is widely considered the declaration on the theory of "modern fiction" and a focal point revolving around which her whole system of the literary criticism is centralized. From the year of 1922 on, Woolf gradually writes and publishes a series of literary criticism such as "On Re-reading Novels", "Modern Fiction", "Mr. Bennett and Mrs. Brown", "The art of Fiction", etc. to break away from the dilemma of modern literary creation and formulates her literary ideas and creative thoughts. Her reflection on "modern fiction" manifests itself in her thinking on philosophy, aesthetics and psychology and in the way she combines these elements into her literary creation. For Woolf's part, realists advocate to portray the external world as precisely as possible for the reason that art is regarded as a mirror to reflect the true color of life and represent the so-called objective truth. However, "the modern practice of art is an improvement upon the old" (Woolf, 2002, p. 83), and "life is far from being like this" (p. 85). In order to accurately seize the modern plight and present the distorted mental condition in the aftermath of the Great Wars and the collapse of the western world, Woolf puts forward a new connotation for "modern fiction".

Historical consciousness presupposes and guarantees the inheritance, introspection and innovation of fiction in the historical dimension of the literary development. On the basis of Virginia Woolf's literary criticism, historical consciousness is the capability for understanding of the past, grasping the current and planning the future of fiction by situating itself in the present context. Woolf argues that under the influence of history and tradition, the entity of spirit

exhibits inherent distinction to some extent, in spite of the fact that it even exists in the same world, but the way the spirit perceives it has changed, to be more specific, the vision has been changed. In terms of fiction, history and tradition are two dominant elements that exert great impact on it and regulate its formation. Any given literary forms can impossibly be permanent through the changing of times, since they are inevitably conditional and limited by the historical and cultural context in which they have been produced. Therefore, it turns out to be out of the question attempting to establish a literary form that can withstand the test of times and be universally applicable. In this sense, Woolf insists that “modern fiction” should be employed as a vehicle to probe into the “immortal future” rather than sticking to the pursuit of a permanent form of fiction.

Historical consciousness integrates the literary form with the present situation. Virginia Woolf purposefully places “modern fiction” in the historical dimension and instills this historical consciousness into her experiment and creation of literary form. Standing in the present context, originating from the past and projecting on the future, Woolf’s “modern fiction” probes into and represents the widespread experiences of alienation and the sense of homelessness of “modern heart” by virtue of the corruption of the tradition of rationalism. By means of dating back to the track of literature development and carrying out a rationally clear recognition, Woolf identifies “modern fiction” as the vehicle of human spirit which explores the complexity of soul and perception in the chaotic world and in the individual’s existence. “Modern fiction” as a form of art, aims to record and give an outlet to the natural emotions under the severe crisis in the Western world. Historical consciousness sets forth the starting point to innovate, releases fiction from the constraint of the portrait of eternal reality and elevates it to the level contemplating upon human, life and the world. Historical consciousness is embedded in the literary experiments and implied as a preceding condition to help construct the concept of “modern fiction” in order to correlate historical and cultural traditions with the modern context and represent the mental state of human.

The duration of life in “Modern Fiction” refers to the representation of continuous free flow of self-consciousness in the individual. It seems to Woolf that fiction serves as a product of the duration of life which is fixed and externalized in the form of art. “Modern fiction” is regarded as an effective manner to realize the reconstruction of reality and the representation of the modern heart. Woolf, along with other modernist writers such as Joyce, Proust and Faulkner, turns from the depiction of the outside world to that of human consciousness. Consciousness plays a significant role in Woolf’s criticism because it is the “varying, unknown and uncircumscribed spirit” (Woolf, 2002, p. 85), which is disturbed and manipulated by the trivial and irrelevant ideas full of miscellaneous information. It is the accumulation of psychological experiences and impressions, which cannot be arranged in the measurable linear space-time unit, but recorded “tracing the pattern that each sight or incident scores upon the consciousness” (Wang, 2007, p.98), namely the unordered, extensible and crossed real or psychological time. The objects perceived in the consciousness penetrate into the impression of the past, present and future and exist as an inseparable integrity. The real or psychological time constitutes and ensures the duration of consciousness. Meanwhile, Woolf begins with the record of the intuition in mind aroused and accompanied by these objects that are perceived where after.

In Woolf’s opinion, each living individual is the effective carrier of consciousness. They are the medium in which the duration of consciousness eventually is produced and works. She appeals to the modernist writers to write for everyone and the common people. Woolf brings her “modern fiction” from the external and objective world to the inner ones, which constitute the raw material for the creation of literary works. Human nature ascends to the major concern of modern heart. The exploration at the psychological level requires fiction to get rid of the trivial and unessential appearance, and dig out the unconsciousness or “the dark places of psychology” (Woolf, 2000, p.11). This shift of focus will inevitably be projected into the representation of literature and this duration of life will be externalized by the form of fiction. In addition, Woolf figures out that creativity is attached to consciousness provoked by the outside world and records everything aroused inside. The mechanism of consciousness is not to recall or present what is in store, but to produce meanings and reconstruct its own reality in mind. Woolf indicates that no completely objective fact ever exists, since it is always explained or interpreted. It is the feelings, emotional elements and even the unconsciousness that touches the essence of the world and entails the facts that make up the reality (Faulkner, 1989, p.55). “Modern fiction” thus undertakes the task of exploring the inner world, revolving around the effective form of unconsciousness, namely, the representation of the duration of life.

Man’s subjectivity achieves the rediscovery of the role and importance of man, which emphasizes the portrait of modern heart and typifies the personal characterization. In Woolf’s view, “all the novels depict characters” (Dowling, 1983, p.290). “Modern fiction” concentrates on the heart or inner world rather than the external one. Objects exist in the space-time continuum, but an active awareness of a subject is required to make it intelligible, which means that an object attains meaning only as it is perceived in someone’s consciousness. By means of tracing and representing the modern heart, “modern fiction” fulfills the rediscovery of human being. Furthermore, Woolf argues that the depiction of character serves as a stimulus for the creation of a novelist, who endeavors to faithfully and completely record the life of any individual (Woolf, 2001). In order to portray the character, Woolf proposes fiction to depict “modern heart” that contains and embodies intrinsic human spirit, unearthing the varying, vague and uncircumscribed inner world. It seems that the representation of human nature in “modern fiction” means bringing into literature the life of real, multi-dimensional individual. It is the essence possessed by a character. Henry James suggests that the value of

literature lies in presenting the direct impression on life, based on which, Woolf moves a step further and argues that the impressions from the external and objectified world are complex and manifold.

No absolute objectivity exists, for reality manifests itself in the impression of an individual. Modernists argue that an object carries a meaning the specific subject perceives in it, rather than an inherent one. The objective reality appeals to the human senses, and then arouses the corresponding impression inside. Woolf sets forth new requirement for “modern fiction” and proposes the “impersonal characterization” (Woolf, 2000, p.158). In “modern fiction”, the character should play the major role and assume the narrative function, by which the author’s presence is dissolved. Therefore, the impressionalization of characterization is achieved. She opposes the adoption of author’s consciousness to destroy the self-disciplined and inherent logic of fiction. Instead, Woolf gives priority to the voice of the character, especially reveals the dark places of psychology, myriad impressions as well as innumerable atoms at the bottom of heart as they fall upon the mind disorderly. The experiment helps fiction break away from the limitation of the fiction at that time, display the personal joys and sorrows and the major concerns of survival. On the whole, Woolf’s “modern fiction” replaces the objectified world by the center of consciousness and transcends the impersonal narration in traditional novel. This is not only an exhibition of individual’s consciousness, but also a depiction and presentation of the general mental state of human being under the modern historical context.

A subject’s internal psychological structure is composed of three intricate components that operate in different layers of psyche, the normal consciousness, the intermediate preconsciousness and the abnormal state of subconsciousness. These three elements formulate a cross-linked system which contributes to a rich and sophisticated psychological structure. For Woolf’s part, “modern fiction” regards personal mind as the center of consciousness and rejects the fictions skimming over the appearance rather than touching the bottom of modern heart. It attempts to capture the multi-layered complexity of human psyche. Consciousness lays the foundation of the spiritual world. Freud pioneers the technique of psychoanalysis and concerns it with the nature of the unconscious mind. The exploration of human psyche is thus advanced to the area of unconsciousness, the deepest, predominantly passionate, irrational and unknown part. It is born with the power of pleasure-seeking and remained in turmoil and chaos. The preconsciousness is the area for the activities of consciousness, following the norms and principles regulating relations within the outside world, and constantly mediates between the often competing demands of the unconsciousness and the world (Zhang, 2005, p.73). In “modern fiction”, Woolf argues that the focal point of fiction has been shifted to the inner world of characters, which is not always multi-dimensional or involves the subconscious, so the major concern of “modern fiction” is to seek the “dark places of psychology” (Woolf, 2002, P.86), the excavation of subconsciousness and the disclosure of psychological perception.

As a direct and fleeting perception, consciousness is a psychological phenomenon that concerns itself to the external world and obeys the principles in reality. Henry James points out that fiction refers to the personal and direct impressions toward life, while Woolf argues that it should not stop at the level, for its purpose is not to find out a visual equivalence for the operation of heart, but to figure out the unusual sensations possessed by human beings (Faulkner, 1989). Besides the normal and intuitional consciousness aroused in real life, “modern fiction” searches for the hidden, abnormal and exquisite spiritual characteristics, the irrational and illogic activities of subconsciousness. Only through the awakening of passed and stored memories do all these elements emerge. Woolf believes that “modern fiction” enjoys more liberty in extending through the traditional concept of time by sticking to the psychological time in mind. People can control memories with the manipulation of subjective purposes. They evoke the dead memory that fails to trigger an emotional sympathy, when “modern fiction” needs to capture the free associations of memory and the interrupted experiences of mind. As the mediator, preconsciousness bridges the subconsciousness and consciousness, balances the liberation and self-gratification. Some of the unacceptable desires are repressed into the unconsciousness, which will surface and mask in symbolic form. The free flow of consciousness doesn’t head for one direction. Consciousness passes through different layers, sudden interruption or diversions that possibly happen.

The internalized reality is what “modern fiction” endeavors to seek, rather than the external and objective ones. In “Mr. Bennett and Mrs. Brown”, Woolf puts forward her definition of reality, which regards human being as the subject and centers on the mental experiences. For traditional novels, reality is the faithful and lifelike imitation of the absolute real world. However, as the mechanism of rationalism in western world has been shattered, Kundera suggests that the single divine truth is decomposed into myriad relative truths parceled out by man (Kundera, 1988). Woolf also argues that reality is objective (Qu, 1989). She addresses to such issues as what reality is, and who the judges of reality are. A character may be real to Mr. Bennett and quite unreal to Woolf. There is nothing that people differ about more than the reality (Woolf, 2000). She denies the existence of universally acknowledged reality and makes it internalized. Reality undertakes the task of delivering the personal subjective recognition, which contributes to the pluralism of reality. Woolf disapproves of the accurate observation and imitation of the real world or the reality hold by the empirical theorists and determinists (Damian, 1989). “Modern fiction” sees through the appearance of life and emphasizes the representation of the inner images. For Woolf, reality is equated with the hidden, complex and inmost subjective experiences aroused by the material and objective world.

The internalization of reality indicates that fiction records the projection of world upon human consciousness. Woolf reestablishes the relationship of human mind and the external world and associates the two through the internalized reality, because man always consciously or unconsciously react to the physical world and produces the relevant

sensations. She achieves the relativity of reality by means of redefining its concept and setting forth new standards to judge it. Moreover, the concept of reality is characterized by such features as uncertainty, diversity and subjectivity. It stems from the one-fold individual consciousness, especially from the subconsciousness and subjective mental activities. Within the unique individual's psychological structure, the traditional concept of space-time continuum is rearranged mentally and the consciousness stretches through the three layers, on the basis of which the world is supposed to provoke and extend to the sensitive and subtle area in mind (Gao, 2006). They, in turn, either form the reflection over the human conditions, or produce associative fragments through the impressions on the trivial things. Woolf's definition of reality dissolves the certainty of the former one, instead she bestows uncertainty, richness and subjective element to the relativity and pluralism of reality.

III. CATEGORIES OF "MODERN FICTION" AS SUBSTANCE

Virginia Woolf's concept of "modern fiction" makes a scrutiny on the connotation of fiction. When confronted with the new historical context, Woolf realizes the contradiction of the pursuit of verisimilitude in traditional literary works and attempts to explore the artistic innovations through experiments. Meanwhile, these elements that revolve around "modern fiction" are figured out to implement and modify its attributes. Woolf indicates that every novelist writes for his times, revealing the fact that each era has its own corresponding literary style. As to fiction, how it guarantees the inheritance and openness in its dynamic system. Aristotle's theory of category provides a philosophical basis for this issue. It makes a better understanding of Woolf's "modern fiction", explores the finiteness and openness of literary form and reveals that how "modern fiction" represents the modern mental crisis.

From the perspective of Aristotelian theory of categories, Woolf's "modern fiction" can be taken as substance. Through the etymological study, category originally refers to the basic form and pattern of predicates, divided by Aristotle into substances and non-substances (Wong, 1984). The former is further classified into the ones used as predicates and the ones not, while the ones that cannot modify existence refer to the specific one. It is similar to the non-substances, which can also be subdivided into words modifying the existence and the ones can't. On the classification of the words used as non-substances, Aristotle puts forward "ten categories": substance, quantity, qualification, a relative, where, when, being-in-a-position, having, doing or being-affected, which are used to tell the mode of existence or nature of the specific thing itself (Aristotle, 2011). According to the relationship between ten categories, they can be simplified into two major ones: primary substance and the secondary substance. The former indicates the real and specific thing, which can stand on its own, but doesn't constitute a category, while the secondary substance enjoys a broader meaning contributing to the first of the ten categories.

The ten categories don't stand in parallel for the first category of substance is the center around which the other nine categories revolve. Therefore, the ten categories fall into two categories: the categories of substance and the categories of species. The categories of species are employed to exhibit one of the attributes of the specific existence, to be more specific, the regulative ones. They attempt to give an account of the category of substance, which is the carrier of all the properties and the object that is recognized and stated. It is thus only used as a subject. In general, the categories of species rely on and exist in the subject, which signifies the category of substance (Chen, 1985). Aristotle's theory of categories provides a philosophical access to the construction of "modern fiction" and its establishment of categories.

According to Aristotle, the "modern fiction" can be seen as a specific and concrete existence standing on its own. It is the primary substance, the holder of the attributes with a narrow meaning. On the one hand, fiction as the secondary substance can be adopted to recognize and describe the primary substance; on the other hand, it can be modified by the categories of species. In *Categories*, Aristotle notes that the secondary substance can be used to predicate the primary substance by both its function and its definition. Similarly, the categories of fiction are used to depict the substance and are supposed to be the categories of species. Therefore, the categories of "modern fiction" can be interpreted as a predication on "modern fiction" under the modern context. The substance enjoys the priority in time and existence. Fiction or modern fiction comes into being as a unity even if the categories describing their attributes are unknown. The concept of Woolf's "modern fiction" as an entity is prior to its categories, which evolves and modifies the specific substance. Woolf's "modern fiction" as substance is modified by such categories of species as "look within"; "impression", "the moment of importance", "the psychological time"; "feeling and memory" and "flow of consciousness", which all together predicate the fundamental mode of existence of fiction.

In the essay "Modern Fiction", Woolf notes the term "look within" for the first time, which emphasizes the faithful record and representation of human thoughts and psychology in order to reveal the real life. In *Mrs. Dalloway*, Woolf announces in the voice of Peter Walsh that besides ideology, we don't have any external thing. Woolf presumes the human consciousness as the only source for reality and thus focuses on the spirit, attempting to "reveal the flickering of that innermost flame which flashes its messages through the brain" (Woolf, 2002, p.85). Woolf centers on the complexity and uncertainty of modern psychology and its ineffable part. In order to mirror the inner world, Woolf tends to combine the consciousness, feeling and memory, impression. By means of free associations, the human consciousness is provoked and lays bare the inner world and the direct human reaction to the living conditions. Woolf connects the world inside with the external one through the depiction of projection of world on human consciousness. She speaks highly of such writers as George Eliot, Meredith, Conrad and Hardy, etc. for the reason that they unconsciously record the inner world which opens a new page for English literature. She mirrors the objective world

from a subjective perspective. By looking within, the minor mental changes can be unearthed, which are the most important elements. This shift of focal point guarantees a unique artistic depth of “modern fiction”, which captures the chaotic, anxious and repressed state of modern people.

For Woolf, fiction should originate in the numerous impressions on a man, an object and an event in the daily life. She employs the concept “atom” as a metaphor to imply the impressions perceived by heart, which constantly scatter on the mind disorderly. The task of a writer is to faithfully record these “atoms” in line with the order they hit them and to display the changing, unknown and unrestricted spirit (Woolf, 2002). She thinks a person in an ordinary day will be hit by thousands of thoughts across mind, some of which disappear rapidly. These atoms are viewed as the life experiences of an ordinary one. However, Woolf mentions that these atomical impressions seem to be fragmented and incoherent. The seemingly irrelevant but interconnected impressions constitute the personal life experiences. Woolf argues that “at this moment the form of fiction most in vogue more often misses than secures the thing we seek, whether we call it life or spirit, truth or reality, this essential thing has moved off and refuses to be contained any longer in the ill-fitting vestments” (Woolf, 2002, p.84) By means of seizing the psychological elements such as impressions, the objective world becomes visible, audible, sensible and observable (Banfield, 2000). Therefore, she tries to dig out the deep consciousness and the psychology, relying on instincts, intuitions, illusions and impression and denying or even negating rationalism (Woolf, 1996).

Woolf considers that the numerous fragments of impressions constitute a “moment of importance”. Woolf mentions that “the innumerable atoms fall as they shape themselves into the life of Monday or Tuesday, the accent falls differently from of old; the moment of importance came not here but there” (Woolf, 2002, p.85). The occasionally fleeting moment of importance is named as the moment of existence.. Woolf emphasizes that “modern fiction” should dispense with the tedious plot and the accurate portrait of the external world, instead, concentrates on the erratic and fleeting thoughts and daydreams. In her works, the momentary impressions, feelings and meditations are more important than the matter of age, look, gender and occupation. Only the “moment of existence” can grasp the essence in life and reveal reality. “The moment of importance” is fleeting and shifting, but it is composed of much transient moments at which countless collisions of atoms trigger various complex impressions, feelings and associations. This moment of importance truly unfolds the sensitive activities of an individual in a specific time and space. Woolf appeals to writers that every atom has reached saturation and the useless, lifeless and redundant description should be eliminated to capture this moment (Woolf, 1997). The moment of importance is the highlighted spiritual experiences in the passage of time, which originates in the modern heart and elicits new interpretation of life.

Woolf’s “modern fiction” attempts to establish the psychological time as one of the categories, regardless of the traditional concept of linear time and space. In the late 19th and early 20th century, the development of modern philosophy and psychological analysis overshadow and even give a heavy blow to the prevailing rationalism. Woolf builds up her concept of time and space. The psychological time is of the subjective property which gets rid of the scientific and physical concept of time by emphasizing the mentally irrational time. It involves the past, present and future. In the depths of human consciousness, the external time is not applicable. Based on the new psychological findings, Woolf touches upon the soul and nature of human beings and breaks away from the traditional concept of time. Moreover, she follows the flow of consciousness, reverses the order of past, present and overlaps them, which creates the unusual structure of human consciousness and exhibits the complexity of human psyche. The psychological time is different from the physical one, which strictly follows the natural sequence and is irreversible. In her literary creation, Woolf realizes the infinite movement of time and depicts the emotional development of characters in the free flow of time. Human beings are spatially finite while infinite in time, due to the existence of psychological time. These repressed and ignored desires in the past or present steal into human consciousness and shift between the past and present.

Feeling and memory as a type of experience contribute to the categories of “modern fiction”. Memory considered as an individual way of living is empirical and experiential in nature. It is also a sensory material connecting the past and present and keeping it open to future as well. During the process of man’s growth, various experiences reside in perception and memory, accumulating as a whole in line with certain mode. Through these stored memories and some of the emotions provoked, life continues. By means of forming memory of former experiences, the human consciousness is better preserved and produces much more thoughts when it is combined with the presence. For Woolf, memory serves as the foundation and major sources for “modern fiction”. When stirred up by anything, it stretches into the past and breaks the limitation of traditional time and space. When recalling the past, every trace gradually emerges according to memory (See, 1984). Woolf captures the moments in life through the flow of memory and reshapes the internalized reality. The external things will gradually disappear with the passage of time, but when they are processed in mind and memorized, they can be maintained externally.

“Modern fiction” probes into the psychological perception or the consciousness of man towards the material world. This field of consciousness shows no clear sense of direction or explicit boundaries. From the perspective of a totally personal reaction, it penetrates into the unconscious area and represents the free flow of multi-layered consciousness. In Woolf’s opinion, the representation of mental crisis is highly similar to the disordered flow of consciousness. The senses of depression, confusion, anxiety, isolation, madness, etc. derive from the mental crisis and are the embodiment of the human perception. When the consciousness is transformed into the characteristics of literary creation, such as the

state of ambiguity, vagueness and uncertainty, the new qualities of “modern fiction” emerge. In the fiction of consciousness, the characters, time, life and even human nature are set in motion. Life is composed of the fragments of consciousness, which is multi-focal or non-focal. Woolf abandons the traditional literary form and structure and takes the erratic flow of psychological time and consciousness as the major concern of fiction, aiming to presenting the incoherent fragments of human consciousness or even the unconsciousness (Xia, 2005, p.87). The meaningless and disordered consciousness is fixed in the life framework of an individual, which reveals the complex and various living conditions through a series of overlapped impressions and memories. By concentrating on the human consciousness, “modern fiction” reveals the inner world, combines the associations, memories, impressions and the human emotions and accurately imitates its free flow in order to follow the delicate and mysterious inner life (John, 2004).

IV. HISTORICITY OF CATEGORIES OF FICTION

In Woolf’s viewpoint, the literary form conforms itself to the demand of a specific historical period consciously. She emphasizes the inheritance from tradition, but pays more attention to explore the new literary genre that is most suitable for its changing historical context. In philosophical hermeneutics, the categories of fiction changing from the old to the new reflect the consciousness of historicity. Historicity manifests the finiteness and openness (Gadamer, 2004). When Aristotle studies the ontology dynamically, he uses the concept of potentiality and actuality, which means that the way of existence contains two forms, the potential existence and the actual existence. When exploring the concrete existence, he considers that material and form contribute to existence (Zhang, 1998, p.49). The former bears the potentiality, while the latter is the form under the impact of potentiality. Similarly, in terms of fiction and “modern fiction”, fiction serves as the material, which generates the new one pushed by the external forces, which is a type of critical inheritance. If the fiction as substance is changed, its categories are subject to variation. This lays bare the historicity of the categories of fiction, which on the one hand, reveals the finiteness, namely the applicability to the present situations; on the other hand, it reflects the openness to the new condition. Instead of being a closed system, the categories of fiction stand in dynamic balance. The historical and cultural context of fiction have been change, the existing tradition can no longer meets with the requirements of the times. Based on the modern condition, Woolf in the grand historical scene uncovers the meaning of existence, taking “modern fiction” as a tool to mirror the mental conditions of people and constructing the categories of fiction. The new categories of fiction guarantee its inheritance from the former one and openness in the modern context.

The traditional categories of fiction lay emphasis on the rational narrative style, the narrative principle of objective verisimilitude and the omniscient perspective of narration. Driven by the Western rationalism, the traditional literary form presents the rationally-oriented narrative characteristics. Engels once points out that modernism means the representation of typical characters in a typical environment, which is embedded in the real details (Lu, 2003). Realists intentionally describe the living environment and the performance of a typical character because the social and natural environment helps shape the personality. Life is often regarded as an objective existence and the spiritual elements need be represented through some material forms. Human emotions are brought into being by behaviors, actions, words and expressions. Although the traditional writers have successfully epitomized the distinctive character of their times, the accurate description of the details in looking and the arrangement of furniture fail to exhibit the pessimistic and alienated state of modern heart (Li, 1996). To some extent, these shackles lead literary creation to a bleak future.

Traditional fiction pays much attention to the logic of psychological description, regardless of the complexity of human consciousness. Their descriptions strictly follow the logical and rational pattern, revealing the clear flow of mental evolvement and the causal relationship. The focal point of the writers rests on the plot, event and the objective depiction of characters. Shrouded in despair and pessimism, modern writers realize that the exploration of the morbid and deformed self becomes an effective attempt to faithfully mirror the chaos and absurdity in the west world. Reason is no longer the core part of self, but instinct and unconsciousness are whimsical (Lu, 2003). Also, the categories of traditional works stress the integrity of plots, coherence in its development and the distinctiveness of characters. It leans on the objective, concrete and historical description of reality, emphasizing the relation of character. These works are of the strong humanitarian spirit and new reformist ideas, which consist of beginning, development, conflict, climax and ending with a complete plot. Writers delicately design and arrange the plot and details of life as well, which in turn makes the structure loose and the plot lengthy.

The traditional works emphasize the authenticity of details through a lot of accurate descriptions of the external world. However, modernists challenge the depiction of life and regard the inner world as the main component of fiction. Since the end of 19th century, human’s perception of reality has been changed due to the discoveries of Bergson, William James, Freud and other philosophers and psychologists of the time. Reality includes not only the objective existence in the world, but the mental world as well. Woolf realizes that the activities of human consciousness and the inner experiences unquestionably exist. Then, the essence of the external reality never lies in itself, but in its effects on people’s life and mental world. Any unperceived external existence is meaningless. All these new understandings of reality stem from the development of modern psychology, which accelerate the shift from the objective world to the mental one. The modernists pay much attention to the internalized reality. Meanwhile, they also aim to represent the mental crisis in modern society (Xiao, 1998, p.81). In fact, the modernist literature itself is the product of social changes and disintegration of traditional values.

The omniscient narrative perspective is generally adopted in traditional works, privileging the narrator over the whole plot. The narrator possesses the insight into everything and comments on the behaviors and thoughts of characters at his discretion. This narrative perspective results in the excessive intervention and involvement of the narrator and thus brings in the distance between the work and the reader by reducing its authenticity and credibility. In addition, the omniscient perspective narrows down the vision of the work on account of the fact that the work is employed as a tool to reflect the narrator's personal taste. It also distracts the attention of the readers and leads to the phenomenon of double vision. The intervention of the narrator's personal consciousness destructs the self-discipline and integrity of fiction (Qu, 1989). Woolf argues that in order to follow the activities of consciousness and record the emotional inner life, "modern fiction" should not resort to the single perspective. Based on the center of consciousness, it needs to apply the shift of perspectives, which can exhibit the pattern of mental activities and also reveal the personalities of characters.

Confronted with the impact of world crisis, "modern fiction" doesn't mean to replace the traditional one; instead, to complete and implement it. Woolf approves of the ideas, techniques and way of living such as the writers Proust, Conrad, Defoe, Jane Austen and Stern. Due to the modern crisis, the finiteness of traditional categories of fiction emerges. The already known ration-oriented narrative style, the omniscient perspective and the objective representation cannot be employed as an effective way to mirror the modern crisis. The categories of "modern fiction" realize the representation of modern heart, whose rebellion against the traditional ones indicates not only the improvement of human cognitive ability, but the manifestation of the social crisis in capitalist society. The categories of "modern fiction" show the relationship between man and nature, man and destiny. They adopt the incongruous "mode of modern heart" to imply the contradictions, doubts and complexity in life. In order to display the senses of alienation, disorder, anxiety and confusion, "modern fiction" focuses on the morbid and deformed self. Everything that constitutes the whole life is not a trivial event. The categories of "modern fiction" describe the mode of modern heart by mirroring the human consciousness and fleeting perceptions, which are the real reactions for the fragmented world.

The categories of "modern fiction" undertake the task of delivering the modern experiences. Woolf takes the inherent human spirit and consciousness as the major content of "modern fiction" and abandons the plot and objective facts, concentrating on the free associations in a specific time, around which the related consciousness is provoked. The ages, looking, gender and occupations are not taken into account. She explores the inner world and reveals the subjective experiences and moral apprehension. Woolf mentions that only the capricious spiritual world can fully get the readers convinced. The categories of fiction emphasize the central status of human consciousness, ignoring the social relations, but appeal to life itself and the related subjective experiences and inner activities. The openness of categories of "modern fiction" realizes its integrating and restorative forces through artistic representation. "Modern fiction" is the product of capitalist society and inevitably gets involved in the modern crisis. The significant historical events, political movement and cultural and artistic trends exert direct or indirect influence on the formation of literary genre. Modernists like Woolf aim to reflect the awareness of crisis in modern civilization, which severely distorts the three basic relationships between man and self, man and the other, man and nature.

The categories of "modern fiction" proceed with the crisis of identity and fulfill the reconstruction of self. In "modern fiction", Woolf not only attempts to dig out the origin of mental crisis, but seeks to find out a solution to oppose against this crisis. The heavy blow of modern industrial civilization in the capitalist society leads to the physical and psychological harm and the deformity of human nature. The Great Wars also trigger the confusion, isolation and pessimism of modern people. The categories of "modern fiction" continue to explore the possible way out and help people to construct the complete personality. The reconstruction of self rediscovers the meaning of existence and the essence of life as well in this disordered world. In *To the Lighthouse*, Woolf describes Mr. Ramsay as a man incapable of untruth, never tampered with a fact; never altered a disagreeable word to suit the pleasure of any mortal being. (Woolf, 2005), which makes the image of Mr. Ramsay stand on the paper. Woolf describes his changes before and after the voyage to the lighthouse from a rational, stubborn and stereotypical man to a new one, who is the product of self-reflection as well as reunderstanding and finally achieves a spiritual sublimation (Shen, 1999)

The categories of "modern fiction" lay emphasis on the spiritual associations. Woolf dissolves the alienation between man and the other and builds up the spiritual identity by means of breaking away from the traditional time and space, exploring the mental world at a deeper level. In *Mrs. Dalloway*, Woolf, by describing the memories and consciousness, details a day in the life of Clarissa Dalloway, a woman with high social status in post-World War I England. The fiction consists of two story lines revolving around two major characters, one is Clarissa Dalloway, who in the morning goes around London to prepare for the party hosted in that evening; the other is Septimus Warren Smith, a World War I veteran who suffers a lot from the deferred traumatic stress, spends the day with his Italian-born wife Lucrezia in the park and finally commits suicide due to frequent and indecipherable hallucinations concerning the death of his old dear friend Evans in the war. Woolf, on the one hand, records the regular striking of the Big Ben on the tower; on the other hand, reveals the particular psychological time that keep Clarissa and Septimus returning to the past in their minds. Although man's existence occupied in space is limited, that occupied in time can be extended infinitely and the stored memories of the past can be reproduced in the present. Woolf ingeniously blends the physical time with the psychological time and makes the characters' consciousness shuttle between the past and present. On this basis, Woolf attempts to establish the spacial associations between characters (Li, 2008).

The categories of “modern fiction” decompose the objectified nature and dissolve the dichotomy of man and nature by means of describing the projection of nature on human consciousness. The realists passivize and objectify the subjective world, neglect the organizing ability of modern heart and negate its initiative to neatening the sensory elements. The categories of “modern fiction” cease to consider man as the subject and nature as the object recognized by the subject. Instead, they aim to display the interaction between the two. By resort to the techniques of impressionism and symbolism, the integrity of man and nature is realized. In “Kew Gardens”, Woolf dispenses with the traditional plot and conflicts. She represents a fragmented description of four groups of visitors in the royal botanic garden named “Kew”, narrating their feelings, sentiments and the chaotic consciousness (Woolf, 1999). Woolf follows the fleeting consciousness, the subtle feelings and impressions provoked by nature. It is not only a prose poem full of rich emotions, but also a vivid and colorful picture of lights, sounds, colors and other images, which project themselves on the modern hearts and stir personal emotions. The beginning and the middle parts make an impressionistic depiction of the scenes around. “Kew Gardens” manifests the trivialness of ordinary life as well as the insurmountable obstacle in spiritual communications. This theme and the technique of impressionism complement each other harmoniously. The expressive technique combines the mankind with nature. The projections of nature are faithfully exhibited, which dissolves the dichotomy of man and the objectified nature. Everything in nature as the perceived materials, regardless of their size, shape, smell, taste, etc, elicits the flow of consciousness. In this sense, nature is not a objective existence, but nature in consciousness (Woolf, 1999).

V. CONCLUSION

The thesis aims to construct the concept of Virginia Woolf’s “modern fiction” and its categories on the basis of Aristotle’s theory of category. Under the modern circumstances, the thesis, depending on the essay “Modern Fiction”, constructs the concept of “modern fiction” with “historical consciousness”, “the duration of life”, “man’s subjectivity”, “the complexity of psychological structures” and “the relativity and pluralism of reality” as its connotations. Aristotle’s theory of categories provides a philosophical access to the construction of “modern fiction” and its establishment of categories. The categories of “modern fiction” can be interpreted as a predication on “modern fiction” under the modern context. Woolf’s “modern fiction” is modified by such categories of species as “look within”; “impression”, “feeling and memory”, “the moment of importance”, “the psychological time” and “flow of consciousness”, which all together predicate the fundamental mode of fiction’s existence. The thesis also points out that the categories of fiction constitute an open system. The traditional categories of fiction results in the finiteness of traditional categories of fiction, which cannot be employed as an effective way to mirror the modern crisis because of its belated form. Taking all these influences into account, Woolf constructs the categories of “modern fiction” and makes fiction open for future, which is the combination of inheritance and innovation.

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A Needs Analysis Approach: An Investigation of Needs in an EAP Context

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Abstract—Needs analysis, sometimes called Needs Assessment, has been one of the major motives for the emergence of ESP as the umbrella term and thus EAP as a subdivision. Apparently, in such courses, a “one-size-fit-all” approach is discredited and each setting has to be matched with its own context and its own participants’ needs. Moreover, several authors have emphasized the vital position that Needs Analysis holds in syllabus design and curriculum development, particularly for EAP. Thus, the present survey aims at adding to the body of knowledge that exists about the Iranian context of EAP and specifically for the students majoring in Computer Engineering as well as Information Technology. Moreover, it aims at investigating the probable mismatch (es) that exist/s between what has been highlighted in literature about the currently most prominent skill included in EAP textbooks in Iran and what the students perceive as their real needs. As the findings of the study suggest, the students preferred to learn productive skills of writing and speaking rather than the reading and listening skills. Similarly, the interview results provided more in-depth information about the sub-skills perceived as necessary by the interviewees.

Index Terms—ESP, EAP, needs analysis, language skills, language sub-skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Communicative language teaching brought with it a change of focus from English being perceived as a system to be studied to English as a means of communication especially in syllabus design. Accordingly, content selection was done based on learners’ communicative needs (Carter & Nunan, 2001). Having its root in communicative language teaching, ESP is devised to meet particular needs of the learners and the themes and topics which are covered relate to the occupations or the areas of study (Strevens, 1980). Thus, ESP is designed to build up students’ skills in order to enable them to communicate in English language (Tarnopolsky, 2009). On the other hand, it is believed that the prominent foundation based on which ESP emerged was “the diversity and specificity of learners’ objectives and needs for learning English” (Amirian & Tavakoli, 2009). Since ESP is an attempt to help learners accomplish their academic and occupational needs and goals, learners’ needs have to be assessed cautiously through needs assessment (Belcher, 2004). Nonetheless, the language chosen for ESP is selective rather than general (Strevens, 1980) and the language skills that are included are limited to learners’ needs. However, the choice of which skills to include is what constitutes the basis of a focal step in designing and evaluating ESP/EAP courses known as Needs Analysis.

II. NEEDS ANALYSIS

As is mentioned in Long (2005), since the resources are decreasing in the present era, more importance is devoted to the attentive investigation of learners’ needs as a requirement for efficient course designing. Thus, Needs Analysis can compensate for the diversity of EAP students’ profiles and learning situations as well as the limited duration of such courses (Harwood & Petric, 2011). Having been acknowledged as the leading step in designing any EAP course (Bernard & Zemach, 2003), the significance of Needs Analysis is emphasized in research when designing courses, preparing text books, and deciding on the kind of teaching and learning that is going to ensue (Dudley_Evans & St John, 2001; Robinson, 1991; Jordan, 1997; Long, 2005). Amirian and Tavakoli (2009) see Needs Analysis as a prerequisite when course design is concerned because of “the diversity of needs and their unique and situation-based nature”. Referring to the essentiality of this process, they contend that it helps in planning more satisfying courses by fulfilling students’ needs. Referring to Needs Analysis as a cornerstone on which every ESP course is founded, Basturkmen (2006) mentions that Needs Analysis may also affect learners’ motivation since they can clearly see the consequence of what is being taught to them. Basturkmen also mentions that because of the time restrictions and also due to the emphasis on specific purposes, ESP is the place where teachers and designers need to be selective. Needs Analysis in this view is the process through which the skills that students may need in the target situation are specified.

Brown (2005, p.269) defines Needs Analysis as “the processes involved in gathering information about the needs of a particular client group in industry or education”. In educational settings, he explains the process by first finding out the learning needs of the students which are later translated to learning objectives that will work as the source of all decisions about the course such as activities, materials, or tests. Needs Analysis will provide two impressions. It either specifies the final behavior (ends of learning) or identifies the things that the learners need to do to learn the language (Ajideh, 2009).

Discussing about needs, Brunton (2009) argues that there are two approaches in seeing the learners' needs: narrow and broad. In the narrow approach the focus is on the immediate needs of the learners with a restrictive syllabus while in the latter the focus is on immediate needs and skills and situations which are not found in the Needs Analysis. He also encourages an eclectic approach for material selection by moving towards a negotiated or process-oriented syllabus. Nonetheless, as Awasthi (2006) points out, it is not possible to include the needs of all individual learners in a single volume of a textbook, but what seems to be important is that "exclusion of the need of the learners of the particular linguistic proficiency will de-motivate them as well". (p.4)

Early works on Needs Analysis included the simple studies to find a rough idea of what the purposes of learners were to learn English; whereas, a more sophisticated approach to EAP Needs Analysis will be to ask about the reasons why learners need to do a course in English, the situations in which they will need to use English, and what they must do in such situations (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Different Needs Analysis studies have been mentioned in Basturkmen (2006) which have either aimed at finding students' perceptions about needs such as Ferris' 1998 investigation or which attempted to carry out more in-depth studies by focusing on ethnographic principles such as Ibrahim's 1993 study. Yet, Basturkmen continues to mention the different criticisms made of Needs Analysis including that of Auerbach's 1995 who argued that Needs Analysis serves the interests of the institutions rather than the learners' needs and interests, or Long (1996) who believed that Needs Analysis data cannot be relied on particularly when the learners are not familiar with the concept of needs.

Referring to the types of Needs Analysis mentioned by Brindley, West, and Jordan, some of which may overlap, Brown (2005, p. 272) includes the nine different kinds of Needs Analysis in a list as follows:

1. Target-situation analysis looks for information on the language requirements learners face while learning a specific language.
2. Deficiency analysis accounts for learners' present needs and wants as well as their target situation shortages
3. Present-situation analysis deals with the proficiencies of learners at the commencement of instruction.
4. Learning-oriented analysis regards the needs as to be negotiated between students and other stakeholders.
5. Strategy analysis efforts to find out learners' preferences in terms of learning strategies, error correction, group size, amount of homework.
6. Means analysis focuses on the learning situation, with as few preconceptions as possible in terms of practicality, logistics, cultural appropriateness, etc.
7. Language audit takes a large scale view of NA in terms of strategic language policies for companies, professional sectors, governmental departments, countries, etc.
8. Set menu analysis creates a menu including all the main courses from which the sponsors or learners can select.
9. Computer-based analysis conducted by computer matches the perceived needs to a database of materials "...from which the course content can be negotiated between students and teacher..." (West, 1997, p.74, cited in Brown, 2005)

There are various instruments and data collection techniques which can be used in conducting a Needs Analysis such as questionnaires, structured interviews, language audits, participant observations, or diaries, journals, and logs (Long, 2005). After the information is gathered through Needs Analysis and based on the approaches that the institution, the teachers, and the students have in learning, different syllabuses may be defined such as structural, situational, topical, functional, notional, skills-based, and task-based as well as some recently introduced syllabus types such as lexical and problem-solving. (Brown, 2005)

III. THE CURRENT STATUS OF EAP IN IRAN

English for specific purposes (ESP) in Iran is primarily limited to university level unlike General English which is involved in all primary, secondary, and university levels (Talebinezhad & Aliakbari, 2002). English for Academic Purposes, as a subdivision of ESP, is often associated with the analysis of texts from various academic disciplines in Iran (Hassrati, 2005, p.45). Students at Iranian universities in fields ranging from engineering, medicine, and basic sciences to business and humanities have to successfully complete general and specialized English courses in order to fulfil the requirements of their academic programs (Sadeghi, 2005). Soleimani (2005, p. 216) states that the purpose of all books published for ESP students is "to enable the students to study their specific academic reference materials and textbooks to get familiar with scientific and technological advances in their field of study."

However, reading skill an indispensable part of any language teaching program seems to play a large and significant role in EAP courses in Iran. This, according to Jodairi (2005) is because of the initial Needs Analysis of the Iranian students in the past decade which gave prominence to reading skill with a focus on learning reading comprehension and translation. The objective of these courses is to help the students fill the gap which exists "between their general knowledge of English and the literature they will have to read later on in their studies and academic career." This is accomplished by presenting readings on a content-based basis which work as a means for improving students' ability in reading and comprehending the relevant materials of their fields (Alimohammadi, 2003, p.1236).

However, while there is a consensus among EAP practitioners in Iran that the development of the reading skill is the main purpose of these courses (Alimohammadi, 2003; Jodairi, 2005; Soelimani, 2005; Suzani, 2005; Tayebipour, 2005; Ziahosseiny, 2005; Fathi, 2008; Akbari & Tahririan, 2009; Amirian & Tavakoli, 2009), many of the practitioners criticize these courses. These criticisms include but are not limited to;

- Existing materials are not satisfactory (Fathi, 2008);
- There is a mismatch between the course contents and the required skills and materials of the learners at workplace (Amirian & Tavakoli, 2009);
- The material design and teacher qualifications are problematic (Tayebipour, 2005);
- There is no study skill included and the discourse genre is not appropriate for using language authentically (Hassaskhah, 2005);
- Variety is absent for exercises, tasks, activities, and drills (Soleimani, 2005);
- There is deficiency in the integration of extra-linguistic perspectives like pragmatics (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005).

IV. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Having a cursory review of the EAP literature reveals that several criticisms are made of the current EAP courses in Iran. These criticisms include: following a read-only approach (Tayebipour, 2005), lacking variety in exercises or tasks (Soleimani, 2005), ignoring learners' interests or purposes and the absence of the motivational principles to encourage students (Fathi, 2008), and not following students' needs and interests in designing the current EAP textbooks (Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011). Accordingly, the present study seeks to answer the following questions:

- How compatible is the current EAP course with the needs of the learners in the field of computer and information technology?
- What are the skills and sub-skills which are prioritized by the students as their real needs?
- Which language skill is perceived as the most important by this group of EAP students?

V. METHODOLOGY

The present study employed a mixed method of investigation. As a cross-sectional survey it sought to collect data both quantitatively and qualitatively to triangulate data. The following sections describe the participants, instrumentation, data collection procedure as well as the data analysis methods.

A. Participants

The participants in the present survey included 66 students majoring in Information Technology and Computer Engineering in Islamic Azad University of Mashhad in Iran. They were all male sophomores who were taking their EAP courses during the second academic semester of 2013. The students had passed their Basic English course in which they were introduced to basic grammar points, general vocabulary, and reading comprehension strategies. The students were instructed through the textbook "English for the students of engineering".

B. Instrumentation

1. The Quantitative Measure

The quantitative measure for the study included a questionnaire through which the data was collected. It was adapted from Peterson's 2009 Needs Analysis questionnaire which consisted of four sections related to the four language skills with their corresponding sub-skills. For instance, the listening section included listening to lectures, instructions, presentations, reports, as well as explanations given by the teacher. Other language skills were followed by their related sub-skills as well the details of which are available in the following tables.

2. The Qualitative Measure

In order to add more in-depth information, semi-structured interviews were conducted through which the qualitative data was collected. For a semi-structured interview an interview protocol is prepared including the questions to collect data systematically. However, the order of the questions may change or some questions may be added or omitted (Lodico, et al., 2010). Accordingly, questions related to the perceived needs of the students and their priority for ordering of the English language skills were asked during the interview sessions.

C. Data Collection Procedure

The data was collected during the second academic semester of 2013 at the engineering department of Azad University, Mashhad. The participants were selected randomly to fill in the questionnaire items. The purpose of the study and the objectives of the questionnaire were clearly explained to the students by the researchers before administration. The Data was collected through the adaption of the Needs Analysis questionnaire presented by Peterson (2009) in the 43rd Cardiff conference. The questionnaire consisted of four sections relating to the four language skills as well as their sub-skills. The students had to choose between two items of important and unimportant to show their preferences in learning the language skills and the sub-skills related to each of the items. So, they had to specify if they thought the skills or the sub-skills were either important or unimportant to them. After the quantitative phase of the study, a group of eight students were selected randomly from the list of 66 students to be interviewed. A semi-structured focus group interview was conducted and the questions related to their preference of skills, the desired language skills, their needs for the courses and the like were asked. The session was tape-recorded for later analysis.

D. Data Analysis

The quantitative data from the questionnaire and the qualitative data from the interview sessions were analysed separately. Then, the results of the two sets of data were triangulated. Triangulation is used as a method of ensuring the results consistency which increases the internal validity of the studies (Merriam, 2009). Thus, triangulation helps the researcher to find counter patterns or diverse perspectives of the participants to be able to interpret the data and understand the phenomenon under study (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004).

1. Analysis of the Quantitative Data

The quantitative data was analysed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). To find out about the students' preferences for each sub-skill, the frequency analysis was run.

2. Analysis of the Qualitative Data

The "emergent" inductive method of coding was used to analyse the interview data. In this approach to analysis, the emergence of the categories and themes is allowed while the researcher conducts the analyses of the data (Bazeley, 2013; Blessing & Chakrabarti, 2009). Coding includes simplifying and reducing the data to link them to extensive concepts or topics (Dornyei, 2007). According to Mackey and Gass (2005), the findings relate to the frequency of ideas expressed by the participants. Thus, the common themes were identified in the transcribed interview data set.

VI. RESULTS

Based on the analysis of the collected data by the questionnaire as the quantitative data and the interview themes as the qualitative data the following results were obtained.

A. Quantitative Results

As is shown in table 1, from among the reading sub-skills, reading the manuals [n= 55 & 78.6%], followed by legal documents [n=50, 71.4%] were preferred by the majority of the students. However, other sub-skills such as reading the contracts [n=27 & 38.6%], and price lists and specialist literature [n=24 & 40.0%] were chosen by students as unimportant.

TABLE 1
PERCENTAGES AND FREQUENCIES FOR THE READING SUB-SKILLS

Language skill	Language Sub-skills	Frequencies	
		Unimportant	Important
Reading	manuals	11 (21.4%)	55 (78.6%)
	instructions	18 (31.4%)	48 (68.6%)
	contracts	27 (38.6%)	39 (55.7%)
	product specifications	18 (31.4%)	48 (68.6%)
	price lists	24 (40.0%)	42 (60.0%)
	specialist literature	24 (40.0%)	42 (60.0%)
	legal documents	16 (28.6%)	50 (71.4%)

With reference to the speaking sub-skills (Table 2), taking part in conferences [n=61 & 87.1%] and giving presentations [n=60 & 85.7%] were highly preferred by the students. However 25.7% of the students believed that giving instructions is not considered as an important sub-skill which they would like to be included in their course.

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGES AND FREQUENCIES FOR THE SPEAKING SUB-SKILLS

Language skill	Language Sub-skills	Frequencies	
		Unimportant	Important
Speaking	foreign visitors	7 (15.7%)	59 (84.3%)
	foreign colleagues	8 (17.1%)	58 (82.9%)
	on the phone	10 (20.0%)	56 (80.0%)
	taking part in meetings	7 (15.7%)	59 (84.3%)
	taking part in conferences	5 (12.9%)	61 (87.1%)
	giving presentations	6 (14.3%)	60 (85.7%)
	giving instructions	14 (25.7%)	52 (74.3%)
	small talk	8 (17.1%)	58 (82.9%)

For the sub-skills specified in the questionnaire which related to the writing skill (Table 3), writing translations [n=63 & 90.0%] and writing emails [n=58 & 82.9%] were of high preference. On the other hand, writing memorandums was considered as an unimportant sub-skill by 42.9 percent of the students.

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGES AND FREQUENCIES FOR THE WRITING SUB-SKILLS

Language skill	Language Sub-skills	Frequencies	
		Unimportant	Important
Writing	business letters	15 (27.1%)	51 (72.9%)
	E-mails	8 (17.1%)	58 (82.9%)
	memorandums	26 (42.9%)	40 (57.1%)
	reports	16 (28.6%)	50 (71.4%)
	articles	9 (18.6%)	57 (81.4%)
	summaries(of articles)	17 (30.0%)	49 (70.0%)
	notes	11 (21.4%)	55 (78.6%)
	translations	3 (15.7%)	63 (90.0%)
	glossary	7 (15.7%)	59 (84.3%)

As for the sub-skills related to listening (table 4), the frequency analysis showed that listening to lectures [n=53 & 75.7%] and presentations [n=49 & 70.0%] were highly preferred as important sub-skills while 38.6 percent of the students believed that listening to instructions was an unimportant listening sub-skill. It needs to be mentioned here that since many of the EAP teachers still use Persian (the official language in Iran) as the medium of instruction instead of English, many students believed that this sub-skill is of minimum importance to them.

TABLE 4
PERCENTAGES AND FREQUENCIES FOR THE LISTENING SUB-SKILLS

Language skill	Language Sub-skills	Frequencies	
		Unimportant	Important
Listening	lectures	13 (24.3%)	53 (75.7%)
	instructions	23(38.6%)	43 (61.4%)
	presentations	17 (30.0%)	49 (70.0%)
	reports	18 (31.4%)	48 (68.6%)
	Explanations given by the teacher	17 (30.0%)	49 (70.0%)

After all, to decide which language skill has been prioritized the researchers had to look for the related sub-skills. Thus, each language skill (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) mean percentage (Table 5) was obtained as the mean of the corresponding sub-skills. Then, the percentage of each language skill was calculated. The table shows each language skill together with the mean percentages.

TABLE 5
MEANS PERCENTAGES OF THE MAIN SKILLS

Language skills	N	Mean percentage
Speaking	66	87.69
Writing	66	82.54
Reading	66	70.29
Listening	66	74.46
Valid N (listwise)	66	

B. Qualitative Results

As is illustrated in the following table (6), the most recurrent emergent themes were distinguished and categorized. Based on the students' views about the sub-skills that they perceived as needed and important, the most recurrent themes for speaking included: talking to colleagues from other nations, presenting in English for class projects, being able to speak about their field in English to others, presenting in professional conferences, and managing a conversation with foreigners. As for the writing sub-skills the students mentioned the following sub-skills: translating from and to English, writing emails, writing summaries, taking notes from an English speech, writing application letters, handling written communication with pals. Similarly, the students expressed their need in learning the following sub-skills for the listening skill: understanding English speech, understanding conferences, understanding professional speech, understanding lectures in their field, and understanding oral presentations. And finally, the sub-skills mentioned for the reading skill were reading professional articles in the field, reading professional websites on the net and reading field news.

TABLE 6
THE MOST RECURRENT THEMES FOR THE INTERVIEW SESSION ON SUB-SKILLS RELATED TO EACH LANGUAGE SKILL

Skill	The recurrent sub-skills mentioned by the interviewees
Speaking	* Talking to colleagues from other nations * Presenting in English for class projects * Being able to speak about their field in English to others * Presenting in professional conferences * Managing a conversation with foreigners
Writing	* Translating from and to English * Writing emails * Writing summaries * Taking notes from an English speech * Writing application letters * Handling written communication with pals
Listening	* Understanding English speech * Understanding conferences * Understanding professional speech * Understanding lectures in their fields * Understanding oral presentations
Reading	* Reading professional articles in the field * Reading professional websites on the net * Reading field news

Moreover, the interviewees were asked to rate the skills in order of importance. As is shown in table 7, all the students mentioned that the speaking skill is the most important skill to them. The writing skill was rated as second by 7 students out of the 8 interviewees and the listening and reading skills were rated as third, as 6 out of 8 students believed that these skills were less important as compared to other skills.

TABLE 7
MAIN LANGUAGE SKILLS' RATINGS BY THE INTERVIEWEES

Skills in order of importance	Number of interviewees	Rating
Speaking	8	1
Writing	7	2
Listening & Reading	6	3

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The significant role of Needs Analysis is frequently emphasized specially as a first step to be taken in designing ESP/EAP courses. As Robinson (1991) suggests, Needs Analysis has to be conducted continuously even within the scope of one course since the students may develop different needs as they get involved with the course. Needs Analysis will provide insights for policy makers and stakeholders in every field in general and EAP in particular to evaluate the success of a course, find the points of strength and weakness as well as to do the required amendments to improve the courses. However, based on the results of the present survey, there seems to be a mismatch between what is included in EAP textbooks in Iran as the major skill and what their expectations of the courses are. Additionally, as the data suggests, students prefer to learn productive skills of speaking and writing rather than receptive skills of listening and reading. Remarkably, the results also depict that the reading skill which has been given emphasis- not only through the literature but also through the text book - has been the least preferred language skill by this group of students. The qualitative data of the interview with the students also revealed some of the students' preferences of language sub-skills such as writing summaries for the writing skill, talking to colleagues from other nations for the speaking skill, handling written communication with pals for the writing skill, and reading professional articles or news in the field for the reading skill.

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On Binary Oppositions in *Filling Station**

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Abstract—The modern American poet Elizabeth Bishop's craftsmanship is fully shown in the keen, delicate observation, ingenious musicality, pure and accurate poetic diction, rich and vivid images in her poems. *Filling Station* is a poem depicting a decayed family-run station, unified by the pervasive presence of oil, and complete with filth and beauty, disorder and order, hope and decay, masculine and feminine, staying at home and going out for travelling, and many pairs of implicit or explicit binary oppositions. This paper is intended to explore the theme and the aesthetic characteristics from the perspective of binary oppositions, to display the profound beauty prevails dirt and filth; hope and happiness overwhelms decay and poverty; powerful, universal love keeps everything eternal in this little filling station.

Index Terms—*Filling Station*, binary oppositions, love

I. INTRODUCTION

Elizabeth Bishop (1911-1979), an eminent American poet in the 20th century, got her reputation for many poetry collections, such as: *North & South*, *A Cold Spring*, *Questions of Travel*, *The Complete Poems*, *Geography III*, *Edgar Allan Poe & The Juke-Box: Uncollected Poems, Drafts, and Fragments*. She was rewarded with many honors including the Pulitzer Prize, the National Book Critics Circle Award and the National Book Award, an Ingram Merrill Foundation grant and two Guggenheim Fellowships, and the Neustadt International Prize for Literature in 1976. *Filling Station* (1965) was firstly published in Bishop's poetry collection *Questions of Travel* (1965), most of which was written during her staying in Brazil. According to biographer Brett Miller, *Filling Station* is often included when Elizabeth Bishop gives a reading of her poems (Miller, 1993, p. 35), maybe because the poem bears ear-pleasing beauty, or maybe this poem is one of Bishop's favorites. Technically free verse, *Filling Station* is never shapeless or undisciplined. This short but well-proportioned six-stanza poem reveals its disciplined accuracy of word diction, and lucid description through its exquisite form. Each stanza of this poem is composed of six-eight lines and each of its relatively short lines contains an average of six to seven syllables, which leaves readers the impression of a certain sound effects to their ears and visual tidiness to their eyes. Though Bishop travelled extensively, it was not the grand view that inspires her but the details of ordinary life. The subject of *Filling Station* is an oil-soaked, filthy, family-run gas station which seems odd and is not typical for a poem. Many of Elizabeth Bishop's poems seem more inclined to focus on the details of ordinary, even ugly things of the world, but usually achieve its sublimity or are finally rewarded in illumination, if seen beyond the surface of things. Critics home and abroad have done a lot of study work about Bishop and her poetry. But compared with other poems, not too many critics have studied this exquisite poem till now. There are pairs of implicit or explicit binary oppositions in it, which greatly enhance its artistic values. By analyzing this poem from the perspective of binary oppositions, this paper is intended to explore the theme and the aesthetic characteristics.

II. BINARY OPPOSITIONS

According to The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms, binary opposition is the principle of contrast between two mutually exclusive terms, such as on and off, up and down, left and right. As an important concept of structuralism, binary opposition sees such distinctions as fundamental to all languages and thoughts (Baldick, 1990, p. 260). Literary works are abundant in artistic languages and deeper thought, so the theory of binary opposition has been greatly applied in the analysis of literary works. As a fundamental method in structuralism analysis, binary opposition firstly disintegrates a literary work into pairs of contradictory and related binary oppositions and then integrates them into an organic whole. Considering binary opposition as an important strategy in literary criticism, readers may spot fundamental binary oppositions in the literary works, integrate them to form a framework, and figure out the meaning. Jonathan Culler holds that certain oppositions are pertinent to larger thematic structures which encompass other antitheses presented in the text (Culler, 1975).

In the *Filling Station*, the poet tends to reveal its profound theme through its seemingly disgusting description of a decayed station: it present the readers with a microcosm of a family-run station, unified by the pervasive presence of oil, and complete with filth and beauty, disorder and order, hope and decay, masculine and feminine, staying at home and going out for travelling, and many other binary oppositions, yet the profound beauty prevails dirt and filth; hope and happiness overwhelms decay and poverty; powerful, universal love keeps everything eternal in this little filling station.

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A. *Seeking Beauty and Order among Filth and Disorder*

Filth and disorder in the *Filling Station* starts with an exclamation at the very beginning: “*Oh, but it is dirty!*” for this is a world described as black and greasy: “*oil-soaked, oil-permeated*” and the “*overall black translucency*” is “*disturbing*”. Also the sibilance sound fits the meaning well as the poet is writing about greasy dirt that covers everything: ‘s’ is used fourteen times in the second stanza, in addition to the ‘s’ sound of the ‘c’ in ‘saucy’. Because of its uncleanness as well as fragility, a caring, maternal voice sounds alarming in this disordered world at the end of this stanza: “*Be careful with that match!*” Then particular figures of this little station emerge in the second stanza: This is a family-run business and at the helm is “Father” in his “*oil-soaked monkey suit,*” which is obviously too small for him for “*it cuts him under the arms.*” Also his many unnamed sons are all described as “*thoroughly dirty,*” and all seem to be the same---“*quick and saucy and greasy.*” Seeing the main figures of ill-dressed father and same dirty sons in this filling station, the speaker begins to wonder: “*Do they live in this station?*” And the evidences with domestic features seem to offer positive answer: a porch with its wicker furniture and lazy dog suggests the possibility. “*Quite comfy*” not only especially describes the dog, but also the general atmosphere of the place, despite its pervasive dirtiness and that crushed sofa.

After observing these apparently messy atmosphere and indecently-dressed figures, the speaker’s eyes travel next to a taboret and adjacent begonia which offers a different touch of stillness and neatness. This stanza seems to set a frame of watercolor painting with the items of still life within it: the comic book, the taboret, the begonia. All of their beauty forms a bizarre contrast with the previous messy background. The taboret is adorned with “*some comic books*” whose contents are unspecified. “*The only note of color*” of this comic books lie “*upon a big dim doily*” This large doily is dim from exposure to the same substance which permeates the family’s furniture and clothing. That houseplant, a begonia of an overgrowing image, seeming to overcome the decay of this little station, takes on its special vitality for it is extremely big and hairy.

Facing such “*extraneous*” plant and disharmonious decorations in this practical dirty workday business of filling station tanks, the speaker moves from observation to questioning: “*Why the extraneous plant? Why the taboret? Why, oh why, the doily?*” As if to probe the mystery, the speaker draws closer to the doily and finds it an odd combination of fresh and stale, both “*embroidered in daisy stitch with marguerites*” and “*heavy with gray crochet.*” The last stanza, however, leads mystery to a possible answer by “pumping” the “*somebody*” to the presence: “*Somebody embroidered the doily. Somebody waters the plant, or oils it, maybe.*” Not only does “*somebody*” bring beauty and care to this dirty and greasy place, this “*somebody*” even “*arranges the rows of cans*” and enables the order of them to make them chant or sing “*ESSO-SO-SO-SO*” with a certain rhythm. The internal rhyme as ‘SO’ sound occurs four times in this line. All the dominant rhythm is casual but fast, especially the last stanza, with ten repetitions of ‘so’, it is particularly fast to build up fast rhythm to the final decisive statement of its climax.

Then the only final answer to “why” practically reaches beyond logic to love in the end. “*Somebody loves us all.*” With such a simply and profound conclusion, this poem leads readers reach from a fussy, dirty and disordered surfaces to a consciousness of something deeper: love fills the station and keeps everything in order and beauty.

B. *Happiness and Hope Revealed among Poverty and Decay*

The “*Filling Station*” is described by the speaker with its prominent outward quality “filth” and is usually an odd subject for a poem, which may mostly focuses on those natural and human beauty. Bishop seems to reverse the most ordinary, seemingly ugly things of the world, to see them as worthy of attention and naming. The reading process of this “*Filling Station*” is likewise from the oily surface of things to the presence behind their “art” to achieve the final harmony.

The first stanza shows the snapshot of this small filling station by the speaker: “*this little filling station, oil-soaked, oil-permeated/ to a disturbing, over-all/ black translucency.*” Dirtiness is this little filling station and also extends toward the family that runs the station. “*Father wears a dirty,/ oil-soaked monkey suit/ that cuts him under the arms,*” and “*several quick and saucy/ and greasy sons assist him.*” Also “*a dirty dog*”, like the father and the son who work the station, is oblivious to the filth and disarray that surround him and still feels “*comfy.*”

In the following stanza, the speaker continues to survey the scene: “*a set of crushed and grease-impregnated wickerwork,*” combined with father’s apparently-shrunk overcoat and his son’s greasy appearance mentioned above, altogether implies their working-class status: they have to struggle to earn their living through sweat and hard work. Yet the only available reading material--- “*Some comic books*” “*provide/the only note of color---/of certain color.*” conveys kind of optimistic spiritual state of the people who “*live in the station*”, proving the “*comfy*” happy living condition of both human and animal felt. Life may sometimes like “*a big dim doily*”, a little bit “*heavy*” for the people in this little family-run filling station, yet they still hold the living state as “*a big hirsute begonia*”: untrimmed, vigorous and natural.

Such a bizarre collective effect is so overwhelming for the speaker that she starts to demand: “*Why the extraneous plant? Why the taboret? Why, oh why, the doily?*” She demands who add touches of beauty and upturning strength to such a clearly dismal world. Yet, as the speaker’s attention focuses on the doily, she seems to find some clues to her demanding, for this piece of doily is carefully “*embroidered in daisy stitch/ with marguerites, I think,/ and heavy with gray crochet.*” “*Somebody embroidered the doily,*” she recognizes. Even in this place of filth and disarray, a person took the time to make something beautiful. “*Somebody waters the plant,*” she says; and in a humorous tone she adds, “*or oils*

it, maybe.” to bring vigor and hope to this seemingly disgusting place. Ultimately she also notices the musical and melodic echo from those meticulously-arranged “rows of cans” softly saying: “So-So-So” to “high-strung automobiles”: the passing vehicles who are filled with new energy in this “filling station.” All of these convey the information of being optimistic, happy and hopeful.

These small revelations culminate in the final line of the poem: “Somebody loves us all.” At the end of this poem, beauty and strength found its source in love. Also the poem suddenly opens out to “us all.” In doing so, it suggests that no human being, no matter how “thoroughly dirty” their living conditions are and how “crushed” and “heavy” their life is, is beyond the beautifying power of love.

C. *Feminine Love from the Masculinity*

Even though Bishop had once admitted that she was not “a flaming militant”, she was acting as a feminist when she refused, as she did throughout her career beginning in the 1930s, to allow her work to appear in anthologies devoted to women’s poetry. (Monteiro, 1996, p. x) Ostensibly *Filling Station* is totally about a masculine world: a messy and dirty living station, a father-and-son run automobile industry, “man’s best friend”---a dirty dog. However, seeing through the surface of the poem, one senses the elevated place of female. The feminine consciousness is pervasive in the whole poem as if the oil permeates the little filling station.

In the first stanza, the fussy tone of a woman for whom cleanliness is a priority: “Oh, but it is dirty! —this little filling station.” “Be careful with that match!” has the maternal sound of one who is naturally concerned for the safety and health of her household. Oil has soaked and covered everything with such a black slick that the speaker thinks the place may even explode if someone throws away a lit match.

Then in the second stanza, this filling station is described as a family station with the staff consisted of a father with an improper overcoat and his “greasy” sons. They are all filthy due to being coated in oil. Also the speaker notices evidence that a family live on the premises: the porch with a wickerwork set, the crushed wickerwork sofa and a family dog. Even the dog is oily.

In the fourth stanza, the speaker notices some comic books lying on a big dim doily that covers a taboret which belongs to a set. Then she sees a neglected and hairy pink flower: “hirsute begonia” which seems not fit in: “the extraneous plant”. Because of the general greasy appearance of the filling station, she questions “why” the presence of a domestic aesthetic amidst this male-dominated place after describing the design and stitching on the doily in detail. The whole thing is rather odd: “Why, oh why, the doily?” She is both amused and puzzled with the clash of it all. Would a man in a mini shrunken monkey suit have fancy embroidered doily or a prosperous pink flower?

In the final stanza, the speaker thinks there is a caring person that secretly stitches doily, waters plants and tidies oilcans, arranges the orderly way of the ESSO cans to lure business to the filling station. (ESSO is the name of company that owns the station.) She suggests that ‘somebody’ provides these domestic touches. She throws in a humorous touch about oiling the begonia. Is it the oily father? Seemingly not. In the last line, a clue is offered about the “somebody”: “Somebody loves us all”. Indirectly the poem indicates there may be a loving and protective mother figure in the background. The caring figure is invisible in the poem but she has left her marks. She is connected to the oil soaked males who run the filling station, possibly a mother figure. The images of present father and absent mother actually follow the classic example of a binary opposition: presence-absence dichotomy. Distinguishing between presence and absence, the polar opposites, is a fundamental element of thought in many cultures and literary works.

Filling Station and other poems in *Elsewhere*, which is one of the two parts of poetry collection *Questions of Travel* (1965), are mainly about Bishop’s own strangely textured childhood. Bishop lived a “restless, disoriented, and distraught life” (Stanford, 1994, p. 161). When she was only eight-month-old, her father died of kidney disorder, and her mother drifted in and out of mental hospitals because she was distraught over her husband death. At the age of five, Bishop never saw her mother again because she was permanently institutionalized. Based on her personal life, *Filling Station* may be about Bishop herself. She missed and longed for a mother figure in her own life subconsciously. The women figure’s physical absence is somewhat like the specter of her own lost mother. Though Bishop’s mother disappeared from her life, she may have believed or wished that her mother still cared for her in a spiritual way. She may have felt that her absent mother shaped her life in the same way that a caring ‘somebody’ left her mark on the filling station. The poem shows that Bishop may have tried to imagine that there is a caring mother behind other people’s lives; a maternal love is always there behind the scene.

Even though the inhabitants and surfaces of this place are distinctly masculine, there is a feminine consciousness to match it, revealed in the poem’s voice and in the traces of a feminine aesthetics in the station. It is just this maternal love that endows this little filling station with order, beauty, vigor, and eternal charm.

Filling Station describes a filthy, untidy gas station in a remote place. The speaker mocks the black and messy appearance of the filling station. Surprisingly she finds signs of beauty and order within its filth and disorder, harmony and happiness among decay and poverty. Thus she cannot help wondering who provides the orderly or domestic touches for this gas station, and who fills care and love to this “filling station” to maintain its vigor: maternal love prevails over everything.

D. *As a Place of Commerce and Home*

Filling station, a family-run business of oil station, is meanwhile a home for a family of a father, sons, a dog, and an

absent mother. The goal of running business is to make money, which might be considered as emotionless, loveless and heartless. It is also regarded as man's realm in the 1960s when this poem was created. The poet turns the filling station into cozy, beautiful, happy home full of love, especially maternal love. Ostensibly a father and his sons run the station, but a doily draped on a taboret and a begonia can be noticed, which offers evidences of a woman's existence and caring. Actually the musicality of this poem also enhanced the meaning of home and family. The 'f' alliteration sound links the family to the filling station: "*family filling station*". And the long 'i' sound is emphasized through the continuous question 'why': "*Why the extraneous plant? Why the taboret? Why, oh why, the doily?*" They can meet the standard of writing poetry, advocated by the 18th century poet Alexander Pope (2004), that the sound must seem an echo to the sense. So once more the distinction between home and a place of commerce is blurred and the dichotomy is broken down.

Bishop's life was mostly rootless since she was transferred from this place to that place as a parentless kid in her childhood. Later she spent most of her adult life traveling. For this reason she may have her own opinion of the truly grounding sense of home. Filling station is a stop for travelers stopping to buy gas here. It is also a home image for the weary travelers to stop and rest, to fill the gas and get energetic, to feel at home temporarily. So filling station is not only a commercial place, but a homelike place for travelers who are in the long journey. It is a micro world where the travelers come in and might be embraced by the nurturing love, which is suggested by the embroidered marguerites on the dingy doily and the tinkling cans which line up to say "ESSO—SO—SO—SO" to the drivers of the automobiles. All of these touch the heart of a wandering traveler stopping for gas. The simple and profound last line, "*Somebody loves us all*" extend the love from family love to universal love, because it is not "Somebody loves family", but "us all". The poet breaks down the dichotomy between "us" and "them", actually the family members in the normal family and the people who travel outside of home and around the world. This filling station can fill not only gas to the automobiles but nurturing love to the heart, it is also the sense of home for travelers.

III. CONCLUSION

There are contrasts, conflicts or tension everywhere in this world and it is also the case in the literary world. The structural principle of binary opposition can be employed in various research fields: philosophy, linguistics, literature and so on. Binary opposition, used as a literary theory, can be used to analyze and interpret literary works so as to shed light on the theme, characters, structure and to assist the understanding, to contribute to the insight.

Bishop lived an "undisciplined" life but her poetry is always "disciplined" (Stanford, 1994, p. 161). She is well-known for the meticulousness and painstaking revising efforts. She displaces her master's consummate craftsmanship in creating this poem. The genius and craftsmanship are fully shown in the keen, delicate observation; ingenious musicality; pure, accurate poetic diction; rich, vivid images etc in her poetry. Thus her life and her poetry could also be regarded as a pair of binary opposition.

Elizabeth Bishop's poetry has transcended time and space and is becoming more and more popular all over the world. Understanding the profound themes is a gateway to appreciating her poetry. It seems that the majority of *Filling Station* is about the unfamiliar or unavailable place, but the assertion "*Somebody loves us all*" in the last line highlights the care taken to make this nasty old place home or homelike. It is the love and care of the people that make this station filling with beauty and happiness.

APPENDIX

Filling Station
By Elizabeth Bishop

Oh, but it is dirty!
—this little filling station,
oil-soaked, oil-permeated
to a disturbing, over-all
black translucency.
Be careful with that match!

Father wears a dirty,
oil-soaked monkey suit
that cuts him under the arms,
and several quick and saucy
and greasy sons assist him
(it's a family filling station),
all quite thoroughly dirty.

Do they live in the station?

It has a cement porch
 behind the pumps, and on it
 a set of crushed and grease-
 impregnated wickerwork;
 on the wicker sofa
 a dirty dog, quite comfy.

Some comic books provide
 the only note of color—
 of certain color. They lie
 upon a big dim doily
 draping a taboret
 (part of the set), beside
 a big hirsute begonia.

Why the extraneous plant?
 Why the taboret?
 Why, oh why, the doily?
 (Embroidered in daisy stitch
 with marguerites, I think,
 and heavy with gray crochet.)

Somebody embroidered the doily.
 Somebody waters the plant,
 or oils it, maybe. Somebody
 arranges the rows of cans
 so that they softly say:
 ESSO—SO—SO—SO
 to high-strung automobiles.
 Somebody loves us all.

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The Effect of Communication Strategy Teaching on EFL Learners' Oral Production in Content-based Courses

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Abstract—Communication strategies (CSs) have been receiving ever-growing attention in the areas of foreign language teaching. This study aimed at examining the effects of teaching CSs on students' oral production in Iranian content-based courses. The study participants were 60 junior high students studying English at SAMA School affiliated with Islamic Azad University. Communication strategy instruction involved eight lessons spread over two months (Week 1 to Week 8) which was undertaken during 16 one-hour sessions. The students' oral production was measured through a series of picture-based story telling tasks. To this end, T-unit was applied to analyze the speaking samples. The results of ANCOVA revealed the positive contribution of teaching communication strategies to the students' amount of oral production in Iranian content-based courses. Thus, the inquiry provides persuasive arguments in favor of application of CST in content-based instruction. Moreover, teachers will find more efficient methods and activities for explicit teaching of communication strategies.

Index Terms—communication strategy teaching, content-based instruction (CBI), oral production, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Content Based Instruction (CBI) “views the target language largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study” (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989, p. 5).

While the most foreign language programs focus on learning about language, CBI highlights the importance of using language rather than talking about it. CBI put emphasis on maintaining a balance between language and content instruction (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). In a typical content-based classroom, learners use the Target Language (TL) to integrate the four language skills with academic subject matter (Brinton. et al., 1989).

According to Nunan (1998), the ability to speak in a foreign language is at the heart of what it means to be able to function in another language. However, students in a content-based classroom have serious problems in speaking (LaVan, 2001). Tarone and Swain (1995) reported the limited use of second language in immersion schools. They noted that immersion students' achievement in receptive skills is higher than their productive skills. This underachievement has caused researchers and teachers to question the nature of immersion language use (Punchard, 2002). Chen (2006) stated that less amount of speaking is a dilemma in content-based program, although it is internationally popular.

Regarding this problem, the role of communication strategies in developing communicative competence was emphasized. As Bialystok (1990) and Dornyei (1995) pointed out, the development of communication strategies enable language learners to compensate for language deficiencies and develop their communicative competence. Teaching communication strategies help learners “to offset any inadequacies they may have in grammatical ability and particularly, vocabulary” (Williams, 2006, p.1).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND ON COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Strategies have subsequently been divided into two types; learning and communication. Learning strategies are defined by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) as conscious thoughts or behaviors used by individuals to facilitate their comprehension, learning or retaining new information. Communication strategies, on the other hand, are referred to as an individual's effort to find some techniques to bridge the gap between their communication goal and the current linguistic resources (Maleki, 2007). Since the notion of communication strategies was first introduced by Selinker in 1972, it has been investigated by different researchers (Mei & Nathalang, 2010). However, there has been no consensus on its correct definition (Huang, 2010). Scholars seem to have widespread disagreement on the exact nature of communication strategies and the issue of teachability of these strategies. There are generally two approaches to the debate (Chamot, 2005; Gallagher Brett, 2001; Lam, 2006; McDonough, 1999, 2006): intra-individual approach and inter-individual approach (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997).

Proponents of the intra-individual view (e.g., Bongaerts & Poullisse, 1989) regard Communication Strategies (CSs) as learners' problem solving behavior and evidence of their underlying mental processes. They note that since underlying

mental processes are unaffected by teaching, there is no need to teach communication strategies. According to Faerch and Kasper (1984) advanced learners are able to plan longer units and predict a communication difficulty beforehand and try to solve it in advance. Those who support the psycholinguistic problem solving school of thought on communication strategies assert that each learner select one or another strategy on the basis of his/her specific underlying cognitive processes. Kellerman (1991) advocating this approach, further mentioned that communication strategies have already been developed in L1 and since the strategic competence is transferable from first language, there is no need to teach communication strategies.

However, the proponents of inter-individual approach (Dornyei, 1995; Tarone, 1981) put emphasis on the interactional function of communication strategies and support the necessity to teach these strategies. Tarone (1980) noted that the term CSs relates to a “mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (p. 420). Oxford and Nyikos (1989) asserted, while characteristics such as aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality and general cognitive style cannot be taught, learning strategies are easily teachable. Considering communication strategies as one of the most common classifications of learning strategies (William, 2006), we can conclude that communication strategies lend themselves to teaching.

Various scholars developed Oral Communication Strategy Inventories (e.g., Taron, 1980; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Dornyei, 1995) that involve similar and overlapping taxonomies. The two branches proposed by Dornyei (1995) reveal two opposite directions in communication. One is avoiding and the other is compensating (Ya-ni, 2007).

The avoidance or reduction strategies such as topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement that have a negative effect on interaction are prevalent among low proficiency learners. Applying avoidance strategies, learners abstain from unfamiliar topics, avoid solving communication problems, and abandon the message they wanted to get across (Huang, 2010). According to Brown (2000), a learner who is not able to come up with a word or grammatical structure and has phonological difficulty wishes to avoid using it. When asked a specific question, the learners who find the answer too difficult to express will keep silent and this leads to occurrence of topic avoidance (Ya-ni, 2007). Avoidance strategies can be further divided into several subclasses, such as phonological avoidance, syntactic or lexical avoidance, and topic avoidance (Brown, 2000).

Compensatory strategies include making up for the knowledge that we do not possess (Brown, 2000). The achievement or compensatory strategies are divided into cooperative strategies (e.g. appeal for help) and non-cooperative strategies. L1-based strategies, such as code switching and literal translation; inter-language-based strategies, such as substitution, generalization, exemplification, word coinage, and restructuring; nonverbal strategies, such as mime and imitation are subdivisions of non-cooperative strategies. It should be noted that time gaining strategies, such as using fillers, prefabricated patterns, such as memorized phrases belong to the category of achievement strategies. Taking benefit of the achievement strategies, the learners find an alternative solution for reaching the communication goal and try to overcome their communication difficulties (Huang, 2010).

STUDENTS' LIMITED SPEAKING AND THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES TEACHING

Various scholars attributed the deficiency of students' limited speaking in language classroom to different factors. Huang (2010) attributed students' limited speaking to lack of time for oral practice in classroom and limited conversational opportunities outside the classroom. According to Huang (2010) students' speaking deficiency may, in fact, stem from their misconception of communication in a foreign language, such as necessity of having a perfect pronunciation, a good accent, a large vocabulary size, and a comprehensive knowledge of grammar. Lavan (2001) attributed the decline of the use of the target language to sociolinguistic factors, lack of instruction in L2 vernacular and colloquial structures. Broner (2000) noted that increased exposure to the first language, an increase in the first language at the curricular level, and the type of tasks children carry out in class might be regarded as reasons for limited amount of L2 talk in the classroom. Broner (2000) noted that special interactional needs of learners that may not be met by the use of L2 might be one of the factors that cause learners to resort to first language use. Williams (2006) believed that, students' limited speaking is due to the learners' fear of speaking about new and complicated topics. Students are reluctant to speak due to the fear of encountering unfamiliar words and phrases that hinder their comprehension and language production. Williams (2006) further mentioned that insufficiency and limits of learners' communicative competence in L2 prevent them from expressing themselves. Harley (1993) reported that in the content-based classroom, as the teacher does most of the talking, students have little chance to speak.

According to Dornyei (1995), the gap of limited speaking in content-based programs can be bridged by introducing and teaching some strategies that help students to improve their speaking proficiency, increase interaction in the target language, and cope with their oral communication breakdowns during communication. The findings of available research suggest that less proficient learners use more communication strategies (Labarca & Khanij, 1986; Poullisse & Schils, 1989; Liskin-Gasparro, 1996 as cited in Ting & Phan, 2008). Gallagher Brett (2001) in his study titled as ‘teaching communication strategies to beginners’ worked on an eight-week project in which communication strategies including turn taking phrases, requests for help, clarification and repetition, greetings and pause fillers were taught to beginners and the range of learners' responses to these strategies were investigated. Gallagher Brett (2001) also reported that although the use of communication strategies might depend on task and context, a range of strategic phrases could be successfully instructed to most learners. Rossiter (2003) reported the effectiveness of communication strategy

instruction on second language performance, including communicative success, speech rate, message abandonment and also communication strategy use. In this study speaking tasks including picture story narratives and object descriptions were carried out as pretests at Week 1, immediate post-tests at Week 5, and delayed post-tests at Week 10. Post-test results indicated a direct effect in favor of the communication strategy condition on range of strategies used in the object description task, which was more effective than the narrative in eliciting communication strategies.

II. EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON COMMUNICATION STRATEGY TEACHING

Maleki (2007) discussed the issue of teaching and teachability of communication strategies. He also addressed the issue of feasibility of incorporating CSs into students' school syllabi. In this study, 60 participants were divided into two classes; two different textbooks, one with CSs and the other without them, were taught in the classes. He reported that materials containing CSs are more effective than materials without them. He further mentioned that CST is pedagogically effective and conducive to language learning.

Huang (2010), extending the scope of the research on communication strategy use, investigated the effect of five variables; gender, language proficiency, self-perceived oral proficiency, English speaking frequency outside the classroom, and motivation of speaking English regarding students' oral communication strategy (OCS) use. Huang (2010) reported that students' self-perceived oral proficiency, frequent use of English speaking and motivation were strong predictors of using oral communication strategies. Neither gender nor English proficiency has any effect on the use of oral communication strategies. Mei and Nathalang (2010) reported that language proficiency, contrary to Haung's (2010) findings, task type and academic major affect learners' use of CSs. Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011), investigating the effect of communication strategy teaching regarding their use and stability reported a significant difference between experimental and control groups in the use of CSs and their stability over a period of time.

To date, there have been few studies regarding communication strategy teaching (CST) in content-based classes. Specifically, there have been few studies on the effect of explicit teaching of communication strategies concerning EFL learners' oral production in terms of their quantity of speaking, including Total Number of Words (TNW), Mean T-unit Length (MTUL), and Total Number of T-units (TNTU). Thus, the purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of teaching communication strategies on students' oral production in Iranian content-based courses. Accordingly, the following research questions are asked:

1. Does CST have any effect on the Total Number of Words (TNW) of EFL learners' oral production?
2. Does CST have any effect on the Mean T-unit Length (MTUL) of EFL learners' oral production?
3. Does CST have any effect on the Total Number of T-units (TNTU) of EFL learners' oral production?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The study's participants were 60 female students in two content-based classes at Sama private middle school in Tabriz, Iran. Their ages ranged between 14-15. There were 30 students in each class. The participants were homogenized using a standard language proficiency test. The mean score of two classes was set as a criterion score. Fifteen students whose scores were above 47 were drawn out of the 30 students in each class. Fifteen students comprised the experimental group and the other 15 served as the control group.

B. Instrumentation

Key English Test (KET), a standardized proficiency test at an elementary level, was administered to homogenize the learners on the basis of their general language proficiency. The data was collected through the description of picture-based tasks in which the students were supposed to make a story on the basis of the series of pictures. The researchers made a series of audio recordings of learners describing the story, as this would provide an opportunity to examine their speaking proficiency more closely.

C. Procedure

In the first stage of this study, KET was administered to ensure that the students are homogeneous in terms of general language proficiency. In the second stage, an author designed picture-based story telling task was administered as a pre-test. It should be mentioned here that this story-telling task had a wide potentiality for communication strategies to be used. The participants' speaking was recorded for 10 minutes. In the third stage, an eight week project was undertaken to introduce learners to a selection of communication strategies. Communication strategy instruction was given over a period of 16 one-hour sessions. Both the experimental group and the control group in addition to their common content-based instruction received communicative tasks. However, the experimental group received communication strategies instruction integrated into communicative tasks, whereas the control group did not.

In the fourth stage, to observe whether the communication strategies instruction would lead to more oral production, the same story-telling task which was used as the pre-test was administered at the end of the treatment as the post-test.

Students' descriptions were analyzed in detail. The researchers used T-unit as one main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it (Hunt, 1966). It should be added here, T-unit analysis has been used widely in L2 research on

either speaking or writing development (Cooper, 1976, Gaies, 1979; Kameen, 1983; Halleck, 1995 as cited in Zhu Xinhua, 2008). But a few studies have shed light on measuring the quantity of speaking. The analysis of our study involved the identification of measures modeled by Zhu Xinhua (2007, 2007). The analysis of students' oral ability involved the identification of three measures, which were the total number of words (TNW), mean T-unit length (MTUL), and total number of T-units (TNTU). As far as the calculation of these indices was concerned, the total number of words included in each language sample and the total number of T-units were counted. Mean T-unit length was computed by dividing the number of words by the number of T-units (Xinhua, 2008). Learners' speaking samples were scored independently by two raters. The inter-rater reliability coefficient was 0.99 demonstrating there was a high correlation between two raters' scores.

Instructional Treatment

The treatment in this research involved eight lessons spread over two months (Week 1 to Week 8). Communication strategy instruction was undertaken over 16 one-hour sessions. Each lesson lasted about an hour. Teaching communication strategies following insights provided by studies, such as Dornyei, 1995, Lam, 2006, and Gallagher Brett, 2001, was as follows: At the beginning of every session the teacher tried to raise learners' awareness of communication strategies by speaking about the rationale, value, and communicative potentials of these strategies. In each lesson, the teacher taught the names and examples of communication strategies. Pupils were taught a number of the most common communication strategies such as non-linguistic signals, circumlocution, time-gaining strategies, approximation, code-switching, all-purpose words, and appeal for help.

It is worth mentioning here that the instructional treatment applied for the experimental group was explicit strategy teaching (Chamot, 2004, 2005; Rossiter, 2003). The instructor, one of the researchers, provided the learners with opportunities to use and practice communication strategies during pair works, role-plays, and information gap activities. Also individual description of picture-based tasks was used. As mentioned before, description of picture-based tasks was the basis of data collection in the pre-test and post-test. As it is mentioned by Gallagher Brett (2001) and Mei and Nathalang (2010), in order to encourage learners to use CSs, The instructor should provide students with the opportunity to participate in a wide variety of communicative and age-appropriate tasks.

The following description (Table 1) depicts the brief summary of treatment sessions in the experimental group.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL TREATMENT: TYPE OF STRATEGY, EXAMPLE, AND ACTIVITY

Type of Strategy	Example	Activity
Non-linguistic signals	Using facial expression, mime, gesture or even sound imitation.	Asking students to describe a series of sport activity through non-linguistic signals.
Circumlocution	Describing the word scissor ... as "a tool used for cutting things such as paper and hair".	Asking students to list the items to be taken on a trip.
Time-gaining strategies	Using fillers and hesitation devices such as well, now let's see, as a matter of fact, uh, um, er, let me see, oh really?, and hmm....	Interviewing: Interviewees were supposed to share their likes and dislikes with other students. They had the chance to have a look at the list of time-gaining strategies written on the board.
Appeal for help	Asking for explanation by using structures, such as What do you mean? Sorry, I didn't understand.... would you please repeat it? ... I didn't get the point....	Using information gap activity; Acting as a customer and the telephone salesperson; the students practice different ways of asking for help.
Approximation	Using dairy instead of cream....	Listing ten concrete items within groups and writing the alternative terms denoting the same meaning.
Code-switching	Using "Konjed" (An L1 word with L1 pronunciation) when the L2 lexicon such as "sesame" is lacking	Role play: Acting as a chef and giving a recipe of their favorite food; students practice how to use code-switching.
All-purpose words	Using empty lexical item, such as thing, stuff, what do you call it?	Describing a picture-based story telling task and using all-purpose words in the case of not finding the specific words.

D. Design

The researcher employed a quasi-experimental design with pre-test, post test, and control group. In this research, teaching communication strategies served as an independent variable and students' speaking quantity measure, involving three measures of the total number of words (TNW), mean T-unit length (MTUL), and total number of T-units (TNTU), served as dependent variable.

IV. RESULTS

To answer the Research Questions 1, 2, and 3, three Analyses of Covariance (ANCOVA) were used for the comparison of Total Numbers of Words (TNW), Mean T-unit Length (MTUL), and Total Number of T-units (TNTU) of students' oral production in both experimental and control groups on pre-test and post-test. First, Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were conducted to know whether the data have normal distribution or not. As Table 1 indicates, obtained

significance levels show that all variables' scores of control and experimental groups have been distributed normally in pre-test and post-test at $p > 0.05$.

TABLE 2
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	group	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
MTUL. Pre-test	control	15	.913	.375
	experimental	15	.857	.455
MTUL. Post-test	control	15	.770	.593
	experimental	15	.470	.980
TNTU. Pre-test	control	15	.785	.568
	experimental	15	.468	.981
TNTU Post-test	control	15	.979	.293
	experimental	15	.498	.965
TNW. Pre-test	control	15	.455	.986
	experimental	15	.616	.843
TNW. Post-test	control	15	.749	.628
	experimental	15	.558	.915

To answer the first research question which is: "Does CST have any effect on the Total Number of Words (TNW) of EFL learners' oral production?" an ANCOVA test was conducted. In the analysis of covariance, pre-test scores were used as a covariate for post-test scores.

TABLE 3
ANCOVA TEST TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF CST ON TNW

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
TNW.pre	7699.654	1	7699.654	51.167	.000	.655
group	5849.751	1	5849.751	38.873	.000	.590
Error	4063.013	27	150.482			
Total	104094.000	30				

As the results of the ANCOVA Test in Table 3 indicate, there is a significant difference in TNW at $p < 0.01$. That is, TNW showed a significant difference in favor of the experimental group in post-test. So, the first null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, CST enhanced the TNW of the students' amount of oral production in Iranian content-based courses.

To answer the second research question which is: "Does CST have any effect on the Mean T-unit Length (MTUL) of EFL learners' oral production?" an ANCOVA test was run. In the analysis of covariance, pre-test scores were used as a covariate of post-test scores.

TABLE 4
ANCOVA TEST TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF CST ON MTUL

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
MTUL.pre	2.114	1	2.114	1.714	.202	.060
group	.006	1	.006	.005	.945	.000
Error	33.295	27	1.233			
Total	360.131	30				

As the results of ANCOVA test presented in Table 4 show, no significant difference is seen on MTUL. It means that no significant difference was seen on MTUL in favor of the experimental group in post-test. The second null hypothesis was therefore not rejected. In other words, CST did not have any effect on MTUL of the students' amount of oral production in Iranian content-based courses.

To answer the third research question which is: "Does CST have any effect on the Total Number of T-units (TNTU) of EFL learners' oral production?" an ANCOVA test was conducted. In the analysis of covariance pre-test scores were used as a covariate for post-test scores.

TABLE 5
ANCOVA TEST TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF CST ON TNTU

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
TNTU.pre	1034.429	1	1034.429	35.313	.000	.567
group	311.192	1	311.192	10.624	.003	.282
Error	790.904	27	29.293			
Total	11571.000	30				

The results of the ANCOVA test presented in Table 5 show a significant difference on TNTU in favor of experimental group at $p < 0.01$. That is, TNTU showed a significant difference in favor of the experimental group in post-test. The third null hypothesis was then rejected. In other word, CST increased TNTU of students' oral production in Iranian content-based courses.

Tables 6 and 7 include the findings obtained from conducting correlation analysis for pre-test and post-score tests. Pearson correlation was conducted to examine the inter-rater reliability.

TABLE 6
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN TWO RATERS' PRE-TEST SCORING

		MTUL.pre2	TNTU.pre2	TNW.pre2
MTUL.pre	Pearson Correlation	.998(**)	-.571(**)	-.159
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.403
	N	30	30	30
TNTU.pre	Pearson Correlation	-.576(**)	.999(**)	.817(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000
	N	30	30	30
TNW.pre	Pearson Correlation	-.159	.819(**)	1.000(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.401	.000	.000
	N	30	30	30

As it is indicated in Table 6, findings of the Pearson correlation test, shows a high coefficient ($r = 0.99$) for all three variables at $p < 0.05$. As a result, there is a strong relationship between two rater's pre-test scoring.

TABLE 7
PEARSON COTER FOR ASSESSING INTER-RATER RELIABILITY OF POST-TEST SCORES

		MTUL.post2	TNTU.post2	TNW.post2
MTUL.post	Pearson Correlation	.996(**)	-.493(**)	-.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.006	.719
	N	30	30	30
TNTU.post	Pearson Correlation	-.489(**)	.999(**)	.838(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.000	.000
	N	30	30	30
TNW.post	Pearson Correlation	-.065	.847(**)	.999(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.733	.000	.000
	N	30	30	30

As it is indicated in Table 7, findings of the Pearson correlation test, shows a high coefficient ($r = 0.98$) for all three variables at $p < 0.05$. As a result, there is a strong relationship between two rater's post-test scoring.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study indicated that communication strategies teaching affect the students' oral production in terms of the quantity of speech, including TNW and TNTU. However, there was no difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of MTUL. The experimental group, which had received instruction in the use of eight communication strategies, outperformed the control group, regarding TNW and TNTU, suggesting that the communicative strategy teaching might be associated with greater improvement in learners' oral production amount as one aspect of oral proficiency. In other words, after receiving CS instruction students produced more words and more T-units but the length of their production at clausal level did not differ (i.e., there wasn't much difference regarding median T-unit length in pretests and post test). A possible explanation for this issue can be attributed to low level of students' proficiency. It means that CS teaching helped them to increase the number of their words and T-units, yet their production of longer T-units lags behind, which requires further research comparing the performance of EFL learners, regarding MTUL, at different proficiency levels.

As mentioned in the review of the related literature, the responses to CST have not been unmixed (Chamot, 2005; Cohen, 1998; McDonough, 1995, 1999, 2006; Oxford, 2001, as cited in Lam, 2006). The findings of the present study are consistent with those of researchers, such as (Dornyei, 1995; Gallagher Brett, 2001, Lam, 2006; Tarone, 1981) who believe that communication strategies can be taught successfully and can affect language learners' oral proficiency positively. The positive effect of communication strategy instruction on student's oral proficiency was also reported by Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011), who investigated the effect of teaching communicative strategies for their use and stability over a period of time. Similarly, Rossiter (2003) reported the effectiveness of communication strategy instruction on second language performance, including communicative success, speech rate, message abandonment and also communication strategy use.

The results of this study follow along the same lines as some scholars' views, such as Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989) and Poulisse (1993) who believe that communication strategies are not teachable. As Grabe and Stoller (1997) noted, content-based instruction allows the use of strategy instruction and practice. As content-based programs enhance proficiency in the L2 by teaching academic subjects through the vehicle of the L2 (Genesee, 2001), it creates the best condition for CST. This instructional approach is regarded as a successful innovation in language teaching domain provided that it is used effectively. Creating an efficient content-based program requires particular attention to different aspects of language learning in detail. While planning lessons, the content-based teacher should take all four language skills into consideration. Teaching communication strategies is an effective way to improve students' communicative

competence (Williams, 2006), and content-based programs should attach more importance to learners' communicative competence. As mentioned before, a lesser amount of speaking is a dilemma in content-based programs and oral proficiency is an area where improvement is needed. Communication strategy instruction is a rational and practical resolution to face with students' oral proficiency problem in content-based programs.

VI. CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study might shed light on the implementation of CST in content-based courses. The present study has offered some techniques the teachers can use to teach CSs in content-based programs in order to develop students' oral proficiency. In teaching communication strategies, the teachers' role is very decisive. Most important is the teachers' attentiveness to developing students' oral proficiency in an analytical and regular way at all times (Stein, 1999). Teachers' imagination can help them to organize different activities to teach communication strategies.

Documentation of successful results of the present study, along with other empirical studies' results reviewed in this study, provides persuasive arguments in favor of application of CST in content-based courses. We hope the suggested methods and activities for explicit teaching of communication strategies are useful for all teachers, especially for those who do the difficult task of integrating language and content. Particular suggestions for further research include: 1) Investigating the effect of CST on the quality of students' speaking in content-based courses; 2) Analyzing differences in CSs use between high proficiency versus low proficiency learners in order to determine if there is a relationship between proficiency and use of CSs in content-based courses; 3) Determining the frequency of the kinds of oral communication strategies used by learners during communication tasks in content-based courses.

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A Systemic Functional Study of the Head Identification of the English Nominal Group

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Abstract—Head identification is the first and crucial step in describing and analyzing the English nominal group. The literature to date indicates that the way of identifying the Head of the English nominal group varies from one school of linguistics to another and even from one grammarian to another. This paper focuses on the English nominal group containing the word *of* and the research is conducted from the systemic functional linguistics perspective.

Index Terms—head identification, the English nominal group, systemic functional linguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

The Head is the essential element in the English nominal group. Sinclair (1991, p.p. 86-87) points out that “the identification of headword is the first step in describing a nominal group” and “it is reasonable to expect the headword of a nominal group to be the principal reference point to the physical world” (ibid.). The literature to date indicates that the way of identifying the Head of the English nominal group varies from one school of linguistics to another and even from one grammarian to another. The debate over the Head identification mainly occurs in respect to the nominal groups presented in the following examples in (1), (2), and (3). These types of nominal groups all contain the frequently occurring word *of* in English.

- (1) *a pack of cards*
- (2) *a number of those books*
- (3) *five of those books*

In practice, at least three aspects need to be clarified with regard to the nominal group of these kinds, the Head identification, the analysis of the whole structure of the nominal group by delicacy, and the functional description of the nominal group with *a number of*. This paper is concerned with the Head identification only. This paper begins with the recapitulation of the relevant approaches to the Head identification first, including the traditional analysis and the systemic functional analysis. The discussion will then progress to our own consideration of this issue from a systemic functional perspective.

II. TRADITIONAL IDENTIFICATION

Jespersen (1924/2008) does not have the explicit description of the Head, but his Three Ranks theory implies the analysis of the Head of the matrix nominal group. The Primary is the Head, the Secondary is the Modifier of the Head, and the Tertiary is the Modifier of the Secondary. Likewise, although the transformational depiction of the nominal group does not make the obvious statement about the Head, we can still find the semantic focus of the group in the whole group structure.

In traditional grammar and formal grammar or descriptive grammar, both the Premodification and the Postmodification in the English nominal group modify the Head. These two kinds of modifications are so named because of the position preceding or following the Head, and they are at times known as pre-attributive and post-attributive (Zhang, 1995; Zhang, 2002, 2008). According to Quirk *et al.* (1985, p. 1238), the Head in the English nominal group is that part “around which (for the most part) the other constituents cluster and which dictates concord with other parts of the sentence”. This definition shows that if the nominal group functions as the Subject, the predicate verb must agree with the Head of the Subject element in number. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 2005/2008) argue that the predicate verb does not always concord with the Head of the nominal group that functions as the Subject. Richards, Platt and Platt (1992/2000, p. 207) define the Head as “the central part of phrase”, and “the other elements in the phrase are in some grammatical or semantic relationship to the head” (ibid.).

All these arguments consider the Head as an essential and obligatory part of the nominal group, and the identification of the Head determines the corresponding description of the internal structure of the whole group. Based on these principles, there are two main ways of analyzing the nominal group as exemplified by the three presented above. The relatively consentaneous way is to treat *a number of* as the Premodifier, and *books* as the Head, but Huddleston and Pullum (2002) regard *number* as the Head, and *of*-phrase as the Postmodifier. As to the example (1), one way is to treat *pack* as the Head and *of*-phrase as the Postmodifier, and the other way is to consider *cards* as the Head and the whole *a pack of* as the Premodifier. When it is concerned with the nominal group in (3), the most common identification is to

label *five* as the Head and *of those books* as the prepositional phrase as the Postmodifier.

III. SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL IDENTIFICATION

The identification of the Head is also the first and significant step in the systemic functional analysis of the English nominal group. This section will take a brief look at the SFL way of defining the Head of the three types of nominal groups listed above.

Halliday (1985, 1994/2000) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) depict the English nominal group from the experiential and the logical dimensions. In the experiential structure, the semantic core of the nominal group is treated as the Thing, while in the logical analysis the Head is considered as the semantic focus of the whole group. Both the experiential and the logical analyses are systemic functional ways of looking at the nominal group and they differ from the traditional and the transformational analyses in many aspects. The Thing in Halliday's analysis has much the same sense as the Head in other approaches.

In most cases, the Thing and the Head of a specific nominal group coincide with each other, but they do not in the nominal group with measure and facet expression like the three examples given above (Halliday 1994/2000, p. 195). If we take the nominal group *a pack of cards* for an example, the Thing is *cards* from the experiential perspective, but the Head is *pack* from the logical perspective. Table 1 below provides the systemic functional analysis of the nominal group *five of those books*, which does not contain a measure word or a facet item.

TABLE 1:
ANALYSIS OF A NOMINAL GROUP WITH THE CARDINAL NUMERAL AS THE NUMERATIVE

nominal group	<i>five</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>those</i>	<i>books</i>
lexicogrammar	numeral	preposition	determiner	noun
experiential structure	Numerative		Deictic	Thing
logical structure	α	β		
	Head	Postmodifier		
		Process	Range	
			Deictic	Thing

The above table demonstrates, by delicacy, the SFL analysis of the nominal group of this kind. The Thing is *books* in the experiential structure, while the Head falls on *five* in the logical structure in this construction. As to the word class, *five* is a numeral and *of* a preposition.

Thompson (1996/2000) does not overemphasize the distinction between the Thing and the Head. On the contrary, he seems to prefer the term Head in his analysis. Following is an example taken from Thompson (1996/2000, p. 183).

TABLE 2:
ANALYSIS OF A NOMINAL GROUP BY THOMPSON (1996/2000: 183)

<i>a</i>	<i>nice collective</i>	<i>compromise</i>	<i>decision</i>
Deictic	Epithet	Classifier	Head

According to Halliday (1994/2000), the item *decision* in the nominal group should be termed as Thing, simply because Thing, rather than Head, is supposed to correspond with functional slots such as Deictic, Epithet and Classifier. Likewise, Head ought to co-occur side by side with Premodifier and Postmodifier. This kind of correspondence is just the same as that of Theme-Rheme, Subject-Finite, or Actor-Process in the clause level. It is not appropriate to say, for example, that *He* is the Subject, and *is a teacher* is Rheme in the clause *He is a teacher*. However, if we examine it further, we can understand it as a kind of integration, and this may suggest that Thompson (1996/2000) may support the argument of the conflation of Thing and Head. Although Thompson (1996/2000) does not provide the analysis of the nominal group with *a lot of*, he does regard the whole construction of *a lot of* as the numerical expression, which means the noun after this expression is the Head of the matrix nominal group.

Bloor and Bloor (1995/2001, p. 145) offer, by delicacy, the analysis of the nominal group as is shown in (4), which indicates that they concur with Halliday (1994/2000) on this issue. *First* in the experiential structure is labeled as the Numerative expressing the ordinal property of the group, but as the Head in the logical perspective. Evidently, the Head and the Thing do not coincide with each other in this nominal group. Next section will reveal that the Cardiff Grammar presents different views on this construction.

(4) *the first of many steps on the road to ruin*

The Cardiff Grammar emphasizes its simplification as well as extension to Halliday's SFL especially in the aspect of lexicogrammar. The Cardiff Grammar does not take the approach of analyzing the English nominal group from the two perspectives as Halliday (1994/2000) does, and consequently it does not have the distinction between Thing and Head in its framework. Instead, the Cardiff Grammar has its own standpoint in defining the Head of the nominal group. In addition, any element including the Head in the nominal group does not begin with a capital letter, and only the element of the clause does.

Fawcett (2000, p. 215) contends that the Head of a nominal group “tells us the ‘cultural classification’ of the object in terms of the culture associated with the language”, and the modifier “tells us ‘what sort of thing it is’” (ibid.). The item expressing the cultural classification is treated as the Head of the matrix nominal group, and the quantifying expression, for instance, and the optional selector are treated as sister elements to the Head.

In the Cardiff Grammar, both the Head and the other elements of the nominal group describe the referent of the matrix nominal group. The function of the Head is to clarify the cultural classification of the referent, and the function of the other elements is to realize other properties of the referent (Fawcett 2000, p.p. 216-217). It ought to be noted that the Head is also regarded as the obligatory element in the nominal group, and the other elements add more information to the Head in one way or another. If the Head element of a nominal group is omitted, the group loses its nominal nature. In other words, a great change would accordingly occur to the whole group both grammatically and semantically. Theoretically speaking, other elements in a nominal group are optional and the omission of any of them will not change the syntactic function of the nominal group although the semantic changes cannot be avoided, for the change in whatever way may cause the change of meaning.

The subsequent part of the present section will use the same example to show how the Cardiff approach analyzes the English nominal group. Still, we use the above four examples, (1), (2), (3), and (4), to see the Cardiff identification of the Head of the nominal group of this kind. According to Fawcett, these four nominal groups all contain selection. Selection is a concept in the Cardiff Grammar only and has many types.

It should be pointed out in the first place that Fawcett claims that the above four nominal groups have absolutely the same structure. Fawcett (2007, p. 183) points out that *of*, which is termed in these four nominal groups as a selector, is a sister element to both *five* and *those books*. Figure 1 below shows the Cardiff approach to the analysis of the nominal group of this kind, and in the analysis *five* is labeled as the quantifying determiner (qd), and *books* as the Head. The **unit** (nominal group (ngp)) **is composed of** (denoted by the long beeline “/ | \”) the four **elements** (quantifying determiner (qd), selector (v), deictic determiner (dd) and head (h)). These elements **are** respectively **expounded by** (denoted by the isosceles triangle “△”) **the items**.

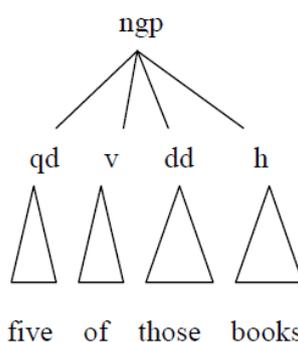


Figure 1: The structure of a nominal group with ‘selection’ (Fawcett 2006, p. 194)

This is a tree diagram presentation, but we can also use the linear way to show the analysis for the sake of saving space. The linear way of describing these nominal groups is shown as follows:

a pack [qd] *of* [v] *cards* [h]

a number [qd] *of* [v] *those* [dd] *books* [h]

five [qd] *of* [v] *those* [dd] *books* [h]

the [dd] *first* [od] *of* [v] *many* [qd] *steps* [h] *on the road to ruin* [q]

We can see at a glance that these four nominal groups have the identical structure. So far, this section has clarified the various ways of identifying the Head of the same nominal group, and the section that follows will comment on identifying the Head of the nominal group of this kind from the SFL perspective.

IV. DISCUSSION

This section will discuss the Head identification to the nominal groups. The nominal groups in (1) and (2) belong to the same type in terms of the functional structure, and those in (3) and (4) belong to another type, although superficially they have the same structure.

First, introduction of the concept of selection is of great help in disclosing the internal relationships among the elements in the nominal group such as *five of those books* and *the first of many steps on the road to ruin*. In this section we explore only the aspects relevant to the Head identification. *Of* in these two nominal groups does not have the same function as a preposition does. According to Fawcett (2006, 2007), every nominal group has a referent, and the referent expressing the cultural classification is identified as the Head. In the group *five of those books*, the item *books* is the element depicting the cultural classification in that *books* is a kind of object distinguished from other objects in the world. The referent of *five* is selected from that of *those books*.

This principle is reasonable, but we still want to ask a question: Since the referent of *five* is selected from that of

those books, can we just treat *five* as the Head of the matrix nominal group? One reason may be that *five* is a numeral but the Head of the nominal group ought to be a noun, or a pronoun. In other words, it is *books* in this nominal group that expresses the cultural classification. The item *five* does not denote the cultural classification, and it is just a quantifying expression.

However, if we investigate further, we find that the item *five* has the complete property of a nominal group, for, above all, only the nominal group can have a referent. Besides, selection only occurs between at least two referents, the substantial referent and the widest referent. When the substantial referent is selected from the widest referent, they belong to the same class in terms of “cultural classification”. If *five* is not a nominal group, how can selection occur? *Five* represents the substantial referent in the matrix nominal group structure.

On the other hand, when the referent of *five* is selected from that of *those books*, *five*, which actually means *five books*, also denotes the cultural classification. This is not contradicted to the principle that the Head is the element expressing the cultural classification. *Five* is a nominal group with a covert Head, and it does not serve as a quantifying determiner as it is in *five books*. This argument has its theoretical basis in that Halliday (1994/2000, p. 185) points out that common noun, adjective, numeral and determiner are all different kinds of nouns. In addition, Morley (2000) argues that the nominal word can function as the Head of the nominal group.

Actually, the function of the element in the nominal group is not decided by its word class. The location of the element and its collocation with the other elements are the significant factors to determine its functional role in the whole group. This is why we take *five* in *five books* as the quantifying determiner, but the Head in *five of those books*. Simple as it is, *five* in the latter case has the qualification to express the cultural classification.

Another reason to consider *five* as the Head in *five of those books* is that the semantic focus is on *five (books)* not on *those books*. If we say *I want five of those books*, what *I* cares about is *five (books)*, not *those books*.

Following are three examples that can further exemplify this viewpoint.

(5) *a friend of my father's*

(6) *some daughters of Mrs. Green's*

(7) *two novels of Dickens'*

(Zhang, 1995, p.p. 77-78)

These three examples are also very common and normal expressions in English, and they have the identical structure to the nominal groups in (3) and (4). Here, the elements indicating the cultural classification are respectively *friends*, *daughters*, and *novels*, so they are quite naturally each the Head of the matrix nominal group. The functional structure of these three nominal groups is identical to that of the following modified ones.

(5a) *one of my father's friends*

(6a) *some of Mrs. Green's daughters*

(7a) *two of Dickens' novels*

Not only the structure but also the semantic focus is identical. Then, why do we say the Heads are different? In this sense, *one*, *some* and *two* are three nominal groups with the covert Heads *friend*, *daughters*, and *novels*, and consequently each of these three items is the Head of the matrix nominal group in which they are embedded.

According to the Cardiff Grammar, *my father's*, *Mrs. Green's*, and *Dickens'* are all genitive clusters used as the deictic determiner. In our analysis, however, the function of these genitive clusters in (5), (6) and (7) is different from that in (5a), (6a) and (7a). *My father's*, *Mrs. Green's*, and *Dickens'* in (5), (6), (7) are three nominal groups with the covert Head *friends*, *daughters*, and *novels*, but in (5a), (6a) and (7a) they are genitive clusters used as deictic determiners.

We can have a survey of another example (8) in which the nominal group is used in the specific clause in actual use.

(5.8) The scholarly aspects of this book are manifested in two ways. *The first and most obvious* is in the many detailed and sometimes extended footnotes.

(Fawcett 2008, p. 7)

The expression, *The first and most obvious*, in the above clause is definitely a nominal group, with the Head omitted, or a covert Head *way*. It has an anaphoric reference, while *the first* in Example (4) has a cataphoric reference.

Accordingly, the nominal groups in (5), (6) and (7) have the same functional structure as those in (5a), (6a) and (7a), although the stress is slightly different. Similarly, the nominal groups in (3) and (4) have the modified version as follows in (3a) and (4a).

(3a) *five books of those*

(4a) *the first step of many on the road to ruin*

In practice, the different forms are used to realize the same meaning so that we can say that one form is congruent and the other is metaphorical. So far, we have presented our way of identifying the Head of the English nominal group containing selection based on the “cultural classification” principle. When selection finds its place in the nominal group, the matrix nominal group must have two sub-nominal groups representing two referents. The substantial referent is selected from the widest one, and both of the two types of referents express the cultural classification. As to the examples (1) and (2), it is argued in this study that the Head of the two nominal groups are respectively *cards* and *books*.

The above section conducted the Head identification, and this section will use Halliday's criterion to bring forward

further thinking on this issue. The focus is still on the nominal groups that have been dealt with in the above section of this paper.

According to Halliday (1994/2000), Thing is the semantic core of the nominal group. Thompson (1996/2000) regards the Thing as what is being talked about. For example, in the nominal group *those two splendid old electric trains with pantographs*, *trains* is the Thing, and the other elements add more information and property to the Thing.

In analyzing the nominal group *five of those books*, as is shown in Table 1, *books* is labeled as the Thing, and *five* as the Numerative. In terms of word class, *five* is a cardinal numeral. Table 3 below provides the delicate analysis of the nominal group in (4) with an ordinal numeral.

Evidently, the Thing and the Head of this nominal group do not coincide with each other. The Qualifier is a prepositional phrase in which the preposition *on* has a Complement realized by another nominal group *the road to ruin* that contains the Deictic *the*, the Thing *road* and the Qualifier *to ruin*, which is another prepositional phrase. The structure has a sense of recursion when one nominal group is embedded in one prepositional phrase, and another prepositional phrase is embedded again within another nominal group.

TABLE 3:
ANALYSIS OF A NOMINAL GROUP WITH ORDINAL NUMERAL AS NUMERATIVE

<i>the</i>	<i>first</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>steps</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>road</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>ruin</i>
det	num	p	num	n	p	det	n	p	n
Deictic	Numerative		Numerative	Thing	Qualifier				
Premodifier	Head	Postmodifier							
β	α	β							

The discussion so far seems to be done by great delicacy, but we still find a problem with the experiential analysis in that the function of the word *of* in the matrix nominal group has not been stated. Apparently, *of* is not an element embedded in the structure of the Numerative. Rather, it is an element that is embedded in the matrix structure of the whole nominal group. In other words, it has the same status as the Numerative, the Thing and the Qualifier in the structure. In like manner, this argument is also true to the structure of *five of those books*, as these two nominal groups have the identical structure. We can compare these two nominal groups with the following ones, which have the similar but different structures.

(3b) *five books*

(4b) *the first many steps on the road to ruin*

When *of* in the two nominal groups is omitted, their structure also experiences great change, and this change accords with the “choice is meaning” (Huang, 2001, p. 44) principle in the systemic functional syntax analysis. The function of the items *five* and *first* in (3b) and (4b) is obviously different from that in (3) and (4). *Five* and *first* without any question are numerals expressing the numerical information serving as the Numerative in *five books* and *the first many steps to ruin*. Comparatively, *five* and *first* in *five of those books* and *the first of many steps to ruin* have the different sense in that *five* here stands for *five books* and *first* for *first step*. By virtue of this slight degree of nuance in meaning, we can identify *five* and *first* as two nominal groups instead of two numerals. The Thing of these two nominal groups is the same as the Thing of the matrix nominal group. Technically, they each have a covert Thing that can be identified from the whole structure. In the logical structure, they function as the Head of the matrix nominal group.

The prior section pointed out that it is not appropriate to include *of* as a part of the Numerative. Then, can we treat *of* in the two nominal groups of (3) and (4) as a preposition? If it is a preposition, the element after it must be the Complement and the prepositional phrase accordingly functions as the Qualifier. In this way, the Thing of the two nominal groups is supposed to be the element before the Qualifier, and the Thing is *five* and *first* respectively in the two nominal groups.

We now proceed to the nominal groups in (5), (6) and (7) to see the similarities as well as the distinctions between these three groups and the two groups in (3) and (4). We have discussed the qualification of *five* and *first* to become the Head respectively in the structure *five of those books* and *the first of many steps on the road to the ruin*. These two nominal groups have the identical structure to the three in (5), (6) and (7). Explicitly, the Thing and the Head of these three nominal groups are respectively *friends*, *daughters* and *novels*. Furthermore, *my father's* cannot be simply labeled as the possessive case of the noun. In nature, it is a nominal group with the covert Head that is meanwhile the Thing of the whole group.

Thus, a conclusion is drawn that the nominal groups from (3) to (7) have the identical structure in that the element before *of* can function as the Head or even Thing of the matrix nominal group. In this sense, according to our analysis above, the Head is the Head of the Thing. Then, another question arises: If the Head and the Thing are conflated, as in (5), (6) and (7), how should we analyze the functional structure of them by delicacy? We will discuss this issue in another paper.

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This paper focuses on identifying the Head of the nominal groups listed in examples from (1) to (7), or more specifically from (3) to (7). At the beginning, we recapitulated the various approaches in identifying the Head of the

English nominal group, including the traditional approach and the transformational approach. This was followed by the concentration on the SFL approach to the Head identification. It was presumed that the element expressing the cultural classification and semantic core in the nominal groups serves as the Head (or Thing). In the third step, we used these theoretical bases to look at the structure of the nominal group of this kind from an alternative perspective.

It was argued that the referent of the Head is selected from that of the Thing. Head and Thing belong to the same cultural classification, and they may or may not coincide with each other. Besides, the analysis suggests that this identification does not contradict the SFL criterion of what roles the Head or the Thing play. Meanwhile, the discussion indicates that *of* is embedded neither in the structure of the Numerative element nor in the prepositional phrase. Rather, it is supposed to be a special word having specific function in these groups. So far, it has been indicated that the introduction of the concept of selection is of great value and help to solve this problem.

With regard to the focus of the present paper, we can conclude that the selection is necessary, but the structure of the nominal group containing selection needs to be observed from a different perspective. We stated earlier in this paper that the examples used here are just one type of selection among many, the quantifying selection. More details of other types of selections and the related explorations will be discussed in other papers.

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The Effect of Authentic Texts on Motivation and Reading Comprehension of EFL Students at Intermediate Level of Proficiency

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Abstract—This study attempts to explore the effect of studying authentic texts in classrooms on reading comprehension and motivation of intermediate language learners. To address this issue, a quantitative study was conducted on 24 language learners from language teaching institutes. Participants were divided randomly in two groups: authentic group and simplified group. Four online authentic texts with appropriate readability were selected for the authentic group. Simplified group received the simplified form of those texts. A Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) containing 18 items on eight domains of motivation was also conducted to measure authentic groups' motivation before and after reading authentic texts. Using independent samples t-test and mean of gain scores of groups on pre-post tests revealed that reading authentic texts has positive effect on the reading comprehension of intermediate students. Conducting the motivation questionnaire on the authentic group showed positive changes on four domains of motivation.

Index Terms—authentic texts, simplified texts, reading comprehension, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, teaching reading has important role in learning English as either second or foreign language. Readings expose students to new vocabularies, syntax, and even new cultures. Most of the new words can be learnt through the reading. "It has long been recognized that the language presented to students in coursebooks is a poor representation of the real thing" (Gilmore, 2007, p. 98) and it is clear that most of the reading texts of coursebooks used in language institutes are un-authentic or simplified. They are designed for teaching new grammatical structures, and not for the aim of specific needs of students. Despite all attempts in teaching reading, it seems that the language learners have lost their interest in reading and become passive in regard to this field. Using authentic texts instead of simplified ones is one of the best suggestions for solving the problem. Authentic texts convey a message produced by a real author to a real audience, such as newspapers, letters, and books (Gilmore, 2007). It is also believed that authentic texts can promote the interest among the learners (Gilmore, 2007). Prevailing of using authentic texts in language teaching systems, teachers are trying to use more authentic readings instead of simplified ones to make the learners interested in what they read and keep them motivated. This study is going to investigate the role of authentic reading materials on motivation and reading comprehension of intermediate students in EFL condition.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Authentic Reading

Reading is one of the four main skills in language teaching which has an important role in language teaching systems. Berado (2006) clarifies the meaning of reading as "...different things to different people, for some it is recognizing written words, while for others it is an opportunity to teach pronunciation and practice speaking" (p. 60). Alderson (2000) considers reading as an "enjoyable activity" which can bring pleasure for the reader (p. 28).

Authentic reading is a term which is more widespread than before in language teaching. Based on Callison & Lamb (2004) authentic means "genuine, real, and true" (p.34). Berardo (2006) considers authenticity as an "... interaction between the reader and the text and not just the text in itself. Reading is considered to be an ongoing interaction, going beyond the physical context of the text, looking for meaning as well as processing information" (p.63). Berado (2006) claimed that non-authentic texts are made for the aim of language learning. The language of this group of texts is unvaried and includes (Berado, 2006, p. 62):

- perfectly formed sentences (all the time);
- a question using a grammatical structure, gets a full answer;
- repetition of structures;

- very often does not "read" well.

Authentic texts, on the other hand, made the readers focus on meaning and content and "learners feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom" (Berado, 2006, p. 62). Berado (2006) considers newspapers, magazines, TV programs, movies, songs, literature and internet as some examples of authentic sources. One of the weaknesses of the authentic texts is existence of the unknown words. So, paying attention to the text readability and proficiency level of the learners becomes important. Related to this issue Harmer (2001) says that materials which are selected carelessly make the students de-motivated, because of miscomprehension that is resulted by applying these materials.

In traditional methods of teaching reading teachers asked the students to read the text and focus on its grammatical features and vocabularies. Students were not involved in the processes of comprehension and generalization of language by themselves. Replacing authentic reading materials instead of traditional ones provides a situation in which learners are responsible for their learning process and manipulate their prior and new information.

B. Authentic Reading in the Classroom

Today it is emphasized that teachers use authentic texts in the classroom instead of simplified ones, because it is believed that they can expose the students to "real language" (Berado, 2006, p. 60). It is also believed that applying authentic texts in the classroom will lead to "... the increase in learner participation in learning, enhanced learner grammar and lexicon knowledge through self-discovery, and the expansion of learner awareness about language and differences between written and spoken mediums (Murdoch, 1999, p. 2). Guariento & Morley (2001) also believe that exposing learners to real language and getting new and real information can increase their motivation.

Comprehending the complex meaning of the text needs learners' involvement in the grammatical relationships in the text so that learners themselves achieve the grammar through self-discovery (Murdoch, 1999). Unfortunately, simplified texts do not contain perfect relationships of grammatical structures because, based on Willis (as cited in Murdoch, 1999), those texts do not exemplify the grammar as it is but in a way the writer thinks to be. One of the sources of authentic data, from which teachers can choose authentic texts to teach, is Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD) that is a stored set of English texts on computer for teaching. It offers a worth source for students to enhance their information about the authentic language usage. According to Barlow (as cited in Murdoch, 1999, p. 7), it is helpful for teachers to:

(i) determine the most frequent patterns in a particular domain; (ii) enrich their own knowledge of the language, perhaps in response to questions raised in the classroom; (iii) provide "authentic data" examples; and (iv) generate teaching materials.

In general, using authentic materials in the classroom has some advantages (Berado, 2006, p. 64) :

- having a positive effect on student motivation;
- giving authentic cultural information;
- exposing students to real language;
- relating more closely to students' needs;
- supporting a more creative approach to teaching

C. Motivation

Motivation has an important role in language learning. To begin any discussion on motivation, the first necessary thing which must be done is having a correct definition of the word "motivation", and further of its meaning and role in language learning. According to Dornyei & Ushioda (2011), motivation "...derives from the Latin word 'movere' meaning 'to move'; What moves a person to make certain choices, engage in action, expand effort and persist in action" (p. 3).

In general, motivation refers to the desire to learn a language; what make learners to devote time and energy in language learning. The human beings learn their mother tongue easily and eagerly, because on one hand, it is a part of the process of the growth and on the other hand it is necessary for man to learn it so that it would be used in communication in the society. In contrast, learning a second language is not so much necessary; all can live and communicate in their society without knowing a second or a foreign language. Here the role of motivation in language learners becomes important.

It is claimed that there is a direct relationship between authentic texts and motivation. The number of language teaching books involving authentic texts is increasing every day. It indicates the importance and efficiency of authentic materials in language teaching systems. Floris (2008) highlighted the incorporating of authentic materials in the classroom, because they are motivating and engaging for the learners.

D. Reading Comprehension

Researchers have defined reading comprehension as "...a critical part of the multifarious interplay of mechanisms involved in L2 reading" (Brantmeier, 2004, p. 52). Reading comprehension among language learners may be different from each other. Related to this Brantmeier (2003) says that processing the texts similarly or differently, students may have non-identical interpretation of the texts. It means that, language learners may process the text in similar ways but comprehend differently, or process the texts in a different way but comprehend similarly.

Day & Park (2005) claimed that there are six kinds of reading comprehension which are helpful for the language learners to become interactive readers (p. 62). The first one is "literal comprehension". It "... refers to an understanding of the straightforward meaning of the text, such as facts, vocabulary, dates, times, and locations" (Day & Park, 2005, p.62). Direct answers are required for reading questions of this comprehension. According to Day literal comprehension may be helpful for teachers to know whether students understood the basic meaning of the text or not. The second type of the reading comprehension is "reorganization" in which "students must use information from various parts of the text and combine them for additional understanding" (Day & Park, 2005, p. 62). Reading comprehension questions of this type can made language learners to read the text generally. "Inference" is the third type of the reading comprehension. Day & Park claim that "an inference involves students combining their literal understanding of the text with their own knowledge and intuitions" (Day & Park, 2005, p. 63). Another type of the comprehension, According to Day, is "prediction". Students are supposed to guess the final events and happenings of the text. The fifth kind of reading comprehension is "evaluation". It "requires the learner to give a global or comprehensive judgment about some aspect of the text; ... In order to answer this type of question, students must use both a literal understanding of the text and their knowledge of the text's topic and related issues" (Day & Park, 2005, p.64). The sixth type of the comprehension is "personal response" (Day & Park, 2005, p.64). The answers are based on the topic and indicate literal understanding of the text.

It is clear that background knowledge has an important role in text processing. Background knowledge helps the language learners to pay attention to the input during reading, have a rich text analysis and comprehension, and also better memory performance (Ellis, 2001). Pulido (2004) mentions that "knowledge emerges in the course of reading as the reader constructs a text base primarily via bottom up processing, or decoding, of the textual input" (p. 476)

For Nassaji, (as cited in Pulido, 2004) the proposed meaning of the text "becomes integrated into the reader's global knowledge, forming a coherent mental representation of what the text is about". Therefore, the knowledge is "generated through activation patterns initiated by the textual information and the progressive upgrading of previously established associations in the text". And the action of the stored information from text in working memory acts as a "signal in an associative manner to all the information stored in long-term memory" (p. 476).

Therefore background knowledge can be activated as a response to signaling mechanism and has an effect on the construction of meaning representations (Pulido, 2004). The quality of text base has an effect on the role of background knowledge. This quality is affected by the students' text processing efficiency such as the use of rhetorical knowledge structures, and sentence parsing (Pulido, 2004). In an investigation about the vocabulary gain through reading done by Pulido (2000), it was found that the amount of vocabulary gain can be increased when participants read narratives which have familiar topics for learners.

In interactive theories of reading, second language reading is considered as a cognitive process in which learners by using their background knowledge, and interaction with information, construct the meaning (Pulido, 2004). Stanovich (1992) claims that the processes in reading are not limited to interactive process, but also compensatory process in a way that when a component of processing is absent, other components of processing can be compensated for.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was intended to investigate the effects of authentic reading on intermediate students' reading comprehension and motivation. For this study, two main questions were addressed.

1. Do authentic texts have an effect on reading comprehension of intermediate level students?
2. Do authentic texts have an effect on intermediate learners' motivation?

A. Participants

In this study twenty four participants were chosen from an English teaching institute in which they studied English as foreign language. Nine of the students were male and fifteen were female. Language learners were teenagers between thirteen and eighteen years old. Half of the language learners were chosen randomly as the simplified group and the others were placed in the authentic group. Students in the authentic group were given authentic online texts and those in the simplified group were presented by simplified forms of texts given to the authentic group. In addition to authentic materials, all of the learners in authentic group received a questionnaire to measure their motivation at the beginning and end of the course.

B. The Instruments

Placement test: is an instrument written by the Colchester English Study Centre to determine the language proficiency level of students. In this study it was used to choose intermediate level students as participants. It consists of 80 multiple choice items. The questionnaire had been piloted by the researcher on ten students. After an interval of two weeks, the test was retested on the same students. Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was used to measure the correlation between the test-retest results. Its reliability was 0.86. The validity of the questionnaire was confirmed by two experts.

Reading comprehension test: In this research, reading comprehension test is an instrument which is going to show the amount of comprehension of the students in reading. It has 20 items with three choices. It was piloted by the researcher

on ten students by test re-test method. Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was used to measure the correlation. Its reliability was 0.66. The validity of the three proficiency tests was evaluated by two experts.

Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ): It is developed by Dr. Allan Wigfield and Dr. John Guthrie from University of Maryland in 1997. Wigfield and Guthrie used the MRQ on a sample of students at one mid-Atlantic state school during administration of Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction. Factor analyses conducted by Wigfield and Guthrie proved the existence of construct validity which supports eleven factors for the total 53-item in this MRQ. There was a positive correlation of most parts of reading motivation with low- to high levels. They also claimed that their questionnaire has a reliability range from .43 to .81. In this study the researcher had chosen 18 items of the total 53 items in the questionnaire because only eight domains of total eleven domains of reading motivation were considered to measure. They are: reading efficacy, reading challenge, reading curiosity, reading involvement, importance of reading, reading word avoidance, social reasons for reading, and reading for grades.

Authentic texts: They are a group of online authentic texts derived from the internet that should be presented to authentic group to measure their influence on reading comprehension. They were selected based on the level of the students. The title and readability of texts are in this order: "Top 4 Islands" (62.1), "Earthquakes" (59.7), "What Causes Global Warming?" (49.4), and "What to Eat to Stay Healthy" (59.1).

C. Procedures

The placement test was administrated to the total number of the language learners to identify intermediate level learners. After presenting the placement test, students in each level were randomly divided in two groups: simplified and authentic group. The pre-test was administered to both groups at the beginning of the investigation to determine if the students of these two groups are at a similar level. All of the students in authentic and simplified group were studying artificial texts of the coursebooks during the course. In addition, authentic group in each level received online authentic texts and those in simplified groups received simplified forms of the those authentic texts which are inauthentic, like the texts used in coursebooks. Simplified forms of the authentic texts were used in this investigation because the texts of the coursebooks were different from the authentic ones in their topics. They were syntactically-lexically simplified. Each session one authentic text was given to the authentic group. Before reading, the teacher provides the students with background knowledge and warm up. After reading, texts were discussed by the teacher and the students in the class. Participants in the simplified group received the simplified texts during the course. Finally the same reading comprehension test that was used as pre-test was again given to both authentic and simplified groups as the post-test. For measuring the efficiency of authentic texts on students' motivation, a MRQ questionnaire was given to authentic group before and after reading authentic texts. Language learners were supposed to complete the questionnaire in about 15 minutes.

After gathering the data by administrating the reading comprehension test and the reading motivation questionnaire to the learners, the results were analyzed using SPSS. Independent sample t-test was used to analyze pre- and post-test results and also for comparing their results. It was used on the means of the gain scores that is get from the pre- and post-test of groups. For analyzing the results from the questionnaire, average of the scores at each domain analyzed.

IV. RESULTS FROM LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

After approximately three weeks, the pre- and post-test results on language reading comprehension test were analyzed by independent samples t-test. Pre-test was presented to both authentic group and simplified group. Comparing their pre-test results by independent samples t-test, the researcher proved that mean scores of authentic group ($M=11$) is close to simplified group ($M=10.83$) and there is no significant difference between them ($P=.87$, see Table 1). After giving texts to authentic group, post-test was presented to both groups. Mean scores of the language learners at this level showed that both groups had an increase in their post-test scores (see, Table 2). Authentic group's mean reached to 13 and simplified groups' mean reached to 11.33. Again independent samples t-test was used on the means of the gain scores from the pre-test and post-test. It was resulted that the means of gain scores from authentic group ($M=2.00$) was higher than the means of the gain scores from simplified group ($M=.5$, see Table 3).

TABLE I.
MEAN COMPARISON OF THE PRE-TEST

	N	Means	SD	t	DF	Sig. (2 tailed)
Authentic group	12	11.00	2.33	.16	22	.87
Simplified group	12	10.83	2.58			

TABLE II.
MEAN COMPARISON OF THE POST-TEST

	N	Means	SD	t	DF	Sig. (2 tailed)
Authentic group	12	13.00	1.2	1.96	22	.06
Simplified group	12	11.33	2.67			

TABLE III.
MEAN COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE IN GAIN SCORES ON THE PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Means	SD	t	DF	Sig. (2 tailed)
Authentic group	12	2.00	1.59	2.04	22	.05
Simplified group	12	.5	1.97			

As shown in Table 3, authentic groups' comprehension was higher than simplified groups' comprehension. The results showed the significance value of .05. So it is proved that the authentic group outperformed the simplified group. This is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

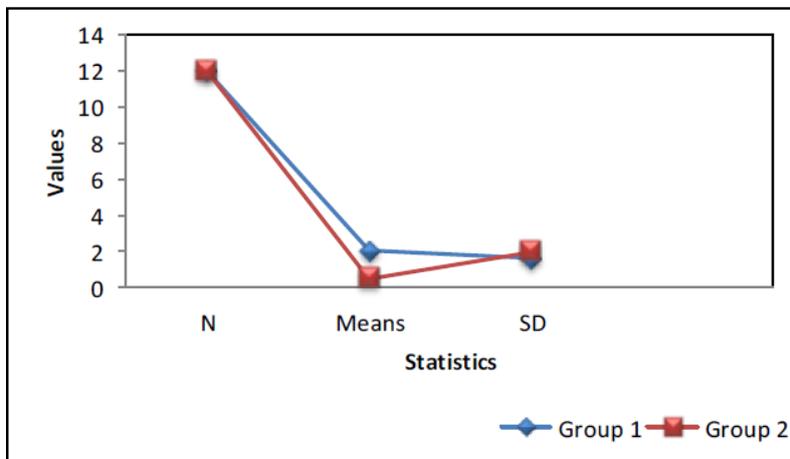


Figure 1: differences in means of gain scores on the intermediate reading comprehension test (group 1: authentic group; group 2: simplified group)

In the present study eight domains for measuring reading motivation were considered. Language learners at the intermediate level had positive changes on means of four domains when the questionnaire was given to them after reading. Table 4 presents those domains and their means.

TABLE IV.
MEAN SCORES OF THE READING MOTIVATION DOMAINS

	Reading curiosity		Social reasons for reading		Reading work avoidance		Reading for grades	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Before reading	10.33	.98	3.83	.93	5.66	1.15	3.66	.49
After reading	10.50	.79	4.00	1.59	5.50	.79	3.00	.60

Language learners at the intermediate level had an increase in reading curiosity, importance of reading, social reasons for reading, and decrease in reading work avoidance and reading for grades. Figure 2 presents the positive changes in the means of reading motivation of the students during the study.

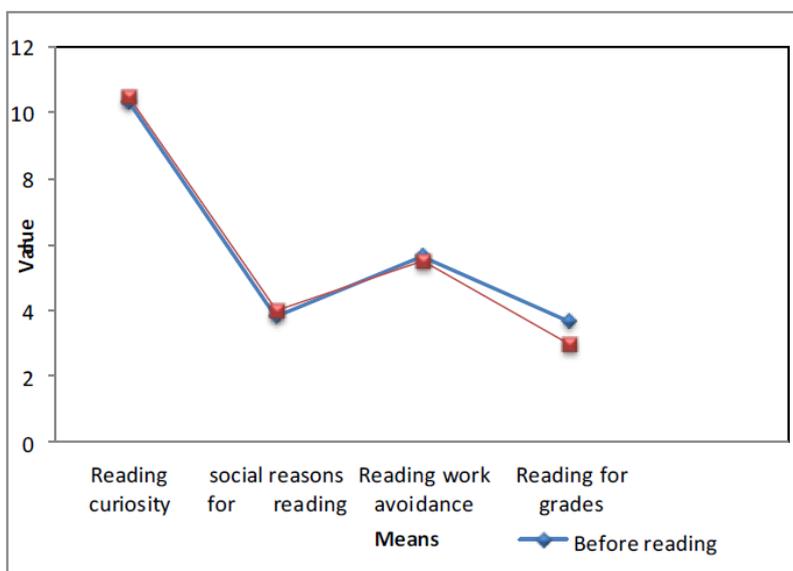


Figure 2: Differences of reading motivation means of intermediate students before and after reading

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

After gathering the data from intermediate language learners by using pre-test, post-test, their means and gain scores were analyzed. Independent samples t-test was conducted. Based on the results, authentic group had more proficiency than simplified group on post-test in reading comprehension.

Intermediate students can use strategies of reading like guessing the meaning of unknown words (Kondo-Brown, 2006). They know how to use context and input to understand the meaning of unknown words. So, according to the results of this study, authentic texts can lead to better reading comprehension than simplified ones for intermediate level students.

Gathering the data by using questionnaire before and after the reading authentic texts, and analyzing them, gave us some results about the effect of authentic texts on the motivation of intermediate students. There were positive changes on the means of four domains of motivation after reading authentic materials. Post-test results indicated a little increase on the mean of reading curiosity. After reading authentic texts, students became more motivated to read about their own favorite topics and new things. Social reasons for reading, is another domain of motivation which had an increase. It affirms the fact that readers not only read the texts for themselves, but also have motivation to deliver the new information they got from the texts to other people. Here, the focus of reading is on the content in which readers make an interaction with the text, and not on the linguistic features of the text. Intermediate level language learners also had a reduction on the reading for grades. It is clear that the intensity of reading for grades reduced on the post-test and motivation for reading texts with real aims increased. After reading authentic texts, the goal of the learners for reading changed.

This study has presented evidence on a strong relationship between authentic texts and reading comprehension of intermediate learners. Authentic reading can increase not only students' comprehension but also promote other aspects of language learning such as motivation.

Like other studies, this research had some limitations. One of them was that the results of the study came from groups which are homogeneous. It means that they have similarities in their learning experiences and also their culture is same. This homogeneity could make a limitation in generalizing the findings of the study. Another point which is considered as a limitation of the present study is related to the effect of the teacher on the reading comprehension of the learners. Teachers' experiments in providing warm-up, Pre-post reading questions, time devotion for teaching reading in the classroom, and the way of giving feedback when the students encounter a problem during reading, all can have an effect on the reading comprehension of the students.

In this investigation the effect of authentic reading on reading comprehension and motivation of the students was considered. Further studies can be possible to explore its effect on other linguistic aspects like writing and listening. Small group of language learners took part in this investigation. Next studies could involve students in a larger group.

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Language Teaching from the View of Formative Assessment

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Abstract—As a two-way activity, formative assessment collects feedbacks from students to help teachers better the teaching methods. At the same time, it makes students have a clear understanding about their performance on the in-class and after-class participation. Traditional ways of evaluation prevent students from active and creative learning. Even though there are so many problems existing, formative assessment makes remarkable contributions to collect teaching feedbacks, increase teaching efficiency and improve learners' learning performance. For college English teaching, the task is to break the traditional test grading assessment pattern, and set up a completely new system to give effective evaluation on both the learning process and result.

Index Terms—formative assessment, language teaching, evaluation

I. INTRODUCTION

Formative assessment was put forward by M. Scriven, and B. S. Bloom introduced it into the teaching field (Xie Na, 2007). Generally speaking, based on teaching objectives, it evaluates students' academic performance by using various assessment methods and forms. In open, relaxed, friendly and informal environment, it evaluates students' interest, attitude, strategy, team spirit and etc to study.

Teachers can collect information in the way of observing, interviewing, questionnaires, assignments, tests and so on, to improve teaching methods and students' academic performance.

For many years, college English teaching in China relies too much on CET (College English Test), which is often viewed as the only way to measure the effectiveness of teaching methods and students' language competence. It puts great emphasis on the result but seldom on the learning process, and prevents the students from active and creative learning. Now more and more educators realize the importance of combining the process and result assessment, and try to explore more ways to assess not just the scores but also students' feeling, attitude and strategies on study.

As a two-way activity, on one side, it collects feedbacks from students to help teachers better the teaching methods. On the other side, students and their parents can have a clear understanding about their performance on the in-class and after-class participation (Guo Qian & Yang Zhi-qiang, 2003). So the three sides will be enhanced to cooperate better.

II. WAYS AND PRINCIPLES FOR FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN THE COLLEGE LANGUAGE TEACHING

By observing, many college educators find students learn English in a very passive way, with less interests and passion. What is the root of the problem?

In fact, the traditional testing system usually tests students to answer some simple factual or multiple-choice questions, but seldom challenge them with open and creative questions which can encourage critical and insightful thinking. For passing the CET smoothly, students are forced to do a lot of memorizing tasks which are usually considered boring and uninteresting in their eyes. Passive learning and lost interest are the side-effect of the too much emphasis on test results and scores. Several standard tests a year are not enough to collect information for educators to have a deep understanding on students' performance and requirements. Other channels need to be explored to find what difficulties students are facing, and what they really need on study. Then, teachers will serve as the helper and guide to lead them and suggest them. The students will know about themselves better, and accordingly design some constructive plans to make more progress. Clear assessment on themselves will encourage them to be more active learners.

Besides testing, more ways to assess need to be designed, such as the observation of students' in-class participation, the face-to-face talk between teachers and their students, group discussion among students, diaries, keeping records for assignments (Genesee & Johna, 2001). Discussions and high-quality questions can also help students to accumulate knowledge and encourage them to get involved in deep thinking (Black, p. & William, D, 1998). The assessing ways are not limited. Teachers and students can talk over the ways to updated it.

Through observation, teachers can find out students' progress, problems, special requirements, and evaluate their attitude, interests on the learning materials and teaching methods. Information collected will help teachers make correct judgment and take appropriate actions to praise the progress they made, solve their problems, offer special training to fulfill their special requirement on study (Genesee, Fred & Johna A. Upshur, 1998).

By questionnaires and interviews, it is helpful for teachers to have a great insight into students' real ideas on learning. Questionnaires may collect information from students to detect their interests, hobbies, attitudes, habits on language

learning, which also reflect students' evaluation on teaching methods, teaching structures, textbooks and teaching materials. The way to ask questions can be true-false questions, multiple-choice questions or open questions. Even though the questions can offer effective information, the disadvantage is that it is not suitable for more complicated surveys. In order to cover various levels of those polled, questions to be asked usually are designed easy to be answered. So for further complex research, other forms of methods need to be adopted at the same time. Interviews are a direct way to communicate with students. By face-to-face talk, it is easy to observe the interviewees' external performance and inner feeling. Information to be collected through observation and questionnaires can be tested again by interviews. So interviews can compensate for the weaknesses of questionnaires.

Diaries are considered as a kind of written form of communication, which may keep students to think deeply about their strengths and weaknesses, and keep teachers to learn about their students' progress and problems. No matter the ways are discussions, face-to-face talk or diaries, the key is to communicate frankly, honestly and openly.

Keeping records and files for students' daily assignments, and updating them regularly will also be a good way to follow students' study pace. Some files (such as a tape, an essay or a report which are usually considered their best works), keep the records to show students' growth and development. Some files will show the process of a certain task, that is, how the work is going on. Therefore, for a project, it will include not only the final report, but also the drafts during the whole process. Other kinds of files are evidence to show students' progress and success, which take the function to make comparison between a student's first work and final work. Keeping files is a way to offer rich information to teachers, parents and students, and encourage students' to give correct evaluation themselves.

Today, Internet becomes a new way and tool for making formative assessment. With the widespread use of multimedia network teaching, it is possible to discuss and talk about academic performance online. New communicating channels, like E-mail, BBS, QQ, bring great convenience for teachers and students to ask and answer questions, give group discussions, and give evaluation to each other through the network. With the help of internet, Students can set their academic goals, control the flow of online study, and complete required tasks. Teachers are supervising the whole learning process and giving students appropriate help and guidance (Zhang Gui-ying & Hu Ji-yue, 2004). Tests can be made after each unit, and topics are arranged for discussion online. Two-way communication online is also convenient for students to get help from each other and their teachers, and remove the problems they have met in their study.

For the academic evaluation, no matter which way to follow, the key principles are as follows:

◇ Students play a very important role in the formative assessment. They are not only the targets under the research, but also the main body to give assessment. That means, students' classroom performance can not only be analyzed by teachers, but also by their classmates. All the students can get actively involved in the assessment to evaluate each other.

◇ Encouragement always goes with assessment. Through evaluation, students find the progress they have made, and try to feel and enjoy each step of success. Finding out their improvement, and giving encouragement on time will stimulate their motivation to learn.

◇ The evaluation is going through the whole teaching process. It is closely connected with the teaching and learning. What is evaluated not just the result of the tests and exams, but also factors like attitude, efforts, performance and etc.

◇ Various ways are adopted to make assessment, and various people can make the assessment, like teachers, parents, and students themselves. Students are always the main body in the learning process, so it is very necessary for them to grasp a complete set of skills to give appropriate self-evaluation, and reasonable assessment to their classmates. Peer assessment may improve students' communicative, cooperative abilities, and they get to know how to give a sound and reasonable judgment on others. Teachers' duties are offering guidance at the right time, and set up proper standards for their assessment.

◇ Make the evaluation process open and growing. In order to make it grow and improve better, updating it regularly is necessary. In order to make it more reliable, the evaluating process and the result is open to all the teachers, parents and students.

◇ The assessment will help students to set clear feasible goals, which is challenging but within their reach. If the goal is too demanding and difficult, learners will be more likely to feel frustrated and give up easily. So assessment will make them know better about their present performance and problems, and reasonable goals will build up their confidence and encourage them to go ahead further.

◇ Set clear standards for the assessment to make effective measurements. For instance, the degree of involvement for discussion, the accuracy of the assignment, the fluency of speaking, the richness of thoughts in diaries, the honesty and openness of the answers to questions, the frequency of practice and participation, etc, all of them will be precisely measured and scored.

◇ When teachers find problems in the assessment, quick feedback and measurement will be given to correct it (Black, P. & William, D, 1998). Giving feedback rapidly is very important to students. Since new information stored in our mind will decline and fade away, if learners don't reinforce them regularly, what they have learned will slip out of their mind soon. So when the memories are still fresh in the mind, correcting them on time and giving them proper scores will enhance learner to remember the correct information.

◇ Students' deep thinking of their learning process, learning habits, strong and weak points will help make full use of their potential, and build up their confidence (Black, P. & William, D, 1998). Clear and complete assessment will show

not only the progress but also the problems in the learning process. Insightful thinking will follow and actions will be taken to make them better.

III. TRADITIONAL AND NEW METHODS FOR EVALUATING STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE

Setting up a new evaluating system for improving students' academic performance is one of the main tasks of the teaching reform in China. The adopted methods tend to be both quantitative and qualitative, such as: tests, the records of behavior by observation, analysis of works, demonstration of certain skills, experimental reports, findings of surveys, case study, and etc.

Frequently used methods in college language teaching are after-class or in-class assignments, daily tests, unit tests, mid-exams and final exams, which are mainly considered as traditional. Assessment in the form of tests and exams are the typical ways to assess students' efforts on study. The types of questions in the tests and exams are usually divided into objective and subjective ones. The scores of objective questions are easy to be measured, and the given points are hard influenced by teachers' personal ideas. Even the people who are unfamiliar with the tests can give scores, and the grades can also be measured by machines. Multiple-choice questions, true-false questions, matching questions, and fill-in questions are the usual forms. Subjective questions give students more freedom when answering questions. It is hard for teachers to give completely objective and accurate assessment, since more or less teachers personal ideas, values, experience will unconsciously influence their judgment. Open answers are the main feature of this type of questions. Tasks like writing, translation, and essay questions belong to this group. The whole testing system does help teachers have a better understanding about students' development and problems in their study.

However, nowadays as a new way of evaluation, the assessment of performance is increasingly becoming popular. When students are taking certain tasks, their attitude, efforts, the ability of problem-solving, decision-making, communication and cooperation, will be graded, which usually are hard to be assessed with tests. This pattern requires teachers to observe and analyze the behavior of their students.

The assessment of performance is closely connected with particular academic tasks which can be both in the written or non-written form. Tasks in written form, for instance: to design a graph, to create a poem, to write a short story can measure not only obtained knowledge, but also the ability of creation and imagination. To make it more specific, we demonstrate it in this way: some students are asked to design a graph for the schedule of a day, and other students have to analyze it, find a problem, solve the problem, and describe the way to remove the problem, and finally make a story based on the given information and their reasoning. The tasks in written form here is different from the traditional paper tests. They create a simulated environment to make use of knowledge and skills, and become tools to make assessment for students' performance. Tasks of non-written forms refer to other ways of measurements except paper and pens. A case in point is to ask students to make a call to talk about a job and ask for the chance to be interviewed.

Oral presentations and group discussion can also be good ways of evaluating performance, which to some degree can reflect the capacity of self-expression, logical reasoning and summarizing, and can show their thinking process and insightful understanding.

Simulated situational contexts are designed for getting ready for future real life. Role-play of the real social context, like court trials, city council, job interviews will offer an opportunity for students to show their abilities and skills, and at the same time to get familiar with and pave the way for their future.

Case study or surveys can help students to perceive and experience natural and social things, enhance their overall development and improve the problem-solving abilities. A case on studying and finding solutions to water loss and soil erosion, or research on the relationship between color and attention can be good ways for teachers to observe and find students' efforts and improvement, and make more accurate judgment on their performance.

Works like a poem, an article or anything created can be used as the specific forms for being evaluated.

Projects for single persons and groups can also help to evaluate student's performance. Projects carried out by individuals will focus on the assessment on the capacity of collecting, choosing and analyzing information, the skills to organize and design a report, the technique to express in written words. The result of the project is required to be creative, original, scientific, logical and artistic. Projects carried out by two or more students are usually ones to be completed relatively in a long period. Everyone in the group need to prepare a report to describe how the project is going to, and how the result is explained in their own way, so not only the group is assessed, but also the individual members in the group will be graded.

Integrated and comprehensive tasks will be assessed from several aspects, which combine the abilities to make academic research, to think critically, to communicate skillfully and etc. For instance, the thesis for graduation and final degree, will require students to get involved in the following activities like: choosing the subject, planning the schedule, collecting information, analyzing data, making surveys, evaluating the finding, completing the report, making oral presentation and answering questions. From the beginning to the end, the whole process emphasizes the skills to analyze, to reason, to draw conclusions, to communicate, to do research independently.

The above forms for evaluating students' performance will not only assess the result of their work, but also put great emphasis on the working process. In the whole process, mental, cognitive, emotional activities will be shown and analyzed, and at the same time, the difficulties, problems, and obstacles will appear and be dealt with. When making assessment, teachers will make full use of their personal experience to understand the students, and not just evaluate

their performance from the surface, but try to understand the deeper meaning behind their behaviors.

Formative assessment for performance is usually done from two aspects. For one of them, the evaluation is given based on the general impression, and details are not considered much. Each task or work will be granted a level or grade. For the other, each important detail will be analyzed and graded item by item, such as writing can be graded from the aspects of structure, view points, vocabulary and so on. How to make full use of the two types of assessment depends on the difference of tasks and requirements on students.

We take a 5-point grading standard as an example. For a certain task on study, usually 5 points are given for excellently completed tasks, having the ability to explain the questions in several effective ways, and showing skillfully used strategies and deep understanding of the requirements. 4 points are given for completing the task satisfyingly, making clear planning, using appropriate strategies and methods. 3 points are given for clear understanding of related knowledge, concepts and skills, but some key concepts are confused and made mistakes. 2 points are given for limited learned key concepts, unskillful application of the related knowledge, and concepts, fewer effectively used strategies and skills. 1 point is given for ineffective strategies, hardly grasped knowledge and skills, confused concepts and incorrect understanding of the requirements.

IV. PROBLEMS AND SUGGESTIONS IN THE PROCESS OF ASSESSMENT

Many factors may affect the reliability of the formative evaluation. In the process of evaluation, different teachers and students will give their assessment based on different standards, because of their various belief, value, social and family background, educational level, and culture. Even though the same teacher, his or her judgment will be influenced by some unrelated factors, such as students' appearance, communicative ability, intimacy, family background (Chen Ji-zhuang & Xu Zhi-min, 2010). Nobody can deny the fact that to some degree, they have prejudice on something, and sometimes they even couldn't realize that when they do so. One of the solutions for teachers is to increase the frequency of observation within a certain period of time. In order to deal with the collected information more conveniently, it is suggested to keep a record or file for what is observed, and take it as a reference for making assessment. For making more objective evaluation, each educator needs to work hard on trying to be influenced less by unrelated factors, searching for suitable evaluating pattern, improving the grading and assessing system, and making the result more reliable.

Dealing with the relationship between the teaching and evaluating is another issue that is concerned about. The ultimate purpose of formative assessment is to serve the teaching process. However, too much evaluation will occupy the time and attention, and indirectly bring negative effect to teaching and learning. What's more, since much time is consumed when evaluating, the number of people to be assessed will be limited, too. So how to balance the two sides, and make valid assessment is still a great concern. On one hand, deficient assessment will prevent teachers and students to know about the truth and problems. On the other hand, too much assessment will make them feel exhausted and bored. The amount of time and energy put into the evaluation needs to be carefully arranged in order to make it have the most positive effect.

A big problem for students is that sometimes they are unwilling to cooperate with the teacher to give assessment, since they usually are the passive side in the traditional class. They get used to the form to be evaluated, and feel puzzled on how to give judgment on themselves and on each other. Another reason is that too much stress from the middle exams, final exams, CET-4, and CET-6 make them feel their final goal is just to go through all the tests, and they don't care about why and how to evaluate themselves. Some even think the complicated process for evaluation is a waste of time, and teachers should save their time on teaching knowledge. So clearly explaining the purpose and importance of evaluations to them and guiding them to use appropriate method and standard to make correct judgment on each other will help them actively get involved in the whole process. It is also important for them to understand that satisfying test result is not the only thing in their lives. Progress made in the learning progress should not be ignored, but highly valued.

Problems for assessment itself are about the validity and reliability of the process and the result. Compared with students' acquired knowledge and skills, their emotion, attitude, strategies and habits on learning are even harder to be measured with numbers. Furthermore, assessment for students is often set in certain given contexts, but not in the dynamic real social contexts, so it is even harder to check and measure their obtained knowledge and ability to apply it. Therefore, there is still a long way to go to look for better assessment tools and methods.

Even though there are so many problems existing, on the whole, formative assessment makes remarkable contributions to collect teaching feedbacks, increase teaching efficiency, correct learning habits, and improve learners' learning performance.

In order to form a complete assessment for students, more channels and sources of information will be discovered to collect reliable information from students. For college language teaching, the task is to break the traditional test grading pattern, and set up a completely new system to give effective evaluation on both the learning process and result. Tests and exams are no longer to be the only way to evaluate learning ability and teaching quality, and those ways of assessment will not be the only purposes for teaching and learning any more. The parts to be graded go beyond the traditional knowledge and skills, emotions and attitude factors will be added to it. How to give scientific evaluation and realize the teaching goals effectively will always be the target of college English teachers. The theories, patterns, and

specific skills for formative assessment are still on the way of improvement.

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Using English Discourse Markers: A Comparison of Persian and English Dentistry Authors

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Abstract—With regard to the role of discourse markers as key elements in creating any coherent and natural piece of languages, the present study aimed at investigating the implementation of English discourse makers in academic papers written by Persian and English dentistry researchers. To this end, 20 papers by Persian authors and 20 by English-speaking authors were selected and analyzed line by line. The findings revealed that discourse markers were more frequent in papers produced by English-speaking researchers. However, the papers in both groups contained almost an equal range of discourse markers. In addition, distribution of discourse markers among different sections of papers and under different sub-classes of discourse markers was almost similar in the two groups. Despite similarities in the implementation of discourse markers between papers produced by Persian and English researchers, the papers written by Persian authors still lacked coherence; this could be attributed to the underuse and misuse of discourse markers in these papers and the fact that discourse markers are not the only elements that make a text coherent.

Index Terms—discourse markers, coherence, dentistry academic papers

I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse markers can help us as language speakers get the attention of our interlocutors. Simultaneously, they can help us convey our intended meaning more effectively through restricting the contextual assumptions available to our hearer and guiding his/her interpretation process. It can be stated that the use of discourse markers can reduce the cognitive load imposed on the hearer in processing information, improve the emotional quality of communication, and help in maintaining mutuality (Blakemore, 1993).

Richards and Schmidt (2002) define discourse markers as “expressions that typically connect two segments of discourse but do not contribute to the meaning of either. These include adverbials (e.g. however, still), conjunctions (e.g. and, but), and prepositional phrases (e.g. in fact)” (p. 162). More precisely, Fraser (1999) describes discourse markers as:

a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases. With certain exceptions, they signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment S1. They have a core meaning, which is procedural, not conceptual, and their specific interpretation is “negotiated” by the context, both linguistic and conceptual. (p. 931)

Obviously, inappropriate use of discourse markers can lead to miscomprehension. This is particularly true when communicating in a foreign language because some foreign language learners misuse, overuse, or underuse discourse markers (e.g. Rahimi, 2011; Rezvani Kalajahi, Abdullah, & Baki, 2012; Zhang, as cited in Lahuerta Martínez, 2004). In the next pages, some of the studies on the implementation of English discourse markers by EFL speakers have been presented.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The use of discourse markers by FL learners have been investigated in many studies so far. Discourse markers can be studied with regard to their frequency, their nature, and their effect on quality of a specific skill, such as writing; a classification which has been proposed by Rahimi (2011). Research studies on discourse markers can be divided into three general categories. The first category includes studies which has investigated the use of discourse markers with regard to one of the four macro-skills of speaking, listening, writing, and reading (e.g., Assadi Aidinlou & Shahrokhi mehr, 2012, with regard to EFL learners’ performance in close tests; Khazaei, 2012, with regard to EFL teachers’ use of discourse markers in classroom; Jalilfar, 2008, Lahuerta Martínez, 2002, 2004, & Rahimi, 2012, with regard to writing). In the following paragraphs, some of these studies will be presented. Heydari (2009) made an error analysis of the use of cohesive devices, which have conjunction in common with discourse markers, in the writing of EFL learners. His participants were 67 undergraduate students at Shiraz Islamic Azad University and they were further divided into three groups based on their proficiency levels. They had to write a text of at least 250 words about one of the memories,

or they had to select from one of the topic introduced by the researcher. The analyses of these compositions revealed that errors in and conjunction cohesion was not so much common among the three groups of students as compared to errors in references and lexical cohesion.

Jalilfar (2008) investigated the application of discourse markers in descriptive compositions of 90 Iranian students. His findings revealed that discourse markers in their order of frequency included elaborative, inferential, contrastive, causative, and topic relating markers, respectively. The results also revealed a positive relationship between the number of well-functioned discourse markers and coherent of the text. Besides, there was a positive relationship between the students' proficiency level and cohesion and coherence of their works. The more proficient students used more well-formed discourse markers of various kinds than the less proficient ones who misused or overused discourse markers.

Lahuerta Martínez (2004) investigated the use of discourse markers in the expository compositions of 78 Spanish students of English. The study was done based on Fraser's (1999) framework. Based on his results, elaborative and contrastive discourse markers were more frequent than the other markers. Furthermore, there was a positive relationship between students' use of contrastive, elaborative, and topic relating discourse markers and their quality of writing.

Liu and Braine (2005) investigated the use of cohesive devices in 50 argumentative compositions created by Chinese undergraduate non-English majors. In their analysis they benefited from Halliday and Hasan (1976). Their findings indicated that conjunctives were among the most frequently used cohesive devices in participants' compositions. They further found that as the number of the cohesive devices, especially the lexical devices increased, the quality of the students' works increased.

The second category of studies on discourse markers includes those studies which have compared the use of discourse markers in two or more different styles or genres within the same language. Rahimi (2011), for instance, investigated the implementation of discourse markers in argumentative and expository writing of Iranian EFL learners. Based on his findings, the average number of discourse markers in argumentative essays was higher than that in the expository essays. Furthermore, the same hierarchy of the use of discourse markers was observed in both essay genres, that is to say in both studies, the most frequent discourse markers were elaborative markers, followed by contrastive and inferential markers. Finally, no significant relationship was observed between participants' quality of writing and their use of discourse markers.

Sharndama and Yakubu (2013) analyzed the use of discourse markers in different sections of five randomly-selected research projects of Language and Communication Arts produced by Nigerian students. Based on their findings, literature review section contained the highest number of discourse markers and discussion and conclusion, introduction, and methodology sections came into the next places, respectively.

Wang and Cho (2010) used "Coh-Matrix" which is an efficient computational instrument for text analysis to examine two major academic genres of writing: argumentative and technical writing. They focused on cohesive devices in examining differences between these two genres. The participants were among students of history and physics. Students of history were asked to write argumentatively while those of physics had to write technically. The findings of their study revealed that causal cohesion was used in argumentative genre more than in technical genre.

Finally, the third category consists of those studies which have compared two or more languages with regard to the use of discourse markers in a specific genre or style. Lahuerta Martínez (2002) did a study on the use of English and Spanish discourse markers by native speakers of Spanish. All the participants were university students of English majors and were required to write a paper on applied linguistics, however, the first group in English but the second group in Spanish. Then, the conclusion section of the papers was analyzed and it was revealed that Spanish native speakers used discourse markers appropriately and extensively in both English and Spanish. However, more variety was observed in the use of discourse markers in Spanish papers.

With regard to English language, perhaps it can be stated that discourse markers have been investigated more in writing, or more specifically in academic writing, than in the other three language skills. This can be justified because a large group of EFL learners need to be competent in writing, as an important language skill. Indeed, many learners are learning the language in the hope of reaching their academic and professional goals and they know that they cannot seek promotion without being able to write coherently, appropriately, and naturally.

Coherence can be partially secured by the use of discourse markers. Therefore, understanding how well learners implement these elements of language can be helpful in adopting appropriate teaching methods, techniques and materials and, as a result, in promoting students' proficiency. Previous studies on discourse analysis have also focused on the frequency and nature of English discourse markers used by EFL learners in different writing genres, perhaps because familiarity with different writing styles is a necessary condition for writing appropriately in the academic contexts.

But coherence and appropriateness are not the only necessary conditions for producing a piece of acceptable language. EFL learners should learn to produce as much natural language as possible if they intend to affect their interlocutors. As it was mentioned above, many EFL learners overuse, underuse, or misuse discourse markers in their academic works. One way to find whether a produced piece of written work in a foreign language can be regarded as natural or not is to compare it with the stylistically equivalent authentic work of the native speakers of that language. To the researchers' knowledge not many studies have compared the use of discourse markers in a specific style by speakers of two or more different languages. Of course, a few studies have been done in this regard, for example the study done

by Lahuerta Mart ínez (2002). Yet, there exist some problems in these studies. For instance, the applied materials in these studies mostly include students' compositions or a few sections of students' academic projects which are usually limited in quantity and, in the case of compositions, very general in terms of their topics. Therefore, they might not be good representatives of learners' writing proficiency. Furthermore, as the title of these studies suggest, they have mainly claimed that they have investigated implementation of discourse markers with regard to a specific style, such as the expository style. However, it is possible for a coherent, appropriate, and natural piece of written work to be composed of more than one writing style, as it is true of most of well-written texts.

Taking the aforementioned shortcomings into account, the primary objective of this study was to compare the frequency and nature of English discourse markers in papers prepared by Persian dentistry researchers and English-speaking dentistry researchers. Furthermore, the two groups of papers were also compared with regard to their implementation of discourse markers in their different sections, namely abstract, introduction, method, results, discussion, and conclusion. Based on the mentioned objectives, the present study aims at answering the following research questions:

1. Is there any difference in the frequency and type of English discourse markers used by Persian and English dentistry researchers?
2. Is there any difference in the implementation of English discourse markers in different sections of papers written by Persian and English dentistry authors?

The following section provides the theoretical framework which was used in conducting this study.

Theoretical framework of the study

This study has used Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of discourse markers categories because as Rahimi (2011) states "this taxonomy, as compared to the similar taxonomies of discourse markers, is mainly used for the classification of written discourse and seems to be the most comprehensive classification in written discourse" (p. 71). Fraser (1999) states, "there are two types [of discourse markers]; those that relate the explicit interpretation conveyed by S2 with some aspect associated with the segment, S1; and those that relate the topic of S2 to that of S1." (p. 931).

Considering the first type, Fraser enumerates the following sub-classes: contrastive, elaborative, inferential, and reason discourse markers. Contrastive discourse markers signal that S2 content is in contrast with S1 content. Through elaborative discourse markers, the message of S1 is paralleled, augmented or refined by the message of S2. Inferential discourse markers show that S2 is a conclusion for S1 while reason discourse markers indicate that S2 is a reason for S1. Table I shows the discourse markers within these four sub-classes distinguished by subtleties of meaning.

TABLE I.
THE FIRST CLASS OF DISCOURSE MARKERS

Contrastive	Elaborative	Inferential	Reason
a. but b. however, (al)though c. in contrast (with/to this/that), whereas d. in comparison (with/to this/that) e. on the contrary, contrary to this/that f. conversely g. instead (of (doing) this/that), rather (than (doing) this/that) h. on the other hand i. despite (doing) this/that, in spite of (doing) this/that, nevertheless, nonetheless, still, still and all	a. and b. above all, also, besides, better yet, for another thing, furthermore, in addition, moreover, more to the point, on top of it all, too, to cap it all off, what is more c. I mean, in particular, namely, parenthetically, that is (to say) d. analogously, by the same token, correspondingly, equally, likewise, similarly e. be that as it may, or, otherwise, that said, well	a. so b. of course c. accordingly, as a consequence, as a logical conclusion, as a result, because of this/that, consequently, for this/that reason, hence, it can be concluded that, therefore, thus d. in this/that case, under these/those conditions, then e. all things considered	after all, because, since

With regard to the second type of discourse markers, Fraser (1999) mentions topic-relating markers and explains that with these markers S1 is contributing to the topic related to the topic presented by S2. Topic-relating discourse markers have been presented in Table II.

TABLE II.
THE SECOND CLASS OF DISCOURSE MARKERS

Topic Relating Discourse Markers
back to my original point, before I forget, by the way, incidentally, just to update you, on a different note, speaking of X, that reminds me, to change to topic, to return to my point, while I think of you, with regard to

It should be mentioned here that in her study on discourse markers in the expository writing of Spanish university students, Lahuerta Mart ínez (2004) encountered some conclusive and exemplar discourse markers, such as in short, in conclusion, for example, etc. which were not mentioned in Fraser's (1999) classification and considered them as two groups of elaborative markers. Furthermore, in a more recent account of discourse marker Fraser (2009) has enumerated them under the second sub-class of discourse markers, namely elaborative markers. Therefore, in the present study, we also consider the following groups of markers as elaborative discourse markers. "Conclusive" discourse markers: in short, in sum, in conclusion, to sum up. And "Exemplifiers": for example, such as, for instance.

III. METHOD

This study was aimed at comparing the implementation of English discourse markers in the academic papers written by Persian and English dentistry researchers. The following sections reveal how the data for conducting this study was collected and analyzed.

A. Materials

To conduct this study, 40 papers written in English by dentistry researchers were utilized. Of these 20 papers were written by Persian and 20 by English-speaking researchers who were from England, the USA, Canada, and Australia. All the papers had been written or published between 2010 and 2014. The reason for selecting dentistry papers as the materials used for conducting this study was that the present researchers observed that some Persian dentistry researchers, due to their failure in writing coherent English papers but despite their ability to carry out academic research, were not so much successful at demonstrating their findings to their colleagues around the world. Then, it was hypothesized that part of the problem might be related to ineffective use of English discourse markers by them. In order to have a better insight on the probable areas where their problems in the use of discourse markers lay, therefore, the present researchers decided to compare the application of discourse markers in papers by Persian and English dentistry researchers.

B. Data Collection Procedure

Most of Iranian dentistry journals are published in English. Therefore, for the Persian researchers to be able to publish their papers in either internal or external journals, they need to be proficient enough in academic writing or to have their professional editors edit their works. For conducting this study, 20 papers which had to be edited were selected. Case-reports, case study articles, were not considered in this study because they did not include some common sections of an article, sections such as Materials and Method and Results. It should be mentioned here that prior to conducting this study, the researchers got permission from the authors and promised that the identities of the authors would be completely kept in secret.

Then, papers produced by English researchers were selected from among online research papers. They were published between 2010 and 2014. The criteria for selecting those papers were the following: the papers were taken from well-established dentistry journals published in English, and they were written by native English speakers. In order to make sure that the authors were native speakers of English, the researchers of the present study paid attention to the authors' names and affiliation and, when possible, read about researchers' biographies online.

It is worth mentioning that the researchers analyzed more than one hundred pages of research papers in each group and estimated that papers in the two groups were equivalent in terms of length. However, because the articles were selected from among journals published both inside and outside the country and because each journal has its own publishing format in terms of page layout, font size, etc., the researchers avoid giving an exact report of the number of pages which underwent analysis.

C. Data Analysis Procedure

All the papers were analyzed word by word, and to ensure dependability of the findings, intrarater method or code-record strategy (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006) was used and the data were reanalyzed by the researchers after a while. Then, the frequency and nature of each discourse marker were determined in the whole papers as well as in different sections of it. The researchers then turned the frequencies into percentages so that they could better compare the use of discourse markers in the two groups of papers and could notice if there was any underuse, overuse, or misuse of English discourse markers in papers written by Persian researchers. Then, the average number of discourse markers and the variety in their use for the papers in the two groups were determined. Then, the two groups of papers were compared in terms of the obtained data. The results of this study have been provided through the following sections.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After analyzing the obtained data, the frequency and type of discourse markers in each paper and in each of the two groups were determined. But as presenting the results on the frequency and type of discourse markers in each paper is beyond the space of this article, the overall findings will be presented with regard to the application of discourse markers in the two groups of papers.

TABLE III.
DISCOURSE MARKERS IN PAPERS PRODUCED BY PERSIAN AND ENGLISH-SPEAKING DENTISTRY RESEARCHERS

	By Persian researchers	By English-speaking researchers
Total no. of Markers	705	871
Types of Markers	40	41

As Table III indicates, the overall number of discourse markers in the papers prepared by Persian authors was 705 and it was 871 in papers written by English researchers. It can indicate the underuse of discourse markers in the papers by Persian researchers. Nevertheless, as the table shows, the two groups of papers are almost similar in terms of variety

in the use of markers because as it can be seen Persian researchers have used 40 different types of discourse markers and English researchers 41 types. So, the researchers' initial assumption that Persian dentistry researchers, as compared to English dentistry researchers, use a more limited variety of English discourse markers cannot come true. However, One can still state that the Persian researchers underuse discourse markers in their academic papers.

After obtaining the overall numbers and types of discourse markers used in the two groups of papers, the researchers then computed the average number of markers as well as the range of discourse markers, on average, for each paper.

TABLE IV.
THE AVERAGE NUMBER AND RANGE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS PER PAPER

	By Persian researchers	By English researchers
Average no. of Markers	35	44
Types of Markers	10	12

Again, one can see that the average number of discourse markers for each of the papers produced by Persian researchers is 35 and it is 44 for each of the papers published by English researchers. Furthermore, each English researcher has used an average number of 12 different types of discourse markers while each Persian researcher has used an average number of 10 discourse markers in his/her research papers. Next table depicts distribution of markers, used in the two groups of papers, among different discourse marker sub-classes.

TABLE V.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE IMPLEMENTED MARKERS AMONG DIFFERENT SUB-CLASSES OF DISCOURSE MARKERS

Sub-class of Discourse markers	By Persian Researchers		By English-speaking Researchers	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Contrastive	157	22.27	211	24.22
Elaborative	438	62.13	509	58.44
Inferential	74	10.50	111	12.74
Reason	34	4.82	36	4.13
Topic-relating	2	0.028	4	0.46
total	705	100	871	100

Although discourse markers have been more extensively used in papers written by English-speaking researchers, the two groups of papers have been almost similar in terms of the percentage of discourse markers in different sub-classes. Elaborative markers have been the most frequently used markers by both Persian researcher (62.13%) and English researchers (58.44). Contrastive markers with 22.27% of occurrence in papers of Persian researchers and 24% of occurrence in papers of English researchers have been the second most frequent discourse markers. The third most frequent discourse markers with 10.50% of occurrence in papers of Persian researchers and 12.74% of occurrence in papers of English researchers have belonged to the sub-class of inferential markers. Then reason (with 4.82% of occurrence in papers of Persian researchers and 4.13% of occurrence in papers of English researchers) and Topic-relating markers (with .028% of occurrence in papers of Persian researchers and 0.46% of occurrence in papers of English researchers) have been the least frequent discourse markers. Obviously, topic-relating markers enumerated by Fraser (1999) are mostly informal and perhaps this is why they have been less frequently used than the other markers. Again, one can see that there is no significant difference among the two groups of papers in terms of distribution of discourse markers among different sub-classes. The following table depicts distribution of discourse markers among different sections of papers.

TABLE VI.
DISTRIBUTION OF DISCOURSE MARKERS AMONG DIFFERENT SUB-CLASSES OF DISCOURSE MARKERS

Sections of Papers	By Persian Researchers		By English-speaking researchers	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Abstract	47	6.66	58	6.66
Introduction	139	19.72	178	20.44
Materials and Methods	139	19.72	155	17.79
Results	59	8.37	105	12.05
Discussion	305	43.26	353	40.53
Conclusion	16	2.27	22	2.52
Total	705	100	871	100

Interestingly, a look through Table VI reveals that the Abstract sections in both groups of papers have contained only 6.66% of all the discourse markers. The Introduction and Materials and Methods sections in papers produced by Persian researchers contained 19.72% of their implemented discourse markers while the Introduction and Materials and Methods sections in papers written by English researchers contained 20.44% and 17.79% of all the discourse markers in them. The percentages of occurrence of discourse markers in the Results section of papers produced by Persian and English dentistry researchers were 8.37% and 12.05%, respectively. The discussion section in the both groups had the largest number of discourse markers (43.26% of occurrence in papers written by Persia researchers and 40.53% of occurrence in papers produced by English researchers). Finally, the Conclusion sections in both groups of articles had the smallest number of discourse markers (2.27% and 2.52% of occurrence in papers written by Persian and English

researchers, respectively). Therefore again no significant difference was observed among the two groups of researchers in the implementation of discourse markers in different sections of their papers. Table VII depicts the frequency and percentage of each of the implemented discourse markers in the two groups of papers.

TABLE VII.
THE FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF INDIVIDUAL DISCOURSE MARKERS USED IN THE PAPERS

No.	Persian			English		
	Markers	Frequency	Percentage	Markers	Frequency	Percentage
1.	and	288	40.85	and	338	38.80
2.	also	85	12.06	however	96	11.02
3.	but	53	7.51	also	71	8.18
4.	however	44	6.24	therefore	48	5.51
5.	although	29	4.11	although	47	5.40
6.	Such as	29	4.11	but	35	4.02
7.	because	22	3.12	Such as	30	3.44
8.	so	22	3.12	Because	25	2.87
9.	therefore	20	2.84	in addition	25	2.87
10.	whereas	14	1.98	so	14	1.61
11.	since	12	1.70	then	14	1.61
12.	thus	11	1.56	thus	14	1.61
13.	on the other hand	8	1.13	furthermore	12	1.38
14.	too	8	1.13	hence	12	1.38
15.	in addition	6	0.85	since	11	1.26
16.	furthermore	5	0.71	for example	9	1.03
17.	of course	5	0.71	whereas	8	0.92
18.	consequently	4	0.57	or	6	0.69
19.	in contrast	4	0.57	though	6	0.69
20.	moreover	4	0.57	in particular	5	0.57
21.	it can be concluded that	3	0.42	instead	5	0.57
22.	nevertheless	3	0.42	nevertheless	4	0.46
23.	similarly	3	0.42	similarly	4	0.46
24.	as a result	2	0.42	with regard to	4	0.46
25.	for example	2	0.42	moreover	3	0.34
26.	hence	2	0.42	on the other hand	3	0.34
27.	or	2	0.42	still	3	0.34
28.	that is	2	0.42	as a result	2	0.23
29.	then	2	0.42	consequently	2	0.23
30.	accordingly	1	0.14	in conclusion	2	0.23
31.	because of	1	0.14	in contrast	2	0.23
32.	by the way	1	0.14	namely	2	0.23
33.	for instance	1	0.14	as a consequence	1	0.11
34.	in conclusion	1	0.14	conversely	1	0.11
35.	in this case	1	0.14	for this reason	1	0.11
36.	likewise	1	0.14	in comparison	1	0.11
37.	namely	1	0.14	in this case	1	0.11
38.	still	1	0.14	it can be concluded that	1	0.11
39.	though	1	0.14	likewise	1	0.11
40.	With regard to	1	0.14	of course	1	0.11
41.	otherwise	1	0.11
Total	40	705	100	41	871	100

The above table shows discourse markers used by Persian and English researchers in their order of frequency. In cases when two or more discourse markers have had the same frequency numbers, they have been arranged alphabetically. It can be seen that 'and' has been the most frequent discourse markers in both groups of papers (40.85% and 38.80% of occurrence in papers by Persian and English researchers, respectively). The next most frequent discourse markers in the both groups have been also, however, but, therefore, such as, and although. One can also see the frequency and percentage of other discourse markers in the table.

With regard to the aforementioned findings, and with regard to the fact that lack of cohesion and coherence in the dentistry papers prepared by Persian researchers evoked the present researchers to conduct this study and find the probable reasons for it, the following question may arise:

If there is not any noticeable difference between the range of discourse markers in the dentistry papers of Persian and English researchers and if the distribution of discourse markers among different sections of papers and among different sub-classes of markers are almost equal, what could be the main causes for lack of coherence in the academic papers produced by Persian dentistry researchers?

Perhaps one can mention the first finding of this study to provide an answer for this question. As it was stated before, Persian dentistry researchers have underused English discourse markers in their papers. Discourse markers are like chains that connect messages and ideas in a text and it is obvious that the absence of them in a text leads to lack of coherence and miscomprehension.

Some of the problems in the application of discourse markers by Persian authors have been enumerated in the following sections. But before illuminating on these problems, it should be mentioned that the asterisk mark (*) next to the following sentences indicates that they are structurally wrong.

A. Underuse of Discourse Markers

a) In Group II patients, functional domains improved highly significantly 6 month after surgery, however psychological domain showed gradual improvement, large changes in psychological domain happened 2 years after surgery*.

There is only one discourse marker in sentence (a). However, the author could benefit from other discourse markers such as 'and', to make the sentence more comprehensible. As the present researchers observed, underuse of discourse markers often made sentences longer and less comprehensible.

In one case, the underuse of a suitable discourse marker had led to the creation of a semantically ill-formed statement:

b) It is in contrast with Group II patients who showed significant improvement*

The above statement has not followed the principle of subcategorisation. "The essential principle of subcategorisation is that items are subcategorized with respect to any idiosyncratic (i.e. not predictable from some general rule or principle) complements which they do or do not permit" (Radford, 1988). The phrase 'it is in contrast with' in sentence (b) does not allow the insertion of a word with feature (+animate) after it. If the author had replaced this phrase by the contrastive marker 'in contrast' + a comma (,), sentence (b) were correct and no miscomprehension occurred.

The second cause for the lack of coherence in Persian researchers' papers might be due to the misuse of or other problems in the application of discourse markers in them. So far, many EFL researchers have reported that discourse markers have been misused by participants in their studies (e.g. Assadi Aidinlou & Shahrokhi mehr, 2012; Rahimi, 2011; Rezvani Kalajahi, Abdullah, & Baki, 2012; Zhang, as cited in Lahuerta Martínez, 2004). In this study too, while analyzing the data, the researchers found that Persian authors sometimes either misused discourse markers or had some other problems in their implementation.

B. Improper Position of Discourse Markers within the Texts

Sentence (c) includes an elaborative discourse marker which has been inserted in a wrong position.

c) Enamel damages are permanent *such as* enamel cracks, and fractures.*

In order for sentence (c) to be structurally correct, the discourse marker 'such as' should be inserted after the phrase 'enamel damages'.

C. Discourse Markers with No Punctuation

Some of the authors had used discourse markers either with wrong punctuations or with no punctuation at all. However, punctuation markers along with lexical markers, and graphical markers "are three distinct but interdependent systems available in written natural language texts for indicating the structure of discourse [and they] do play an important role in indicating structural relations in written discourse" (Dale, 19991, P. 13). Example (d) can shed light on this issue.

d) Furthermore the patients were divided into 3 distinct categories based on* ...

Sentence (d) needs a comma (,) after 'furthermore' to be structurally acceptable.

D. Wrong Selection of a Word or Phrase Instead of a Discourse Marker

e) According to face height index, group I consisted of 13 Long and 7 short face patients*.

In order to modify sentence (e), the topic-relating marker 'with regard to' should be used instead of the phrase 'according to'.

E. Simultaneous Use of Two Incompatible Discourse Markers

f) Although triamcinolone acetonide is less potent, but it has therapeutic effects on the lesions.*

One must omit either 'although' or 'but' to make the above sentence correct. The error can be caused through transfer from Persian language to English language. Yarmohammadi and Rashidi (2009) described the problem as "confusion with subordinator and conjunctions" (p.12) and stated that "in English we use either the subordinator 'although', or the conjunction 'but', but never both ... [however,] it is standard to use both subordinator 'and conjunction [in the same statement]. (pp. 12-13).

F. Use of Informal Discourse Markers

g) By the way, the photos to be analyzed must be in good quality*...

According to Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (2010) 'by the way' is an informal expression which is "used to introduce a comment or question that is not directly related to what you what you have been talking about" (p. 1742). Therefore, the expression should be replaced with another suitable expression to make the sentence correct.

G. Wrong Selection of Discourse Markers

h) In spite our attempts, we could not find any research about it.*

For sentence (h) to be acceptable, the grammatically incorrect phrase 'in spite' should be replaced by 'despite' or the word 'of' should be added to the end of it.

It is obvious that all of these problems can affect the coherence, naturalness and appropriateness of an academic written discourse and lead to miscomprehension. Finally it should be stated that, as Basturkmen (2002) has claimed macro patterns and clause relation- the underlying structures that different texts and text types have in common- are also responsible for creating a coherent text. Therefore, the presence of discourse markers in a given text is not the only necessary condition for making it coherent.

V. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study revealed that the overall number of discourse markers in the dentistry papers produced by Persian researchers was fewer than that in the dentistry papers produced by English-speaking researchers. This is unlike the findings of Lahuerta Mart ínez (2002) who reported that Spanish native speakers used discourse markers appropriately and extensively in both English and Spanish.

Moreover, it was revealed that there was no significant difference among Persian and English-speaking dentistry researchers in terms of the range of discourse markers used in their works. Again, this is in disagreement with the findings of the Lahuerta Mart ínez (2002) who stated that more variety was observed in the use of discourse markers in Spanish papers, as compared to English papers. Based on the other findings of this study, distribution of markers among different sections of papers and also among different sub-classes of discourse markers was almost similar in the two groups of papers.

Finally, it was found that Persian dentistry researchers have underused English discourse markers in their papers. This has led to the creation of semantically ill-formed and long sentences which in turn have caused lack of coherence and miscomprehension. Some other problems in the application of discourse markers included simultaneous use of incompatible discourse markers, use of informal discourse markers, and wrong selection of discourse markers.

Overall, based on the findings of this study, Persian dentistry researchers know different types of discourse markers. However, they are not able to accurately implement them in their works and need to be instructed in this regard.

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Traditional Chinese Conception of Students: A Conceptual Metaphorical Perspective

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Abstract—Education has been a vital human activity through which cultures are transmitted and human development is gained. Students are the object of education and play an irreplaceable role in this activity. How they are conceptualized or treated is a matter of whether education can be successful or not. Based on perceptual similarity, conceptual metaphor about students can reveal educators' attitudes toward students. This paper will be devoted to the conception of students in Chinese tradition from the perspective of conceptual metaphors. Five major conceptual metaphors in Chinese Classics: STUDENTS ARE WOOD, STUDENTS ARE WATER, STUDENTS ARE METAL, STUDENTS ARE JADE and STUDENTS ARE EARTH, will be examined. Chinese cultural specificity revealed and particular traditional Chinese educational concepts conveyed by these conceptual metaphors will also be presented in the process of investigation.

Index Terms—education, conceptual metaphor, conceptual metaphors about students, Chinese tradition

I. INTRODUCTION

Studies on metaphor can be traced back to as far as two thousand years ago, at the age of Aristotle. For quite a long historical period, metaphors have been conceived as a linguistics phenomenon. They have been investigated as comparison, substitution and interaction between two similar entities or concepts. However, Lakoff and Johnson ushered in a new era of metaphorical studies after their publication of *Metaphors We Live By* in 1980. They (1980) maintain that metaphors are more cognitive phenomenon than merely linguistic one which underlies their Conceptual Metaphor Theory. Conceptual metaphors, instantiated by linguistic metaphors, are mappings between two conceptual domains. They reveal how the world or embodied experience is perceived and conceptualized.

Education is of great significance to human because it is closely related to their cultural transmission and development. Teachers and students are two most important participants in education activity. How teachers teach and students learn and their attitudes towards each other determine whether education is efficient and successful or not. Such teaching and learning attitudes can be reflected by metaphors in education or education metaphor.

Education metaphor refers to metaphors employed in educational contexts, including metaphors about teachers, students, teaching, learning, school, institutes, and colleges, education per se, etc. Previous researches (e.g. Gao, 2014; Li, 2011; Zhao & Zhou, 2008; Wei, 2006; Chen, 2001) on education metaphors in Chinese educational context have been mainly focused on linguistic metaphors or metaphors as a linguistic phenomenon though there are studies (e.g. Jin & Cotazzi, 2008) from conceptual metaphorical perspective. In addition, these researches have been mainly directed at metaphors about teachers, teaching, learning, etc. in Chinese contemporary educational background which has been greatly influenced by western educational concepts. Little attention has been paid to students in educational metaphorical studies. Neither is there any focus on conceptions of students in Chinese traditional educational background.

Traditional Chinese education has undeniably witnessed great boom and cultivated many great thinkers like Lao-Tzu, Confucius, and Mencius and so on though there are limitations within it. How are students conceptualized or treated in this educational system? We will answer this question by examining metaphors about students in Chinese classics from the perspective of Conceptual Metaphor Theory.

This paper is divided into four parts. The first part is a brief introduction of researches on conceptual metaphors and education metaphors. The second and third parts are the focus of the paper. Five major conceptual metaphors about students in Chinese classics, STUDENTS ARE WOOD, STUDENTS ARE WATER, STUDENTS ARE METAL, STUDENTS ARE JADE and STUDENTS ARE EARTH will be examined in the second part. The third part is devoted to the discussion of traditional educational concepts conveyed by those conceptual metaphors. Finally, conclusions of the paper will be given.

II. CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS ABOUT STUDENTS IN CHINESE TRADITION

Students are the objects of education and one of the most important and indispensable participants in this activity.

What roles students play in educational activities or how to treat students not only reveals teachers' attitudes toward students but also determines whether an activity of education can be successful or not. Conceptual metaphor, reflecting our particular ways of conceiving and conceptualizing the world, both internal and external, is quite revealing in how students are construed in the activity of education.

With a long history of education, even before the age of Confucius, traditional Chinese education has witnessed great prosperity and cultivated great minds such as Lao-Tzu, Confucius, and Mencius and so on. How are students orientated in traditional Chinese education? Through our investigation on Chinese classics, five major conceptual metaphors about students including STUDENTS ARE WOOD, STUDENTS ARE WATER, STUDENTS ARE METAL, STUDENTS ARE JADE and STUDENTS ARE EARTH will offer a glimpse of this question.

A. *Students Are Wood*

As one element in Wu Xing (the Five Elements: Water, Wood, Earth, Fire and Metal), wood which refers to a general concept similar to the notion of plant, acting as a cover term for tree, flower, grass, etc., is assigned with not only importance of daily life but also cultural significance in traditional Chinese culture. Metaphorical usage of the concept WOOD as the source domain to interpret various concepts in other domains permeates traditional Chinese literary works. The concept STUDENTS in the conceptual domain of EDUCATION can also be construed in terms of WOOD, which gives rise to the conceptual metaphor: STUDENTS ARE WOOD. Thus, the following linguistic expressions which instantiate this conceptual metaphor are readily available in Chinese classics.

(1) 蓬生麻中，不扶自直。（《荀子》 劝学）

“Raspberry vines growing among hemp plants are not staked, yet they grow up straight.” (Knoblock, 1988, p.135)

(2) 大抵童子之情，乐嬉游而惮拘检，如草木之始萌芽，舒畅之则条达，摧挠之则衰痿。（《阳明传习录》 训蒙大意示教读刘伯颂等）

“Generally speaking, children enjoy romping and are afraid of being constrained just like trees and grass. When growing unrestrainedly, they will thrive quickly but once restricted they will soon wither.”

In the above examples, students are metaphorically construed in terms of raspberry vines, trees and grass, and the living environment of raspberry vines and natural growth of trees and grass in the conceptual domain of WOOD are respectively mapped onto educational environment and cultivation of students in the domain of EDUCATION. Through these metaphors, Xunzi emphasizes that educational environment or rather education itself plays a vital role in the cultivation of students while Wang propose that teachers should follow the nature or interests of students in the process of teaching.

(3) 宰予昼寝。子曰：朽木不可雕也，粪土之墙不可朽也；于予与何诛？（《论语》 公冶长篇）

“Zai Yu was in bed in the daytime. The Master said, ‘A piece of rotten wood cannot be carved, nor can a wall of dried dung be trowelled. As far as Yu is concerned what is the point in condemning him?’” (Yang & Liu, 2008, p.71)

(4) 故枸木必将待巢括、熏、矫然后直……今人之性恶，必将待师法然后正，得礼义然后治。（《荀子》 性恶）

“Thus, a warped piece of wood must first await application of the pressframe, steam to soften it, and force to bend its shape before it can be straight...Now, since human nature is evil, it must await the instructions of a teacher and the model before it can be put aright, and must obtain ritual principles and a sense of moral right before it can become orderly.” (Knoblock, 1994, p.151)

The conceptual metaphor STUDENTS ARE WOOD is further elaborated by example (3) and (4). In these examples, the concept TIMBER is exploited to interpret students. Accordingly, the role carpenter or artist and the activity carving or processing of timber are metaphorically mapped onto teacher and education. These metaphors highlight that students' shortcomings should be the target of education and the task is to wipe them out.

B. *Students Are Water*

Water, another element in Wu Xing, is also an important cultural and philosophical image in Chinese tradition, which is even thought to be near to what Lao Tzu calls Tao in his philosophical system. Meanwhile, the image of water is equally important to Confucianism. For example, both Confucius and Mencius tend to resort to WATER when they explain other concepts or experience during their teaching. Mencius even compares students to water, as is shown in (5). He maintains that students are not born with bad habits as is the same with the movement of water which is not the nature of it but external force makes it so, which reflects his philosophical tenet that human beings are good by nature. Underlying such a linguistic metaphor is the conception that STUDENTS ARE WATER, which can be further elaborated by (6).

(1) 今夫水，搏而跃之，可使过颡；激而行之，可使在山。是岂水之性哉？其势则然也。人之可使为不善，其性亦犹是也。（《孟子》 告子上）

“Now by striking water, and causing it to leap up, you may make it go over your forehead; and by damming and leading it, you may make it go up a hill; but are [such movements according to] the nature of water. It is the force applied which causes them. In the case of a man's being made to do what is not good, his nature is dealt with in this way.” (Legge, 1875, p.178)

(2) 然学者不能自信，见夫标末之盛者便自荒忙，舍其涓涓而趋之。（《象山语录》 傅子云季鲁录）

“However, unlike the spring water, learners are not confident enough. So they are flurried when seeing the long way they have to go and give up their struggle for the goal.”

In (6), students' following a path is interpreted as the streaming of spring water, and their struggle for their goals is conceived as the non-stop flowing of water. Without constant flowing, a brook will never run into the sea. Comparably, students cannot achieve their goals unless they are willing to make continuous efforts. Lu indicates from this metaphor that students should never cease their efforts towards their aims.

C. *Students Are Metal*

Metal is also an element in Wu Xing. It plays an important role in people's daily life because their living utensils and sacrificial vessels are mainly made of this material. But what is more important is that it is vital to safety of a country in ancient China, especially at the age of war for most of the weapons in ancient times are forged by metal. Therefore, forging is not only essential to the people but also to the country. And such a concept is brought into education, giving rise to the conceptual metaphor STUDENTS ARE METAL. In relation to this conceptual metaphor are conceptual metaphors including TEACHERS ARE CRAFTSMEN, TEACHING IS FORGING, TEACHING IS POLISHING, STUDENTS ARE PRODUCTS, LEARNING IS POLISHING, etc.

(1) 善待问者如撞钟，叩之以小者则小鸣，叩之以大者则大鸣，待其从容，然后尽其声。（《礼记》学记）

“The master, who skillfully waits to be questioned, may be compared to a bell when it is struck. Struck with a small hammer, it gives a small sound. Struck with a great one, it gives a great sound.” (Legge, 1885, p.89)

(2) 木受绳则直，金就砺则利，君子博学而日参省乎己，则知明而行无过矣。（《荀子》劝学）

“So, too, wood that has been marked with the plumbline will be straight and metal that has been put to the whetstone will be sharp. In broadening his learning, the gentleman each day examines himself so that his awareness will be discerning and his actions without excess.” (Knoblock, 1988, p.135)

Examples (7) and (8) represent different derivative metaphors from STUDENTS ARE METAL, with (7) instantiating STUDENTS ARE PRODUCTS and (8) elaborating LEARNING IS POLISHING. In (7), the master is the one who strikes a bell and the student is the bell struck, while in (8), the student is the sword being whetted and the process of learning is the process of whetting. What these metaphors convey is that students can only be improved by learning and their bad habits or weakness can be got rid of through education.

D. *Students Are Jade*

In Chinese tradition, jade is also given specific cultural importance. It is thought to be auspicious and can bring good fortune to its owner in the eye of Chinese people. As artifacts, jade is often mined from mineral and carefully cut and polished by lapidaries. This process whereby a gem in the stone is continuously refined and polished and finally made into a delicate jade accouterment is conceived to be experientially similar to the process of education in which an innocent child gradually becomes wise through patient cultivation, which motivates the conceptual metaphor STUDENTS ARE JADE. Conceptual metaphors relating to this one include TEACHERS ARE LAPIDARIES, TEACHING IS CUTTING AND POLISHING, STUDENTS ARE PRODUCTS, etc.

(1) 玉不琢不成器，人不学不知道。（《礼记》学记）

“The jade uncut will not form a vessel for use; and if men do not learn, they do not know the way (in which they should go).” (Legge, 1885, p.82)

(2) 今有璞玉于此，虽万镒，必使玉人雕琢之。（《孟子》梁惠王）

“Here now you have a gem in the stone. Although it be worth 240,000 [taels], you will surely employ your chief lapidary to cut and polish it.” (Legge, 1875, p.108)

The above examples are elaborations of STUDENTS ARE JADE. In these metaphors, the role of lapidaries and jade are respectively mapped onto TEACHER and STUDENTS in the conceptual domain of EDUCATION, and teaching is construed as the refining and polishing of jade. These metaphors also stress that students should be educated so that they can be useful gifts of the society and the country.

E. *Students Are Earth*

Being another element of Wu Xing, earth, too, conveys profound cultural significance in Chinese tradition, which can be readily reflected by Chinese traditional porcelain culture. Similar to metal and jade, earth can be exploited and fired into exquisite porcelains and other artifacts. Therefore, just like STUDENTS ARE METAL and STUDENTS ARE JADE, the conceptual metaphor STUDENTS ARE EARTH arises from the same motivation. In alignment with this metaphor, there are conceptual metaphors TEACHERS ARE CRAFTSMEN, STUDENTS ARE PRODUCTS, TEACHING IS FIRING, etc.

(1) 陶人埴埴而为器，然则器生于工人之伪，非故生于人之性也。（《荀子》性恶）

“The potter molds clay to make an earthenware dish, but how could the dish be regarded as part of the potter's inborn nature?” (Knoblock, 1994, p.157)

This is an example which realizes STUDENTS ARE EARTH. In this metaphor, the process of education in which a child is taught by a teacher from innocence to erudition is construed by the process whereby porcelains are created by craftsmen from earth.

In addition to those major conceptual metaphors discussed above, there are also some other metaphors about students in Chinese classics, such as STUDENTS ARE SAND (白沙在涅，与之俱黑。“Diligence is the path to the mountain of knowledge, hard-working is the boat to the endless sea of learning.”), STUDENTS ARE PILOT (书山有路勤为径，学海无涯苦作舟。“Diligence is the path to the mountain of knowledge, hard-working is the boat to the endless sea of learning.”), STUDENTS ARE TRAVELLER (路漫漫其修远兮，吾将上下而求索。“The way to get profound knowledge and grand morality is so far that I will search them from the paradise to the hell wholeheartedly.”), etc.

Though it is a universal principle that we tend to resort to cognized experience when construing new ones, that is, conceptual metaphor is a universal cognitive device, conceptual metaphors do reveal certain degree of cultural specificity. Consequently, conceptual metaphors about students in Chinese tradition offer a glimpse of some specific Chinese cultural phenomena. As has been examined, STUDENTS in the conceptual domain is mainly construed by WOOD, WATER, METAL, JADE and EARTH in Chinese classics. The reason may lie in the fact that wood, water, metal, earth in Wu Xing and jade are culturally salient in ancient China and attributed with profound cultural connotations.

III. TRADITIONAL CHINESE EDUCATIONAL CONCEPTS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE

What conceptual metaphors about students in Chinese tradition convey are not only teachers' attitudes toward students and cultural specificity, but also particular concepts of education in ancient China. These concepts may be of considerable significance to contemporary education.

A. Educational Concepts

As has been mentioned, wood, water, metal, earth in Wu Xing and jade are favored as the source domain to construe students in Chinese classics while fire has failed to operate in such mappings even though it is also an indispensable element in Wu Xing. The reason is perhaps that the other four elements, wood, water, metal and earth are malleable, as is the same with jade, while fire is not. In this sense, traditional Chinese educational concepts hold that students are malleable and education is aimed at shaping them.

However, as far as how to shape the students is concerned, two diverging perspectives arise. One claims that radical changes are necessary while the other one, contrary to the former, proposes that no change is needed. Here, by “change”, it is meant whether it is necessary to the nature of a student or not. The most representative figures of the two schools are Mencius and Xunzi respectively.

According to Mencius, human are born good and what makes them different is their living environment. Therefore, what educators are supposed to do is to follow students' nature and create favorable studying environment for them. Then education is directed at preserving students' nature and shaping and improving them on the basis of their own goodness. Such a process has been metaphorically interpreted as following the natural direction of water and natural growth of plants as are manifested in examples (1), (2), (5), etc.

On the contrary to Mencius, Xunzi declares that human are evil in nature and such evilness has to be removed through external force or education so that they can be good. Consequently, educators should fix their attention on eliminating students' evilness in nature and lead them to a right course. Therefore education should be committed to reshaping the nature of students and inculcating them with goodness, which is perceptually similar to carving jade and wood, making porcelains and molding and polishing metal, etc., as is shown in examples (3), (4), (8), (9), (11), etc.

In conclusion, shaping, whether to change students' nature or not, has been an important concept in traditional Chinese education. As a result, educators' responsibility for students has been over-emphasized while students' autonomy and initiative have been neglected.

B. Significance

Though traditional Chinese educational concepts conveyed by conceptual metaphor about students may appear to be outdated and incompatible with contemporary education, they are heuristic and of considerable significance to present education.

Firstly, insights in traditional educational concepts should be carried on to serve contemporary education and appropriate adjustments should be made accordingly. Holistic education has been the focus of contemporary education. It is student-oriented and beneficial to a healthy and holistic development of students. To this end, on the one hand, educators should do as what their predecessors have done in ancient time and follow students' nature or interests. But this is not enough. Students, on the other hand, should not be treated as “malleable materials”. Instead, they should be given “life” of their own; or rather, they should be given more autonomy and initiatives.

Secondly, lessons can be from where traditional education has failed. Under the guidance of traditional educational concepts, students have been totally constrained, and their studies have been mainly confined in the studies of classics which they are not supposed to defy. As a consequence, they are good students in the sense that they follow their teachers strictly and obediently without any sense of innovation. However, in response to contemporary educational concepts, those constraints should be dislodged and students should be empowered with more freedom. Meanwhile, they should be encouraged to take their own initiatives and be more open-minded, and most importantly more critical and innovative.

It will be surely of great help to contemporary education if we are wise enough to absorb what is good in traditional educational concepts and discard what is not.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Aimed at the conception of students in Chinese tradition from the perspective of conceptual metaphors, this paper has attempted to conduct an investigation on five major conceptual metaphors employed in Chinese classics: STUDENTS ARE WOOD, STUDENTS ARE WATER, STUDENTS ARE METAL, STUDENTS ARE JADE and STUDENTS ARE EARTH. Though these metaphors are only the tip of the iceberg of traditional Chinese culture, they reveal certain Chinese cultural specific conceptions of students. In detail, WOOD, WATER, METAL, EARTH, JADE are culturally salient concepts, resulting in their high frequency in conceptual metaphors about students in Chinese classics. In addition, particular concepts of education in ancient China are also conveyed in these metaphors. As has been elucidated, traditional Chinese education has imposed great responsibility on educators and interfered with students' autonomy and initiative. Nonetheless, following the nature or interests by some great thinkers has been advocated, which is what has been the tenet of contemporary education. Lessons should be drawn from traditional education. Meanwhile, its insights should also be carried forward to serve current education.

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Cohesion in Munajat Namih by the Saint of Harat

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Abstract—Today, Linguistic researches on literature play an important role in studying each language. Linguistic analysis of literature has interested critics to give a better knowledge of literary texts and their stylistic features via different linguistic approaches. This paper aims at investigating textual cohesion in “*Munajat Namih*” by *Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari*, the poet and mystic in ninth and tenth century, based on Halliday and Hasan (1985,1976). Having selected 30 cases of Munajats¹ from *Munajat Namih* to discover cohesive devices, we have calculated the frequency of their functions and concluded that the most basic cohesive devices in it are personal pronouns. Repetition of the same word is ranked in the second place, and additives are ranked in a third place. Furthermore, collocation and verbal ellipsis are from among important cohesive devices in *Munajat Namih*. In fact, because of its being a poetic and mystic prose, the cohesive devices had been used in the form mentioned.

Index Terms—text linguistics, textual cohesion, cohesive devices, poetic prose

I. INTRODUCTION

Today, linguistics is not a mere study of language, but together with other sciences, some interdisciplinary fields have appeared. As a result, linguistic studies of literature, including poetry and prose, fall within domains of Discourse Analysis, which is in connection with subjects such as stylistics and literary criticism. Henceforth, such an approach brings about an efficient pattern for analyzing text structure and stylistic features. There is no doubt in the importance of works by *Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari*, the mystic and orator of 10th and 11th century A.D. His writings are very eloquent in Persian Literature. Praying to God, he expresses his thoughts and feelings within this book in a so beautiful poetic and rhythmic prose that we confront a unique simple and sweet oration. From a linguistic point of view, each of *Munajats* – as a text – is the result of using cohesive devices skillfully; in other words, the function of grammatical devices, lexical selection, and the method of creating ties between these elements within this work are in a special and innovative style and variety. In this paper, we are going to investigate cohesive devices within *Munajat Namih* based on the pattern proposed by Halliday and Hassan (1976). This pattern is used as a scientific tool in studying features of Persian language and literature. Special to Persian language, poetic prose as a kind of literary prose is musical from formal point of view and it is cohesive from textual point of view. Now that no researches have been performed about this precious literary work, it deserves an investigation to introduce more and more the prominent and unique features of it. In this paper, we are trying to answer the following questions:

- 1-What is the most frequent grammatical device compared to other grammatical devices used in *Munajat Namih*?
- 2-What is the most frequent lexical device compared to other lexical devices?
- 3-Why are some cohesive devices used frequently in *Munajat Namih*?

A. Review of Literature

There have been performed extensive researches on textual cohesion in Persian language and literature, most of which have been within the framework suggested by Halliday and Hassan; Yar Mohammadi (1995) has compared textual cohesion in English and Persian political texts, and has determined the frequency of each cohesive device. This is one of the first papers written, which has introduced the theories of Halliday and Hassan (1976) and Halliday (1985). Taki (1999) has explained the importance of cohesion and coherence in comprehending and interpreting texts. She has indicated how coherence is created via presence of cohesive devices. Although coherence appears as a result of schemas or our background knowledge concerning conditions outside the context such as natural phenomena or social and cultural conventions, coherence and cohesion are two necessary conditions of comprehending a text. Another research is the one by Sha'abanlu, Malek Sabet and Jalali(2008), in which cohesive devices in a long poem by Am'agh Bokhara'ei is being investigated based on Halliday and Hassan (1976). He has concluded that Bokhara'ei has consecutively used personal reference, conjunctions, ellipsis, adversative reference and substitution. Ya Haghi and Fallahi (2010) have compared textual cohesion in sonnets by Sa'di and Bidel Dehlavi. They have indicated features of the two literary styles. Pour Namdarian and Ishani (2010) have a new look upon coherence and cohesion within a sonnet by Hafez on the basis of the evolved version of this theory in Halliday and Hassan (1985). Ahmadi and Ostvari

1 - literally means 'hymn'

(2011) have compared the two prose writing styles – Khorasani and Iraqi – from the point of view of similarities and differences between their uses of cohesive devices. Therefore, they have selected examples of Khorasani style – some stories from the Beyhaghi History – and Iraqi style – some stories from Panchatantra translated into Persian under the name “Kelileh va Demne”; then these are compared in case of textual cohesion as a means to comprehending differences between the styles mentioned.

B. Theoretical Framework

A brief look at the history of linguistic studies shows that linguists have changed their views about how to study and analyze language. Traditional views of modern linguistics have not only focused merely on sentences, but also have ignored units larger than sentences, texts. In fact, transformationalists such as Chomsky did set sentence as the unit of linguistic analysis (quote Agha Gol Zadeh and Afkhami, 2004 from De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981). During 1960s, systematic functional linguists such as Halliday based their studies upon ‘text’, so that text linguistics appeared as a field of linguistics to study and interpret meaning within a larger unit than words and sentences, i.e. texts. He considered two structural sections – firstly, theme and rheme; and secondly, information structure, new and old information – and a non-structural section – cohesion. Cohesion plays an important and basic role in shaping and organizing textual elements, and therefore it is one of the most important subjects of text linguistics. Halliday and Hassan (1976) have put forward a new and efficient approach by introduction of textual cohesive patterns. Textual patterns put forward by Halliday and Hassan (1976) had been innovative and efficient approaches in text linguistics and text analysis, so that they have been the basis of some linguistic theories and textual cohesive researches. Halliday and Hassan have defined texture as a feature, which differentiates text from non-text, and is a result of cohesive ties between sentences; they believe that texture comes to being as a result of cohesive ties between linguistic features within a text, leading to an integration in a text (1976, p.2). Additionally, cohesive relations between two elements within a text shape what is known as ‘cohesive ties’, through the concept of which it is possible to analyze a text to get a rough framework of its patterns and texture. A cohesive tie is a cohesive element as well as its background. Creating cohesive ties between two elements lead to cohesion within elements of a text. Schiffrin (1987) believes that cohesive ties indicate relations between textual elements, which help readers analyze and interpret texts in different ways. For instance, these ties enable readers create relations between components of a text, fill the gaps within it, and refer to somewhere within it. Halliday and Hassan consider cohesion a semantic concept, which highlights semantic relations within a text and introduces it as a text. Therefore, the analysis and interpretation of some elements within a text depend on analysis and interpretation of other elements. In other words, one element is a background for the other; this means that the former element is not effectively decoded, unless its background is available (1976, p.4). Textual cohesion provides relationships between two parts of a text and fixes it to help readers or hearers comprehend what is not mentioned directly in a text, but is important in interpreting a text. Hoey (1991, p.266) has defined cohesion as a textual feature, via which the grammatical and lexical features of a sentence is connected to other sentences within a text. Cook (1992) defines cohesive devices as formal relations between sentences and expressions. Like Halliday and Hassan, Cook and Butler (1985) believe that cohesion is a result of non-structural devices which help us create texts.

II. TEXTUAL COHESIVE DEVICES

Halliday and Hassan (1976) define cohesive ties as follows:

- 1) Grammatical: reference, substitution and ellipsis.
- 2) Conjunctive: additives, adversative, causal and temporal.
- 3) Lexical: repetition and collocation.

A. Grammatical Cohesive Devices

1. Reference

Halliday and Hassan consider reference as a relation between an element and its source. They (1976) classify references into two categories based on place of referents: exophora and endophora.

Exophora: In order to comprehend it, we need to refer to physical context. According to Halliday and Hassan (ibid, p.37) exophora is important in constructing text because it connects language to physical context, but it plays no role in creating relational cohesion between different parts of a text.

Endophora: is defined as a reference to an antecedent which is within text. Endophora are of two kinds:

Anaphora: It is a kind of reference which refers reader to its source within a previous text. This means that to find the antecedent we need to search for source within previous sentences in a text.

Cataphora: If the referential element comes before the antecedent. Therefore, to find the antecedent we need to search within following sentences. As a whole, endophora is classified into three parts based on Halliday and Hassan (1976):

Personal reference, demonstrative reference and comparative references.

- Personal reference

This occurs when we refer to a person within a text via using speech conditions. This means that the antecedent must be the category, person. Personal references are: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives (ibid, p.32).

Example: agh goft: 'Man sababe kam â âam, ešgh goft: na, man dar bande xi â âam'.

'I am the reason to perfection' said Wisdom. 'No, I am imprisoned within dreams' said Love. (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

- Demonstrative reference

These are possible via demonstrative pronouns and adjectives. Pour Namdarian (2005, p.57) has enumerated demonstrative references as demonstrative pronouns, demonstrative adjectives, adverbs of time (today, yesterday and ...), and adverbs of place (here, there).

Example: Bed ân ke xod âye ta' â âdar z âher ka'abe'ei banâ karde ke ou r â az sang va gel ast va dar b âten ka'abe'ei s âte ke az j ân va del ast. ân ka'abe s âxteye Ebr âhime khalil ast va in ka'abe ban âkardeye rabbe jalil ast. (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

Know that God Almighty has built a house called Kaabe which is apparently made of stone and mud, but spiritually it is a house built by life and soul. That house is built by hands of Abraham, and this house is built by God, the great.

-Comparative reference

Halliday and Hassan consider comparative reference as an indirect reference to the same or similar referential devices. Comparative reference includes comparative adjectives, adverbs and demonstratives.

Example: aghle xod r âbozorg mid ârad nazde man kam-tar ast az kam

(Shah Nemat-Ollah Vali)

Wisdom magnifies himself but for me is less than less

2. Substitution

Via using this cohesive device and element is substituted with another element within a text. The difference between substitution and reference is that substitution relates more to phrases, but reference is a semantic relation and it is different from ellipsis, because in ellipsis nothing is replaced with the omitted element, in other words, ellipsis is 'empty' substitution (Halliday and Hassan, 1976, p.88). They (1976) define three kinds of substitution, nominal, verbal and clausal.

-Nominal substitution

When a noun or a NP is substituted with another element.

Example: Hamegi tiri be suye ou and âtand. M âham bi darang yeki (vek tir) and âtim.

All fired arrows toward him. We promptly fired one (= one arrow).

-Verbal substitution

When a verb or a VP is substituted with another element.

Example: Ou x âter âte xube gozašte-ash r âbe y âl âvard. x âneye ghadimi r âham hamintor (=be y âl âvard).

He/she remembered his/her past memories. He/she remembered the old house as well.

-Clausal substitution

When a clause is substituted by another element.

Example: A: mix âhad b â ân beb ârad.

B: hamintor ast.

A: It is going to rain.

B: that's right.

3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis leads to brevity and prevention from repetition in texts. Halliday and Hassan know ellipsis as a kind of empty substitution, because one element is substituted by nothing; in other words, when an element is somehow discoverable through context, it is elided from the text. Lotfi por Sa'edi (1995, p.113) defines ellipsis as an element which is elided because of a previous mention of it within previous sentences in a text. This provides a more cohesive text. Halliday and Hassan (1976) have classified ellipsis into three categories: nominal, verbal and clausal.

-Nominal ellipsis

This is the NP ellipsis within a text.

Example: Abdoll ân mardi bud bi â âni, [Abdoll ân] miraft be talabe âbe zendeg âni, [Abdoll ân] n âg ân resid be Sheykh AbolHassan Khargh âni, ... (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

Abdollah was a man of deserts, [Abdollah] was going to find the water of life, all of a sudden he bumped into Sheikh Abol Hassan Kharghani, ...

-Verbal ellipsis

This is the ellipsis of VP within a text.

Example: dony âr âdust midari y âdošman [mid âri]? (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

Do you regard life as a friend or [you regard it as] an enemy?

-Clausal ellipsis

When an elided element is a clause.

Example: A: če kasi in soxan r âgofte ast?

B: yeki az bozorg ân (in soxan r âgofte ast).

A: Who is the author of this quotation?

B: One of important figures (is the author of this quotation).

We should bear in mind that this classification in Persian is of two kinds: Contextually discoverable ellipsis, interpretively discoverable ellipsis.

-Contextually discoverable ellipsis:

Sometimes it is possible to discover an elided expression via searching the previous sentences for it (Moein Aldini, 2003, p.310). In case of cohesion, there is presupposed element within text and this adds to the cohesion of the text.

-Interpretively discoverable ellipsis:

This ellipsis is discoverable via the whole concept of sentences and expressions, therefore the reader is able to discover an elided element via investigating register and the concept of sentences (ibid, p.311). This kind of ellipsis has no roles in cohesion.

B. Conjunctive Cohesive Devices

These devices indicate how a sentence connects to its previous one via creating special semantic relations. They (1976) have classified this kind of cohesion into four categories: additive, adversative, causal, temporal. Hatch (1992) and Salkie (1995) have introduced these four kinds of relations as conjunctive cohesive ties.

-Additives

In this kind of semantic cohesion, the latter sentence adds up a meaning to the former sentence. These devices are as follows: and, also, too, neither, or, as well, in addition to, however, furthermore, indeed, such as, consequently, in other words, either...or, both...and, neither...nor and so on.

Example: mohabat va mehnat do yâre dirine-and va bâham gharine-and va mehnat va bal â emteh ân ast va bar del va j ân ast. (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

Kindness and distress are long-time friends and are contrastive and distress is a test and should be passed by heart and soul.

-Adversative

Adversative is what is not expected. This semantic relation appears when the content of a sentence is against what previous sentences are conveying about the position of hearer or speaker. Adversative relations are: but, although, however, in contrast to, despite, in spite of, contrastively and so on.

Example: mi âne gerye mixandam ke çon šam'a andar in majles

Zab âne âšânam hast likan dar nemigirad. (Hafez)

Between my weeps, I laugh like a candle my fiery tongue exists but cannot be held.

-Causal

This semantic relation appears when there is a causal relationship between former and latter sentences. This means that the reason of a fact is given in a later sentence. Causal relations are as follows: therefore, so, as a consequence, as a result, so that, because, because of, consequently and so on.

Example: gheseye dust d âni ke çer âder âz ast? zir âke dust bini âz ast. (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

Do you know why the story of friendship is long remaining? Because friend is independent.

-Temporal

This relation appears when sentential events are consequently mentioned. Temporal relations are: after, after that, then, and then, before, before that, that moment, all of a sudden, suddenly, now and so on.

Example: baçeh âv ârede hay ât šodand. Sepas šoru'a be b âzi kardand.

Children went to the garden, and then started playing around.

C. Lexical Cohesion

According to Halliday and Hassan, lexical cohesion relates to lexical selection. Hoey (1991) believes that lexical cohesion is important in cohesion of a discourse, because attracts readers' attention toward main subjects. He believes that composition of different forms and lexical repetition leads to text creation and organization. Halliday and Hassan (1976) classify lexical cohesive devices into two categories: repetition and collocation.

1. Repetition

Repetition can be in one of the following forms:

-Repetition of the same word (Reiteration)

In this kind of repetition, the same word is repeated in the sentence.

Example: tohid ân ast ke ou r â veg âne d âni na ân ke veg âne x âni. (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

Monotheism is to believe that God is unique, not to call Him unique.

-synonymy

This is when two synonymous words are used.

Example: bok â'a, geristan ast dar k âre xiš, geristan ast bar y âre xiš. (Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari)

Weeping is crying over your behaviors, it is crying over your friend.

-General nouns

Nouns that are used wholly and generally: job, work, ...

Example: pedaram ket âb mix ânad va nevisandegi mikonad. Ou in k âh âr â dust d ârad.

My father reads books and writes. He loves these things.

-Hyponymy

Hyponyms are words and phrases which their meaning contain within the meaning of other word.

Example: zire b ârand deraxt ân ke ta'alogh d ârand

Ey xoš âsarv ke az b âre gham âz âd ast (Hafez)

Are under the burden, the fruitful trees

And good for pines that are of pains, free

-Antonymy

In their theory of cohesion, Halliday and Hassan (1985) consider antonymy as a part of lexical cohesion. In antonymy, a word that is the opposite of another word might be used.

Example: âs ân gir bar xod k âh â kaz ruye tab'a, saxt migirad jah ân bar mardom âne saxtgir. (Hafez)

take all your life easy, cause on base of inclination

takes difficult the world on bluenoses.

-Metonymy

Halliday and Hassan (1985) classified metonymy as a kind of lexical cohesion. This happens when there is a whole to part relation between two elements.

Example: d ârim omid ke az farre baxt

vasl šavand in do tan âvar deraxt

š âre far âzand va bar ârand sar

riše dav ânand be har bum va bar (Bahar)

By all fortune, I hope

These two trees get yoked

With tall branches on head

Extend their roots on foot

2. Collocation

Halliday and Hassan defines collocation as the tension of a word to be used in a lexical co-text (1976,p.286).

Exapmle: âtaš ân nist ke az šo'aleve ou xandad šam'a

âtaš ân ast ke dar xarmane parv âne zadand (Hafez)

Fire is not what candles laugh of blazing flames

Fire is what has burnt the piles of butterflies

III. DATA ANALYSIS

In this part of paper, we analyze the data collected. Our data have been collected from Munajat Namih by Khajeh Abd-Ollah Ansari, in which 30 verses (Munajats) are randomly chosen.

Generally, analysing the data, 672 cohesive ties were extracted. The statistical issues show that grammatical cohesive devices are placed in the first position – 291 ties and frequency 43.30% – lexical cohesive devices in the second position – 266 ties and frequency 39.60% – which are from among two of the most frequent cohesive ties. Conjunctive cohesive devices – 115 ties and frequency 17.11% is placed in the third position. These results are summarized in the following table:

TABLE (1).
FREQUENCY OF GRAMMATICAL, LEXICAL AND CONJUNCTIVE COHESIVE DEVICES

	Grammatical cohesive device	Lexical cohesive device	Conjunctive cohesive device
Number of ties	291	266	115
Frequency of ties	43.30%	39.60%	17.11%
Number of the whole ties	672		
Number of Munajats	30		

Kinds, number and frequency of ties are shown completely in the following tables:

TABLE (2).
FREQUENCY OF GRAMMATICAL, LEXICAL AND CONJUNCTIVE COHESIVE DEVICE (IN PERCENT)

Type of cohesive device		Number of ties	The relative frequency of ties	
grammatical	Referential	Personal pronouns(R1)	192	28.57%
		Demonstrative(R2)	30	4.46%
		Comparative(R3)	---	---
	substitution	Nominal(S1)	---	---
		Verbal(S2)	---	---
		Clausal(S3)	---	---
	ellipsis	Nominal(E1)	19	2.82%
Verbal(E2)		47	7%	
Clausal(E3)		3	0.45%	
lexical	Reiteration(L1)	110	16.37%	
	Synonymy(L2)	37	5.50%	
	Antonymy(L3)	44	6.55%	
	Hyponymy(L4)	---	---	
	Metonymy(L5)	11	1.63%	
	General nouns(L6)	2	0.30%	
	Collocation(L7)	62	9.22%	
Conjunctive	Additives(C1)	94	14%	
	adversative (C2)	3	0.45%	
	Causal(C3)	15	2.23%	
	Temporal(C4)	3	0.45%	

The bar graph of frequencies is shown in the following figure.

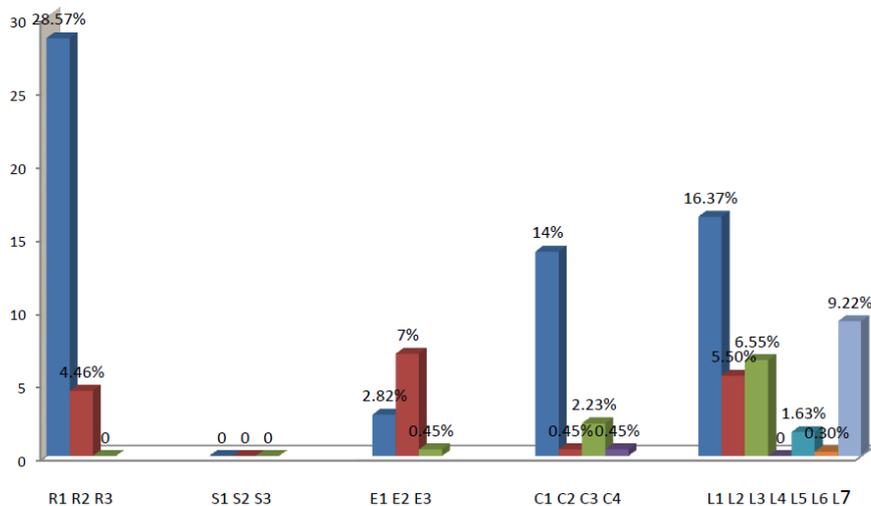


Diagram (1).Frequency of kinds of cohesive ties in Munajat Namih

According to statistical issues, each of cohesive devices was compared to the whole devices, from which personal references(personal pronouns) are the most frequent cohesive devices in Munajat Namih, 192 ties of 28.57%.Repetition of the same word is placed in the second position, 110 ties of 16.37%. Additives are placed in the third position, 94 ties of 14%. All of these create cohesion in the work by Khajih Abd-Ollah Ansari. Other frequent cohesive devices in his work are: collocations (62 ties, 9.22%), verbal ellipsis (47 ties, 7%), antonyms (44 ties, 6.55%), synonyms (37 ties, 5.50%) and demonstrative references (30 ties, 4.46%). Other cases are: nominal ellipsis (19 ties, 2.82%), causal conjunction (15 ties, 2.23%), metonymy (11 ties, 1.63%); for three cases of clausal ellipsis, adversative and temporal conjunctions were found the same results (3 ties, 0.45%) and for general nouns (2 ties, 0.30%). No cases of comparative references, hyponyms and substitutions were found.

Considerably, he had chosen one cohesive device from among each of grammatical, lexical and conjunctive cohesive devices and highlighted them within his text. Here, devices such as personal pronouns, repetition of the same word and additives are more frequent than other devices. What is observable in Munajat Namih is that personal pronouns are not only the most frequent grammatical cohesive devices, but also are the most frequent devices among all others. Two important grammatical cohesive devices, personal pronouns and verbal ellipsis, have created amazing and musical verses.

IV. CONCLUSION

Studying selected Munajats by Khajeh Abd-Ollah Ansari, we can conclude the following items:

1- Statistical results show that the most frequent cohesive tool in Munajat Namih is personal pronouns which are the most frequent cohesive devices. Most of cohesive personal pronouns are second person pronouns. The frequent use of second person pronouns is a feature of mystic proses (Gholamreza'ey, 2009, p.352). Munajats are what the speaker prays to his God, so God is the second person in these verses.

2- In Munajats both cases of contextually discoverable ellipsis and interpretively discoverable ellipsis were observed. The former is considered as a cohesive device, because of the existence of textual presupposition. Khajeh Abd-Ollah Ansari was able to give his text brevity via the use of both verbal ellipsis – with higher frequency – and nominal ellipsis – with lower frequency. He also has used his sentences in an interpretable and eloquent method; so that there is no difficulty in discovering elided elements. Moreover, he has not used clausal ellipsis.

3- Repetition of the same word with the highest frequency is ranked after the pronominal reference in the second position. He has used this in a very artistic method. In fact, he has created rhythmical and musical Munajats and beautiful poetic proses via using repetition. We can strongly mention that the most prominent feature of Munajats is its being poetic, which is brought about via repetition. At lexical level, Khajeh Abd-Ollah has used repetition of the last phrases of sentences and syntactic repetition to create cohesion. Other lexical cohesive devices are as follows: antonymy, collocation, synonymy and metonymy.

4- As it is expressed by Gholamreza'ey (ibid, p.253) one of the most important features of mystic-style texts is the use of anonymous lexicons and categories, which in Munajats is ranked in the third place after repetition of the same word. This cohesive device gets more frequent via using collocation.

5- The only cases of the use of conjunctive cohesive devices in his work are to connect sentences and order them consequently. The conjunctive device 'va' (and) is used to add to the description of prayers' feelings in talking with God. He had rarely used causal conjunctive cohesion.

6- This research shows that the number of cohesive devices and the method of using them as linguistic tools help us distinguishing stylistic features of poetic proses and Mystic texts. Additionally, the unique feature of Persian literature, parallelism, which is the result of repetition together with other cohesive devices, has brought about an eternal book. Last but not least, analyzing cohesive devices in Munajats by Khajeh Abd-Ollah Ansari, we are enabled to comprehend the prominent features of poetic and mystic prose.

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A Contrastive Study of Temporal-spatial Metaphor between Chinese and Americans*

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Abstract—Psychological time orientation includes past, present and future. Spatial-temporal metaphor tends to be used for understanding the abstract temporal concept. Chinese adopt “Time-moving Metaphor”, in which the future is in the back and the past is in the front. In Americans’ “Ego-moving Metaphor”, front is assigned to the future and back to the past. The paper makes a contrastive study of Static Past-oriented Chinese and Dynamic Future-oriented Americans. The difference is closely related to the ideology, cultural tradition and language system.

Index Terms—psychological time orientation, temporal-spatial metaphor, static past-oriented Chinese, dynamic future-oriented Americans

I. INTRODUCTION

The time frame includes past, present and future. Which segment do Chinese and Americans emphasize? We will come to the psychological time orientation.

The past-oriented society or culture is one that places a strong emphasis on reliving old times and retelling old stories. These cultures have high regard or respect for their parents and elderly persons in the society. (Guo & Hu, 2013)The British, for example, as characteristically close as they are to Americans, place much emphasis on tradition and on the past. Ancestor worship and family tradition played strong roles in Chinese culture. China is a typical example of the past orientation of time.

Unlike the Americans or the British, many Spanish Americans, Filipinos, and Latin Americans place a strong emphasis on present orientations of time. For these present-oriented societies, pleasure is derived from events in the present and the spontaneity and immediacy of events are viewed as most important. As Prosser (1978) has so aptly noted, “Live for today; eat, drink and be merry, for tomorrow you may die” perhaps expresses the present value orientation of time.

The third orientation and the one with which Anglo-Americans are most familiar, is that of the future orientation of time. In **the future-oriented society**, an emphasis is placed on tomorrow—a tomorrow that is bigger and brighter only if one works and saves today.(Loretta A.Malandro, 1989)

In addition, people under different time orientations may have different view on the pattern of time. In future-oriented societies time is linear, which means that it moves only one direction, from the past to the future. In present and past-oriented societies people regard time as cyclical. According to them, time repeats itself according to some pattern. They may attach more importance to historical, seasonal and daily cycles than people in future-oriented societies do.

II. TEMPORAL-SPATIAL METAPHOR

Spatial-temporal metaphor tends to be used for understanding the abstract temporal concept. Lakoff has contributed to the distinction of temporal metaphor, that is, Ego-moving Metaphor and Time-moving Metaphor. There are two space—time metaphoric systems: ego-moving and time-moving metaphor. The basic distinction is that they have different understanding of front and back in a time line. Thus, with the data from the Chinese and English languages, an analysis has been made on temporal metaphor.

A. Time-moving Metaphor

Time-moving metaphors identify the events temporally ordered with another in the time line. In time-moving metaphors, time can be conceived of as preceding and following one another in which time flows from the future via the ego, the point of reference, to the past (Ahrens and Huang, 2002). In this metaphor, the future is in the back and the

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past is in the front (Gentner, Imai, and Boroditsky, 2002, p. 539). For example, 'The final exam is before Thursday' in which 'before', a space term, indicates 'the final exam' is proceeding 'Thursday'. Therefore, the final exam is in the relative the past and Thursday in the relative future. (Huang & Hsieh, 2007)

Chinese adopt "Time-moving Metaphor". In this metaphor, the future is in the back and the past is in the front, such as "时间如流水"; "后浪推前浪", "前天", "史无前例", "前辈", "前车之鉴", "空前绝后", "后天", "今后", "后辈", "后起之秀", "后继有人" etc.

B. Ego-moving Metaphor

Ego-moving metaphor recognizes the event in the time order with the ego/observer. It attributes motion over a landscape to an entity. The observer comes from the past and moves via the present to into the future, while time as the reference ground remains stationary. Indicated by this metaphor, front is assigned to the future and back to the past (Gentner, Imai, and Boroditsky, 2002, p.539). Americans adopt "Ego-moving Metaphor". In this metaphor, front is assigned to the future and back to the past

eg1 I look forward to your reply.

eg2 A new life lay ahead of him.

eg3 That's all behind us now.

eg4 This town dates back to Roman times.

As a spatial-temporal metaphor, time is represented as motion and sequence. Therefore, the spatial concepts of QIAN/HOU or FRONT/BACK are used in Chinese and English respectively to represent time in two similar schemas. The two languages, however, differ in their conceptual instantiation and usage frequency. Chinese speakers regard temporal sequence as an obvious continuum in which the past is joined to the future at the present. They tend to adopt the static past-oriented schema to observe and express time. In contrast, in English speakers' mind, the time line is divided at the present into the past and future, which represent two separate schemas. They tend to instantiate a dynamic future-oriented schema more frequently. The different tendencies in question are related to differences in ideology, culture and language mechanism.

III. STATIC PAST-ORIENTED CHINA

China is a typical example of static past-oriented societies. As a Chinese proverb goes, "Consider the past and you will know the present." When we confront new situations, we prefer looking to the past for guidance. We consider past events to be relevant to new situations. Chinese cultural values influence this psychological time orientation.

Chinese are oriented to the past. In 2014 Premier Li keqiang delivers a speech in the African Union

非洲历史悠久，文化灿烂，是世界文明的发源地，对人类文化的丰富多样和交流传播有着深远影响。不论是人类共同的“祖母”露西，还是古老的金字塔，不论是简单而韵律明快的鼓点，还是质朴而活力四射的舞蹈，都是非洲亮丽的名片。在当今世界的音乐、雕塑、绘画等艺术形式中，都闪耀着非洲文明的璀璨光芒。

Sino-African relation is very important for China, especially in the United Nations. As we all know, Africa is backward. In above examples, Premier Li said "非洲历史悠久，文化灿烂，是世界文明的发源地，对人类文化的丰富多样和交流传播有着深远影响。" Premier Li looks back at African splendid civilization. Premier Li minimizes dispraise of African countries. He maximized praise of Africa by their splendid national culture and their increasing trade volume. Premier Li wants to show equal status and shorten the distance between China and Africa.

上世纪六七十年代，为了支持南部非洲国家民族解放事业和打破种族隔离制度封锁，中国人民勒紧裤带援建了坦赞铁路。在这条铁路的建设中，有65名中国优秀儿女长眠在非洲大地。

同样，在中国恢复联合国合法席位时，非洲兄弟喜极而泣，欢呼这是发展中国家的伟大胜利。这就是我们同命运、共患难的奋斗历史，是我们永远珍视的宝贵精神财富，是中非关系未来发展的不竭源泉。

Premier Li does some review of the harmonious relationship between China and Africa. Since last century, Chinese have been making a great effort to help Africans. By comparison with the western countries, China and Africa have something in common. Both of them are underdeveloped. Premier Li adopted Sympathy Maxim showing that China and Africa need each other.

A. Values and Past-oriented Schema

To show respect for ancestors. We Chinese pay deep homage to our ancestors. Ancestors can influence our lives and provide special benefits for us. In Chinese, if we address somebody, we will put the surname ahead, such as "王教授, 李博士". Because Chinese pay much attention to the surname of their ancestors. Chinese show respect for their ancestors with such address terms. English speakers on similar occasion will say "Prof Wang, Dr Li", because they put more emphasis on the title.

An English name generally has 2 parts—the first name and the surname (or family name). The first name occurs before the surname. Some English names contain the third part. There is a middle name between the first name and the surname. On the contrary, the surname is put at the beginning of a Chinese name because of Chinese ancestor worship.

The inheritance of the land reflects an ancestral continuity in China. For instance, farmland in China is related to a sense of security. It can be passed through generations; money may be used up, but not the land. Land values often

center around kinship ties. This tie is reinforced by ancestor worship and creates a bond between a man and his land. It is not impossible for a man to sell his land but to break the bonds of filial piety. Because these bonds are so rarely broken, from childhood onward, a man develops a sense of personal identity with his land; it becomes a part of his very personality. (Dodd, Carley H, 1987)

To show respect for elders. Confucianism is a religion that began in China. It has deep influence on Chinese values. Confucius emphasizes filial piety. That is, we should show respect for the elder. Considering the following:

孟懿子问孝。子曰：“无违。”樊迟御，子告之曰：“孟孙问孝于我，我对曰：‘无违’。”樊迟曰：“何谓也？”子曰：“生，事之以礼；死，葬之以礼，祭之以礼。”

子游问孝。子曰：“今之孝者，是谓有养。至于犬马，皆能有养；不敬，何以别乎？”

子夏问孝。子曰：“色难。有事，弟子服其劳；有酒色，先生馔，曾是以为孝乎？”(Liu,1999)

We consider age as a symbol of wisdom. When we find ourselves in a tight corner, we are willing to consult older family members. To most aged people in China, old age is a happy time. The old receive honor, privilege and satisfaction. When they are too old to live alone, they live with a son, daughter or other relatives. The young call them “grandmother” or “grandfather” even if they are not related to them.

There is a degree of respect for age-up to a point in the United States. Some Americans seem to lose respect for their senior family members and senior citizens in general, from retirement age on. The old don't live with their children or relatives. If they have enough money, they buy houses or apartments in places where other old people live. If they are not healthy and strong enough to live alone, they live in special homes for the old. There, strangers take care of them. For many North Americans, old age is not a happy time. North American parents value their children and their needs more than the their own parents or grandparents.

In China, parents attach importance to children .They spend more time in taking care of children, from the daily life to their studies. If a problem occur, they will help children solve it. In order to prevent children from being hurt, they will tell their children what to do and how to do. In general, Chinese children take parental authority for granted. We are accustomed to asking parents for advice. Even if we have got a job, we can still get money from our families. Our parents give disinterested assistance to us. To honor our parents is our virtues. It is our duty to support our parents when they become old.

In contrast, Americans live an independent life usually by age 18 or 21. Americans think that if they depend too much on others, they will lose some of their freedom. They stress individuality and making one's own decisions by the midteens. Disregarding parental authority, they have their own ways. They communicate less with their parents. Chinese regard such action as dishonoring parents.

To take pride in Chinese splendid civilization of 5000 years. As Chinese, we are proud of our splendid civilization of 5000 years. For us, historical background is very important. Our consciousness is steeped in the past. We prefer the past as a guide to know how to live at present.

China Millennium Monument (in Beijing), as China's commemorative landmark for the new century—21st Century, is displaying China's five millennia to the world. If one roams through it, he will be impressed by the proud determination of the contemporary Chinese people to carry forward their civilization. China Millennium Monument symbolizes our culture's persistence for thousands of years. It is our emotional force in the new century.

Panorama of Millennia-Old Chinese Civilization. Panorama of Millennia-Old Chinese Civilization which is the great panorama of the 5000-year-old Chinese civilization in gigantic colored stone relief presents its superb force and beauty to you, with its life-like and individual images seemingly on the verge of stepping out of its long cultural and historical process to greet you. Here, every Chinese may hold a dialogue with his or her ancestors, and the invigorating spirit of the Chinese people may be renewed, with every scene in the mural impacting, edifying and refreshing his or her spirit.

B. Long-term Orientation

Chinese have histories that date back thousands of years, so they find it normal to take a long-range view of events (Larry A.S&Richard E. P&Lisa A.S , 2000). That is, China lives in their ancient pasts or in the far distant future.

For Chinese, “a long time” can be equated with thousands of years or even an endless period. Confucian teaching stress foresight and perseverance, as shown in the Analects of Confucius,

子曰：“人无远虑，必有近忧。”

子曰：“刚，毅，木，讷近仁。”

Chinese are farsighted. We focus on long-term goal rather than short-term present. Our government adopts economic policies for the sake of China's long-term development and Chinese future generations.

IV. DYNAMIC FUTURE-ORIENTED AMERICA

Americans never question the fact that time should be planned and future events fitted into a schedule. They think that people should look forward to the future and not dwell too much on the past. Compared with Chinese, the respect North Americans have for their elderly is indeed pale. Americans are highly future-oriented. If one works hard today, his future will be bright.

Americans are oriented to the future. President Obama's Inaugural Address in 2013 as follows,

We will show the courage to try and resolve our differences with other nations peacefully – not because we are naïve about the dangers we face, but because engagement can more durably lift suspicion and fear. America will remain the anchor of strong alliances in every corner of the globe. (Obama, 2013)

Obama looks forward to the future. After he was elected, he imagines a lot. Obama makes a promise to resolve differences with other nations meanwhile he aims to obtain people's support.

A. Goal Setting and the Future (Joseph E. McGrath, 1988)

People set goals, then adopt strategies and behaviors intended to attain those goals. Goals typically are to be met at some point in the future, and behaviors carried out in the present are expected to increase the probability of reaching the goals.

Most Americans believe in close relation between present actions and future outcomes except Black Americans. Historically growing up Black in the US has meant receiving a lot of disconfirming evidence about the conditional probability that present action will alter future outcomes. For Blacks in America, getting good grades by studying hard has often not been reinforced with the prospect of thereafter getting better jobs. Institutional racism serves this connection and reduces the extent to which it is practical for Black Americans to believe in the present action-future outcome contingency that underlies a future time perspective.

B. Short-term Orientation

For Americans, a “long time” can be almost anything—ten or twenty years, two or three months, a few weeks or even a couple of days (Hall, 1959). To Americans, “long-term” projects lasting two to three years are very common. Compared to Chinese, Americans have shallow views of the future.

Americans look to the future, their future is not very far ahead of them. The future to them is the foreseeable future, not like Chinese future that may involve centuries. Since most American companies are publicly owned and must report all financial details quarterly for use by banks, security analysts, and the government, American businessmen tend to think in short-term intervals. In contrast, Chinese businessmen tend to plan for twenty, thirty, even fifty years in the future. It is our advantage during international business negotiations.

There are some American employees who feel great loyalty toward their company. Most employees, however, are primarily concerned about their own careers and expect to change jobs and companies if it enhances their opportunities for greater pay, greater recognition, or promotion. Changing jobs is often the only route to advancement. Employees who think they will not be with the company for very long are less concerned about decisions that will not have an impact until some future time when they may no longer be there. Thus, mobility is one more contributor to the short orientation of American business.

American business executives are assigned overseas for short periods, usually two years, which is simply not enough time to learn the language and integrate into the society. Additionally, since they expect to be leaving in two years, they may feel the effort of learning the language would be wasted, another example of how the American short-term orientation adversely affects business performance. (Hall, 1990)

Psychological time orientations have some practical implications. As we know, western producers prefer science fiction works, such as Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI). However, Chinese films are centering around historical figures. The reason for the difference is that we are apt to favor film characters who are similar to us, and one important point of similarity may be psychological time orientation. Americans with a future time orientation favor science fiction characters. Chinese with a past time orientation hero-worship some historical figures from whom we can learn a great deal when we deal with new situations.

V. CONCLUSION

Temporal-spatial metaphor plays a crucial role in the process of representation of abstract concept time. The two space-time metaphoric systems are ego-moving and time-moving metaphor. Chinese adopt “Time-moving Metaphor”, in which the future is in the back and the past is in the front. Americans adopt “Ego-moving Metaphor”, in which front is assigned to the future and back to the past.

Chinese are Static Past-oriented. Americans are Dynamic Future-oriented. Chinese have long-term orientation, while Americans have short-term orientation. In daily life, we had better shift time orientations on the basis of actual conditions. A past time orientation plays an important role in building harmony relationship with family. If we spend our holidays, a present orientation will be appropriate. At work, a future orientation is of benefit to productivity.

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The Impact of Focused and Unfocused Tasks on University Students' Grammatical Achievement

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Abstract—The educational system in teaching English has always been seeking the best procedure to improve learners grammatical competence. The focus of this study is to find an answer to the following questions: Do focused tasks affect grammatical achievement?; Do unfocused tasks affect grammatical achievement of the students? ; Does traditional method affect grammatical achievement of students?; and is there a significant difference in the grammatical achievement of the students among focused tasks unfocused task, and control group? Subjects in this study were 60 freshman students majoring in English translation, including 41 females and 19 males studying in Lahijan IAU. The subjects were at the age range of 19 to 22. After administrating Nelson B1 test to be sure whether the participants are homogenous, the researchers employed the Opt test; then 60 students out of 146 students studying English translation at Lahijan Islamic Azad university were selected. The result of the study indicated that the performance of the students using focused task outweighed the students using unfocused task and traditional task in terms of grammar. Moreover, the experimental group B (i.e, unfocused task) performed almost identical to the experimental group A (i.e, focused tasks). In a nutshell, the control group performance was statistically different from the other two groups.

Index Terms—focused task, grammar, pedagogical tasks, unfocused tasks

I. INTRODUCTION

“The idea of task-based learning (TBL) was greatly popularized by Prabhu” (cited in Harmer, (2002, p. 89) who, working at a school in Bangalore-southern India, speculated that students could likely learn a language if they were thinking about a non-linguistic problem instead of focusing on particular language forms or a language structure. In other words, students are presented with a task they have to perform or a problem they have to solve.

According to Prabhu (1987) cognitive Processes entailed by tasks. He talks about tasks involving ‘some process of thought’. For Prabhu, tasks should ideally involve learners in ‘reasoning’— making connections between pieces of information, deducing new information, and evaluating information. While such a definition is well-suited to the kinds of tasks that Prabhu himself prefers, for example, working out a schedule of a visit based on railway timetables, it is probably too exclusive. There are many information- and opinion-sharing activities that are commonly seen as ‘tasks’ not involve reasoning, for example, spotting the difference between two pictures, although they may well involve other cognitive skills, for example, perceptual skills (cited in Ellis, 2004, p.3)

One of the major problems of students is the immediate forgetting of the material they were taught. When they are asked the reason why they can not remember any pieces of information about language they have learned before, their answer may be the lack of deep understanding of content they memorized. As Francois Gouin in his *The Art of Learning and Studying Foreign Languages* (1880) described a painful set of experiences that how he failed to make conversation after memorizing grammatical rules and explanations. Since he just memorized a set of rules without being involved in acquiring them. On the other hand, they can remember some of those things they were taught, when their teacher get them involved in doing some special tasks. So, the researchers wants to investigate whether some tasks can help the learners to learn and register the structure of language in their mind permanently. To achieve the purpose of research, the present writers raise the following research question and Hypothesis. Is there any significant difference between unfocused and focused tasks on grammatical achievement of intermediate student?

1. Do focused tasks affect grammatical achievement of the students?
2. Do unfocused tasks affect grammatical achievement of the students?
3. Does traditional method affect grammatical achievement of the students?
4. Is there a significant difference in the grammatical achievement of the students among focused task, unfocused task, and control groups?

Then based on the questions write the null hypotheses:

1. Focused tasks do not affect grammatical achievement of the students.
2. Unfocused tasks do not affect grammatical achievement of the students?

3. Traditional method does not affect grammatical achievement of the students?
4. There is no significant difference in the grammatical achievement of the students among focused task, unfocused task, and control groups?

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *The History of Task-based Teaching*

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) emerged from the view of Prabhu who was working at a school in Bangalore-southern India, according to him, an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching (Richard & Rodgers, 2001, p.223). Another claim for tasks is that specific tasks can be designed to facilitate the use and learning of particular aspects of language. Long and Crookes claimed that: "Tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation to operate target language samples to learners -input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities- and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty." (cited in Richard & Rodgers, 2001, p.229). In support of this claim, Skehan (1998) suggests that in selecting or designing tasks "there is a trade-off between cognitive processing and focus on form" (p.97).

B. *Widdowson's Approach on Tasks*

Widdowson has pointed out that "learners will need to pay attention to both meaning and form in both tasks and exercises" (p.3). For example, learners involved in 'making an airline reservation' will need to find the linguistic form to explain where they want to fly, what kind of ticket they want, etc. Also, learners completing a blank filling exercise designed to practice the use of the past simple and present perfect tenses in English will need to pay attention to the meaning of sentences to determine which tense to use. Widdowson (1998) argues that what distinguishes a task from an exercise is not 'form' as opposed to 'meaning', but rather the kind of meaning involved. Whereas a task is concerned with "pragmatic meaning", that is, the use of language in context, an exercise is concerned with 'semantic meaning', that is, the systemic meaning that specific forms can convey irrespective of context (cited in Ellis, 2004).

C. *Krashen's Definition of Task*

"Krashen has long insisted that comprehensible input is the one necessary (and sufficient) criterion for successful language acquisition" (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.228). Others have argued, however, that productive output and not merely input is also critical for adequate second language development. For example, in language immersion classrooms in Canada, Swain showed that:

"... even after years of exposure to comprehensible input, the language ability of immersion students still lagged behind native-speaking peers. She claimed that adequate opportunities for productive use of language are critical for full language development. Tasks, it is said, provide full opportunities for both input and output requirements which are believed to be key processes in language learning." (cited in Richard and Rodgers, 2011, p.228)

D. *The Outcome and the Aim of a Task*

To define the 'outcome' and the 'aim' of a task. 'Outcome' refers to what the learners arrive at when they have completed the task, for instance, a story, a list of differences, etc. 'Aim' refers to the pedagogic purpose of the task, which is to elicit meaning focused language use, receptive and/or productive (Ellis 2004). This distinction is important. "It is possible to achieve a successful outcome without achieving the aim of a task. For example, learners performing a spot-the-difference task based on pictures may successfully identify the differences by simply showing their Pictures to one another, but because they have not used language to identify these differences the aim of the task will not have been met" (Ellis, 2004, p.8).

E. *Unfocused and Focused Tasks*

Unfocused tasks are those that may predispose learners to choose from a range of forms but they are not designed with the use of a specific form in mind. In contrast, focused tasks, As Ellis (2004) asserts, aim to induce learners to process, receptively, or productively, some particular linguistic feature, for example, a grammatical structure. Of course this processing must occur as a result of performing activities that satisfy the key criteria of a task, that is, that language is used meaningfully to achieve some non-linguistic outcome. Therefore, the targeted feature cannot be specified in the rubric of the task. Focused tasks, then have two aims: one is to stimulate communicative language use (as with unfocused tasks), the other is to target the use of a particular predetermined target feature (Ellis, 2004).

There are two main ways in which a task can achieve a focus. One is to design the task in such a way that it can only be performed if learners use a particular linguistic feature. For example, activity like finding a picture is an instance of such a task. This requires the learner to describe the picture indicated so that his/her partner can identify which picture it is from the same set. To achieve this, the learner has to use prepositions of place. For example, for realizing two pictures the learner will have to use the preposition 'on'. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) refer to focused task as a 'grammatical task'. However, it is not easy to design such tasks. This is because learners can always use communication strategies to get round using the targeted feature. For example, a learner who did not know or could not recall the

preposition 'on' could always say, 'the ball-not in, not by the side of the box'. It is easier to force learners to process a specific feature in a comprehension task (Ellis 2004).

The second way of constructing a focused task is by making language itself the content of a task. In unfocused task the topics are drawn from real life or perhaps from the academic curriculum that students are studying. However, it is also possible to make a language point the topic of a task.

III. METHOD

A. *Participants*

Subjects in this study were 60 freshman students majoring in English translation, including 41 females and 19 males from Lahijan IAU at the age range of 19 to 22. After administering Nelson B test, to be sure whether the participants are homogenous, the researchers employed the Levens test, then 60 students out of 146 students studying English translation at Lahijan Islamic Azad university were selected.

B. *Instruments*

Two instruments were used to collect the relevant data for this study. The instrument used in teaching based on focused tasks is Betty Azar (2009). 80 items were chosen. Having piloted it among students, the researchers estimated its reliability. The reliability of 0.82 was obtained. While for unfocused tasks, the researchers applied a three types on tasks subjected by Prabhu (1987). 80 items were chosen. Having piloted it among students, the researchers estimated its reliability. The reliability of unfocused task was reported 0.79.

C. *Procedure*

The researchers had three groups in this study. After pretesting, students were divided into three groups. A Nelson grammar test was administered to 146 freshman students. After analyzing the data and the result of the test and ranking the grades of students, 60 students were selected based on one standard deviation below and above the mean. The students then were classified into three groups. That is 20 students were placed in control group. The other 40 students again divided into two groups as experimental groups. In both experimental groups tasks were used as instruction, however, one group was given unfocused task instruction and the other one focused tasks instruction after 10 sessions, at the end of instruction, the three groups took a post-test which was a teacher-made production test.

The first group was given instruction an unfocused tasks which is both pedagogical task proposed by Prabhu (1987). Like reasoning gap tasks, opinion gap tasks, and information gap tasks or real life tasks. In reasoning gap activities which is driving some new information from given information through inference or deduction processes. For examples the researchers may ask students "can you suggest why this might have been so?" or in opening gap activity, in contract, the students were asked to articulate their personal feeling or attitude in response to a given situation. Real life tasks are those that the learner might be called upon to perform in real life such as going to a restaurant or shopping.

The second group was given instruction on focused tasks. In this regard, the researchers introduced tasks that induce students' attention to specific forms of structure. To design focused tasks, there are three types of tasks including: structure-based production tasks, comprehension tasks, In structured based production tasks, the researchers carried out a study to investigate whether a task designed to elicit the productive use of modal verbs. For instance, the task requires students to read some information about a problem a person was facing. then write down the advice they will give to that person by using the utterance like I think he... and discuss what advice to give in a group. At the end of the task the students will be also asked to write down what they have learned from the task, for example, the researchers will consider how many of learners fail to use at least one modal verb. The principal modal will be should, had better, has to. In consciousness raising tasks, the students are asked to work, for instance, on conditional sentences like what will you do if you have a brother?

The third group, which is the control group, students just receives the traditional kind of instruction. That is, students will be provided with some grammatical explanation based on the grammatical textbook and the researchers will write the rule and formula on the blackboard and also gives some examples based on the rule of grammar. After explanation, the students are asked to do exercises of the same lesson in the text book for next session

After 10 session treatments, the participants in all groups were given a post-test to see if there is any effective change on learners' grammatical achievement through using unfocused and focused tasks.

D. *Design*

The design of this study is true experimental. In this research, there are three groups. The researchers is concerned with one dependent variable (i.e grammatical achievement) and three independent variables (i.e unfocused tasks and focused task and traditional grammar).

E. *Data Analysis*

Since we are concerned with three means, the researchers use ANOVA. In other words, The researchers is concerned with one dependent variable (i.e., grammatical achievement) and three independent variables (i.e. unfocused tasks and focused task and traditional grammar).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. *Measure of EFL Proficiency (OPT Test for the Sampling Purpose)*

To select homogenous participants as a sample regarding the general language proficiency, the standardized Oxford Placement test (OPT) was administered to 146 EFL university students. The participants took the structure, vocabulary and reading comprehension sections of the test with a maximum possible score of 60 points. Based on OPT test direction 60 intermediate students whose scores were 31+ in grammar and vocabulary and 8+ in reading section were selected as the main sample for the present study. The results of the OPT test for 146 students are presented in the following table:

TABLE 1:
STATISTICS FOR THE OPT TEST

OPT		
N	Valid	146
	Missing	0
Mean		36.7260
Median		38.0000
Mode		39.00
Std. Deviation		7.59539
Variance		57.690
Skewness		-.396
Std. Error of Skewness		.201
Range		38.00
Minimum		17.00
Maximum		55.00
Sum		5362.00

Table 1 showed the results of group statistics for the OPT test scores administered for the purpose of selecting homogeneous sample. Measures of central tendency (mean, median, mode) and measures of dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation) along with measures of distribution (Skewness and Kurtosis) were presented for the OPT test. The above descriptive statistics was reported for the 146 university students studying English translation at Lahijan Islamic Azad University. For the present study, the main sample including 60 homogeneous participants were selected, based on Oxford placement test direction in order to select a group of intermediate students and were randomly divided into three groups (one control and two experimental).

B. *NELSON (B1) Grammar Test (Pre-test)*

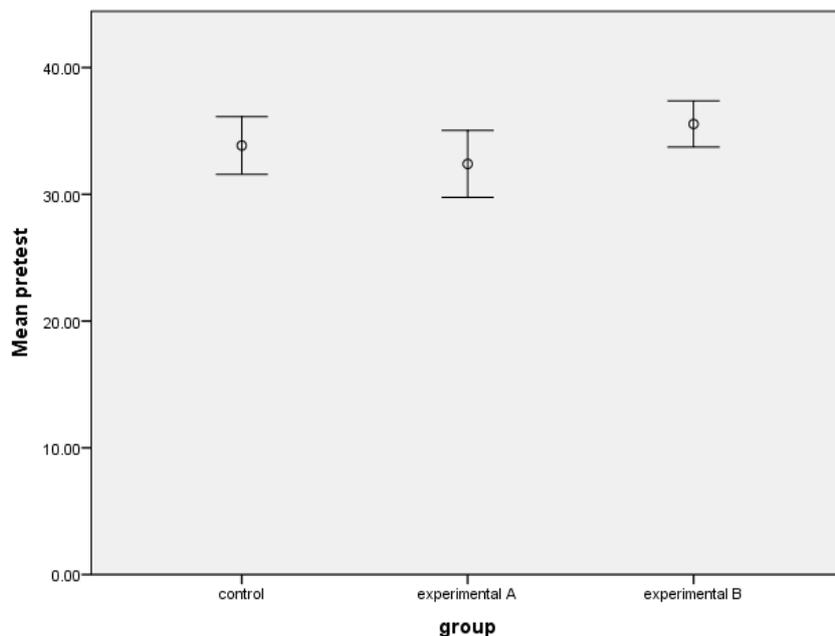
To make certain that the subjects were roughly at the same level in terms of their grammatical knowledge at the beginning of the study, NELSON test (B1) was administered to the three groups. The purpose of administering NELSON test was to establish a baseline from which gains on the post-test could be measured. To test the equality of variance assumption for the NELSON grammar test, One Way ANOVA was run to the results of the pre-test. Results of One Way ANOVA showed that there was no significant difference in learners' performance in terms of their grammatical knowledge on the pre-test across the control and experimental groups (p grammar test (.155) > 0.05).

Prior to accomplishing the analysis, the main assumption of One Way ANOVA namely, normality of the distributions was examined through running Levene statistics.

TABLE 2:
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES

Pre- test			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.288	2	57	.111

The results of Levene statistic showed that the group variances were equal in grammar pre- test (P grammar pre- test (.111) > .05). The Levene statistic supported the hypothesis that the group variances were equal.



Error Bars: +/- 2 SE

Figure 1: Error Bars for Examining the Normality Assumption

As it is depicted in the above figure, the average performance was almost identical for the three groups. Besides, variation in performance was similar at the same time. ANOVA assumes equality of variance across groups; that assumption was hold for these data.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVES FOR THE PRE-TEST

pretest	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Control	20	33.85	5.101	1.140	31.46	36.23	26.00	42.00
experimental A	20	32.40	5.897	1.318	29.63	35.16	26.00	42.00
experimental B	20	35.55	4.071	.9103	33.64	37.45	30.00	42.00
Total	60	33.93	5.158	.6659	32.60	35.26	26.00	42.00

As it is shown in the above table, the standard deviation and standard error statistics confirmed that variation in performance for the three groups was somehow similar. Table 4 shows the results of ANOVA for the pre-test scores of grammar test (pre-test).

TABLE 4:
ANOVA FOR THE PRE-TEST

pretest	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	99.433	2	49.717	1.927	.155
Within Groups	1470.300	57	25.795		
Total	1569.733	59			

The results of the pre-test showed that the Mean of the (control group) = 33.8500, Mean (experimental A group) = 32.4000, and Mean (Experimental B group=35.5500), did not differ statistically. In other words, the mean difference was not statistically significant for the EFL learners' performance on grammar test before introducing the specific treatments.

TABLE 5:
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

Dependent Variable: pretest						
Scheffe						
(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
control	experimental A	1.45000	1.60	.667	-2.5869	5.4869
	experimental B	-1.70000	1.60	.574	-5.7369	2.3369
experimental A	Control	-1.45000	1.60	.667	-5.4869	2.5869
	experimental B	-3.15000	1.60	.155	-7.1869	.8869
experimental B	Control	1.70000	1.60	.574	-2.3369	5.7369
	experimental A	3.15000	1.60	.155	-.8869	7.1869

The significance value of the F test in the ANOVA table was higher than (0.05) for the grammar test. Thus, the average assessment scores of grammar were equal across the three groups at the beginning of the study.

TABLE 6:
HOMOGENEOUS SUBSETS (PRETEST)

Scheffe ^a		
Groups	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
I		
experimental A	20	32.4000
Control	20	33.8500
experimental B	20	35.5500
Sig.		.155
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.		
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 20.000.		

The above table indicated that the three groups were homogenous in terms of their performance on grammar pre-test and there was not any statistical differences among them ($P \geq 0.05$).

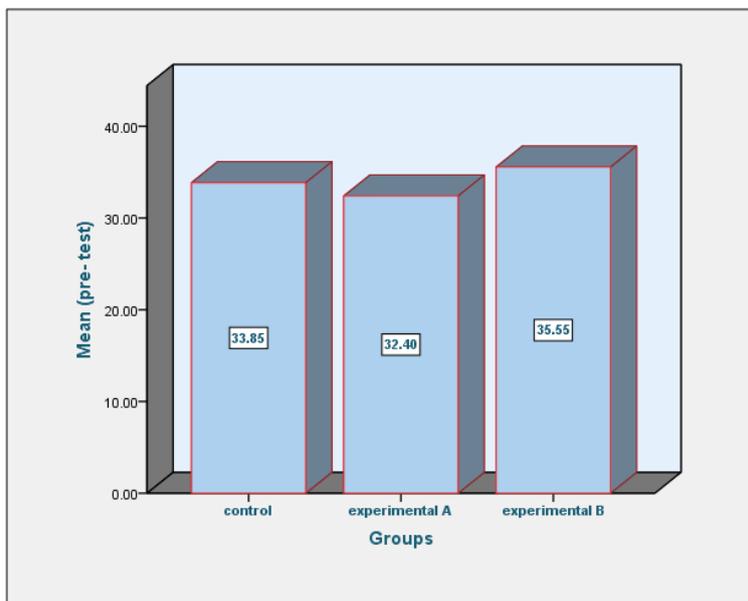


Figure 2: The Three Groups' Performances on Grammar Test (Pre-Test)

C. The Research Hypothesis

H0: There is no significant difference in the grammatical achievement of the students among focused task, unfocused task, and control groups.

The One-Way ANOVA procedure produced a one-way analysis of variance for the quantitative dependent variable namely grammatical achievement by the single factor or independent variable (type of task; focused, unfocused, and traditional). Analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis that the means of the three groups were equal on grammar test.

It was supposed that each group was an independent random sample from a normal population. Since Analysis of variance is robust to departures from normality, it was examined if the groups came from populations with equal variances. To test this assumption, Levene's homogeneity of variance test was run for the results of the post-test.

TABLE 7:
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES

posttest				
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
1.106	2	57	.338	

Thus, the important first step in the analysis of variance established that the variances of the groups were equivalent (sig=.338 ≥ 0.05).

After establishing the normality assumption, ANOVA was run to the results of the post-test. The significance value of the F test in the ANOVA table was less than 0.05. Thus, the hypothesis that average assessment scores of the grammar test (post-test) were equal across the control and experimental groups was rejected.

TABLE 7:
ANOVA FOR THE RESULTS OF THE GRAMMAR TEST (POST-TEST)

posttest					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	409.300	2	204.650	9.256	.000
Within Groups	1260.300	57	22.111		
Total	1669.600	59			

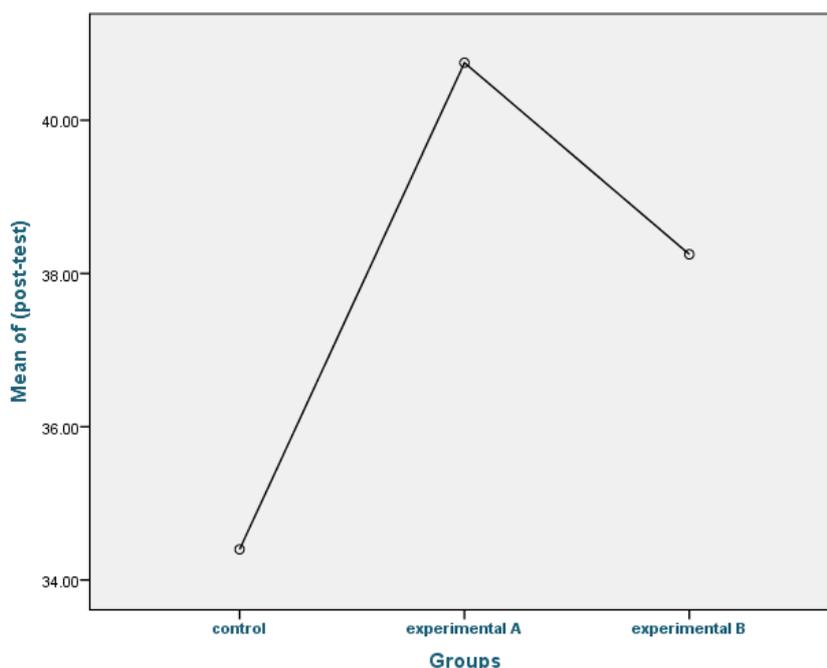


Figure3: Mean Plot for the Results of the Grammar Test (Post-Test)

In general, F statistics established that there was statistically a significant difference between the three groups' means, and means plots showed the location of these differences. Participants of the experimental group A (focused task) outperformed their counterparts namely experimental B (unfocused task) and the control group (traditional treatment).

After confirming that the three groups differed in some way, the detailed structure of the differences was investigated through doing multiple comparisons. Post hoc test (Scheffe) was employed for comparing the means of the three groups.

TABLE 8:
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

Dependent Variable: posttest						
Scheffe						
(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	experimental A	-6.350*	1.48	.000	-10.08	-2.61
	experimental B	-3.850*	1.48	.042	-7.58	-.11
experimental A	control	6.350*	1.48	.000	2.61	10.08
	experimental B	2.500	1.48	.252	-1.23	6.23
experimental B	control	3.850*	1.48	.042	.11	7.58
	experimental A	-2.500	1.48	.252	-6.23	1.23

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The group with traditional training of grammar performed significantly lower than experimental A and B groups (p<0.05). However, trainees with unfocused treatment do not statistically differ in their grammar average performance

with Experimental A group who received focused task ($\text{sig}=.252$). Despite this equality, the group that received focused task instruction performed better than the group that worked on unfocused task on post-test of grammar. Although the difference between experimental (B) and the control group was statistically significant ($\text{sig}= 0.042$) it was not very strong.

TABLE 9:
HOMOGENOUS SUBSET FOR THE GRAMMAR POST-TEST
Scheffe^a

group	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
control	20	34.4000	
experimental B	20	38.2500	
experimental A	20	40.7500	
Sig.		1.000	.252

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 20.000.

As it is shown in Table 9, the experimental group (A) outweighed the other two groups in terms of their grammar. Furthermore, the experimental group (B) performed almost identical to the experimental (A). Finally, the control group's performance was statistically different from the other two groups. This rejected the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the grammatical achievement of the students among focused task, unfocused task, and control groups.

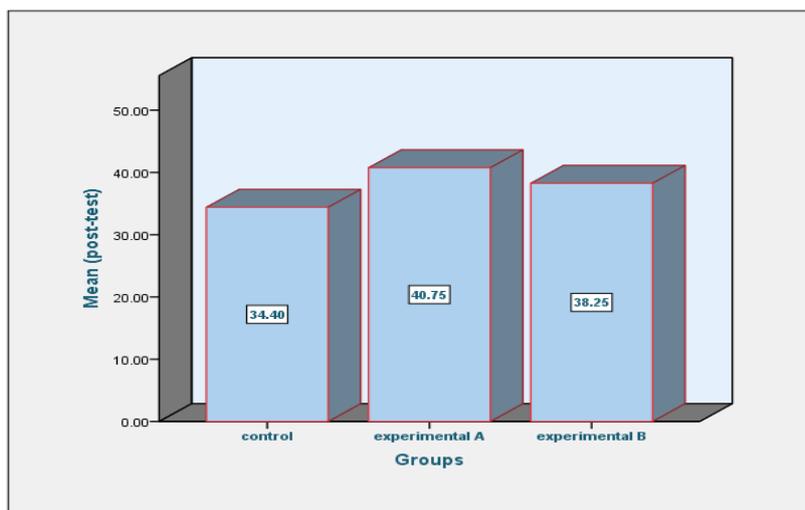


Figure 4: The Three Groups' Performances on Grammar test (Post-Test)

In order to investigate students' progress within groups, three paired t-tests were also run, which showed the subjects' progress in pre-test and post-test that are shown in Tables 10, and 11.

TABLE 10:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control group pretest	33.8500	20	5.10186	1.14081
	Control group posttest	34.4000	20	4.73953	1.05979
Pair 2	Experimental A pretest	32.4000	20	5.89737	1.31869
	Experimental A posttest	40.7500	20	5.21006	1.16501
Pair 3	Experimental B pretest	35.5500	20	4.07140	.91039
	Experimental B posttest	38.2500	20	4.08946	.91443

The mean scores of the control group has been improved from (33.8500) in pre- test to (34.4000) in post- test for the grammar test; that of the experimental group (A) has changed from (32.4000) in pre- test to (40.7500) in post- test on the grammar test, and finally, the mean of the experimental group (B) has changed from (35.5500) in pre- test to (38.2500) in post- test on the grammar test.

TABLE 11:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Control group (pretest) – control group (posttest)	-.55	1.57	.351	-1.285	.18570	-1.56	19	.134
Pair 2	Experimental group (A) pretest – experimental group (A) posttest	-8.35	1.69	.378	-9.143	-7.556	-22.03	19	.000
Pair 3	Experimental group (B) pretest – experimental group (B) posttest	-2.70	.92	.206	-3.132	-2.267	-13.07	19	.000

As depicted in the Tables 10, and 11, both control and experimental groups had progressed in the post-test. Based on the results of paired t-test, this progress is statistically significant just for the experimental groups but not for the control group (P experimental groups (A & B) < 0.05 , P control group ≥ 0.05).

In other words, both of the experimental groups made a substantially higher progress as compared to the control group in the post- grammar test after practicing focused and unfocused tasks.

These results also rejected the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the grammatical achievement of the students among focused task, unfocused task, and control groups.

D. Discussion

This research was conducted to examine the effect of focused and unfocused tasks on students' grammatical achievement and the results of the research showed a major effect of focused and unfocused task on grammatical learning in comparison with control group (i.e, traditional treatment). The result of this study showed that the involvement of the students in learning by means of different tasks can have significant effect on their improvement. In this regard, widson (1998) argues that what makes a task to be different from an exercise it does not mean that form opposed to meaning but rather the kind of meaning involved. Whereas a task is concerned with pragmatic meaning, an exercise is concerned with semantic meaning.

V. CONCLUSION

"Krashen has long insisted that comprehensible input is the one necessary criterion for successful language acquisition (cited in Richard and Radgers 2001, p 228). Others have argued however, that productive output and not merely input is also critical for adequate second language development. there is not a unanimity among scholars. According to Anderson (1993, 2000) skill development involves the proceduralisation of declarative knowledge. Declarative knowledge is factual. In this case of language it involves explicit knowledge of grammatical rules, for example, use the indefinite article 'an' before nouns that begin with a vowel sound Laschky and bley-vroman (1993) discuss what they call structure-based communication task. There result of this research also showed that the perforce of the students using focused task outweighed the other two groups experiencing unfocused task and traditional tasks in terms of grammar.

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Analysis of Critical Reading Strategies and Its Effect on College English Reading*

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Abstract—Reading is very important in foreign language learning. In college English reading teaching, the teachers sometimes are confused that the students work hard and read a lot, but they can't read well. In this paper, the author tries to dig into the problems and difficulties in English reading, and work out effective approaches to improve reading: the application of the critical reading strategies to reading will help a lot.

Index Terms—college English reading, critical reading, critical reading strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Many people suggest that never accept things as they're portrayed. In English reading teaching, this idea is really a brilliant one as many readers have little idea whether they should read critically or not. When Chinese college students are busy reading piles of material to prepare for all kinds of tests, they read very fast only to get information to deal with the questions, with no further understanding at all. To non-critical readers, the reading materials only offer the truth, and the readers are satisfied when they think that they can answer the questions following (Dan Kurland's www.criticalreading.com). Automatically they read and answer, with little trace left when they finish doing. However, to critical readers, any single text provides but one portrayal of the facts, one individual's "angle" to the subject, a unique angle to a certain question. When they read, they think and analyze at the same time. Such thinking leads to further understanding naturally. From this point we can see that critical reading is surely a better way to deal with reading, because "... a story has as many versions as it has readers. Everyone takes what he wants or can from it and thus changes it to his measure. Some pick out parts and reject the rest, some strain the story through their mesh of prejudice, some paint it with their own delight." (John Steinback, 1963, p.70)

To non-critical readers reading does not only means recognizing what a text says about the topic. The goal of reading is to comprehend the information in the reading text, and to understand the information, ideas, and opinions from sentence to sentence, paragraph to paragraph. It is a linear activity: the readers go directly from the beginning to the end, with no further understanding of the text (Dan Kurland's www.criticalreading.com). They do a lot of reading and they classify the information, but they don't do much thinking. Critical reading is an analytic activity. The reader rereads a text to identify information to try to obtain good understanding. More importantly, the critical readers do a lot of thinking and analyzing,

Critical thinking involves bringing outside knowledge and values to combine with the reading material to come to a new idea. To critical readers, what a text says, does, and means all leads to a deeper interpretation of the text. On the contrary, non-critical readers are usually satisfied with recognizing what a text says and restating the key remarks. Critical reading and non-critical reading are doing very differently in this sense.

From another point, compared with non-critical reading, critical reading goes altogether three steps in reading: first, it will recognize what a text "says", and then it reflects on what the text "does" by making such remarks. The critical readers will ask themselves such questions as: is it offering examples? Is it arguing? Is it appealing for sympathy? Or is it making a contrast to clarify a point? Finally, critical readers then infer what the text, as a whole, means, based on the earlier analysis (Dan Kurland's www.criticalreading.com).

All in all, in College English Reading class, teachers and students should be clear about how to do reading, especially critical reading, to fulfill and accomplish their goals in reading.

II. CRITICAL READING

Critical reading is not simply careful and detailed reading. To read critically, one must actively recognize and analyze information he reads on the text.

Textbooks on critical reading commonly ask students to accomplish certain goals in reading:

- to understand why the author writes this.
- to understand the important information in the text.
- To analyze and summarize.

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Clearly that all these goals actually refers to something that does not exist in the text he reads. Each requires inferences from evidence within the text: the readers need to read between the lines.

- In reading, recognizing the purpose of the author involves inferring a basis for choices of content and language: what will the author say and why does the author choose to say so?
- If the reader wants to understand the reading material he needs to read deeply.
- To analyze and summary the reading material needs to express the reader's own idea based on his understanding of the reading material.

Then what do we do in our normal reading?

Based on Chinese tradition, we teach students to do a lot of reading mainly to meet two purposes: one is to practice and improve their language competence as reading is the most convenient way to help them improve their ability of using the foreign language; the other is to prepare for all kinds of tests. In this process, the teachers provide reading materials, explain reading methods, and ask the students to finish reading within certain amount of time; mostly the students start their reading passively just as they are finishing a task; they read and find useful information and finish answering all the questions. The question is: without thinking while reading, they have no access to a deeper understanding of the reading material, not to mention the pleasure of reading.

Frequently the students complain that they spend quite long time reading, but they could not understand what it is about; other problems are also happening: they forget what they just finish reading; the material is not hard but they cannot find the answers to the questions.

We see clearly the necessity of introducing the critical reading strategies to our university reading to help the students read better.

III. CRITICAL READING STRATEGIES

Critical reading strategies that are frequently used in university classroom teaching are clearly stated as the following:

Step1. Pre-reading: Learning about a text before really reading it. This method is the first step in a reading class. Mostly the teacher asks the students to prepare for the class by giving them the printed material to read a few minutes before the class. Previewing enables the students to get some idea of what the material is about and how it is organized before reading it more carefully. This simple strategy includes scanning the text to try to find specific information to help understand the text, and skimming to get a general idea of the content and organization of the text, and identifying the purpose of the writing. This usually takes a very short period of time and both the students and the teacher get a brief understanding of what they are going to deal with in the following class.

Step2. Reading in context: When we read, it is wise to place a text in its historical, biographical, and cultural contexts. Why is this necessary? In critical reading, the readers' goals are not only to get the basic understanding of the reading material, and they are not interested in facts only; the readers are also not satisfied with the fact that they read and comprehend only by memorizing the statements within a text. Critical readers get much more. They read just as they talk with the author. In this process, they obtain not only the basic meaning of the text they read, but also the idea that the author harbor deeply in his mind. The critical readers get more than he expects in this kind of reading.

Therefore, a profound comprehension of the reading material requires not only the readers' participation, but also the background knowledge of the material.

Understandably, non-critical readers mainly read to learn the facts of a certain situation to obtain basic understanding of this situation, while critical readers read more deeply and carefully to try to work out how this situation exists and the possible reasons hidden.

When the students read in classroom, the most effective way is that they use their own experience to discover unique perspectives in understanding. They employ different techniques to try to get better comprehension of the reading material. Pre-reading here will help them gain a general idea first, and then they will dig into the text to have detailed reading. From another point, wide background knowledge will also help the students achieve a better understanding of the material they read.

In classroom teaching, when the students are asked to finish reading a text within limited time, they need to use all effective methods to achieve their reading goals. With pre-reading and contextualization, they surely will achieve more.

Step3. Further the understanding by asking questions and answering them: Asking questions about the content.

This is a normal way in reading teaching and mostly, the students make themselves ready to answer the questions about the text they read.

As students, they are accustomed to teachers asking them questions about what they read. Usually these questions are designed to help them understand the material and respond to it more fully, and often this technique works.

In critical reading, when the students finish reading, the teacher asks them to design questions themselves to help achieve further comprehension. Each designs his own questions and they ask each other to try to understand the text deeper.

With this strategy, the teacher lets the students write questions when they finish reading; and especially in difficult academic readings, the students will understand the material better and remember it longer if they write questions after

they finish reading. Each question should focus on a main idea, not on illustrations or details, and each should be expressed in their own words, not just copied from parts of the paragraph. (WWW. Readwritecritically.com)

Step 4. Further thinking and reflections after reading.

The reading material that the students read might challenge their attitudes, their unconsciously held beliefs, or their positions on current issues. That's why a lot of students would feel puzzled or even anxious while reading. They need more time to consider and reorganize the ideas they get from the reading material; then it is possible for them to obtain further understanding of the text after reading.

Step 5. Outlining and summarizing: Identifying the main ideas and restating them in their own words.

Outlining and summarizing are especially helpful strategies for understanding the content and structure of a reading selection. Most English teachers like using these methods to help their students understand the text. When the teachers ask their students to practice outlining and summarizing in reading, they teach them to recognize the basic structure of the text they read first; the students are required to write down the structure on a piece of paper, and try to recognize the main ideas and the supporting ideas and also the examples the author uses, because the main ideas form the backbone of a text.

Summarizing has slight difference from outlining. Outlining a text basically means listing all the important facts and examples together, while summarizing a text is to develop a new text based on the original structure of the reading material. Outlining depends on a close analysis of the material, and summarizing also requires creative synthesis. The readers are required to put ideas together in their own words and in a much more condensed form, which shows how reading critically can lead to deeper understanding of any text.

In this practice, the students learn to think while reading, and thinking while reading is the primary purpose of critical reading.

IV. PROBLEMS IN PRESENT COLLEGE ENGLISH READING

I frequently hear students complain that they spend a lot of time reading many texts, but they still have many difficulties in reading, not only when they do English tests, but also when they read in normal life. Mostly, they say they have little interest in reading English material; they have to prepare for all kinds of tests. Some say they have certain interest in reading English books, such as novels or something, but it is hard for them to read along, not to mention a good understanding!

All in all, I collect several factors that result in the possible difficulties in college English reading.

1. Lack of cultural and background knowledge.

As foreign language learners, Chinese students need to work very hard to overcome the problem: they cannot understand the reading material because they are lack of cultural and background knowledge. See the following example:

The magi, as you know, were wise men—wonderfully wise men—that brought gifts to the Babe in the manger. They invented the art of giving Christmas presents. Being wise, their gifts were no doubt wise ones, possibly bearing the privilege of exchange in case of duplication. And here I have lamely related to you the uneventful chronicle of two foolish children in a flat who most unwisely sacrificed for each other the greatest treasures of their house. But in a last word to the wise of these days let it be said that of all who give gifts these two were the wisest. Of all who give and receive gifts, they are wisest. Everywhere they are wisest. They are the magi. (Henry, O, 1997, P. 7-8)

As we know, one of the leading characteristics of Henry, O's novels is that he is always trying to capture the feel of telling a story orally, so the style of the novel "The Gift of the Magi" is oral, simple, and informal. However, it doesn't mean that it is all easy to understand. The above paragraph is the last of the novel, and the phrase "the Magi" appears twice in this paragraph. The readers need to know its meaning to achieve a good understanding of the whole novel. According to Matthew 马太福音, the Magi were the first religious figures to worship Jesus. It states that they came from the east to worship the Christ, born King of the Jews. They are regular figures in traditional accounts of the nativity (the birth of Jesus) celebrations of Christmas and are an important part of Christian tradition. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Biblical_Magi).

According to the story, the magi were wise people. They chose the best gifts for Jesus. Just as the narrator of "The Gift of the Magi" suggests at the end of the story, these gifts both husband and wife gave to each other must have been the smartest, best gifts in the world: the young couple sacrificed everything they had of value to give each other the best Christmas gift. The narrator compares the two characters in this story – Jim and Della – with the magi: they gave each other the best gifts of all, for they showed each other the best gifts between lovers: true love.

The students really need to read widely to learn more about the western culture and religion to help understand well the reading material.

2. Difficulties in grammar and words

Grammar is the study of words and how they can be used to form sentences. Grammar is the backbone of the language, without which the language itself cannot exist. Many foreign language teachers and learners complain that they spend too much time practicing grammar but it is not very helpful in improving their language competence. The point is the technique that people use to practice grammar. Mechanical Practice makes people tired, but practicing grammar in wide reading will be greatly helpful.

Word order and Sentence order—Word order and sentence order are both important in language. The basic pattern for English statements is: subject-verb-object-place-time. Of course sentences do not have to have all of these parts, but if all of the parts do occur, they most likely will occur in this order. If a sentence has both a place and a time, one of these is frequently moved to the front of the sentence (C. Ray Graham & Mark M. Walsh, 1996, P. 120).

Sometimes our students fail to use correct word order to express their own ideas in thinking, thus they have unexpected difficulties in reading. They cannot understand the sentences in certain texts they read. Clearly the overlook of word order in texts bring them a lot of difficulties.

Word order is also important in English with phrases smaller than a sentence. Let's see the following example:

. . . those first two big yellow climbing roses of yours that you planted . . .

. . . big those two first climbing yellow roses that you planted of yours . . .

Very clearly the first phrase is natural but the second is hard to understand because of a minor change of its word order (C. Ray Graham & Mark M. Walsh, 1996, p. 120).

Verbs—The learners have many problems with verbs: They don't know how to use them correctly in English, and of course they don't know how to understand them clearly. Here are some of the problems the students have:

(1) Present tense—In English, people use present tense to refer to actions that are habitual, repeated, or always true, and use present progressive tense to express actions that are taking place in the present. See the following examples:

Present tense:

The sun rises in the East.

I get up every day at 6:00 a.m.

We celebrate Thanksgiving in November.

Present progressive tense:

The teacher is coming into the classroom now.

We are doing our homework in the classroom now.

Many students can't understand the real meaning of present tense; of course they can't use it correctly. They make mistakes in expression, and they are quite confused about the meaning of the sentences they read.

(2) Verb phrases—Some actions in English are expressed by phrases that consist of a verb and a preposition or adverb. The meaning of the verb phrases is different from that of the verb. For example, "pick" can mean "to choose or to break from trees", while "pick up" means "lift up" or "get someone from a place". The students find it really hard to understand the different meanings of these verb phrases, and they are greatly confused in reading when they meet such phrases. The students need to learn carefully and read widely to know more about these verb phrases to help them understand better in reading. Basically they need to do more reading and read critically to enhance their language competence.

Prepositions—English prepositions are a problem because different languages use different prepositions to express the same ideas. Both the teachers and the students need to learn to put the prepositions in situations where they can be used naturally. It can be very confusing to choose prepositions to use in expressions.

Nouns—In English, as in many other languages, nouns are classified as two kinds: countable nouns and uncountable nouns. If something is countable, it can have a plural form. If it is uncountable, the singular form of the noun is used to refer to any quantity. For example, in English, "homework" and "housework" are generally uncountable. Students have to learn which nouns are which in English because it affects other grammar principles as well.

There are other problems with English grammar but as long as the students work hard to read widely and lay a comparatively solid foundation in English grammar, they can cope with these problems and read well.

3. Reading habits and skills

Many students have bad habits in reading. Some have difficulty in concentrating on the reading, and their reading speed is very slow, and unfortunately these problems lead to poor comprehension. Some move their lips and even mimic speech with their tongues while reading. Some others even have the habit of using their fingers or a pen to point the lines. All the bad habits influence the students' reading range and the effect of reading.

Apart from eliminating these bad habits in reading, the students also need to improve their reading skills to read well. Improving reading skills will help them shorten their reading time and read more effectively and fruitfully, and increase their levels of understanding and concentration. The critical reading skills can enable them to read more effectively and fruitfully.

V. APPLICATION OF CRITICAL READING STRATEGIES TO COLLEGE READING TEACHING

To apply the critical reading skills to reading:

In pre-reading, ask the students to have clear reading goals, and choose the right reading skills, such as note-taking techniques, or engage their lips, tongues and vocal cords to read actively, and more fruitfully. Clear reading goals can significantly increase their reading efficiency. As some parts are not of use to them. Use reading goals to choose and prioritize information according to the task in hand.

Then the readers skim and scan the text.

Skimming is the process of speedy reading for general meaning. The students are taught to let their eyes skip over sentences or phrases which contain detail. Concentrate on identifying the central or main points.

Scanning the text may help the readers find the wanted information in a very short time. In this kind of exercise, the students are asked to finish reading a long passage within a very short period of time. They scan to try to find the specific information they need to answer the questions, and at the same time they think very quickly to draw understanding of the text.

Skimming and scanning can be done very quickly, and this kind of pre-viewing of the text will do a very good preparation for detailed reading later.

In detailed reading, note taking is very useful. Once they have selected useful information, they can begin to read in detail. When they read in detail, they underline and highlight to pick out what seem to be the most central or important words and phrases; in this way they get a deeper understanding of the material. Then the readers raise questions to encourage themselves to take an active approach to their reading. Ask the students to ask each other questions and give answers to them. Questions and answers will make the students think deeper and harder in reading, and also help them recognize the missing information in their own reading.

When they finish reading, ask them to write summaries to check whether they have understood what they have read. Skim over the text to check whether they have record all the important information.

VI. CONCLUSION

These strategies encourage the readers to have an active engagement with the text as well as providing the readers with a useful record of their reading. Let them have a clear focus for reading, and set their reading goals clearly. Once they read critically, they obtain a deeper and better understanding of the reading material.

As we all become clear about the difference between critical reading and non-critical reading, and we see the effectiveness of critical reading because of the application of the critical reading strategies, we should try to do reading in this way to obtain a better and more fruitful comprehension in college English reading.

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English Language Teaching in South Korea: A Route to Success?

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Abstract—This paper is an attempt to investigate the status of English language teaching (ELT) in South Korea. To do so the historical background of ELT, and the reform movement, as a measure taken by the government to boost language education in this country, have been discussed. The outcome of this measure and the philosophical underpinning of education in this country along with different issues related to language teaching, such as: learning strategies, beliefs, language ideology, and the use of technology-assisted language teaching programs have been elaborated. Attempts have been made to demystify the ELT problems in this country with the aim of alleviating the shortcomings and improving the strengths of such an educational system. Putting different pieces of the ELT puzzle in South Korea together, some of the stunting factors were recognized to be: the ideological basis of the reform movement, lack of utilizing critical pedagogy, and insufficient attempts aimed at teaching language learning strategies and technology-assisted language learning normalization. Though this paper has focused on the status of ELT in Korea, many of the raised suggestions can be utilized in other countries, in particular Asian countries with Confucian background.

Index Terms—ELT, confucianism, reform movement, language ideology, critical pedagogy

I. INTRODUCTION

English language teaching (ELT) in South Korea has a long history. English has been the first foreign language in this country since 1945 (Kaplan and Baldauf, 2003). And, it became a required subject in 1997 (Kwon, 2009). According to Kim-Rivera (2002), in 1983 the Korean government opened an English school for interpreters; thereby it contributed to the growth of English language education for the next twenty-two years. In 1905, when Korea became a Japanese protectorate, this growth was interrupted. As stated by Kim-Rivera, there were two factors which led to Korea missing opportunities for English language education between 1938 and 1945. First, when Japan engaged in war the government declared English as the language of the enemy and suppressed its use and teaching. And, second, when Japan mobilized the entire colony for the war effort, it stopped all education in Korea by 1945, including opportunities for ELT development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Reform Period

According to Kaplan and Baldauf (2003), in 1994 the Presidential Committee for Globalization Policy, acknowledging the failure of the existing English curriculum in developing students' oral proficiency, undertook a reform in ELT in Korea. Some aspects of this reform movement included the introduction of English instruction at an earlier age (especially at elementary schools, which as referred to as ELES (English language in elementary school); developing national English curriculum (including teacher training, organized multimedia facilities and standardized textbooks); and emphasizing fluency and successful communication rather than accuracy and rote memory.

B. The Reform Outcomes

According to Kwon (2006), after the ELT reform in Korea, in 2006 a research was conducted by Kwon, Boo, Shin, Lee, and Hyoun, to assess the changes taking place during ten years of ELT and to find means and measures to improve it. The results of this study, as reported by Kwon (2006) are as follows:

- 1- Advancement of academic research
- 2- Changes in curriculums, teaching materials, and teaching methods, i.e., the introduction of video, audiotapes, and CD-ROMs
- 3- Changes in teacher education and in-service training for ELES, i.e., the increase of the in-service training courses
- 4- Investigating students' perceptions and self-evaluations of English, i.e., elementary students were less confident with productive skills than with receptive skills, and with written language than with spoken language.
- 5- Investigating teachers' evaluations and perceptions of students, i.e., they were positive toward ELES.
- 6- Investigating social changes, i.e., the increase of private tutoring, ELT in kindergarten, and early study-abroad.
- 7- Investigating the effects of ELES of students' English abilities, i.e., reading, listening and writing of the ELES group's scores were significantly higher than these of the non-ELES groups.

Nevertheless, according to Kaplan and Baldauf (2003), in spite of all the efforts made, the aims of the new curriculum have not been met yet. So that still Korean students do not have communicative ability in English. This failure can be attributed to several factors, but demystifying such factors requires an understanding of important issues such as the philosophical foundation of education, learning strategies, beliefs and language ideology in this county.

C. Educational Philosophy

Investigating the status of ELT in South Korea cannot take place irrespective of the prominent role played by the dominant underlying educational philosophy, i.e., Confucian philosophy. Confucianism became the state ideology of Korea during the Choson Dynasty in 1392 (Littrell, 2006). It was brought to Korea from China during this dynasty (1392-1910). This philosophy has had strong influence for more than two thousand years on the cultures of China, Vietnam, Korea, and Japan (Kim, 2004).

Confucius advocated a philosophy of learning that includes dialogue, thinking and reflecting, as well as memorizing (Rao and Chan, 2009). Kim (2007) investigated four principles of Confucianism, i.e., Emphasis on Education, Family System, Hierarchical Relationships, and Benevolence. The first principle encompasses issues such as rote learning, extreme competition, a work-play dichotomy, and a devaluation of play. The second principle imposes strict gender role expectations, rigid parent-child relationships and an overemphasis on obedience, filial piety, and loyalty. The third principle enforces unequal relationships, rigid social structure, gender role expectations, and authoritarian relationship between teachers and students. The fourth principle is related to issues such as suppression of emotion, the silence ethic, an extreme value of humility, conformity, and stigmatized eccentricity. However, the effects of Confucian philosophy have not remained steady. At the end of the Choson dynasty, when Koreans lost their national sovereignty to Japanese colonial powers in 1910, this philosophy was criticized (Hahm, 2003, as cited in Kim, 2004).

According to Shin and Koh (2005), part of America's success in ELT as compared with that of Korea is that while in America the emphasis is on individualism, in Korea the emphasis is on communitarianism, i.e., emphasizing the importance of groups or communities which is stemming from a deeply rooted Confucian philosophy emphasizing a hierarchical and patriarchal society.

D. Learning Strategies

Closely related to the educational philosophy is the issue of strategies used by the learners. There are many studies which indicate a link between cultural background and the choice of language learning strategies, e.g., Bedell and Oxford (1996); Reid (1987). In Confucian-heritage education students rely heavily on memorization (Ho, Peng, and Chan, 2001). While there are studies indicating the successful results of utilizing this strategy in some Eastern countries with Confucian thinking (Dai and Ding, 2010; Ding, 2007; Wray and Pegg, 2005), its use has been depreciated by many scholars as stunting the development of critical thinking abilities in the learners. In fact, "Theorists of *critical thinking* generally seem to be critical of approaches that are based on the mere transmission of information or blind *memorization*." (Gallagher, 1992, p. 221)

Probably such discrepancies can be demystified when the factor of 'time' is taken into account. That is, although memorization as a dominant strategy among learners with Confucian background might be fruitful, considering the amount of time spent for learning language through this strategy and comparing it with that of other strategies it does not seem very rewarding. At the same time, it should be mentioned that it is not memorization but the sole reliance on this strategy which is depreciated, since as mentioned by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), more effective learners are those who use a greater variety of strategies and also use them in ways appropriate to the language-learning task. And, less effective learners not only have fewer strategy types but also frequently use strategies that are inappropriate to the task.

The importance of learning strategies in education gets more prominent with regard to the notion of learners' autonomy and what Rogers (2003) has named 'stratopedia'. Rogers, defining this term as "teaching learners the strategies they need so that they can learn on their own" (p. 3) has referred to it as one of ten scenarios which shapes the teaching of second languages in the third millennium. Therefore, one of the measures which can be taken to boost ELT throughout the world, in general, and in Confucianism-dominant countries in particular, is teaching appropriate strategies. Consequently, it can be claimed that while implementing suggestions made by strategy studies such as Magno (2010) - which points to the stronger effect of using compensation strategies in increasing English proficiency of the Korean students - might be fruitful temporarily, to meet long-term behavioral objectives, Korea's educational reform requires consciousness raising and teaching varieties of appropriate strategies among teachers and learners respectively.

E. Beliefs

Also germane to educational philosophy is the issue of language beliefs. In language teaching, beliefs refer to "ideas and theories that teachers and learners hold about themselves, teaching, language, learning and their students" (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 52). In fact, the philosophical underpinning of education plays a key role in shaping beliefs. At the same time, for any educational reform to be successful congruence should exist between the beliefs held by students, teachers, and the government.

As far as teachers' beliefs are concerned, some rather contradictory results have been reported by different studies. For example, Yook (2010) has found such beliefs to be mostly based on the communication-oriented approaches (i.e.,

congruent with the reform). However, the limited number of teachers (N=10) participating in her study lowers the validity of her findings. Nevertheless, the fact that she has attributed the major sources of the participants' beliefs to their experiences (i.e., to overseas or domestic in-service teacher education programs) seems also to account for discrepancies reported on teachers' beliefs in different studies. Also, she has referred to mismatches among her own participants' beliefs as symptoms of a transitional stage through which ELT in Korea has been going, and not as inconsistencies and signs of major problems with the reform per se. But, according to Shin (2007), there is a lack of congruence between the government's beliefs (the reform policy) and those of teachers which refers to some problems with the reform itself. She believes that the dominant ideology embedded in the 'English-only policy' which led to the myth of the 'native speaker' (NS) as the ideal language teacher is in conflict with the beliefs held by Korean English teachers and students. According to her, while the government's ELT goals have been influenced by the discourse of globalization, those of teachers have been constructed through daily interactions with the students in the real settings (i.e., local classrooms). Therefore, part of the blame lies with globalization and its outcomes. That is, craving for 'authentic' English, and emphasizing speaking ability which are difficult for non-native speaker (NNS) teachers. According to Shin, this, in turn, led to an identity crisis in some NNS teachers who felt a sense of inadequacy and incompetence due to the pressures exerted by the 'English-only policy' which downgraded Korean teachers and legitimized NS as ideal teachers.

Closely related to teachers' beliefs are their perceptions of punishment. According to the report prepared by the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children (2014), some forms of corporal punishment, but not all of them, are prohibited in Korean schools. One important point is that although this punishment has been to some extent banned in this country, according to the aforementioned report, "the prohibition does not apply to "indirect" physical punishments such as forcing a child to hold painful positions, imposing punitive physical exercise, etc." (p. 3), and there are some controversy concerning the distinction between "direct" and "indirect" physical punishment. So, this punishment, to some extent, is still being implemented in Korea. Mamatey (2010) in this regard found that while the Korean teachers acknowledged some of the negative effects of corporal punishment, nevertheless most of them believed the benefits outweighed the negatives. And this in turn led them to consider corporal punishment as beneficial in managing Korean EFL classrooms—especially in classrooms with 40 or more students.

While studies pointing to the adverse effects of implementing this sort of punishment abound (e.g., Arif and Rafi, 2007), its harmful effects cannot be appropriately understood unless one investigate it in longitudinal studies or in the light of the insights provided by the "critical incident theory" and "sensitivity to initial conditions" (e.g., as referred to by Finch, 2010). According to Larsen-Freeman (1997), language acquisition resembles complex nonlinear systems and like such systems it is "sensitive to initial conditions" to the extent that a small change in the initial condition might lead to tremendous changes over time. In the same vein Finch (2010) has referred to both positive and negative effects of critical incidents, mentioning corporal punishment as one of such incidents which over time brings about adverse effects. Therefore, one piece of puzzle missing from the reform movement would be consciousness raising in Korean teachers regarding the outcomes of their system of reward and punishment which might change not only the language achievement but also the whole educational future of a learner. What is important in Mamatey's study (2010) is that teachers' beliefs regarding the efficacy of corporal punishment were shaped by the educational system factors rather than the belief that such punishment helped their students. Consequently, changing the belief of the whole educational systems and teachers should take place in this country through raising awareness of critical incidents and their possible outcomes. The importance of corporal punishment has also been referred to by Shin and Koh (2005) who comparing ELT in America and Korea have attributed part of America's success to educators in this country who have developed numerous behavior management strategies in order to create positive learning environments, but Korean educators seem to have developed few disciplinary tactics and rely heavily on the punitive behavior management system.

As regards learners' beliefs, Shin (2007) found that not only teachers but also students did not consider being NS as the best teacher qualification. She referred to a mismatch between ELT beliefs held by different groups especially between teachers' and students' and those of government's as part of the reform's ideological problems. Resorting to Robertson's (1995) notion of 'glocalization', which is different from that the common understanding of the concept of globalization, Shin (2007) tried to solve controversies of ELT in Korea. According to Robertson (1995), there is a constant relationship between globalization and localization, i.e., "globalization ... increasingly involves the creation and the incorporation of locality, processes which themselves largely shape, in turn, the compression of the world as a whole." (p. 40). Therefore, Robertson, recommended replacing globalization with what he termed glocalization. Shin (2007), believes that although the attempt to include the global inevitably led global textbooks to exclude the local, such books can be considered as an "emancipatory site when successfully glocalized." (p. 84)

F. Language Ideology

The other issue which is related to educational philosophy is language ideology. It refers to "a set of concepts, doctrines and beliefs that forms the basis of a political, educational or economic system." (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 269). Ideology and language teaching are closely related to the extent that some scholars such as Kumaravadivelu (2006) believe them to be inseparable. In fact, Kumaravadivelu has looked at "language" from the three vantage points of; language as system, language as discourse, and language as ideology.

One of the foundational structures of any classroom learning and teaching operation, according to Kumaravadivelu is interactional activities. Kumaravadivelu (2003) has considered three interrelated dimensions of interaction, i.e., interaction as a textual activity, interaction as an interpersonal activity, and interaction as an ideational activity. The first focuses on formal concepts, the second on social context, and the third on ideological content. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), while the first and second dimensions both fail to recognize language as ideology, the third dimension does so by empowering learners to construct their individual identity. In fact, "it focuses on ideas and emotions the participants bring with them, and its outcome is measured primarily in terms of pragmatic knowledge/ability." (p. 66). This often neglected dimension is important since "language is not simply a network of interconnected linguistic systems; rather, it is a web of interlinked sociopolitical and historical factors that shape one's identity and voice." (p. 72). Therefore, interactional modifications should provide the learners also with some of the tools required for identity formation and social transformation (Kumaravadivelu). The new Korean 'English-only policy' and the notion of the 'NS as the ideal language teacher' brought about by the reform, as mentioned by Shin (2007), are not completely in accord with Kumaravadivelu's idea. According to Kumaravadivelu (1999, p. 472),

"language teachers can ill afford to ignore the sociocultural reality that influences identity formation in and outside the classroom nor can they afford to separate learners' linguistic needs and wants from their sociocultural needs and wants. Negotiation of discourse meaning and its analysis should ... also take into account discourse participants' complex and competing expectations and beliefs, identities and voices, fears and anxieties."

Therefore, such a task probably will be much easily handled by an NNS English teacher who most probably is more informed of the students' culture, expectations, beliefs, identities, and anxieties and with whom learners can identify more easily.

The importance of the notion of identity in language teaching has also been referred to by McKay (2011) according to whom, investigating the second learners' identity has recently gained momentum in SLA theories. Therefore, attention is turned towards the ways school discourses can position language learners within the educational context, and, give them a specific identity. As mentioned by her, language use today is often not just English but a mixture of a variety of languages that underline the speaker's identity and proficiency. Therefore, the sole use of English and excluding L1 in classes is not recommended. This idea has also been acknowledged by insights provided by the World Englishes (WEs), and multi-competence theory (Cook, 2008).

G. Critical Pedagogy

As mentioned before, awareness of language ideology will provide deeper insights into ELT. To implement this end (Kumaravadivelu, 1999) has proposed what is called critical classroom discourse analysis (CCDA). In fact, "The relationships between ideology, language, and discourse are a central focus of critical theory and critical linguistics." (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 269). The primary function of CCDA is "enabling teachers to reflect on and to cope with sociocultural and sociopolitical structures that directly or indirectly shape the character and content of classroom interaction." (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 73).

According to Kumaravadivelu, critical pedagogy, influenced by the pioneering thoughts of Paulo Freire, has considered classroom as an ideological site and by doing so it tries to empower education and shed light on the way power relations work within the society. This aspect is not only pedagogically but also ideologically important, especially regarding the relationship between ELT and colonialism which has been referred to by Pennycook (2007). According to Pennycook, in many respects contemporary ELT reproduces colonial relations of Self and Other. Therefore, developing critical awareness of the neo-colonial impact of English and encouraging resistance to this impact in learners would be one of the measures which can be taken against such a threat. In the same vein Fairclough (1995) believes that language learners can learn to contest such practices only if the relationship between language and power is made explicit to them.

As an example of studies in this regard one can point to Lee (2010, October) who tried to explore ways in which ideologies related to English are imposed on or appropriated by Korea's language policies, academia, and the media. Through discussing the representations of English across different discourse genres, Lee tried to show the ways through which language ideologies surrounding English are locally reproduced and the ways through which discursive output of these ideologies contributes to reinforce the hegemony of English in South Korea.

As another example, one can refer to Prey (2005) who referred to YBMISi-sa, the giant in the Korean ELT and English publishing industry. As mentioned by Prey, it was founded over 40 years ago, and grew up under the "neo-imperial" conditions determined by the USA after the Korean War. Since then, YBMISi-sa has been in close relationship with the Americans, thereby influencing ELT in Korea.

The other way to boost ELT, which is in line with critical pedagogy, as proposed by Noah (1973, as cited in Shin and Koh, 2005) is cross-cultural studies, i.e., making a comparison between different cultures, including one's own culture with that of others. According to Noah, "a cross-cultural study allows individuals not only to investigate various values and norms within each country, but also helps individuals appreciate the cultural differences and to increase understanding among countries on the basis of the observed knowledge." (p. 1)

H. Technology and ELT in Korea

Understanding the status of ELT in Korea also requires an investigation of technology-based language teaching in this country since Korea is one of the sources of management and technology transfer in Asia (Graddol, 1997). Considering this point widespread employment of and research on technology-based ELT is expected to be seen in this country. However, research in this area is not advanced, for instance, CALL, though being widely used, is still academically under-researched (O'Donnell, 2006) and teachers still have difficulty using it (Park and Son, 2009).

Another related issue is the use of Internet-assisted language teaching (IALT). "Since the early 1990s, the Korean Ministry of Education has supported and provided primary and secondary schools with multimedia computers, software programs and Internet connections to encourage the use of computers and the Internet for education in Korea." (Shin and Son, 2007, pp. 1-2). The benefits gained from IALT have been referred to by many scholars (e.g., Murray and McPherson, 2004).

It should be mentioned that according to Davis's (1989), "Technology Acceptance Model", learners' internal perception about a technology program will determine their intention to use the program or not, and this, in turn, will lead to different learning outcomes. Considering Korea as one of the leading countries in computer technology, there is a vast opportunity for teachers to benefit from this technology. Nevertheless, in spite of the introduction of technology into the reform movement, and the positive attitudes of most Korean EFL teachers' toward the use of the IALT, about half of the teachers in the study conducted by Shin and Son (2007) did not use and/or had difficulties in using the Internet in their classroom. According to them, providing appropriate computer facilities with reliable Internet and IALT classes for teachers can remove such difficulties. Conducting a research in the same area, Park and Son (2009) referred to factors such as: as lack of time, insufficient computer facilities, rigid school curricula and textbooks, lack of administrative support, teachers' limited computer skills, knowledge about computers and beliefs and perceptions of CALL as factors significantly influencing teachers' decisions on the use of CALL. Overall, it seems that CALL and IALT normalization and training classes are missing from the reform.

I. Reform's Methodology

While reform recommended utilization of communication-oriented approaches to ELT, there are some problems implementing these approaches, and in particular CLT in Korea. First of all, it should be mentioned that, as acknowledged by Spada (2007) there are some confusion in the definitions and implementation of CLT which has resulted in a variety of myths and misconceptions. For example, while the 'English-only policy' in the reform recommends excluding L1 in many grades, Spada has referred to L1 avoidance as one of the CLT myths. Moreover, excluding L1 in class and transferring the teaching job to NS teachers will result in neglecting the expertise of NNS teachers who, according to Cook (1999), have the advantage of being bilingual and sharing the same L1 with students. Also, as mentioned by Peirce (1989), CLT does not have the ability to empower students to transform the status quo. Therefore, it often results in "the empty babble of the communicative language class" (Pennycook, 1994, p. 311).

In fact, according to Hu (2002), even many Korean teachers who claimed to be CLT followers, were often "paying lip-service" (p. 94), i.e., while they claim to be following CLT, they still stick to their traditional methods. It should be mentioned that "language- learning in Korea is culturally specific, and cannot be described by theories originating in other learning environments" (Finch, 2011, p. 60). Therefore, the methodological achievements by other countries and cultures should be adapted to those of the countries where it is going to be implemented. For instance, Finch in this regard, while advocating strongly the benefits of utilizing TBLT has recommend this method to be adapted to its Korean context.

III. CONCLUSIONS

While the status of ELT in South Korea has been improved to some extent by the reform movement, it still has not reached its full potentials. And although some scholars have provided suggestions to improve the status quo, there are still many controversies concerning ELT in this country. In fact, many of the suggestions made are still reflecting the ideological bases of the reform, some of which, according to this paper, are responsible for stunting the growth of ELT in this country. For example, the employment of more NS teachers as referred to by Kwon (2006), or the methodology recommended by the reform, and in particular CLT, have been discussed to lead to what Shin (2007) has referred to as an identity crisis in some teachers.

The other issue stunting the ELT growth was recognized to be lack of utilizing critical pedagogy. In fact, critical pedagogy suggests that education should aim at developing "critical thinking by presenting the people's situation to them as a problem so that they can perceive, reflect, and act on it" (Crawford-Lange, 1981, p. 259). As an example of studies in this regard one can point to Shin and Crookes (2005) whose investigation showed that contrary to the stereotypical belief considering East-Asian students as passive and non-autonomous, Korean students were by no means resistant to critical pedagogy, and depicted the ability to handle and generate critical dialogue in English. Therefore, the ground is ready for fostering critical pedagogy.

Moreover, the advantages of utilizing this pedagogy are not confined to boosting ELT, since it can also act as an anti-colonialism movement. Also the other advantage of utilizing critical pedagogy can be claimed to be what Kumaravadivelu (2006) has been referred to as "Liberatory autonomy" in language learners. While fostering autonomy has been one of the very important goals of many ELT endeavors, "liberatory autonomy", according to Kumaravadivelu

goes beyond the narrow view of learner autonomy by empowering learners to be critical thinkers. In fact, it actively seeks to help them recognize socio-political obstacles that prevent them from realizing their full human potential. And by doing so it provides them with the necessary tools to overcome such obstacles.

Furthermore, critical pedagogy by enabling Korean language learners to gain insight into their Confucian philosophy of education can help them to understand and boost their educational system. According to Kim (2007), there are elements within Confucianism that in many ways have prevented creativity to flourish to its full potentials and the best creative techniques or the strongest creative personality cannot solve this problem per se. But Koreans can solve this problem through self-evaluation of their culture and increasing their awareness of the limitations of their philosophical underpinning. Through such awareness people will be empowered to make choices for an environment that nurtures creativity. And since education on the whole, and ELT in particular, are closely related to creativity fostering such knowledge is important.

Teaching appropriate learning strategies, in line with the notion of 'strategopedia', raised by Rogers (2003), and adapting teaching methods to Korean culture, as suggested by Finch (2011), and technology-assisted language learning normalization are among other suggested ways to boost ELT in Korea.

Overall, it should be mentioned that in spite of the shortcomings, there is much room for ELT improvement in Korea. In fact, there are many issues which make ELT perspective quite rosy in this country. In this regard one can point to changes in the attitudes of many Korean teachers towards corporal punishment. Also there are studies indicating Korean students not to be resisting critical pedagogy (e.g., Shin and Crookes, 2005). Moreover, the advanced technology in this country paves the way for the ELT's future success. Therefore, should a nationwide effort be made to alleviate the problems, there will be lots of hope that ELT will thrive in this country even at a more rapid pace considering the hard working characteristic of Koreans, and their emphasis on education which stem from their Confucian Philosophy.

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A Corpus-based Study on the Writer's Identity in German Academic Writing*

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Abstract—There are different approaches that study the representation of identity and interaction in scientific research articles. Compared to English-speaking countries, German scholars hold different opinions on whether first person pronouns should be used in academic writing. In this paper, the author tried to address the construction of writers' identity in German academic writing through a corpus-based analysis. Through a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods to analyze the corpus, the author found out that the occurrences of first person pronouns in the German corpus are much lower than in the English academic articles. The feature of the German academic writing to avoid the use of first person pronouns shows the impersonal style of German academic writing. This feature has its own cultural and historic backgrounds and should be respected.

Index Terms—German academic writing, writer's identity, author's role, self-mention, first person pronouns

I. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing has gone through a long period of historical development, during which many scholars have produced research in great numbers and involving various aspects. Many studies have shown that scientific research articles are not created in a vacuum, but in a kind of social structure, in which the author must position himself in relation to his readers and thus within the scientific community. With this positioning, he takes on a social role, from which he interacts with his recipients through his text.

The author's role in scientific research articles has become a field of research in itself, especially in English-speaking countries. Hyland (2001, p.223) has pointed out that "first person pronouns and self-citation are not just stylistic optional extras but significant ingredients for promoting a competent scholarly identity and gaining accreditation for research claims. Self-mention is important because it plays a crucial role in mediating the relationship between writers' arguments and their discourse communities, allowing writers to create an identity as both disciplinary servant and persuasive originator".

There are different approaches that study the representation of identity and interaction in scientific research articles. Compared to English-speaking countries, German research on academic writing starts later. But this problem has also gradually attracted the research interest of German scholars. Researchers hold different opinions whether first person pronouns should be used in academic writing. The traditional conception that academic articles must be written in impersonal and object style seems to be challenged. According to Steinhoff (2007a), the present linguistic research on German scientific writing is predominated by the assumption of the so-called *Ich-Tabu* or *Ich-Verbot*. He has critically discussed this position and made a plea for a different point of view regarding both functional-linguistic and social-semantic aspects. Through his corpus-based investigation on the usage of the personal pronoun *ich* in German scientific texts, in which the frequency of *ich*-tokens is examined, he has classified the different usages by introducing the terms *Verfasser-Ich*, *Forscher-Ich* and *Erzähler-Ich*. This classification will be further introduced hereinafter.

In the light of the previous research, the author tried to address the construction of writers' identity in German academic writing through a corpus-based analysis. The most direct form of manifestation of the writer's identity is the self-mention of author, that is, the use of first person pronouns. As the first step of this research, we created two corpuses: each one contains respectively 20 German and English academic articles. Then we analyzed the occurrences and the functions of first person pronouns in these two corpuses.

There are some language phenomena in German, in which the authors express their opinions without mentioning himself, in other words, without using first person pronouns. Nevertheless, the readers can still be aware of the identity of the writers by reading between the lines. To further analyze the feature of the German academic writing to avoid the use of the first person pronouns, the author found some concrete examples for the concrete forms non-self-mention of the author, which shows the impersonal style of German academic writing.

In the last part, the author tried to explain the characters of German academic writing by analyzing the academic and cultural tradition in which it is set.

II. THE USE OF FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS

In order to find out the actual usage of the first pronouns in academic articles, which are written in the German

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language, the present study firstly explored a corpus of 20 academic articles, which are randomly selected from three representative journals in the discipline of German language and linguistics: *Zeitschrift für Interkulturellen Fremdsprachenunterricht (ZIF)*, *Informationen Deutsch als Fremdsprache (Info DaF)*, *German as a foreign language (GFL)*. These 20 academic articles were published in the last five years, all written by single-authors and have an average length of 8,138 words (totally 162,761 words). The reason to choose the articles from these journals is that the articles are written by native German writers who have a say as to the current standard for the use of first person pronouns in German academic writing.

The author adopted a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods to analyze the academic articles in the corpus. At first, PDF documents were converted into Word format, then the occurrences of first person pronouns with the help of statistical tools were searched, including the singular forms with declension *ich*, *mein-* (with different terminations), *mir*, *mich* and the plural forms with declension *wir*; *unser-* (with different terminations), *uns*. In order to make the statistical data more accurate, the data that does not meet the conditions were manually removed, such as the first person pronouns in direct quotations and those in example sentences, because they are unrelated to the self-mention of author.

A. Occurrences in the Corpus

The following two tables list the raw frequency and normalized frequency all the used first person pronouns in the German corpus.

TABLE 1
RAW FREQUENCY AND NORMALIZED FREQUENCY OF THE FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS SINGULAR IN THE GERMAN CORPUS

Kasus	Singular forms	Raw frequency	Frequency (per 10,000 words)
Nominative	ich	121	7.43
Genitive	mein-	22	1.35
Dative	mir	29	1.78
Accusative	mich	15	0.92
	Total	187	11.49

TABLE 2
RAW FREQUENCY AND NORMALIZED FREQUENCY OF THE FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS PLURAL IN THE GERMAN CORPUS

Kasus	Plural forms	Raw frequency	Frequency (per 10,000 words)
Nominative	wir	84	5.16
Genitive	unser-	28	1.72
Dative + Accusative	uns	33	2.03
	Total	145	8.91

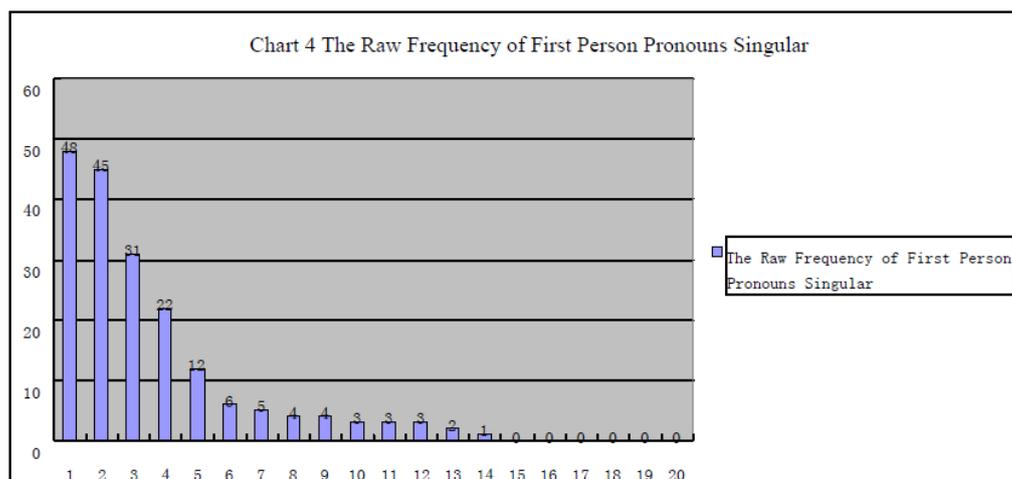
In order to show that German academic articles differ from English academic articles on the use of first-person pronouns, a contrast-corpus of English academic articles as a reference of comparison was also built. The English corpus contains also 20 single-authored articles of similar length (totally 179,634 words) from English linguistics journals. The statistics of the frequency of the first person pronouns used in the English corpus are shown below:

TABLE 3
RAW FREQUENCY AND NORMALIZED FREQUENCY OF THE FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS IN THE ENGLISH CORPUS

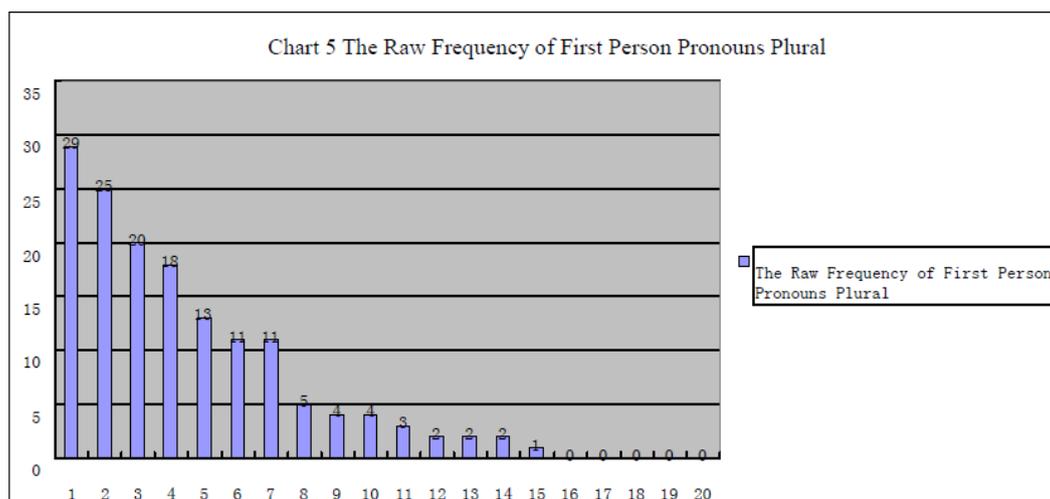
Personal pronouns (Singular)	Raw frequency	Frequency (per 10,000 words)
I	501	27.89
My	154	8.57
Me	61	3.38
Total	716	39.86
Personal pronouns (Plural)	Raw frequency	Frequency (per 10,000 words)
We	238	13.26
Our	110	6.13
Us	43	2.41
Total	391	21.77

We can see that the most frequent first person pronoun used by English native writers is *I* (27.89 per 10,000 words), and that the second most frequent first person pronoun is *we* (13.26 per 10,000 words), supporting the research results from Hyland (2001). From Hyland's results, we can see that the most and the second most frequent first person pronouns used in the research articles in the discipline of linguistics are 36.1 per 10,000 words and 25.4 per 10,000 words respectively.

In view of the significantly lower frequency of the first person pronouns in the other three Kasus (Genitive, Dative, Accusative) compared with the Nominative-Kasus, the two bar charts below (Chart 4, Chart 5) only distinguish between the first person pronouns singular forms and plural forms. Followed by descending order, they clearly reflect the frequency of the first person pronouns in the 20 articles of the German corpus.



In these 20 German academic articles, there are 6 articles which did not use the singular forms of the first person pronoun at all, with this zero-occurrence accounting for 30%. There are 9 articles in which the occurrence of the singular forms of the first person pronoun lies between 1 and 10, accounting for 45%. There are 5 articles in which the singular forms of the first person pronouns appeared between 10 to 50 times, accounting for 25%. Even the highest frequency, 48, is quite low in comparison with the frequency of the first person singular pronoun in English academic articles.



Within these 20 German academic articles, there are 5 articles which did not use the plural forms of the first person pronouns at all, with this zero-occurrence accounting for 25%. There are 8 articles in which the occurrence of the plural forms of the first person pronouns lies between 1 and 10, accounting for 40%. There are 7 articles in which the plural forms of the first person pronoun appeared between 10 to 30 times, accounting for 35%. The most high frequency count, 29, is also quite low in comparison with the frequency of the first person plural pronoun in English academic articles.

As can be seen from the above data, the occurrences of the first person pronouns in the German corpus are much lower than in the English academic articles. We can directly recognize the gap of each first person pronoun in the German and English academic articles. The most significant difference exists in first person pronouns *ich/I* between the two corpuses, the frequencies are 7.43 per 10,000 words and 27.89 per 10,000 words respectively. The frequency of *ich* in the German corpus is nearly four times as high as the frequency of *I* in the English corpus. We can find out that the German academic articles show very limited use of the first person pronouns. A sizable part of the authors strictly followed the German academic tradition of *Ich-Tabu*. The vast majority of the authors use first person pronouns very cautiously, which again is very different from the features of the English academic articles that emphasize the writer's identity through the self-mention of author. However, we can see that a part of the writers also used more first person pronouns, which may reflect a new trend of German academic writing style.

After the quantitative study on the occurrence of the first person pronouns, the qualitative methods to analyze the usage and functions of the first person pronouns in German academic writing should be applied. Due to space limitations, this article will focus on the use of *ich*, namely the most frequent first person pronoun that is used in the German academic articles.

B. Functions of the First Person Pronouns

In order to get a deeper understanding as to the limited use of the first person pronouns in German research articles,

the following part would analyze the use of the first person pronouns in the German corpus from the functional perspective.

At this point, it is necessary to introduce the theory of the German linguist Steinhoff (2007b). He studied the use of *ich* in academic writings of German scholars and students and defined three types of author roles (*Autorenrollen*) realized by using the first person singular pronoun: the *Verfasser-Ich*, the *Forscher-Ich* und the *Erzähler-Ich*.

The *Verfasser-Ich* (I as writer) occurs mainly in passages of text-annotation, it serves as reader guidance. Furthermore, Steinhoff also summarizes text procedures that establish intertextuality (quote, refer etc.) as well as acknowledgements. The *Forscher-Ich* (I as researcher) used to prove the originality. It is mainly used for conceptualizations and definitions, but to explicate hypotheses and to express their opinions about other authors or their assumptions. The *Erzähler-Ich* (I as narrator), however, is only used by students in the early stages of their studies. It is used as auto-narration, that is, the authors write about themselves and their experiences and feelings that relate primarily to the thesis papers. This form is clearly evaluated as non-scientific.

The classification of *Verfasser-Ich* and the *Forscher-Ich* seem to be interdisciplinary relevant and shares similar principles with the categories of discourse functions of self-mention that Hyland (2002a/b) used for his analysis of academic writing. Table 6 gives an overview of the correspondence between the categories and the proportion of each functions.

TABLE 6
THE CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE CATEGORIES AND THE PROPORTION OF EACH FUNCTIONS

Steinhoff 2007	Hyland 2002	Raw	%
Verfasser-Ich	Explaining a procedure	44	36.36
Forscher-Ich	Stating results or claim	26	21.49
	Elaborating an argument	19	15.70
	Stating a goal/purpose	21	17.36
Erzähler-Ich	Expressing self-benefits	11	9.09

So far we can make an observation that a significant difference exists between the German and English academic writing. In the process of academic writing, German scholars deliberately avoid the use of the first person pronouns, which is quite different from the scholars in English-speaking countries. It is believed that avoiding the use of first person pronouns is an unwritten rule in German academic community. Although the different disciplines, the author's academic background or personal style can cause to a certain degree of difference, overall the most academic writers still follow the tradition of the so-called *Ich-Tabu*. The next part of this article is about this kind of impersonal feature of German academic writing.

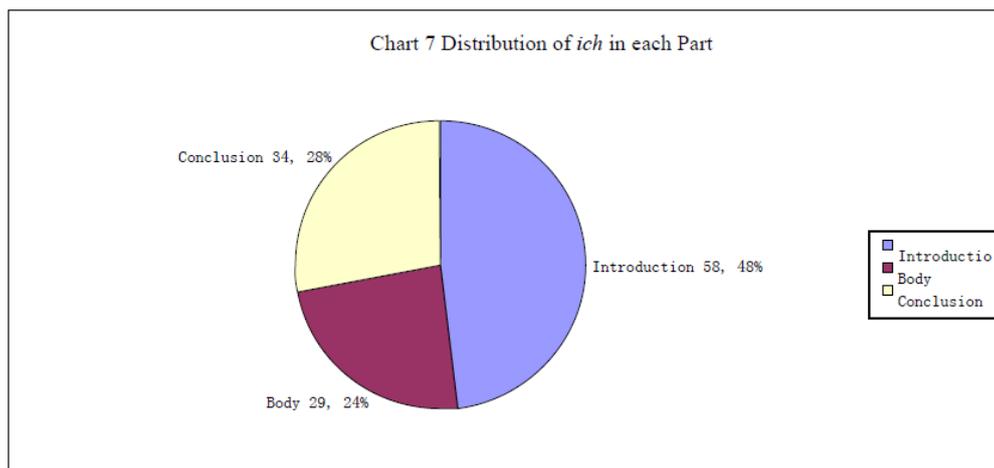
III. ICH-TABU – IMPERSONAL STYLE OF GERMAN ACADEMIC WRITING

To strive for objectivity, a tendency to Impersonalization is clearly observed in the German scientific texts. Concretely, this means that the pronoun *Ich* and its pro-forms are largely avoided. Although this Taboo was nowhere explicitly stated, it has the character of an unwritten rule.

From the starting point "forms of scientific language", Weinrich (1989, p.119) makes the assumption that the low frequency of the first person can be explained by so called "Ich-Verbot" (*I-Ban*). Kretzenbacher (1995, p.32-33) calls this phenomenon "Ich-Tabu" (*I-taboo*). The I-taboo makes the impression that the meaning of a scientific text is something that lies behind the text itself and is independent of the communication.

Graefen (1997) discussed whether a kind of *Ich-Verbot* exists? She believed that the more an author formulates explicit guidances, such as announcements, summaries or informations about his own plans and decisions, the sooner and more often the use of *Ich* or *Wir* is expected. If the author thinks of himself a guardian of knowledge expansion, he can make his text so be a means of communication. In this case, the author stands here as a special person with his communicative means and capabilities. In fact, this point can be verified by the results of my corpus study. According to the statistical results of the German corpus, there is a certain regularity of the distribution of *ich* in each article part¹, as shown below:

¹ In order to facilitate the statistic, I roughly divided each article into three parts: the introduction, the body and the conclusion because of their different contents and functions.



Through the above chart, we can see that the first person singular pronoun *ich*, that appeared in the German academic articles, is mainly concentrated in the beginning and the end of the articles. This is mainly because in the opening paragraphs of the articles, the authors explain the purpose of their writings, their research plans and processes, and in the end part, the authors make conclusions and express prospects for future research directions. In these two parts, the authors play a role of agent of the researches and use first person pronouns directly to reflect their role and identity as writer and researcher. In the main body of the articles, where the process of argumentation or discussion is demonstrated, it is no more of importance to show the writer's identity as an individual; thus, there is more emphasis on the science itself and the objectivity of the argumentation. This distribution trend is also echoed with the function types of *ich* in Table 6.

The Author can be seen as a bundle of indexing. Which indications are given about what a certain author does in his or her article? The author is indeed the authority in the article that presents arguments, makes considerations, makes distinctions, summarizing results etc. The readers get a certain impression of the author during reading of a series of markers. The markers, however, need not to be first person pronouns. In the present research, it is important not only to search direct markers of writer's identity, but also indirect markers of writer's identity. The next part is a brief introduction of several commonly used impersonal forms or grammatical structures in German academic writing.

A. *Deagentivierung*

This term is based on the German syntax. In sentences in the subject-predicate structure, the role of agent is linked to the subject. An inanimate object can take over the role of agent, when it is used as the subject in the sentence. This process is also called hypostatization. It means the revival of an inanimate subject.

Here are three examples:

- *Dieser Begriff erhebt Anspruch auf Universit ät.*
- *Das erste Argument richtet sich gegen die Vorstellung von ...*
- *Diese Regel erzeugt korrekte S ätze.*

The subjects in these examples - *Begriff* (term), *Argument* (argument) and *Regel* (rule) are actually inanimate, but they are used as subjects in the sentences and play the role of agents.

Through the avoidance of the first person, the role of agent is obscured in knowledge-production-process. By letting the thing speak itself, the real subject of the statement, namely the author as the agent of the scientific research, would be obscured in his role.

B. *Passive*

An object stands in the foreground as a grammatical subject. In this case, the actions are relevant and the agent of the action can be blanked. The statement therefore has a higher degree of universality.

For Example:

- *In dieser Arbeit wird haupts ächlich der Begriff X verwendet.*
- *Im Folgenden wird die Entwicklung von X dargestellt.*
- *Die Vorteile von X werden in folgendem Kapitel diskutiert.*

In these examples, the author describes his approach neutrally. The agent of the action, namely the author, is already indicated. Therefore it is no more necessary to use a person pronoun as a subject.

Worth mentioning is also the use of impersonal passive voice. The impersonal passive deletes the subject of an intransitive verb. In place of the verb's subject, the construction includes a syntactic placeholder *es*, which has neither thematic nor referential content.

Examples:

- *Es muss angenommen werden, dass ...*
- *Es kann nicht bestritten werden, dass ...*
- *Es sei noch erwähnt, dass ...*

The impersonal passive voice helps to create an objective writing attitude. German scholars often use this kind of expression to obscure the author's identity.

C. Nominal Style

A striking feature of the German scientific language is the nominal style. This means the accumulation of nouns and nominal constructions in a text. These include in particular:

1. Long nominal compounds;
2. Foreign words (mostly Greek or Latin origin);
3. FVG;

In connection with the nominal style, we can also see the frequent use of *Funktionsverbgefügen* (Functional verb structure). A FVG is a lexical unit of a verb and a noun and possibly a preposition. The verb has hardly any meaning in itself when part of such a construction, for example: *etw. zum Ausdruck bringen, die Schlussfolgerung ziehen*.

In addition, FVG can be transformed into passive:

- *Diese These findet bei den Fachkollegen viel Anerkennung.*
- *Diese These wird von den Fachkollegen anerkennt.*

4. Participle constructions.

Such constructions support the nominal style of a text, because after using prepositional phrases, there is no need to use a clause, of course, neither a verb nor a subject.

An Example:

Instead of the sentence: *Die Aussagekraft der Ergebnisse, die so gewonnen wurden, lässt sich ...*, the following sentence is stylistic better:

- *Die Aussagekraft der so gewonnen Ergebnisse lässt sich ...*

There are also other typical impersonal constructions, for example:

- *Es lässt sich zeigen, dass ...*
- *Daraus ergibt sich, dass ...*
- *Dem ist hinzuzufügen, dass ...*

These constructions, which are related to reflexive verbs or infinitive with *zu* in German, are not the focus of our discussion here.

IV. THE TRADITION OF IMPERSONAL WRITING

For a long time, the perception of cultural differences with regard to science communication was by no means obvious, because people thought that the science is something universal, that is independent of national and cultural conditions. Today, we find out that differences do exist within the scientific traditions of various countries or cultures and are articulated in the way that scientific texts or academic articles are written. Scientific style is related to the culture. The German scientific style is therefore only one among many and follows a certain tradition.

There is a series of studies on the differences between English and German academic articles. Clyne (1987) argues that German-L1 academic writers demonstrate a lack of reader-friendliness differing from NES academic writers in terms of linearity, discontinuity, integration of data and textual organisation markers. According to Weigle (2002), readers from writer-responsible cultures, are likely to find the writing of those from a reader-responsible cultures difficult to read, poorly organised or excessively vague. Writer-responsibility means that the author takes the responsibility of decoding the text information, or gives explicit references throughout the text to ensure that the communication between text and reader succeeds. Reader-responsibility, however, requires the reader to read between the lines and provide background knowledge to properly decode or understand the text. The German scientific style is such one of reader-responsibility, unlike Anglo-American texts, where more of a writer-responsibility is noticeable. Auer & Baßler (2007) discussed the universality and multiculturalism of scientific styles. They believed that the Anglo-American science style is the winner, not least because of its readability, but especially as a consequence of the American scientists' dominance in many fields: together with the publication language being English, it asserts itself more and more and displaces the others.

According to the German academic tradition, the Frequency of *Ich* in texts may be a simple, but not necessarily a valid manifestation of the author in texts. Basically, texts are conceivable in which the *Ich*-frequency is high but the contents are still perceived as impersonal. In the case of scientific texts, it is natural to assume that the single mention of the author's name in conjunction with the text title is sufficient to definitely determine the agent of obtaining knowledge. Therefore, the *Ich*-frequency may be not an ideal manifestation of the author in scientific texts. Although the author writes the text, defines it in a certain structure, makes statements about objects, etc., he as a person is not a part of scientific topic. The *Ich-Tabu* contributes to the anonymity of scientific texts. By "*Entpersönlichung*" (depersonalizing) (Drescher, 2003, p. 59-60), the facts are to be focused, not the person, who transmit the knowledge, so that the impression of this kind of knowledge is formed, which stands in line with the ideal of objective science and is independent from the subject.

On this issue, Anglo-American scholars clearly take on a different view. According to Hyland (2002a, p.1110-1111), "self-mention constitutes a central pragmatic feature of academic discourse since it contributes not only to the writer's construction of a text, but also of a rhetorical self. The authorial pronoun is a significant means of promoting a competent scholarly identity and gaining acceptance for one's ideas. The ways that writers choose to report their

research and express their ideas obviously result from a variety of social and psychological factors. While Anglo-American academic conventions encourage a conscious exploitation of authorial identity to manage the reader's awareness of the author's role and viewpoint, L2 writers from other cultures may be reluctant to promote an individual self."

V. CONCLUSION

In summary, we can now ascertain that although the convention of *Ich-Tabu* is sometimes ignored, the main tendency of German academic writing is still that the first person singular is used very sparingly. And this feature has its cultural and historic backgrounds and should be respected.

It is true that every scientific language has undergone changes: on the one hand, certain conventions play no longer a role; on the other hand, some new linguistic phenomena are gradually accepted. 100% objectivity is perhaps unrealistic, unattainable and also unnecessary. Many scholars reach a consensus that the intersubjectivity, not the objectivity, should be achieved through academic writing. It can also explain why we found a small amount of academic articles in the German corpus which do not follow the principle of *Ich-Tabu*.

Although international scientific publications have become increasingly dominated by the English language, we are sure that German as scientific language will still play a role in the scientific community in the future. We should respect its own characteristics, with an open and tolerant attitude towards the natural development of each language. German linguist K. Ehlich (2000) has argued for the retention, expansion and promotion of German as one of scientific languages for the 21st century. His arguments for a reflective, language-conscious and language awareness promoting multilingualism in the sciences and for its scientific investigation, monitoring and development are applicable to any language.

Through the study in this article, the author tried to express that every language is qualified as a scientific language, and each scientific language has its own characteristics. But allowing, even encouraging the existence of such differences is one important way of scientific development. By revealing the differences of academic writing style, we can not only find out the academic tradition and cultural background of an author, but also promote academic reflections.

In future research, it is meaningful to build three corpuses of English, German, Chinese scientific articles in different disciplines. Through more systematic, more comprehensive comparison, the characteristics and development trends of these three scientific languages can be analyzed, so that we can explore the impact of globalization on the development of science and scientific language, and in turn, the promoting role of different scientific languages for the scientific development.

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A Comparative Analysis of IELTS and TOEFL in an Iranian Context: A Case Study of Washback of Standard Tests

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Abstract—Having desired results represents a type of success on what the teachers and the learners have been working on. In order to obtain the correlation of the standard tests of IELTS and TOEFL 120 applicants have been selected. They were grouped under IELTS study phase and non-IELTS study group and also TOEFL study group and non-TOEFL study group. The applicants were at C1, C2, and B2 level of CEFR in the first group and Advanced and intermediate high of ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines. The applicants received treatment and took six tests along with a pretest and a post test. Therefore, there were four groups in the study as receiving the treatment and the placebo thereof. Besides, the applicants were interviewed in order to get their ideas and personal attitudes to the success or failure of standard exams. In order to do so a questionnaire was developed and its reliability and validity was gauged. The results of the testing procedure represents more plausible scores on IELTS test results. This could be attributed to the recent trend among Iranian graduate and post graduate learners to IELTS exam. The results of the total study reveals the idea of teaching to the test and studying for the test which verifies the washback of the tests and reflects washback on teaching and learning.

Index Terms—IELTS, TOEFL, CEFR, ACTFL proficiency guidelines, washback effect

I. INTRODUCTION

For almost many years two standard tests have been in use in order to gauge the learners or university applicants immigrating the English or non-English speaking countries. TOEFL has been one of these successful exams. Within the past decade TOEFL exam has been pushed away a little bit in its use in some developing countries such as Iran. This fact doesn't insinuate that it is the weakness or the superiority of either of the aforesaid tests that such a thing is happening in Iran, on the other hand it is due to the growing use of the IELTS test in some universities that Iranian students or applicants can easily be accepted without visa problems.

Therefore, in this study the correlation of these two standard tests have been checked out in order to reveal the influence or the result of the recent trend among the Iranian applicants.

The other side of this research study reflects the importance of the exams on the applicants' lives or the influence of the exams that make the learners to learn in a specific way and the teachers to teach in a specific way. This specific way is the guarantee that the learners are looking for in order to obtain an acceptable score and for the teachers to have their students to do so (Bailey, 1996). The influence of the exam in such an important issue suggests and substantiates the washback of the tests. This study is trying to represent other dimensions of washback in a type of case study. As a result a test will influence how teachers teach and test will influence how learners learn (Wall and Alderson, 1993). In this study these panoramas of washback are under investigation and the results represent a logical understanding from the present day applicants of standard exams like TOEFL and IELTS in Iran.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Having desired scores has always been the longing desire of teachers and the learners. Developing tests that would truly gauge the learners achieved skills and reflecting the teachers efforts seem to be an ideal. However, looking for positive outcomes of the tests on learning and teaching is a plausible attitude that caught the attention of the researchers active in the literature of language teaching and testing for almost two decades (e.g. Green, 2007; Chen, 2002; Wall, 2000; Cheng, 1997; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Shohamy et al., 1996; Wall and Alderson, 1993; Khaniya, 1990). The plausible outcomes of the tests are referred to as washback. A term which is widely used having no superiority over backwash. Washback is the outcomes or the influence of testing on teaching or learning. The existence of washback has already been substantiated through different studies.

In the recent years the study of washback has taken different angles. Researchers have shown interest of obtaining the washback effect of standard tests such as IELTS or the TOEFL tests (Saif, 2006; Green, 2005; Qi, 2004 and Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996). Apart from these studies there are different studies of washback on other skills in non-native contexts (Shih, 2007; Andrews et al. 2001; Badders, 2000 and Herman and Golan, 1993). As far as these two standard tests still play an important role in the selection of applicants the correlation of the two tests in a non-native context seems to be a critical question all in all.

In a developing country such as Iran many applicants tend to learn the most common foreign language which is English language. As far as the private sector is very active in Iran; therefore, many applicants learn the very basic issues related to the language studies at school and such knowledge that they gain would not prepare them for standard exams like IELTS and TOEFL test. Different research studies have been done on obtaining the washback of the standard tests in Iran on different angles (e.g. Mohammadi, 2007) or the Nation Wide Entrance Exam for the bachelor degree (Salehi and Yunus, 2012). Although many studies of these kinds have been done on the concept of washback the very study concerning the correlation of the two tests in a non-native environment is missing in the literature. Therefore in this study after having a scrupulous selection of the applicants and a long term preparation courses for the applicants, the correlation of the two standard tests have been the core idea of this research study.

In recent studies the trend of the washback study has been toward positive washback effect (Saif, 2006 and Brown, 2002 to name a few). Positive washback effect in general seems to be an ideal. Having a test with pure positive effects and no negative influence seems to be an illogical issue. In this study the main aim is to prepare the learners for the standard exams and later on obtain the correlation of the two tests. Then it would be logical to ask the role of washback. Later on through oral interview of the applicants and colleagues who cooperated in the study it proved that it was the influence of the tests that makes the learners to learn in a specific way and the teachers to teach in a specific way. In other words the teachers teach to the test and the learners learn for the passing or acceptable scores (Messik, 1996).

Having this background this study is trying to find the correlation of the two standard tests by taking standard exams and comparing the results and also by interviewing the learners and the teachers to prove the claim that the teachers teach for the test and the learners learn for the test.

III. METHOD

A. *Participants*

A pilot study had been done in order to select the capable learners to take part in the research study. The participants had been divided into two main groups. They were grouped as those who were going to be part of the IELTS study group and the TOEFL study group. Later on the test takers who were in the IELTS study group had been divided into two sub-groups as the study group to receive treatment and a placebo group. The same happened to those who had been selected as the TOEFL study group. They had been divided into a study group and a placebo group. Most of the learners were planning to take part in the IELTS or TOEFL tests in order to pursue their education abroad.

After the pilot test, which contained two sections one as the written phase and the oral interview, 120 learners had been selected. 60 of the learners who were willing to take part in the IELTS test had been selected from among those who were C1 and C2 level of CEFR. It should be mentioned that almost 20 of them were at B2 level of CEFR. This has been done for logistic reasons. The good point about these 20 was that they were to leave their country in less than a year. The participants had been selected non-randomly through testing and oral interview. They had been selected gender-free though 37 of them were males and 23 of them were females. 20 of the test takers were from the northern city of Rasht and the researcher interviewed them in person, 10 of them were from the Central city of Arak, 16 from Tabriz, 8 from Ahvaz not particularly Ahvazi, but students of Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, and finally 6 of them from Tehran. The colleagues, who collaborated in this research study were from the same cities mentioned and again they were males and females. 5 of them were males and 4 females.

After the pilot test those who had been selected as the TOEFL study group were again grouped as two groups each one containing 30 learners. The test takers were at superior, advanced plus and intermediate high of ACTFL proficiency guidelines. The same as the IELTS section the test takers were from different cities. The researcher interviewed 6 of them himself, 23 of them were from Tehran, 5 from Ahvaz, 6 from Arak, 5 from Urumieh, 6 from Mashhad, and the other 9 of them were from Kish Island. Similarly in this phase the learners were males and females the same as the colleagues, 35 of them were males and 25 were females.

The learners in the IELTS and in the TOEFL groups not the placebo ones received 9 hours of instruction on reading skills, reading strategies, grammatical instruction, vocab instruction, phrasal verbs, and different types of texts and questions in each of the major test.

B. *Materials*

a. **structure and content of the questionnaire**

The questionnaire has been selected based on previous research topics being done on reading skill and the attitudes of the learners and teachers toward it. The original questionnaire had been applied in English speaking contexts and is available on www.aaic.au, though some changes had been done to be well-adapted to the current research study. The questionnaire had two main categories as Learners and Teachers. The first main part includes 14 questions which

contains multiple choice questions. For the multiple choice questions the applicants i.e. the learners had to select from among the items or just put a check mark for yes or no answer. Therefore, the first part of the answers were of yes-no type in some questions. The percentages of all these results will be provided in the results section. The original questionnaire had been prepared and it was reviewed by two professors holding Ph.D. of language teaching methodology. Two points have been considered while analyzing the first draft of the questionnaire. The clarity of each item and the appropriateness of the individual items concerning the topic. The revised form of the questionnaire was given to the experts and to ensure the content validity and the face validity of the questionnaire it was launched as the pilot study was being done. The piloting of the first draft of the questionnaire was to test the internal reliability. In order to achieve so Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the questionnaire to gauge the internal reliability. The coefficient was found to be 0.91 representing an acceptable reliability. All of these have been done due to some changes that have been done to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed to determine the role of tests in general, the importance of strategies on reading and vocab along with grammatical rules. The results of the questionnaire will be provided in details in the result section.

b. the Materials

The materials in the study were in all in all of the same type and nature with some slight differences due to the differences of the exams. The similarities were on the area of presenting the materials, the time of presentation and the amount of the interaction the colleagues spent in their classes. There were some books applied in the research study as well. These books had been applied to prepare the learners to achieve some of the objectives of the study. On the IELTS part of the study IELTS Practice Exams (2010), and Cambridge IELTS (2000), 504 Essential Words (2006), 1100 Words You Need to Know (2008), Phrasal Verbs in Use (2004), Advanced Grammar in Use (2005), Understanding and Using English Grammar (1999).

On the TOEFL side of the study some of the books were similar to the previous side of the coin such as 504 Essential Words (2006), 1100 Words You Need to Know (2008), Phrasal Verbs in Use (2004), Advanced Grammar in Use (2005), Understanding and Using English Grammar (1999), Grammar Digest (2004), and TOEFL Actual Test (2004).

On the IELTS Pre-Test and Post Test the latest versions had been selected from the Web page of International Testing Service. And the TOEFL pre-test and post-test had been selected from the TOEFL Actual Test. The sample tests that they had been taken after two instruction session on IELTS section they had been selected from the Cambridge IELTS and the sample tests on the TOEFL tests had been selected most of the time from the TOEFL tests from the TOEFL Preparation Course.

The CEP test of reading had been selected as a non-TOEFL or non-IELTS test in order to obtain the correlation of the two tests in the final run. This test is available at http://www.examenglish.com/cpe/cpe_reading.

C. Procedures

When the pilot study was being done and the learners have been divided into different study and control groups, the major tasks of the teachers involved in this study started. In order to obtain the washback effect of the tests the learners were supposed to be prepared to take the tests.

In the first phase of the IELTS study group the applicants were familiarized with the general information about the IELTS reading questions. Besides, they were taught the ways of reading for an exam and the types of the texts. The teachers taught the applicants how to skim the texts, how to scan the texts, what is intensive reading? What was extensive reading? Skimming and scanning as the major reading habits (Brown, 2001; Nunan, 2001) should be involved in any reading course. At this phase the teachers' tried to identify the reading strategies of the learners. Some of the learners' had the habit of reading the questions and looking for the answers without spending the time on reading the texts in advance. Some of the learners reported that they were very good with the comprehension questions, some other expressed that they had difficulty with the words or identifying the main idea of the texts. Finally, at this stage the learners were taught some grammatical rules that would help them understand the texts and would benefit the overcome the fear of the difficulty of the texts. 3 hours which would be considered as the two sessions of their class had been spent on developing the skimming, scanning and working on the concept of the tense in English language. As far as the subjects were at an advanced or upper intermediate level it was expected that they are familiar with many of the tenses and this expectation was a plausible one, for this was the true fact about the classes and they were really good. At some classes it had been reported that the learners were that much prepared that the teachers hadn't spent much on the tenses and most of the time of the class and been spent on exercises on the skimming and scanning.

As far as the researcher's previous experience had proved to him that one of the problematic areas on which learners have the difficulties answering the IELTS questions where on the yes, no and not given questions. This took an hour and a half that was a session of a class and also some classes needed to review the tenses as well. At this stage the learners received some issues related to the phrasal verbs and the importance of the phrasal verbs in English in general and in reading in particular. Vocabulary knowledge plays an important role in reading comprehension (Nation, 2009). That is why this part has been part of the reading instruction and phrasal verbs were the first stage of vocabulary expansion. Word collocations were another important issue covered in this phase. The teachers again reviewed skimming and scanning.

The next step on developing the reading skills of the learners focused on "No More than Three Words," on IELTS questions. These types of questions are problematic due to the fact that they have to understand from which part they

have been extracted and what should be provided as the answer. These types of the questions require a kind of mental organization of the ideas that the learners or better to say the readers receive. This mental organization was the core concept to be taught and how to provide the appropriate response was the issue that the teachers and colleagues tried to improve. On grammar section of the course passive had been reviewed and the importance of passive tense in English language along with its importance on the reading. Many of the classes showed weaknesses on this section though they knew how to make passive sentences they had problems differentiation some passive tenses such as past perfect passive, future perfect passive, and some unique ones such as future perfect continuous passive or past perfect continuous passive. After a review on phrasal verbs the teachers asked the learners 10 lessons of 504. This happened in an oral manner.

The next stage on developing the IELTS reading skills was working on the type of questions where the applicants were to select a title from a list of headings. One of the important factors that the learners had shown weakness in the past three tests was the idea of time management. Many of the learners used to complain that they were slow on reading and answering the questions and when they finish reading a test it seems that the time is almost over. The teachers from this session tried to review the issues on skimming again, and remind them that they don't have to read scanning type of questions the same as the comprehension questions. Such weaknesses even appeared to be among those who were very good on the oral interview as part of the pilot test. On grammar section of the course the learners received the notes on reported speech, Conditionals and gerunds. As far as the learners' proved to be very good with words, they covered 504 Essential words and moved to practice on 15 lessons of 1100 essential words. This stage took 3 hours.

The other stage contained the practice on multiple choice questions. The results showed that the learners were much better on these types of questions. This could be due to the fact that the learners from Iran are used to such questions from the time of their entrance exam they have practiced them and therefore they are very good on them. On vocabulary section 30 lessons of 1100 words you need to know had been covered the on the grammar section the teachers reviewed the gerund that they had covered in the other session and they pursued the lesson with infinitives, and word words. This all in all took an hour and half.

The last stage on the IELTS reading development was working on such questions with a list of names and then matching them. This could be considered as matching questions again. Time management was covered as well. On grammar section the learners were taught the concept of subordination, adjective clauses, adverb clauses and noun clauses no matter defining or non-defining. This took almost three hours. On the vocabulary section the learners had to practice 40 lessons of 1100 words you need to know along with some lessons of IELTS essential words.

The TOEFL side of the research was done when the IELTS phase learners were on the one month gap of themselves to prepare themselves for the post test of IELTS. There are some similarities between the steps taken which had been designed as the six phases, but the differences lie on the differences of the two tests themselves. Therefore, the difference of the types of the instructions was done due to the requirements of the TOEFL test itself. The research study started on September the first, 2013 and ended on December, the fifth 2013.

The phase one of the TOEFL test instructions began by working on and de facto apprising of the learners with the overall ideas about the reading test of TOEFL. They had been informed that there are differences in the nature of TOEFL and IELTS reading tests and each one of them require some technical exercises. The learners later on were taught the skills of skimming and scanning in order to answer the main idea questions. On the grammar section a short review of the tenses had been provided. Due to the lack of time the learners received the three hour instruction on one day afternoon and not in two different an hour and half sessions. The vocabulary instruction began by working on phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions.

The next phase of the instructions began while the learners had one week to prepare themselves for the first test. And after the first test was taken the instruction sessions began.

The third phase of the TOEFL preparation began by a review on the issues concerning implied ideas in the text, stated ideas in the text. Later on the questions and the issues related to the organization of the test and different types of TOEFL reading texts had been provided. The learners had to practice 30 lessons of 504 essential words. On grammar section the learners were taught some issues on direct and indirect speech. Prior to the instruction on the third phase the second test was taken. This instruction phase lasted two hours. At the end of the instruction session the teachers began asking the learners of the types of reading strategies that they had and the results of such interviews will be provided later on.

The other phase of the TOEFL instruction began by a two-week gap and then the third test was taken. After the test there were some review notes on the concepts being practiced so far. Later on the teachers taught the applicants some issues on finding the type of questions where they had to identify the referent of the noun or pronoun. On grammar section they received the notes on conditionals. They had to be prepared for all of the lessons on 504 essential words.

The fifth phase of the instruction began by a two week gap for the fourth test. Transition questions were the next series of the questions that the learners had been prepared. On grammar section the learners were taught the concept of verbal i.e. gerunds, infinitives, and word verbs. This session lasted an hour and half. 15 lessons of the book 1100 words you need to know had been covered.

The last phase of the instruction began again by a two week gap to take the 5th test. The learners were taught how to face a test with unfamiliar words or a text filled with technical words of a particular field of science such as medical,

astronomy, physics, chemistry etc. the other issue being covered in this session was the underlined words in the texts and also answering the questions asking the meaning of the words. On grammar section the learners were taught the concept of subordination.

Finally an independent Standard English test had been selected in order to gauge or in order to reach the possible correlation that the two prominent tests may have. The test had been selected among many other tests that would have been applied though some of the tests recommended by colleagues were not beneficial for example GMAT reading test or GRE General reading test were not suitable. Other reading tests could have been chosen such as CAE reading test. All in all CPE test of reading had been selected. And the test is still available at http://www.examenglish.com/cpe/cpe_reading. This test was given one week after the post test of each groups had been done. One week has been given the time of gap due to logistic reasons, bearing in mind that some of the applicants were about to leave the study in two week. The test is provided in the Appendix.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Previously it has been provided that this study aims to achieve some specific objectives. The objectives or specifically speaking the questions of the study were:

What would be the correlation of a test for applicants who had been trained based on the two frameworks?

1. What would be impacts of such tests on teachers teaching strategies of reading skill?
2. What would be the impacts of such tests on learners learning strategies of reading skill?

Based on such questions the following hypotheses would be conducive.

Ho: there is no correlation between the results of the two tests.

In order to confirm or reject the abovementioned hypotheses the results of the tests would be satisfying, while in order to achieve logical results concerning the two final questions the interviews and de facto the questionnaire would pacify the controversy and take the readers and the researcher away from the uncharted waters toward secure destinations.

A. *The General Descriptions and the Pilot Study*

It has been suggested that the data collection started earlier by a pilot study. As far as most of the applicants were from other cities, the researcher himself was not able to visit all of them and interview them in person. Therefore, some of the colleagues from other cities agreed to cooperate cordially and willingly. The very thing that was an important issue on the interview section of the learners was the fluency of the applicants. The reading skill of the learners was not the only criterion to be taken as the scale to be included or excluded, on the other hand their fluency in speaking and listening were of importance as well. Among the total number of the applicants 120 had been selected.

B. *The Correlation of IELTS and TOEFL*

So far the data collection and the data analysis has been circulating the first two hypotheses which were the possibilities of obtaining washback through two standard examinations as the outcomes of two major guidelines on teaching and testing English. The third hypothesis that requires the numeric data collection procedures is the correlation of the two standard tests. In order to do so, another independent test was needed. Therefore, CEF test has been selected. In the following section the correlation of the two tests would be provided.

1. **The correlation between the students' scores of IELTS and CPE**

IELTS and TOEFL are popular standardized tests; however, this study investigated to assess the criterion validity of these tests. To this aim, the participants took CPE which is considered as a standardized test. It made the researcher able to compare the scores of CPE test with the scores of IELTS and TOEFL. The main aim of doing this is to check whether IELTS or TOEFL enjoy higher validity.

This type of validity investigates the correspondence between the scores obtained from IELTS and TOEFL and the scores obtained from some independent criteria (such as CPE test). The degree of the correlation between the two sets of tests will be an indication of the criterion validity of the IELTS and TOEFL.

For a better understanding of the correlation between the two sets of tests, the tables of the scores of IELTS and TOEFL and the scores of the CPE test are available at the Appendix section.

Pearson correlation coefficients, the most commonly reported measure of correlation, were calculated between the scores of the two sets of tests. Correlation coefficients are used to quantitatively describe the strength and direction of a relationship between two variables. The following table provides simple summaries about the basic features of the data.

TABLE 4.9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE IELTS & CPE

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
IELTS	31.93	4.168	30
CEF	24.93	3.118	30

Table 4.9. indicates the variables being correlated and the name of each variable is listed in the left column of the table (i.e. IELTS & CPE). And N shows the sample size for the correlation—30.

The correlation coefficient can range from -1 to +1, with -1 indicating a perfect negative correlation, +1 indicating a perfect positive correlation, which is rare in the research studies, and 0 indicating no correlation at all. (A variable correlated with itself will always have a correlation coefficient of 1.) A positive correlation means that as one variable goes up, the other also goes up; in other words, as one variable increases in value, the second variable also increases in value. Similarly, as one variable decreases in value, the second variable also decreases in value. This is called a positive correlation. Moreover, as the correlation score gets closer to 1, it can be concluded that it is getting stronger. The following table indicates the correlation of the two scores in this study.

TABLE 4.10.
THE CORRELATION OF THE IELTS & CPE
Correlations

		IELTS	CPE
IELTS	Pearson Correlation	1	.822**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30
CPE	Pearson Correlation	.822**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	30	30

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

According to table 4.10 the first value in the cell reports a correlation coefficient of .822. A correlation of .822 is positive, and it is so close to be perfect. It can be concluded that when the IELTS scores increase (the first variable), the CPE scores (the second variable) also increases. The researcher can reject the directional hypothesis and conclude that the relationship between the IELTS and the CPE scores is statistically significant.

Sig. (2-tailed) is the p-value associated with the correlation. If the sig value is below the present criterion of significance (0.01), SPSS will put asterisks next the correlation value. Therefore, according to the footnote under the correlation table, the double asterisks signify correlation that is significant at the 0.01 level. In the result of this study, the p-value is .000, which means the odds of finding this relationship between these two variables just due to chance is less than .001, or less than 1 in a thousand. This indicates that there is a significant relationship between the IELTS and the CPE scores. Moreover, it means, increases or decreases in one of the variables significantly relate to increases or decreases in other variable.

For a better understanding of the result of the correlation, it is worth mentioning a visual representation of the data. Therefore, a scatterplot is available. A scatterplot is a graphic representation of the relationship between two variables. This type of graph can represent the degree of relationship between the variables. Figure 4.11. Presents this graph.

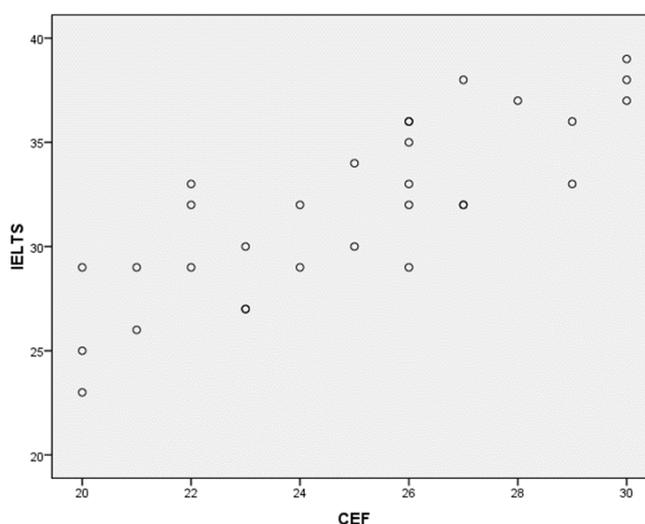


Figure 4.11. The scatterplot of the IELTS & CPE scores

According to the graph, the CPE scores are plotted on the x axis, and the IELTS scores are plotted on the y axis. The points in the graph tend to be rising, and it is almost a clearly positive relationship since points are to some extent

clustered to show a clear straight line. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is good positive correlation between the two variables.

2. The correlation between the students' scores of TOEFL and CPE

The following table provides simple summaries about the basic features of the data.

TABLE 4.12.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TOEFL & CPE

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TOEFL	27.80	2.592	30
CPE	22.77	1.888	30

Table 4.12. indicates the variables being correlated and the name of each variable is listed in the left column of the table (i.e. TOEFL & CPE). And N shows the sample size for the correlation—30.

TABLE 4.13.
THE CORRELATION OF THE TOEFL & CPE

		TOEFL	CPE
TOEFL	Pearson Correlation	1	.751**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30
CPE	Pearson Correlation	.751**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	30	30

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

According to table 4.13. the first value in the cell reports a correlation coefficient of .751. A correlation of .751 is positive, and it is not perfect. It can be concluded that when the TOEFL scores increase (the first variable), the CPE scores (the second variable) also increases. The researcher can reject the directional hypothesis and conclude that the relationship between the TOEFL and the CPE scores is statistically significant. It is worth mentioning that the result of IELTS showed that it has higher level of validity.

The following is a scatterplot of TOEFL and CPE scores.

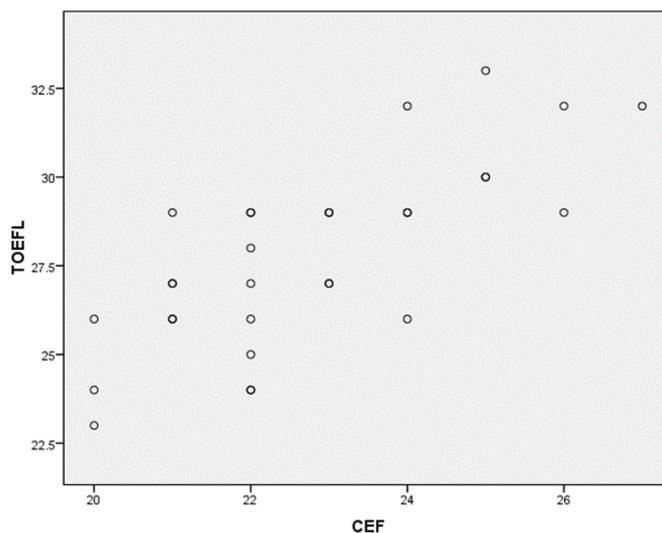


Figure 4.14. The scatterplot of the TOEFL & CPE scores

According to the graph, the CPE scores are plotted on the x axis, and the TOEFL scores are plotted on the y axis. The points in the graph tend to be rising, and it is not a clearly positive relationship since points are not clustered to show a clear straight line. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is medium positive correlation between the two variables.

In the literature it has been suggested that CEFR doesn't work for some contexts due to the cultural differences and the limitations of the levels that no exact level could be understood (Weir, 2005). The same story goes for the American

counterpart. Earlier this study was meant to delve into the concept of washback in order to obtain the positive washback effect though it seems to be an ideal perfect by itself, but it is somehow imperceptible.

In different articles it has been suggested that the test makes the teachers teach the way the test wants this is a very rough understanding of the concept of washback. All in all washback deals with the influence of the tests, such influence is easily seen in the results of the interviews. "I just read the materials for the exam, you know. I don't care what other materials would be beneficial for my understanding, I just wanna pass the exam," Ali a student of Civil Engineering at Guilan University told me. "Tests are just waste of time," Parvaneh 28 years old studying Electronics at Azad University of Lahijan. Many of them said the same phrase, "passing the exam."

Arash, a colleague of 12 years friendship, told me, "they need to pass the exams, we must stick to the questions and notes that's all. The exam is no kidding they need the passing score I need the money, it's a business you know." Many other teachers had the same ideas that the learners want to pass the tests and they needed the money. The researcher is not looking for a moral judgment here, but to provide the understanding of the people active in the field. It is the tests results and the test itself that makes them behave so. It has been suggested that language teaching changes due to the tests (Simin and Barati, 2012).

The finding of this study is in line with (Ferman, 2004; Wattanabe, 2004; Andrews et al., 2002; Brown, 2000; Alderson and Hamp-lyons, 1996; and Andrews, 1995). All in all, it is the importance of these two frameworks and the two standard tests representing their use. This comparative analysis proved that the teachers active in the field teach to the test or teach for the test. On the other hand the learners learn for the desired scores. This study was not to select either of the tests to represent as superior or inferior it meant to compare to understand the nature of the existing washback. That would be to other researchers to compare them for effectiveness and efficacious use of the two standard tests.

TABLE.4.14.
LEARNERS ATTITUDES AND ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1.	56% yes
2.	65% yes
3.	32% scientific; 20% new words; 17% comprehension questions; 13% true false; 6% implied meanings or messages, 3% literary texts; 2% historical texts, 5% finding the dates
4.	10%A; 45% rereading; 35%C; 10D
5.	83% yes
6.	47%A; 46%B; 6%C
7.	80% yes
8.	20% Yes
9.	Yes no not given 60% in IELTS; implied ideas 70% in TOEFL
10.	47% yes
11.	83% different
12.	85% sure different styles
13.	65% Yes; 35% no,
14.	75% teacher

TABLE.4.15.
TEACHERS ATTITUDES AND ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1.	Yes 68%
2.	36% Yes
3.	30% yes
4.	60% yes
5.	70% yes different,
6.	42% yes
7.	63% directly
8.	59% yes
9.	12% they don't need
10.	60% yes
11.	43% yes it would
12.	86% yes for the test

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this study the correlation of two standard tests has been computed. In the recent years Iranian students and applicants have showed a yen for IELTS test rather than the American counterpart. One of the reasons that the applicants in this study showed a little improvement over the TOEFL applicants could be attributed to this fact. In this study one of the main skills in language learning has been the core of the study. The texts and the materials that have been applied meant to develop the reading ability and comprehension of the learners. The results showed that the materials worked well. Moreover, the interviews revealed that the teachers are studying and preparing themselves for the tests and the teachers are teaching to the tests. This by itself suggests the role of the test on learning and teaching.

Such an undying influence in the literature is considered as the washback of the tests. Though in the recent studies positive washback have been considered as the ideal washback, it seems that the ideal would remain an ideal.

APPENDIX

The questionnaire for the Learners:

1. Is your reading slow and choppy? A. Yes B. No
2. Do you have trouble understanding what you read? A. Yes B. No
3. What kinds of reading material do you find most difficult understanding? A. Literary B.
4. What do you do when you come to a word that you don't know? Sounding out B. Rereading C. Reading-on D. Chunking
5. Do you use guessing as a reading strategy? A. Yes B. No
6. Do you understand what you read better when.. You read silently B. You read aloud C. Someone reads to you
7. Having a vast vocabulary knowledge would guarantee comprehension? A. Yes B. No
8. Grammatical rules or grammar knowledge would lead to comprehension of the text? A. Yes B. No
9. What types of questions you find the most difficult in IELTS reading Exam? In TOEFL reading Exam?
10. Do you apply reading strategies such as KWL, scanning, and other skills when taking a reading comprehension test? Yes which one No
11. When you are studying for different courses, the way you practice is the same or different? For example a reading test, or a writing test or a general English test? Yes how No
12. In a particular English course do you expect that the teacher would teach different styles and strategies than a general English course? Yes what? No
13. Would a test influence your future if you would not be able to get the results you wish? Yes how? No
14. If the learners do not achieve what they wish, who should be blamed?

Questionnaire for the teachers:

1. Reading strategies would improve reading comprehension in English. If yes which of them?
2. Grammatical rules would improve the understanding of a test.
3. Vocabulary knowledge would improve comprehending the text.
4. Stress management and relaxation exercises would improve student performance on reading comprehension tests.
5. Is teaching reading comprehension different to you in a non-IELTs or non-TOEFL class from a TOEFL or IELTS class?
6. Do you often focus on reading strategies to improve learner's comprehension ability?
7. Should the strategies be developed directly or indirectly?
8. ESL/EFL teachers should use supportive language techniques to raise their students' self-esteem before a reading comprehension test.
9. ESL/EFL students don't need reading strategies to do a reading comprehension test in English.
10. Would the pass or fail of the learners influence your career?
11. Would a test itself make you teach the way you don't like to?
12. Would you teach for the exam or the course outcomes?

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A Study on the Relationship between Age Onset of English Learning and English Achievement

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Abstract—In spite of the same learning environment and teaching resources, the achievement of different second language learners is varied. Because of their different achievement, much emphasis was put on the study of the learners' individual differences. Undeniably, the superiority of the younger learners to the older learners in the second language acquisition has been a hot research topic. This study sets out to explore the relationship between the age onset of second language acquisition and its relative achievements. An investigation was made through a questionnaire to identify the subjects' age onset of English learning, and then an archival study was performed to compare the achievements of the learners with different age onset. The original scores of the subjects' College Entrance Examination, and College English Test (band 4) were taken as raw data for statistics analysis. The result indicates that there is significant difference among different types of subjects with different age onset and the achievements of second language acquisition. Meanwhile, the author also tries to explore the possible reasons that could account for the differences among different groups. The results are of some significance in deciding the age onset for a child to learn a foreign language.

Index Terms—critical period hypothesis, second language acquisition, age onset

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a fact that second language learners vary enormously in what they actually succeed in learning, which has become one of the major conundrums in the SLA field. So some explanations are explored to account for the differential success, such as native language variables, input variables, instructional variables and individual variables which include age, language aptitude, motivation, learning styles, strategies, personality and so on. Since second language learners begin acquiring the language at a later age than do first language learners, age has been often considered a major, if not the primary, factor in determining their success in learning a second or foreign language. The research on age factor has always been one of the issues in SLA. The study on age of language learning has an important theoretical significance and as well as a practical significance.

The idea that there is an age factor in language development has long been, and continues to be, a hotly debated topic. In the past, apparently incompatible contrasts between young children and older learners had affected the formulation of generalizations about age-related differences in language learning: the fact that with exposure, young children become more native-like on all linguistic measures than their older counterparts, and the fact that older learners acquire second languages faster than young children. These apparent conflicts are resolved once short-term learning (rate) is distinguished from long-term learning (ultimate attainment).

Among the theories and hypotheses, a very controversial one about second language acquisition is the Critical Period Hypothesis by Lenneberg (1967), who states that there is a period when language acquisition can take place naturally and effortlessly, but after a certain age, the brain is no longer able to process language input in this way (Ellis, 1999: 484). The Critical Period Hypothesis was such a theory that attempted to provide a biological foundation to explain the pervasive "younger is better" myth concerning language acquisition. According to the Critical Period Hypothesis, there exists a common conception that the younger the children start to learn a foreign language, the better they will learn the language.

The thesis consists of five chapters. After the introduction in Chapter 1, the second chapter is about the literature review: previous research findings by the researchers home and abroad as well as the arguments and studies of CPH in the field of SLA. The third chapter investigates the relationship between the learners' age onset of SLA and its relative achievements by statistics collecting and analyzing. Discussions and reasons for the differences between different groups of learners are reached in the fourth chapter. The final chapter is the conclusion of the paper and some suggestion and implication for the starting age of teaching English in China.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Critical Period Hypothesis

The achievement of foreign language learners varies on a number of dimensions relating to age. Age is one of general factors contributing to individual differences in second or foreign language learning, and the Critical Period Hypothesis also has great effects on foreign language learning. The Critical Period Hypothesis was first put forward by Penfield and

Roberts (1959). It was developed to second language acquisition by Lenneberg in 1967. It was introduced to second language acquisition later. According to the Critical Period Hypothesis, there is a period during which language learners can acquire a second language easily and achieve native-speaker competence, but that after the period second language acquisition becomes more difficult and is rarely successful. Researchers differ over when this critical period comes to an end (Ellis, 1999). Since then, the factor of starting age in learning foreign language becomes one of key research points.

B. Supports for Critical Period Hypothesis

The scholars who support the view include Oyama (1976), Coppiters (1987), Patkowski(1980, 1990), etc. They reached a comprehensive conclusion of age factor: when the hypothesis that the children starting second language earlier can get higher proficiency than adults starting later was mentioned, it is permitted that there is some supporting evidence, on the contrary, there is not any opposed empirical research proof. Krashen also made the same conclusion after he had reviewed a number of experimental reports on foreign language learning.

Johnson and Newport's findings (1989) have been accepted as the best evidence supporting the critical period in second language learning. In their study of critical period effects in learning a second language, Johnson and Newport admitted that a critical period for second language learning exists indeed. Johnson and Newport believed that after the age of six, the ability to learn a foreign language began to decline.

Long (1990) drew several conclusions that were relevant to the topic. Firstly, both the initial rate of acquisition and the ultimate level of attainment depended in part on the age at which learning began. Secondly, there were sensitive periods governing both first and second language development, during which both the acquisition of different linguistic domains was successful and after which it was incomplete. Thirdly, the age-related loss of ability was cumulative, not a one time event. Last but not least, deterioration in some individuals began as early as six. Patkowski(1980) suggested that a critical period for second language learning did indeed exist. His study meant to find out the likelihood of a critical period for learning a second language. Patkowski found that learners under the age of 15 achieved higher syntactic proficiency than those who were over the age of 15 at the starting of exposure. The result of the study showed that of those who were exposed to pre-puberty (participants up to the age of 15), all (except one) achieved ratings of four through five, whereas those in the post-puberty group received a wider range of scores, with the mean falling in the three range. His findings were fully consistent with the Critical Period Hypothesis.

Christine Weber-Fox and Helen Neville (1999) examined bilinguals' Event Related Brain Potentials (EPR), which allowed for measurement of electrical activity in various areas of the brain. A series of experiments revealed that late learning bilinguals displayed slower linguistic processing than early-learning bilinguals, and that language-related neural systems of later learner were different in focus and function from those of early learners. Furthermore, the processing of grammatical aspects of language was distinct. Christine Weber-Fox and Helen Neville also reviewed other applications of neural imaging techniques to bilingualism and second language acquisition, underling the specific areas of linguistic competence in which difference between late and early bilinguals were to be found. These differences were viewed as being consistent with the conception of the Critical Period Hypothesis.

The Critical Period Hypothesis has noticeable effects on foreign language learning. Many researches and experiments support this hypothesis. In foreign language learning, the Critical period hypothesis provides the following information: in the terms of language learning, children seem to be superior to adolescents and adults, that is, the children outperformed the adolescents and adults; foreign language learning and teaching should commence before the critical period.

C. Criticism for the Critical Period Hypothesis

With the proposition of the Critical Period Hypothesis, there are lots of opposed views accompanying with its supporting views in the field of linguistics. Ellis (1985) pointed out that the argument that the younger the age of language acquisition is, the easier language acquisition was not completely correct. It is only partly right. In fact, age has the superiority in terms of the acquisition of pronunciation.

With the advent of the medical science, some viewpoints of the Critical Period Hypothesis were also under criticism. Some research work has challenged the precise age when lateralization takes place, leading to doubts about the neurological basis of the critical period hypothesis.

Having reviewed the Chinese scholars' researches on the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), it shows that many of them are on the opponent side. In his work of Psycholinguistics, Gui Shichun expressed his views: "It is hard to get a definite answer as to what is the best age of foreign language learning, so we cannot simply draw any conclusion whether there is a critical period, instead we should study the learning features of different stages, then make full use of them in foreign language learning." Shu Dingfang thought learners at any starting age could succeed in foreign language learning. If children started their foreign language learning at 12, their foreign language abilities can also develop to the level of the native-speaking students on the basis of fine language surroundings and scientific teaching methods. Similarly, Dai Weidong commented that the starting age had little effect on the acquisition procedures; learners at any starting age can learn a foreign language well. The noticeable effect from age factor to acquisition was the level in some language skills. Besides, the different amount of time they put in learning the language would affect the success degree of the acquisition. He also suggested the best age for the Chinese students to study a foreign

language should be from 12 to 15. After a review of the arguments of CPH in the past several decades and introduction of some new findings in the field of the Critical Period Hypothesis, Wang Lifei came to a conclusion: "It needs further study whether there is a critical period in second language acquisition and whether there are different critical periods of different language skills." Liu Zhenqian expressed his opinions in one of his theses: "In fact, there is no CPH for second language acquisition, at least there are not sufficient evidences in spite of so many researches with different methods, purposes, theoretical basis and results. Even in phonology, the different achievement between later learners and earlier learners are not the results of age factor alone, but a combination of other relevant factors." Liu Jianfu, through his experiments, tries to investigate whether the learners of different ages experienced the same learning process in grammatical aspect. He presented his study result: "grammar is teachable for various learners at different ages; there is no critical period for grammar acquisition". However, Chen Baoguo thought the Critical Period Hypothesis has got more and more supports, yet further study was still needed, that is, in and after critical period what changes of neurological structure and function has taken place inside the brain. He presented an objective suggestion: "we should take the active function of critical period in language acquisition into consideration, yet we can't exaggerate the effects of critical period in second language acquisition."

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

Up till now, the main theoretical basis of early SLA, Critical Period Hypothesis has led to much disagreement between the proponent and opponent side, and different findings of second-language learning/teaching at the elementary school have been reported. Now facing the tendency to start English learning/teaching at lower age, this present study sets out to investigate, by data collection and statistics analysis, the following questions:

(1) Whether English learners starting their learning at kindergarten and elementary school will be more successful than those starting at secondary school in their College Entrance Examination and in their achievements at college stage (College English Test)?

(2) If the answer to question (1) is affirmative or negative, how can age-related differences or similarities be explained?

B. Subjects

For the present study, altogether 69 non-English majors were selected from Inner Mongolia University of Technology. Then the students were classified into three types: kindergarten starters (Type 1), elementary school starters (Type 2), and secondary school starters (Type 3). It should be noted that the students who have not taken part in the CET 4 have been excluded from the current study.

C. Instruments

The Questionnaire used here was a self-report inquiry. On the basis of class, we read the instructions to the subjects and emphasized on answering every question honestly and seriously. The answers was thought to be more believable, since it was impossible for any subject to forget his own age onset of English learning; secondly, it was unnecessary for them to tell lies.

The different scores of different groups of subjects, namely, the scores of College Entrance Examination and scores of CET4 of all the 3 groups of subjects, were all collected from the archives office of the University so that the truth and accuracy of the scores are ensured. Therefore, there is no doubt about its reliability. All the data were processed in software of SPSS 13.0.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

1. Questionnaire Result

TABLE 1
STUDENTS TYPE, AGE ONSET AND NUMBER

Type	Age onset	Number
Type 1	Kindergarten	7
Type 2	Elementary school	32
Type 3	Secondly school	30
In Total		69

TABLE 2
THE BEST AGE TO STUDY ENGLISH

Best Age	Number	Percentage
Kindergarten	12	17.4%
Elementary school	37	53.6%
Secondary school	20	29%
In Total	69	100%

TABLE 3
“THE EARLY, THE BETTER?”

Answer	Number	Percentage
Agree	44	63.8%
Disagree	25	36.2%
In Total	69	100%

2. College Entrance Examination (CEE)

Table 4-6 show the score of the three types of English learners in their College Entrance Examination (CEE). 1, 2, 3, in all the tables of Descriptive Statistic and Multiple Comparison refer to type of age onset—Type1, Type2 and Type3 respectively.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

ST	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
1	7	119.3500	11.0022
2	32	115.8182	8.3451
3	30	107.9933	11.5154
Total	69	113.6967	11.7221

TABLE 5
ANOVA

	Sum of Square	df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1951.708	2	975.854	9.037	.000
Within Groups	6155.371	66	107.989		
Total	8107.079	68			

TABLE 6
MULTIPLE COMPARISON

(I)ENTRY	(J)ENTRY	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1	2	-0.3409	21.452	0.987
	3	56.7833	20.675	0.008
2	1	0.3409	21.452	0.987
	3	57.1242	14.584	0.000
3	1	-56.7833	20.675	0.008
	2	-57.1242	14.584	0.000

Table 4 illustrated the mean score of the three types of subjects were different in their College Entrance Examination. The score of Type 1 and Type 2 were much better than Type 3. The standard deviation were also different, Type 3 were higher than Type 1 and Type 2 which implied that among the subjects in Type 3, their scores in CEE differed more greatly than that of Type 1 and Type 2. And the lowest value of Type 2 suggested a less degree of dispersion; the scores of the subjects in Type 2 were closer. From table 5, we can see the degree of freedom and significance difference were meaningful with $F=9.037$ and $p=.00$, lower than .05, which meant the difference of the three types of learners was statistically significant. And the further study of Multiple Comparison suggested that the differences between Type 1 and Type 3, Type 2 and Type 3 reached a significant level.

3. College English Test (Band 4)

Table 7-9 are to show the score of the three types of subjects in CET (Band 4).

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
1	7	496.1125	34.08994
2	32	499.5816	52.96387
3	30	477.7736	39.41778
Total	69	473.215	50.59176

TABLE 8
ANOVA

	Sum of Square	df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	38907.2950	2	19453.6727	9.891	.000
Within Groups	112103.4215	66	1966.7462		
Total	151010.7165	68			

TABLE 9

MULTIPLE COMPARISON				
(I)ENTRY	(J)ENTRY	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
1	2	-0.4886	2.579	0.850
	3	6.9083	2.485	0.008
2	1	0.4886	2.579	0.850
	3	7.2970	1.753	0.000
3	1	-6.8030	2.485	0.008
	2	-7.2970	1.753	0.000

Table 7 illustrated the mean score of the three types of learners in their CET (Band 4) were also different; the result of Type 1 and Type 2 were much better than Type 3. The standard of deviation were also different, Type 2 was higher than Type 1 and Type 3, which implied that among the subjects in Type 2, their scores in CET (Band 4) differed greater than subjects in Type 1 and Type 3. And the least value of Type 1 suggested a less degree of dispersion. The scores of the subjects in Type 1 were closer. From table 8 we can see the degrees of freedom and significant difference were meaningful with $F=9.891$ and $p=.000$, lower than .05, which meant the difference of the three types of learners was statistically significant. And the further study of Multiple Comparison suggested that the differences between Type 1 and Type 3, Type 2 and Type 3 reached a significant level.

To sum up, from the above-mentioned data analysis, we can see there were significant differences between Type 1 and Type 2 and Type 3 of non-English majors in their College Entrance Examination, in CET (Band-4).

B. Discussion

The results revealed that the relationship between age onset of second language learning and the achievements of the College Entrance Examination as well as the English achievements in College English Test were statistically significant. That is to say, compared with the secondary school starters (Type 3), the kindergarten starters (Type 1) and elementary school starters (Type 2) are in an advantageous position to get higher scores in their future English study. Such a result appears to support the “the earlier, the better” assumption. As a consequence, a suggestion is to put forward for the learning of English before secondary school due to the above experiment results as well as the similar conclusion from some scholars.

The question of what actually accounts for the attested discrepancies between child and adolescent of second language learners will be discussed in the following part. A number of factors discussing here may help to understand why the different ages at which the acquisition of English began result in varying degrees of success in English learning. Neurological, social-psychological, psychomotor and cognitive factors all may be part of the explanation.

1. Neurological Difference

One widely cited attempt to explain why children are better second language learners is the neurological consideration. It is believed that the brain of the human beings consists of a left hemisphere and a right hemisphere, and as children grow older, different functions are said to develop gradually in different parts of brain. It has been shown that as the human brain matures, the language function settles mainly in the left hemisphere after biological maturation or the critical period. The critical period for language learning has been considered to be consistent with the period lateralization completes; therefore, many researchers take the completion of lateralization to explain the different achievement of children and adolescents in SLA. The results in the present study that earlier starters of English show their superiority in their relative achievements may find the explanation from the neurological considerations.

2. Social-psychological Difference

Another possible influence on adolescent language learning is the social-psychological factor. In Second Language Acquisition, the different psychology between children and adolescents may be employed to explain the reason why child-learners possess superior communicative ability, such as oral expression and listening comprehension. Usually the child-learners enjoy taking part in every kind of language activity, and enjoy the language interaction. They can speak loudly, they can ask questions anytime, and they are not worried about making mistakes. They may be more prepared to share external norms because they are not subject to peer pressure. All these resulted in their enough exposures to L2 and more practice in their speaking and listening skills. On the other hand, when an adolescent learns a second language, his situation is quite different from that of a child. When they learn a foreign language, adolescent-learners have difficulties in participating in language interaction and many of them are reluctant to read aloud and are fearful of failing or looking and sounding foolish. Sometimes, they try to avoid answering questions or communicating with others. These might explain why adolescents in my study, like those in Collier’s research, are less successful in English learning.

3. Input Difference

Input difference is related to resource difference, that is, subjects in the present study within the age range of 3-5 may have more authentic input than subjects who just received national-scale English courses starting from the secondary schools. It is often believed that the simplified input which young children receive facilitates their second language acquisition compared with the input received by older learners.

Fledge suggested in his paper “Age of learning and Second Language Speech” another explanation that might account for the effect of age on L2 learning. Older learners may have received less adequate input than children do.

Younger children may generally receive more native-speaker L2 input or fewer nonnatives L2 input than older learners do.

Features of input have been suggested as potential explanations by Hatch (1976) and Snow (1983). Younger learners are said to receive better (i.e. more 'here and now', less complex) input than adults, input which provides the children with clearer L2 samples from which to learn syntax (Hatch, 1976, pp. 39-57). Children also enjoy opportunities for language play with their native-speaking peers, through which they get phonological practice (Peck, 1978).

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was undertaken primarily to explore the relationship between the age onset of second language learning and its relative achievements. It is a widely held that younger L2 learners generally do better than older learners. This is supported by the Critical Period Hypothesis, but the argument about CPH in SLA has never stopped. The controversy is not only on whether age is a determining factor leading to significant differences in L2 learning, but also on the theoretical explanations for those differences, which the researchers claim to have found. Maybe the only generally accepted results are: "the earlier, the better; but the older, the faster" and there is a CPH in a phonology acquisition. Frankly speaking, it is beyond the author to bring any conclusive result based on this study; however, it will be more practical to explore the relationship between different age onset of English learning and its relative achievements (for example, College Entrance Examination, College English Test), since the results of such research can provide the educators and parents with some helpful insight into the timing and contents of the earlier English learning for children.

The results of the present study reach the conclusion that there are significant differences between the types with different age onset of second language acquisition and its relative achievements, particularly in the aspects of listening and speaking. This conclusion is consistent with Penfield's report, who was the first to link "the earlier, the better" view with foreign language learning. Therefore, it is necessary to start English learning at the kindergarten or elementary school stage and the learning/ teaching should be emphasized on listening and speaking. In this way, the early learning of English will lay a good foundation for the learners' future study and achievements. However language learning is a complicated process, while accepting the role of age in SLA, we should, at the same time, realize that it is likely that more individual factors exist in the relationship with achievements.

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An Attempt to Empower Teachers in Education: An Epistemological Look

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Abstract—A teacher, as a cultural broker and the inheritor, critic and interpreter of culture, can be used to orient discussion and action in a particular direction. The knowledge that teachers need to have is more complicated than just knowing and using facts. The paper, incompatible with positivistic epistemological movement, holds that the complexity of classroom dynamics cannot be achieved simply by transmitting knowledge. Teacher education is an attempt to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, behaviors, attitudes, and skills that they require to perform their tasks more effectively. Thus, training teachers obviously involves equipping them with various objects of culture and different types of knowledge essential to their cultural training. The present study, in disfavor with the simplicity orientation in positivism, holds that the reality in the classroom life is so complicated that we cannot achieve it by setting up clinical experimental designs.

Index Terms—knowledge base, positivism, teacher education, socioculturalism

I. INTRODUCTION

Human learning is embedded in a social context and is distributed across persons, tools, and activities. Unlike behavioral and cognitive theories of learning, a sociocultural perspective argues that higher level human cognition in the individual has its origins in social life. This perspective is inspired by the work of Vygotsky (1978) who assumes that human cognition is formed by getting involved in social activities, and that it is the social interaction and the culturally constructed materials, signs, and symbols (semiotic artifacts) that mediate those relationships that create high level human cognition. Consequently, cognitive development is an interactive process, mediated by culture, context, language, and social interaction. In fact, language development in individuals, unlike physical growth, does not happen in isolation. Put differently, Davis (2002) holds "whether or not there is, as some maintain, a language faculty in the mind. Those who are brought up in isolation... do not acquire language or do so only minimally" (p. 49). In effect, as to Davis, "language is as much social as it is psychological or cognitive" (p.49). Along the same vein, Johnson (2009) puts forth that cognitive development is neither a matter of enculturation nor even appropriation of existing sociocultural resources and practices, but the reconstruction and transformation of those resources and practices in ways that are responsive to both individual and local needs. On the critical role of social dimension, Davis (2002) claims, "it is the social that provides the cultural and political norms that make the use of that structure appropriate and meaningful" (p. 49). Thus, language teachers cannot be value free (Pennycook, 1994, cited in Davis, 2002). In a sense, it calls on a necessity for language teacher education to consider both micro and macro concerns in the very field. By micro concerns, it is meant that learning takes place through social interaction, while macro concerns are deeply embedded in the claim that speech communities are associated with norms and values. Accordingly, Davis (2002) puts forth:

This micro-macro contrast captures a traditional division in sociolinguistics. The micro view considers the ways in which society intersects with language, dealing with topics such as accent stratification by social class and gender influence on language use, while the macro view takes account of the involvement of language in society and is concerned with topics such as language they plan to teach; they know the rules cognitively. (pp. 49-50)

The epistemology of teacher education is concerned with empowerment. That is, to facilitate the process of education, students have to be made powerful through their knowledge. Henceforth, to the present writers, the so-called power cannot be achieved without an adequate grasp of social dimension.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

If we take a broad view of educational trends and approaches, we can outline three phases of thoughts: (1) perennialism, (2) positivism, and (3) progressivism. The first phase that emerged in Middle Ages pursues the

perennialist perspective in philosophy. That is, "there exists a ready-made body of knowledge; a set of objective truths which is essential for the individual to acquire" (Darling & Nordendo, 2003, p. 293). Accordingly, perennialism reflects conservatism of ideas and looks to the past for subject matter in the curriculum (Ediger & Rao, 2003). Perennialism, as Noroozi (2010) puts forth, deals with a realistic philosophical base. Its instructional objectives are to educate the rational person; its main focus is on preserving the past. Thus, as Darling and Nordendo (2003) maintain, "the job of education is, put simply, to transport the divine truth to the human-soul from beyond, for the sake of the salvation of this inner soul" (p. 298). The mimetic nature of such philosophy elucidates that nothing is going to be discovered as everything is uncovered and will be presented. However, Darling and Nordendo, argue that what is transported is often not really knowledge at all as it makes no impact, is not permanent and involves no understanding.

The second phase, positivism, appears from the Renaissance onwards. Although the existence of ready-made knowledge is still existed, this knowledge, as Darling and Nordendo claim, is not a divine revelation from the world beyond, but it is constructed in the secular realm during continual realm of scientific development. "Still knowledge is transported but now it is for the sake of the salvation of existing world" (Darling & Norendo, 2003, p. 298). What is common both here and in the first perspective (i.e., perennialism) is the mimetic. Mimetic learning, learning by imitation, constitutes one of the most important forms of learning which were dominant in these two phases. Recall that mimetic learning does not, however, just denote mere imitation or copying. As Wulf (2004, cited in Wulf, 2008) insists:

Mimetic learning is productive; it is related to the body, and it establishes a connection between the individual and the world as well as other persons; it creates practical knowledge, which is what makes it constitutive of social, artistic, and practical action. Mimetic learning is cultural learning and as such it is crucial to teaching and education. (p. 56)

To better appreciate the concept of mimetic learning, a contrast made by Wulf (2008) between Plato's and Aristotle's views seems to facilitate our understanding. According to Plato, young people's education and learning is made possible by their mimetic desire to follow a role model. The philosophy behind the role model is that human shortcomings will be overcome and improvement will be achieved if individuals follow the very model. Aristotle, in contrast, held that negative role models must also be available. In fact, he believed that it is only in dealing with negative role models that resistance to them and personal strength can develop. The educational implication of Aristotle's mimetic perspective is present in political education, for instance. Accordingly, steady-fast political opinions develop by dealing with different opinions critically rather than avoiding them.

In progressivism, mimetic principle is finger-nagged (Darling & Nordendo, 2003). Knowledge is acquired personally through learning from experience. Parallel to this argument, in experiential learning, learners' immediate personal experiences are taken as the point of departure for deciding how to organize the learning process (Nunan, 1999). Kolb (1987, cited in Nunan, 1999) is also of the contention that experiential learning builds a bridge from the known to the new by moving from the learners' experience. Similarly, Kohonen (1987, cited in Nunan, 1999) believes that experiential learning not only facilitates personal growth, but also helps learners adapt to social change. Moreover, it takes into account that the differences in learning ability are responsive to learners' needs.

This shift from perennialism to progressivism, according to Sadker and Zittleman (2006), has a strong inclination toward pragmatist philosophy. There is not much space to deal with pragmatism except to maintain that the cornerstone of it is the linking between theory and practice. Pragmatism describes a process where a theory is extracted from practice. Here teachers are not simple consumers of theories constructed by other practitioners, but they themselves are theorizers constructing theories and making use of them. In effect, inspired by Dewey's pragmatist philosophy, Flanagan (1994) stresses the priority of experience over theory.

A. *A Shift from Positivism to Socioculturalism*

Richards (1990) used the term teacher education to refer to the preparation— both training and education of L2 teachers. To Richards, second language teacher education serves goals such as offering opportunities for the novice to discover and acquire what effective teachers do. Nevertheless, research into how best to train teachers to maximize their effectiveness in the classroom only really took off in the last decades of the twentieth century. Nevertheless, it still lacks a pre-paradigmatic and epistemological base (Grenfell, Kelly, & James, 2003). To refer to teacher education as pre-paradigmatic is to see it as somewhat lacking a consensual view, not only concerning what it is and what its processes are, but indeed the very language we employ to talk about it. From epistemological point of view, two co-lateral movements are now having direct influence on English foreign language instruction at all levels, that is, positivism and socioculturalism.

Positivism, according to Shulman (1986), has had the greatest impact on the concept of language teacher education of the past century. Positivism rests on the idea that reality exists apart from the knower and can be discovered through systematic processes of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Positivists consider knowledge as objective and identifiable and represent generalizable truths. In other words, knowledge is out there and can be captured through the use of scientific methods. In educational research, positivists are in search for identifying patterns of good teaching and finding out what effective teachers do that leads to student achievement. In an educational field, from a positivist epistemological perspective, knowledge about teaching and learning can be transmitted to teachers by others usually in the form of lectures and readings which often take place outside the walls of classroom. Consequently, classroom is considered as a site of decontextualized knowledge. Since the early 1980s, critics take a very clear stance against

positivism. The most common complaints are the oversimplified, depersonalized and decontextualized nature of the underlying assumptions of the very teaching.

However, from a sociocultural epistemological perspective, learning to teach is based on the assumption that knowing, thinking, and understanding come from participation. In fact, knowledge is valued for its utility; it must prepare us for the rest of life. In the same vein, Davis (2002) puts forth that a sociocultural perspective on human learning feeds several interrelated aspects of L2 teacher education. First, it provides a theory of mind that helps us to trace how teachers come to know. Second, teacher education is not only a process of enculturation but a dynamic process of reconstructing and transforming those practices to be responsive to both individual and local needs. Lastly, it provides both the content and processes of L2 teacher education. In a sense, it is well established in teacher cognition literature that teachers typically ground their understanding of teaching and learning as well as their notions about how to teach. Thus, L2 teachers typically enter the profession with largely unarticulated, yet deeply ingrained, notions about what language is, how it is learned and how it should be taught.

B. Teacher Cognition

The reconceptualization of how teachers learn to do their work and how they carry out their work is now known as teacher cognition. Teacher learning is understood as normative and life-long; it is built through experiences. Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) argue that teacher education must lay the foundation for life-long learning, with the ultimate goal of “helping teachers become professionals who are adaptive experts” (p. 359). Adaptive experts, they argue, are able to balance efficiency and innovation. In other words, they are able to master skills and strategies to plan, manage, carry out, and assess teaching and learning activities besides adapting and adjusting to the complexities embedded in those activities so as to make sound instructional decisions within their teaching context.

Teacher educators have to make sense of their learning and teaching. Brandenburg (2008) uses the term *assumption hunting*. To better appreciate the concept of assumption hunting, he referred to Brookfield’s (1995) categorization of assumptions—paradigmatic, prescriptive, and causal. According to Brookfield, paradigmatic assumptions are the basic structuring maxims we use to order the world into fundamental categories. Paradigmatic assumptions represent one’s reality of facts that he believes to be true. For example, it is my own belief that democratic practices should underpin teaching and learning. The second type of assumption (i.e., prescriptive) is concerned with what we think ought to be happening in a particular situation. The last one, causal assumption, helps us understand how the world works and the conditions under which processes can be changed.

Besides plausible understanding of one’s own learning and teaching, a teacher educator is highly concerned with the notion of L2 teacher knowledge base. The knowledge base refers to not only what second language teachers need to know to be effective, but it also deals with the way that knowledge is incorporated into second language teacher education (Tedick, 2005). In this regard, the knowledge base of L2 teacher education, grounded in the positivist epistemological perspective, is the basis upon which we make decisions about how to prepare L2 teachers to do the work of this profession. Critically speaking, Freeman and Johnson’s (1998) reconceptualization of the knowledge base, from a positivistic perspective, appears to rest on two charges that are against language teacher education:

First, they argue that people designing language teacher education programs typically fail to take into account, at the level of curriculum design, what we know about general teacher learning; second, they argue that language teacher education programs also typically fail to deal with the social context of schools and schooling (p. 6).

Like Freeman and Johnson (1998) who say teachers are not empty vessels waiting to be filled with theoretical and pedagogical skills, Tarone and Allwright (2005) also claim the belief that a novice can become an effective second language teacher by taking a set of content courses on teaching, learning, and language structures, and so developing a body of declarative knowledge about what language teaching and learning involve is an academic fallacy that should be ruled out. What Tarone and Allwright (2005) refer to as *the non-interface fallacy* asserts that language teachers can only acquire the ability to teach language in the context of the language classroom itself; no teacher learning can take place outside that context. Accordingly, they claim that things consciously learned in academic content courses can have no impact on actual language teaching. However, one needs more than the ability to speak a language fluently and to manage a classroom if one is to be an effective second-language teacher.

Needless to say, courses in applied linguistics do seem to have the potential to be successful in changing novice teachers’ conceptions about language and language teaching. However, “helping teachers acquire knowledge and conceptions about language learning alone is not enough to significantly change their teaching, perhaps because the learning activities the teacher engaged in were not analogous to those activities they engaged in as teachers” (Bartels, 2005, p. 408). In fact, subjective understanding of what teachers can do enhances their effectiveness in classrooms. By the same token, teachers are supposed to be the theorizers or constructors of their own knowledge. Seen from this stance, the teachers will be able to transfer this knowledge to the activities and context of L2 teaching (Bartels, 2005).

C. Processes of Language Teacher Education

Richards and Nunan (1990) speak of a paradigm shift in teacher education from “approaches that view teacher preparation as familiarizing student teachers with techniques and skills to apply in the classroom,” (p. 11) to “approaches that involve teachers in developing theories of teaching, understanding the nature of teacher decision

making, and strategies for critical self-awareness and self-evaluation” (p. 11). This movement in teacher education has resulted in viewing learning as knowledge creation.

The lack of congruity between research and practice is always a source of tension. In physics, researchers always claim that teachers ignore their findings and teachers complain that researchers never consider the reality of the classrooms. This dysfunction (Clarke, 1994, cited in Johnston & Irujo, 2001), according to Johnston and Irujo (2001), is an ever present source of tension. In second language education, unlike physics, researchers often research their own settings or settings they work in or are familiar with and the topics raised from issues faced by practitioners. Thus, we do not have such a tension since the gap somehow between practice and theory is little. In fact, teachers are not mere consumers of other’s products. They take an innovative role, a theorizer. In a nutshell, dealing with programs developed or changed in response to particular contexts, we need information about the effect of such adaptations. In fact, there has been a shift in studies from those concerning “this is what we do,” to studies representing “this is why we do it.” Now we need studies that will tell “this is what happens when we do it” (Johnston & Irujo, 2001, p. 7).

Wallace (1991, cited in Grenfell, et al., 2003) sums up three culturally centric models for training teachers. The term culturally centric denotes that such models are the product of a particular perspective. In fact, what Wallace sometimes refers to as ‘sitting with Nellie’ is the *Craft Model Approach*. Here the would-be trainee works alongside with the master craftsman. Skills are passed on by a process of osmosis, conservation, mimicry, questioning, and guidance. The second model, *the Applied Science Model Approach*, involves that discoveries from the human sciences are passed on to trainees as a guide for teaching practice. We can see such a process, not only in the way that behavioristic psychology shaped second language learning and teaching in the 1960s, but also in the way this approach was later eclipsed by Chomskyan linguistics, with its implications in terms of generative language and the human language acquisition device. Third, the *Reflective Practitioner Model Approach* is certainly based on practice. Although scientific theory is available, trainees are encouraged to think about, or reflect on, both.

Broadly speaking, reflection acts as a bridge between theory and practice. It is in the relationship between the two that professional knowledge develops. The term ‘Reflective Practitioner’ became popular following the publication of Donald Schön’s book of that title in 1983. Here, Schön (1983, cited in Grenfell, et al, 2003) attempts to provide an ‘epistemology of practice’ to show how practical knowledge is unified, integrated, and highly context dependent. Such reflection is a pervasive *condition* rather than a sequence of discrete events. It is also dependent on context: time and place. Schön (1983, cited in Grenfell, et al, 2003) calls on a necessity to differentiate between reflection *on* action and reflection *in* action, and relates this to knowledge *on* action and knowledge *in* action.

D. Sociocultural and Political Contexts of Language Teacher Education

A good teacher always takes into account the sociopolitical and sociocultural context when examining aspects of teacher education and teacher development (Johnson & Irujo, 2001). As Grenfell and colleagues (2003) put forth “the training of teachers has a strategic role in preparing Europe’s education systems to meet the challenges of change, and to equip students to respond effectively to those challenges” (p. 20). Grenfell et. al., also, maintain “education is deeply rooted in social and political context, responding to the changes taking place and also helping to shape the pattern of change” (p. 20). Henceforth, to enable language teachers to take full advantage of linguistic knowledge in their teaching, applied linguistic classes must dedicate a considerable amount of time to helping novice teachers develop and engage in a variety of deliberate practice activities. Bartels (2005) holds such activities should have the following characteristics:

1. They should work on solving the kind of problems of procedure and understanding that language teachers regularly face in their practice.
2. They should focus on procedures used in language teaching or which could be used in a cognitively efficient way.
3. They should help novice teachers develop schemata of language learners and language teaching, especially schemata of information that is task-relevant and task-non relevant for a variety of language teaching situations.
4. They should focus on helping novice teachers organize their knowledge.
5. They should help novice teachers develop appropriate “rules of thumb” for their practice. (p. 416)

III. CONCLUSION

No one denies that the knowledge that a teacher needs to know is more than what is compiled in books. In fact, the given knowledge is more complicated than just knowing and using facts. Teacher education is an attempt to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, behaviors, attitudes, and skills that they require to perform their tasks more effectively. Long has been written in disfavor with positivistic epistemological perspectives. Undeniably, positivistic thoughts have lots of vocal critics. Johnson (2009) counts the most common complaints: “the oversimplified, depersonalized, and decontextualized nature of the underlying assumptions of this [perspective]” (p. 8). Incompatible with the simplicity orientation in positivistic research, Shulman (1986, cited in Johnson, 2009) adds the complexities of classroom life cannot be captured in neat, clinical experimental designs and that any generalizations that emerge simply whitewash the complex social, historical, cultural, economic, and political dimensions that permeate schools and schooling in the broader social milieu. In sum, what is apparent is that investigating what teachers need to know entails a great variety of research methodology.

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A New Perspective on Literary Translation Strategies Based on Skopos Theory

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Abstract—This essay is primarily concerned with two basic translation strategies—foreignization and domestication—from the perspective of the functionalist approaches, especially the Skopos theory. As one action of human being's, translation has its particular purpose. This leads to the functionalist theory proposed by some German scholars. Functionalist theory is characterized by its purpose-driven approach. The translation of Skopos means the purpose of the target text, decided by the initiator of the translational action, and swayed by the translator. Skopos is the top-ranking rule determining any translation process. Therefore, the strategy to be adopted in translation must be compatible with the purpose the initiator or translator intends to fulfill. The choice of translation strategy should take the functions of translation into consideration. To achieve the intended purpose, a translator can decide which strategy to be chosen, either domestication or foreignization, or both. The adequacy of translation should be the translation criterion, which means the translated version should be adequate to its Skopos, that is, so long as a translation fulfils its Skopos it is considered as an “adequate” translation regardless of the selected strategy.

Index Terms—translation strategies, foreignization, domestication, the Skopos theory

I. INTRODUCTION

It is not easy to date back to the exact origin of translation practices, yet it is commonly agreed that translation may be one of the most controversial styles of events in the world. Translation, as a means of transferring languages as well as cultures, is playing a significant role in today's international communication. It has already given a great impetus to the exchange of the cultures and the development of the mankind, without which the world would be a different one. The translator, as an active role player, is regarded as the intermediary between the source text and the target text. His task is to decode the original semantic signs and then recode it in the language which the target receiver can understand.

Domestication and foreignization, discussed by many scholars today, can be traced back to Schleiermacher, who described domestication as a translation method that “leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him”, and foreignization as a method that “the translator leaves the writer alone, as much as possible and moves the reader towards the writer” (Venuti, 1995, P. 19-20). Domesticating translation and foreignizing translation are the terms brought up by an Italian-American scholar Lawrence Venuti. Foreignization and domestication are closely linked to each other in the translation process. The views that take little notice of the purposes of translation, and that put the two strategies into opposition do can not hold much water. In the functionalist theory, domestication and foreignization both are just tools of realization of the purpose and can be appropriately applied when needed. Therefore, the application of domestication and foreignization has a clear standard, that is, the purpose of the translation. There is no difference of good or bad between domestication and foreignization, but the difference in proportion. The above-mentioned proposal of translation strategies is more a hypothesis than a rule. This thesis aims to discuss the issue of translation strategy from a new perspective, the functionalist approaches, especially the Skopos theory, which takes specific translation situation into consideration. And it starts the discussion in a descriptive way. This essay aims to analyze the choice of domestication and foreignization through case studies, from a new approach, namely, the Skopos theory. Most of the existing studies argue that, while translational norms are changeable with the social culture, the rule of Skopos does not change. A translator always works consciously or unconsciously with a certain purpose. In the light of the previous discussions, this essay makes the following hypothesis related to translation strategies: the choice of foreignization or domestication is first and foremost determined by the Skopos of a particular translation task. Though foreignization and domestication contradict each other and have their own focuses, they are justified on condition that they can fully carry out the Skopos of the translation.

In the end, the author indicates that domestication and foreignization have their respective characteristics and practical values. The two strategies are a unity of opposites. We should treat domestication and foreignization from the dialectical point of view, and it would be one-sided to overemphasize either one. It would be of benefit to the further development of translation studies if we treat this issue dialectically. Translators should try to find a suitable strategy to end this ongoing debate over domestication and foreignization, so as to provide a new perspective of translation studies.

II. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

In the late 1980s, many scholars and translators engaged into a very heated debate over domestication and foreignization. They published a great number of articles, attempting to put the Western research fruits on domestication and foreignization into Chinese translation practice. It was Liu Yingkai who started the debate over domestication and foreignization. In 1987, he published his famous article “Domestication ---- the wrong direction of translation.” He disagreed with this strategy and argued that it would “neglect the foreign reality, remove the character of a foreign nation, assimilate it and as a result distort it”. He cited a number of examples to prove the disadvantages of domestication and stated that the dominant strategy should be that of retaining the foreign linguistic and cultural flavor. From then on, a great number of articles on domestication and foreignization were published. Some preferred domestication to foreignization; some held opposite opinions; others tried to reach a compromise between the two. Most of them believed that foreignization should be adopted and became the future trend of translation. The problem is that they all tended to cover only one side of the issue by neglecting the other, either stressing transmitting cultural otherness or emphasizing target readers’ acceptability.

Translation also has a long history in Western society. In the West the issue of translation strategies experienced three phases of development. In fact, foreignizing translation can retain the foreignness and cultural otherness of a foreign text only by destroying the target language and cultural norms. Venuti emphasizes that foreignization translation can restrain the ethnocentric violence of translation and "it is highly desirable today, a strategic cultural intervention in the current state of world affairs" in order to resist "the hegemonic English-language nations and the unequal cultural exchanges in which they engage their global others". In the 1970s the concept of equivalence begins to decline and the focus of translation studies shifts from sheer linguistic analysis to the larger spheres like culture and politics, which Mary Snell-Hornby (1990) termed “the cultural turn”. This is the third phase of development in translation strategy from 1970s onward until the present time, which can be termed as the post-linguistic period. During the third phase the most eminent figure is Lawrence Venuti. He took up Schleiermacher’s thread and termed his two methods as “domesticating translation” or “domestication” and “foreignizing translation” or “foreignization”. He argued that the translator could do one of the two things: he could make himself invisible as he translates, which means that his target text reads fluently as a target text. This is of the domesticating translation, which has no obvious traces or influence of the source language in it. On the other hand, translator could make himself visible, making it obvious that it is a translation, the linguistic traces of the alien thought movement that the source language is showing up. This is the foreignizing translation advocated by Venuti. According to Venuti, German’s tradition favored foreignization whereas in Anglo-American culture the dominant practice was domestication (Venuti, 1995, P. 20-21). Venuti considered Nida the representative of “domesticating translation”. Translations produced under the strategy of domestication are fluent translations. Therefore “fluency” is regarded as the general criterion to judge a translation. Thus the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text is effaced in order to produce a fluent translation. Venuti considered domesticating translation to be a kind of cultural monopoly imposing Anglo-American values on the foreign text. And he advocated foreignizing translation or resistant translation to “resist dominant target-language cultural values so as to signify the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text” (Venuti, 1995, P. 23).

As figure I shows, foreignization and domestication as two large categories cover all the aforementioned ones like word-for-word, literal, faithful, alienating (Schleiermacher), formal equivalent (Nida), and fluent (Venuti) translation belonging to the former and sense-for-sense, free, naturalizing (Schleiermacher), dynamic equivalence (Nida), and resistant (Venuti) translation belonging to the latter. The classification here is by no means exhaustive. Only the strategies that have been mentioned in the previous review parts are listed here.

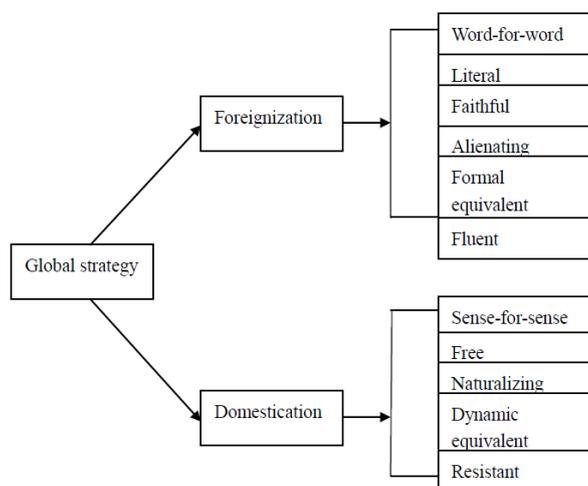


Figure I. Translation strategy

A. Translation Strategies in Translating

In this part the author makes a detailed introduction of domestication and foreignization with emphasis on analyzing similarities and differences between this pair of two translation strategies and another pair of literal and free translation approaches. The conflict between foreignization and domestication as opposite strategies can analyze translation phenomena from some perspectives deeper than linguistic perspective which literal translation and free translation methods mainly care about. Specific principles given by several famous translators or theorists will be offered in the following part. Though it was not obvious what type of translation was concerned in their discussions, the topic was mainly on the literary translation in China while the Bible translation in Western countries.

(1) Yan Fu's Faithfulness, Expressiveness and Elegance

In China, whenever the question of principles of translation is under discussion, the three characters “信、达、雅” given by Yan Fu in his *Introductory Remarks* to his translation of *Evolution and Ethics* (《天演论》) will be mentioned and regarded as the only maxim all translators should follow.

“In translation there are three difficulties, namely, faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance. It is already very difficult to achieve faithfulness. Without being expressive, mere faithfulness would mean working to no avail. This shows that the latter is quite important in translation. ... The translation must express the profound meaning of the original. As for the order of words and that of sentences in the original, there is no need for the translator to stick to them. He may make some change where necessary. But in meaning, the translation must conform to the original.”

The triple translation criteria of “Faithfulness, expressiveness and Elegance” influenced the development of translation practice and theory for almost half a century.

(2) Three Laws of Translation by Tytler

Alexander Fraser Tytler (1749-1814), an English theoretician, in his *Essay on the Principles of Translation*, proposed his three “laws of translation”:

1. The translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work.
2. The style and manner of the writing should be of the same character with that of the original.
3. The translation should have the ease of the original composition.

The ideological content, the linguistic representation and stylistic characteristics of a piece of literary work are made up as a whole integrity, so a literary translation should be evaluated from these three aspects. Faithfulness and expressiveness are still accepted by most of translators and theorists. But the last one of Yan Fu's principle, elegance, is not the case now. Elegance means gracefulness and it is only one of various styles of a text. The style of the translated text should base on the source text. In another word, all translators should not make their translations elegant in style. Instead, they should take pains to make the style of the translation as close to that of the original as possible.

Tytler's laws bear a lot of similarities with Yan Fu's. The first refers to faithfulness, the second the style and the last one can be understood as a law for expressiveness of the text.

(3) Liu Zhongde's New Principles Based on Yan Fu's: Faithfulness, Expressiveness and Closeness

Liu Zhongde, a famous Chinese translation theorist and translator, proposed his principles after absorbing the quintessence of Yan Fu's and Tytler's. Faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance have been used as translation principles in China for several decades. The methods related with them cannot always be exact and proper, so it is necessary to make a re-evaluation. Thus, Liu Zhongde gave the following three characters “信、达、切” (faithfulness, expressiveness and closeness).

He defined them as follows:

Faithfulness to be faithful to the content of the original;

Expressiveness to be as expressive as the original;

Closeness to be as close to the original style as possible.

Liu's principles are more appropriate when literary translation is concerned. It is a development from the previous ones.

All the principles mentioned above share one similarity that the source text occupies a very important position in the translational process. All the translation should be centered on it. However, the functionalist theory breaks the seemingly unshakeable position of the source text by discovering another top-ranking rule in translation — the Skopos rule. This discovery may lead to a flexible assessment on the quality of a translated text instead of some static and unchangeable ones.

Since translation came into being, the translating strategies have been in discussion without a stop. Now we will focus on different strategies ever emerged in history.

B. Domestication and Foreignization

Whether to use foreignizing or domesticating strategy depends on different factors such as the importance and the contextual factors of the SL text, the consideration of referential accuracy, the reader's acceptability and the "pragmatic economy" (Newmark, 1988,P.110). For example:

(1) Talk of the devil and he will appear.

Foreignization: 说鬼, 鬼到。

Domestication: 说曹操, 曹操到。

(2) He who keeps company with the wolf will learn to howl.

Foreignization: 与狼为伍的人也会嚎叫。

Domestication: 近朱者赤，近墨者黑。

From the historical overview of domestication and foreignization at home and abroad, we may see the different ideas between Chinese and foreign scholars about the issue.

From the discussions above, it is not difficult for us to draw a conclusion of the functions of domestication and foreignization. The functions of a domestication translation strategy are obvious: helping readers overcome both linguistic and cultural barriers and make the target text more readable and easier to understand. And thus it can conform to styles and themes that fit domestic tastes and create stereotypes for foreign countries that suit domestic values and agendas.

As we know, the world today is no longer what it was before. It is more open and colorful. Different nations are learning from one another and in the meantime influencing one another. Many foreignized expressions have been widespread and become popular among the Chinese. Especially the young generations can, and sometimes even expect to accept something “foreign”. We can find “*the cold war*”, “*black humor*”, “*internet*”, “*sour grapes*”, “*blue print*”, “*gene*”, “*soap opera*”, “*wash hands*”, and “E-Mail” nothing strange any more. If one does not know these words, he may be laughed at. We have already accepted “*Time is money*”, “*Killing two birds with one stone*”, “*All roads lead to Rome*” and similar expressions. They are so natural today that we may believe they were “born” in China.

More examples can be found. For instance, the famous trade mark “Coca Cola” was translated into “可口可乐” and reached a totally success. “Coca” is the plant the Indians view as saint and from which people abstract cocaine. If we translate it directly into “古柯”, it probably cannot raise the nice flavor of the drink in Chinese customers. Then “Coca” was domesticated into “可口” while “Cola” maintained its foreignness. Therefore, since communicative function is prior to everything else, we tend to employ domesticating translation.

C. *The Relationship between the Two Pairs of Translation Strategies*

The following is the comparative analysis of two English versions of the translations of some poems in *A Dream of Red Mansions*, analyses briefly the different translation methods used by Hawks and Yang Xianyi and the different effects they make in the TL culture and to the TL readers. Finally, it concludes that the purpose of translation decides the choice of different translation strategies. *A Dream of Red Mansions* is among the greatest classical works of China and of the world. As an encyclopedia work, it takes pride in rich life, great theme and unique artistic values. Not only in China, this masterpiece also aroused great interests of many foreign readers. The most popular English versions are *The Story of the Stone* translated by the Britain scholar David Hawkes and *A Dream of Red Mansions* translated by Chinese famous translator Yang Xianyi and his wife Gladys Yang.

In this chapter, Bao-yu visits a fairyland with the guide of Qin-shi and saw many pictures and the relevant poems. The first one of “Third Register of Twelve Beauties of Chinling” is about the maid of Bao-yu, Qingwen. The original text goes like this:

“霁月难逢,彩云易散。

心比天高,身为下贱。

风流灵巧招人怨。

寿夭多因诽谤生,多情公子空牵念。”

David Hawkes’s translation:

“Seldom the moon shines in a cloudless sky,

And days of brightness all too soon pass by.

A noble and aspiring mind,

In a base-born frame confined,

Your charm and wit did only hatred gained,

And in the end you were by slanders slain

Your gentle lord’s sollicitude in vain.”

Yang Xianyi’s translation:

“A clear moon is rarely met with,

Bright clouds are easily scattered;

Her heart is loftier than the sky

But her person is of low degree.

Her charm and wit give rise to jealousy,

Her early death is caused by calumny.

In vain her loving master’s grief must be.”

Mr. Yang basically adopted literal translation, trying to achieve the fully literal equivalence of each sentence to the original text. The first couplet of the Chinese original “霁月难逢,彩云易散” not only hides the Chinese name of Qing wen, but also indicates the miserable fate of her, for “霁”, “彩云” means “晴”, “雯” respectively and “难逢”, “易散” also implies the imperfect endings in Chinese. Yang well expressed the literal meanings of the Chinese characters and met perfectly the requirement of form of Chinese poem; however, the information of Qing wen’s name was lost. In

Hawkes's version, the name of Qing wen was translated as Sky bright. Hawkes didn't explain the meanings of Chinese characters “霁” and “彩云”, and the name “Sky bright” also was hidden in the first couplet, so in this aspect, Hawkes's translation is fairly a successful one. In the six sentence “寿夭多因诽谤生”, the word “寿夭” not only means “death” in Chinese, but also indicates that to live a very short life. Qing wen's early death is a very important foreshadow of the whole story. Mr. Yang translated this as “early death”, which meets perfectly the Chinese meaning, what's more, the two words “caused” and “calumny” formed alliteration, which successfully gains the same reading effects as “诽谤” in Chinese. Hawkes also used the two alliteration words: “slanders” and “slain”, but it is pity that he didn't express the meaning of “early death” to his readers. By using the way of domestication, Hawkes successfully conveyed the original textual information to foreign readers with smooth and beautiful English, but the loss of Chinese culture-loaded information is inevitable. Mr. Yang mostly adopted the way of literal translation, trying his best to keep the true and idiomatic Chinese style and national tint.

III. THE SKOPOS THEORY

Which strategy can make the translated text have a better effect among its target audience, foreignization or domestication? Since each translation strategy has its own functions and advantages, how can a translator strike a balance between the two? What is the most scientific attitude towards the choice of translation strategies? So far no theory can give a definite answer to the questions, nor can any theorist completely negate one of them, because in translation practice, both strategies have their functions which cannot be substituted for. Then how to explain the uncontrollable situation? Are there any criteria for translators to follow? How to manage the eternal debate? To this end, the functionalist approaches emerge. The book tries to give a contention that both strategies are justified if used in suitable situations from the perspective of the functionalist theory. This book aims to discuss the issue of translation strategy from a new perspective, the functionalist approaches, especially the Skopos theory, which takes specific translation situation into consideration.

In the Skopos theory, the top-ranking rule is the “Skopos rule”, which means a translational action is determined by its Skopos, that is, “the end justifies the means”.

Vermeer explained the Skopos rule as follows:

Translate/interpret/speak/write in a way that enables your text/translation to function in the situation in which it is used and with the people who want to use it and precisely in the way they want it to function (Vermeer, 1989, P. 20).

And then Christiane Nord further developed this theory. In *Translating as a Purposeful Activity*, Nord (1997) defined the Skopos theory of translation as follows:

Skopos is a Greek word for “purpose”. According to Skopostheorie (the theory that applies the notion of Skopos to translation), the prime principle determining any translation process is the purpose (Skopos) of the overall translational action (Nord, 1997, P. 27).

Now the question is who decides what the principle is. In order to solve the question efficiently, the translation brief must be explained clearly.

In Skopos, there is a very crucial term — translation brief, which is from a German word *Übersetzungsauftrag*. It implicitly compares the translator with a barrister who has received the basic information and instructions from his client but is then free (as a responsible expert) to carry out those instructions as he sees fit (Nord 2001: 30). Although translation brief does not tell the translator how to embark on the translating job, which methods should be used and how to solve the many detailed problems, it gives him a general idea how a source text should be translated. Every translation task should be accompanied by a brief that defines the specific conditions under which the target text tries to reach its pre-determined functions. In many cases, an experienced translator is able to infer the Skopos from the translational situation itself. Unless otherwise indicated, a technical article about some astronomical discovery is to be translated as a technical article for astronomers and a business letter will most probably be translated for business use. Vermeer postulated that as a general rule Skopos rule must be the intended purpose of the target text that determined translation methods and strategies. In this approach, it is very important that a translator knows why a specific source-text has to be translated and what the function of the target text will be. If a TT fulfils the Skopos of the translation project, it is then regarded as an adequate translation regardless whether it is equivalent to the ST or not.

According to Skopos theory, most translations involve more than one purpose that may be closely connected in a hierarchical order. For a translational action, owing to various agents and factors involved, there must be more than one purpose to achieve. They are divided into three major groups by Nord: “the general purpose aimed at by the translator (perhaps to earn a living); the communicative purpose aimed at by the target text in the target situation (perhaps to instruct the readers) and the purpose aimed at by a particular translation strategy or procedure (perhaps to enrich the target language)” (Nord, 2001, P. 27). These three purposes function independently or together and decide translators' choice of translating strategy to a great extent. Most frequently, Skopos refers to the purpose of the target text, which is decided by the initiator of the translational action. It once again places the emphasis on the target text. Though most translational actions have a variety of Skopos to realize or more than one purpose to achieve, they usually follow a hierarchical order. The translator, as a decision-maker, should judge which particular Skopos should be the most important one for him to carry out in a translational process. It also gives the translator a new perspective to decide

which strategy will be employed in the whole process. The translator's task is to ascertain and then apply the suitable strategies to reach its purpose. Thus the debate about foreignization vs. domestication might have an end.

The two strategies listed by Nord are documentary translation and instrumental translation. The former aims at a reproduction of the communicative interaction between the source-culture sender and a source-culture audience through the ST under source-culture conditions in target language, that is, producing a kind of document. Under this category only one or some particular features of the ST are transmitted into the TT according to a specific purpose and the resulted target text is a text about the source text. All types of translations mentioned may be justified under particular circumstances. A word-for-word or interlinear version, which focuses on the morphological, lexical or syntactic features of the source language system as present in the ST, can be extremely useful in comparative linguistic research. Literal or grammar translation, which reproduces the words of the ST by adapting syntactic structures and idiomatic use of vocabulary to the norms of the target language, is a good aid to foreign language learning. Examples of this kind are not rare in language textbooks like *New Concept English*. Learned translation, which reproduces the ST rather literally adding the necessary explanations about the source culture or some peculiarities of the source language in footnotes or glossaries, is appropriate if one wishes to focus on the different means whereby given meanings are verbally expressed in different languages. Foreignizing translation or exoticizing translation mentioned in the Figure is different from the sense given to foreignization as a global strategy of translation. It means to retain the source culture setting of the story so as to create the impression of strangeness or cultural distance for the target audience. In short, documentary translation is to retain one or some linguistic or cultural features of the ST. Thus it is ST-oriented.

From the above analysis we can conclude that documentary translation roughly corresponds to the global strategy of foreignization — leaving the ST in peace and moves the readers towards it.

Similarly instrumental translation roughly corresponds to domestication because it aims at a creation of a new communicative interaction between the source-culture sender and target-culture audience based on the ST's "offer of information", which is subject to selection. The resulted TT may achieve the same range of functions as the ST. Equifunctional translation means that the function of TT is the same as that of ST, which is usually found in the area of pragmatic texts such as technical texts, computer manuals or instructions for use. In heterofunctional translation the function or functions of the ST cannot be preserved as a whole or in the same hierarchy due to cultural or temporal reasons like Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* or Cervantes' *Don Quixote*, which are translated as children's books and lose their original satirical function. Homologous translations are mostly found in literary or poetic texts in which a certain device or style specific to the target language or culture may be employed to replace the one in the ST in order to achieve a homologous effect like the same degree of originality. For example, using prose to translate Shakespeare's blank verse may create the same degree of similarity for Chinese readers as blank verse for the English readers. From the above analysis we may conclude that instrumental translation roughly corresponds to the global strategy of domestication — leaving the readers in peace and moves the ST towards them.

IV. CONCLUSION

The essay has been concerned with two basic translation strategies — foreignization and domestication from the perspective of the functionalist approaches, especially the Skopos theory. Domestication is reader-centered and TL culture-oriented, and foreignization is author-centered and SL culture-oriented. The former centers around nationalism, converting outlook of values of source language to that of target language, just like inviting the author to the readers' home. While the latter ventures to introduce the language and culture of the source language to the target readers, just like sending the target readers abroad.

However, in the recent translation studies, which of the two translating strategies should be chosen evokes a heated and endless debate at home and abroad. Many translation scholars try to find out new perspectives to redefine the relation between foreignization and domestication. People who advocate foreignization believe that, as a means of cultural communication, translation should introduce foreign culture and exoticness to target readers, meanwhile taking in new expressions. On the contrary, people who prefer domestication argue that translation should help overcome not only language barrier but also cultural conflict. For them, the task of a translator is to avoid cultural conflict, and domesticating translation can help readers understand the source text better and finally reach the goal of cultural communication. Although reasonable to a degree, they can't make a satisfying explanation and tend to go to extreme. Scholars of these two opposite schools can't convince each other, because they regard these two strategies as water and fire, and believe that they can never coexist harmoniously in translation.

In order to solve the endless debate over domestication and foreignization, we need a new perspective generally applicable to all types of translations across different cultures, so that discussions about the strategies can be based on the same level and meaningless arguments can be avoided. From the angle of Skopos of translation, functionalist approaches provide us a new perspective. And only in this way can cultural communication and transplantation go on smoothly and successfully.

Within the Skopos theory the primary rule is the Skopos rule, that is, the selection of a translation strategy is determined by the intended Skopos purpose of the TT. The Skopos theory can also be applied to literary translation because within this theory the criterion to judge a translation is "adequacy", which means the translated version should be adequate to its Skopos, that is, so long as a translation fulfils its Skopos it is considered as an "adequate" translation

no matter what strategies to be used. "The end justifies the means." If the purpose of translation is to introduce domestic culture, history, philosophy to foreign readers, then foreignization should be employed. On the other hand, if the purpose of translation is to entertain the target readers, domestication can add more readability and have the better function. The translator is an active role in a translational action. As a decision-maker, he will decide which strategy is more suitable to finish the concrete job. That is to say, the translating strategies in one translation are flexible instead of being fixed. The translator will make the choice as he sees fit.

The essay has made a research to justify foreignization and domestication as two translation strategies. This essay also points out that there are certain discrepancies, that is, inconsistencies concerning the strategies in the two versions. They are closely linked to each other in the translational process. We should treat domestication and foreignization from the dialectical point of view and it is one-sided to overemphasize one of them. It is better to break the binary opposition model and find new ways to solve the problems that bewilder translation studies than to keep arguing on which strategy is superior to the other.

In one word, from the viewpoint of functionalist, domestication and foreignization have different functions in target language culture. A translator can adopt either or both of them in order to achieve the prospective functions. Both strategies have their positive points as well as the negative ones. The relationship between foreignization and domestication is in fact dialectical and complementary. Overemphasizing domestication or foreignization is unscientific and one-sided. We should take a dynamic view to determine which strategy we should use in a translation. There is no point to say that one strategy is better than the other, so long as they can serve the intended function of the text in the target language, each of them has its role in translation. A good translator should use domestication and foreignization properly.

The purpose of this study is to provide a new perspective of looking at the issue of translation strategies, to enhance translation critic's awareness of assessing a translated version by examining whether the translator's choice of a certain strategy fulfils his purpose, and also to enhance the translator's awareness of the importance of consistency in translation strategy. The author hopes the present study can be of a little help to the future research in the field of translation.

For the translation studies in general, this essay can be taken as an effort to deconstruct the binary opposition model, which, as a common approach to describe translation phenomena, is on the whole fruitless, and has resulted in a lot of debates.

The author points out that due to the limited space of this paper, there are still some aspects of the topic that are not explored in depth and need further research. The validity of the Skopos theory needs the further verification. It is the author's sincere wish that a thorough and deeper study on the two specific translation strategies, foreignization and domestication, can be made in the future. The Skopos theory not only can put forward another new view for the literary translation, but also can provide a new way for the study of the literature works.

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The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Iranian Language Institute Teachers' Job Satisfaction

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Abstract—This study aims to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence (EQ) and job satisfaction among Iranian EFL teachers in Language Institutes and to determine the effect of their gender, age and years of teaching experience on these two constructs. For this purpose, 100 Language Institutes' teachers from Isfahan, Tehran, Shiraz, Tabriz, and Mashhad provinces voluntarily participated in this study. Participants completed the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) Self-Report Scale, and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). Pearson Product Moment correlations and Independent-Samples t-tests were applied to the data. The findings of the study showed that EFL teachers' emotional intelligence was correlated significantly and positively with their job satisfaction, and male teachers were more satisfied with their job than females. Thus, emotional intelligence skills can be used in order to increase job satisfaction in educational environments and EFL teachers with high emotional intelligence are more satisfied with their job. Also, it was revealed that gender can be a predictor of job satisfaction.

Index Terms—intelligence, emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, EFL teacher, language institute

I. INTRODUCTION

Emotionally healthy behaviour is mirrored in individuals' ways of thinking; recognizing, managing and expressing feelings; and choosing effective behaviours (Nelson, Low, Nelson, 2007). Emotions are of high significance in educational settings. Emotional health is important for teachers; it influences what they do, who they meet, how they look and feel and it makes decision about their life.

Emotional intelligence (EQ) is a set of obtained skills and capabilities that predict positive consequences at home, in school, and at work (Goleman, 1995). People who have these are healthier, less depressed, more productive at work, and have better relationships with others. Goleman (1995) defines emotional intelligence in terms of the ability to love and be loved by friends, partner and family members.

The importance and value of emotional intelligence in teacher preparation programs have been revealed in researches by Goad (2005) and Justice (2005). They indicated that pre-service teacher training, guidance and support to younger or less-skilled teachers, and optional programs could be fortified by providing emotional intelligence training in preparing new teachers.

Job satisfaction is one of the ways to look at an individual in the workplace. Scherler (2001) simply defined job satisfaction as 'the degree to which people like their jobs' (p. 11). Teacher job satisfaction

More specifically, teacher job satisfaction is 'a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and a contributor to teacher effectiveness' (Shann, 1998, p. 67). Teacher job satisfaction decreases exhaustion, improves job performance, and has a positive impact on student outcomes. It depends on teachers' attitude, and helps to express emotions appropriately instead ignore them.

According to researches (Hasankhoyi, 2006; Hosseinian, 2008; Mousavi, Yarmohammadi, Bani-Nosrat, & Tarasi, 2012; Naderi, 2012; Shooshtarian, Ameli, & Aminilari, 2013), a job satisfaction problem exists among Iranian teachers. They encounter extreme expectations and demands, such as increased responsibility, lack of parental support and participation, lack of available resources, negative student attitudes, low paying salaries in educational system, and low status of the profession. Therefore, many of teachers are leaving the profession because of job dissatisfaction and this leads them to stress, burnout, and a high turnover rate.

A great deal of research has been carried out on the relationships between job satisfaction and situational factors, (Asaari & Kariau, 2004; Bogler, 2001; Ismail, Yao, & Yunus, 2009; Iwanicki, 2001; Jehanzeb, Rasheed, Rasheed, & Aamir, 2012; Kosteas, 2011; McGovney & Irani, 2005; Naderi, 2012; Perrachione, Rosser, & Petersen, 2008; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, & Marshall, 2006), but not on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. In fact, there is little scientific or empirical research in this area. It seems that there might be other factors influencing job satisfaction of employees which are ignored or have not been taken into account

in the workplace (Masroor, 2009).

With the supporting evidence that emotional intelligence is closely related to and could be a predictor of job satisfaction and due to paucity of research on the role of emotional intelligence in success in life and job and more specifically, in EFL teachers' job satisfaction, the present study aims to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among Iranian EFL teachers in Language Institutes. It also seeks to determine the effect of EFL teachers' gender, age and years of teaching experience on their EQ and job satisfaction.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Emotional Intelligence*

Bar-On (1988) coined the term Emotional Quotient (EQ) - the intelligent use of emotions and utilizing the power or information contained in emotion to make effective decisions (Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007) - comprised of social and emotional abilities that help individuals deal with the difficulties of their life.

Emotional intelligence was introduced into the world with the publication of Goleman's book 'Emotional Intelligence', and as the term implies, is the ability to manage emotions intelligently. Goleman (1995) has defined emotional intelligence as the capacity for recognizing our feelings and those of others, motivating ourselves, and managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. Goleman (2001) has recently had some comments on emotional intelligence and emotional competencies. According to this view, emotional intelligence provides the base for the development of a large number of competencies that help people perform more effectively.

It is believed that EQ plays a critical role in the modern work life (George, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Sy & Cote, 2004). It also helps people better understand and manage their emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Moreover, it allows understanding one's behaviour as well as relationship with others (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Oriole and Cooper (1997) showed that recognizing and managing emotions play significant role in satisfying people's life and workplace.

B. *Job Satisfaction*

Job satisfaction has been defined in several different ways. According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction is simply how people feel about different aspects of their jobs, and it actually refers to the extent to which people like or dislike about their jobs (Spector, Fox, & Van Katwyk, 1999).

Dormann and Zapf (2001) claimed that job satisfaction has become one of the most important research concepts in organizational psychology. They have considered that responsibility, task variety and communications/feedback mechanisms can have considerable impact on job satisfaction. These researchers also reported that there are significant relationships between job satisfaction, absenteeism and other workplace behaviours.

Many factors such as organizational factors, environmental factors, job nature and employee's characteristic influence on job satisfaction (Shooshtarian, et al., 2013). It is claimed that job satisfaction has been linked both to situational factors include job-related conditions (such as pay, opportunities for promotion, and working conditions) and job characteristics (such as task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, and feedback) (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002), and personal factors include personality tendencies, characteristics, self-esteem, motivation, and emotions (Dormann & Zapf, 2001).

C. *Empirical Researches on Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction*

Psychological research suggested the importance of EQ in predicting success in life (Bar-On, 1997). The works of Goleman (1995) and (1998) stated that individuals' emotional intelligence was a predictor of the job success and job satisfaction.

Cobb (2004) assessed job satisfaction and emotional intelligence in public school teachers. Data analyses revealed that EQ did play a role in how teachers perceived their overall job satisfaction based on self-report measures. He also supported that EQ was correlated with years of teaching experience and job satisfaction.

In another study, Masroor (2009) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among the administrative staff in higher education institution in Malaysia. Findings revealed that EI with its three dimensions, appraisal, utilization and regulation were associated significantly and positively with job satisfaction. The result further confirmed the predictor nature of the three dimension of EI for the job satisfaction.

The purpose of a study by Platsidou (2010) was investigation of perceived emotional intelligence in relation to burnout syndrome and job satisfaction in primary special education teachers from Greece. Results showed that Greek teachers reported fairly high scores in the specific factors and the overall EI. Moreover it was revealed that perceived EI was significantly related to burnout syndrome and job satisfaction, indicated that teachers of high-perceived EI was likely to experience less burnout and greater job satisfaction.

Salim, Nasir, Arip, and Bazlan (2012) conducted a research to ascertain the role of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction and the effect of gender on the relationship between EQ and job satisfaction. Results of this study indicated a significant positive relationship between EQ and job satisfaction and no effect of gender on the relationship between the two variables.

a. Empirical Researches on Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction in Iran

Hasankhoyi (2006) concluded that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Further, there was no significant difference between men and women in motivation, self-awareness, self-control, and social skills; however, women had a higher level of EQ and empathy. Moreover, he pointed out that EQ skills could be used in order to increase job satisfaction in educational environments.

In a study by Hosseinian (2008), the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction was investigated and findings showed that there was no significant difference between any of Bar-On's components of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction which was measured using the Job Description Index.

Naderi (2012) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among high-school English teachers. She aimed to determine the role of gender and age in EQ, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results of the study indicated that there was a positive significant relationship between EQ and job satisfaction. The study also showed that there was no significant difference among high-school English teachers of different genders and ages concerning their job satisfaction.

Mousavi, et al. (2012) conducted a research study to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence as well as its five components and job satisfaction of physical education teachers. The results showed that there was a significant positive relationship between EQ and job satisfaction and between the components of social skills, empathy, and motivation and job satisfaction. Further, it was found that among the five components of emotional intelligence, social skills, empathy, and motivation were predictors of teacher's job satisfaction. They concluded that job satisfaction of teachers can be increased by training and improving their emotional intelligence along with providing facilities and satisfying their needs.

In another study, Khanifar, Emami, Maleki, and Abdolhosseini (2012) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence among staffs in private banks. Results of this study confirmed the existence of a meaningful relationship between job satisfaction and EQ among staffs.

The main purpose of a study by Emdady and Bagheri (2013) was investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of men and women employees. Results showed that there was a relation between EI and job satisfaction. The relation between job satisfaction and each of the emotional intelligence criteria (self-awareness, self-control, and social skills) were supported and it was clear that there was no significant difference between men and women's EI and job satisfaction.

Shooshtarian, et al. (2013) determined the effect of labour's emotional intelligence on job satisfaction, job performance and commitment. The results reported that employees' EQ was positively correlated with job satisfaction and there was a significant relationship between the labours' EQ and their job performance. Also, they found that there was not any relationship between labours' EQ and their commitment.

A review of the literature shows that emotional intelligence is one of the fundamental factors for being successful in life and work. It is clear that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in educational setting. Also, teacher's emotional intelligence is very important in his/her behaviour toward the learners and it can affect his/her performance in classroom. In addition, when teachers are more satisfied with their job they can improve their pedagogical behaviour.

Based on the literature introduced above the following research questions are posed:

1. Is there any relationship between EQ and job satisfaction among Iranian EFL teachers in Language Institutes?
2. Do male and female L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their EQ?
3. Do male and female L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction?
4. Do young and old L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their EQ?
5. Do young and old L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction?
6. Do less and more experienced L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their EQ?
7. Do less and more experienced L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction?

Also, regarding the preceding research questions the following research hypotheses are formulated:

1. There is a significant relationship between EQ and job satisfaction among Iranian EFL teachers in Language Institutes.
2. Male and female L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their EQ.
3. Male and female L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction.
4. Young and old L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their EQ.
5. Young and old L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction.
6. Less and more experienced L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their EQ.
7. Less and more experienced L2 teachers differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The sample consisted of 100 teachers who were currently teaching English as a foreign language in some Language Institutes in Isfahan, Tehran, Shiraz, Tabriz, and Mashhad provinces of Iran and voluntarily participated in this study. The age range of teachers was between 20 and 50 ($M = 35$) and they had 1 to 20 years of teaching experience ($M = 10$). Out of 100 participants, 50 were females and 50 were males from different socio-economic backgrounds. All of them were originally from Iran and had different majors of English [i.e., English Literature, English Teaching, and English

Translation], and had B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees.

B. Instruments

Two types of instruments were used in this study:

a. The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) Self-Report Scale

This scale defines and assesses the skills that comprise emotional intelligence. It has the capacity to assess an individual's general degree of emotional intelligence, potential for emotional health, and present psychological well-being (Bar-On, 2000). This scale has 133 questions which measure people's emotional intelligence and employs a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'very seldom or not true of me' to 'very often true of me or true of me' (Bar-On, 2000). The overall average internal consistency of the EQ-i scales is $\alpha = .76$, and the test-retest reliability of it is $\alpha = .73$ (Cobb, 2004).

b. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

The Job Descriptive Index, a measure of employees' satisfaction with their present job, is a widely used measure of job satisfaction (Balzer, Kihm, Smith, Irwin, Bachiocchi, Robie, Sinar, & Parra, 1997). The JDI focuses on job satisfaction and has a total of five scales: present job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, opportunities for promotion, supervision satisfaction, and coworker satisfaction (Balzer, et al., 1997). The average internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha, for all five facets of the Job Descriptive Index is $\alpha = .88$ with some estimates as high as $\alpha = .92$ and the test-retest reliability is approximated at $\alpha = .65$ (Balzer, et al., 1997).

C. Procedure

In order to investigate the research hypotheses, 100 EFL teachers from some Language Institutes in Isfahan, Tehran, Shiraz, Tabriz, and Mashhad provinces of Iran, voluntarily participated in this study. They were asked to complete the Bar-On EQ-i Self-Report Scale and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), which were personally distributed by the researcher or sent via e-mail. Participants were supposed to choose an option for each statement that accurately described them. Each questionnaire was assigned a code number which served as the teacher's identification code, since no identifiable information was on either form. Teachers also provided some basic demographic information such as their gender, age, and years of teaching on the questionnaires.

IV. RESULTS

The sample of teachers consisted of 50 females and 50 males. Table 1 presents distribution of participants' demographic data.

TABLE 1-
DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Demographic data	Mean	Minimum	Maximum
Age	35	20	50
Years of Teaching Experience	10	1	20

N = 100

In order to investigate the effect of age and years of teaching experience on emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, teachers were divided into two groups. On one hand, teachers aged below the mean age (20-35) were assigned to young class and those aged above it (36-50) were put in old class. On the other hand, teachers with less years of teaching experience than the mean (1-10) were assigned to less experienced group and those with more teaching experience (11-30) were put in more experienced group. A summary of this is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2-
DEMOGRAPHICS OF EFL TEACHERS

Demographic data	n
Age	
Young (20-35)	92
Old (36-50)	8
Years of Teaching Experience	
Less Experienced (1-10)	91
More Experienced (11-20)	9

N = 100

A. Descriptive Statistics for Distribution of Participants' Emotional Intelligence

Table 3 reports descriptive statistics for total EQ, broad categories, and subcategories of emotional intelligence.

TABLE 3-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS' BAR-ON EQ-I SELF-REPORT SCALE

Total/ Broad category/ Subcategory	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Total EQ	334.84	35.93	219	420
Intrapersonal	109.54	14.91	69	140
Interpersonal	74.93	6.25	59	89
Adaptability	63.26	8.55	41	84
Stress Management	40.13	8.12	18	59
General Mood	46.98	6.10	30	60
Emotional Self-Awareness	22.08	3.17	14	29
Self-Actualization	23.33	3.69	13	30
Self-Regard	22.87	3.77	12	30
Assertiveness	19.35	4.17	9	27
Independence	21.91	3.66	11	29
Empathy	25.43	2.73	18	30
Interpersonal Relationships	24.36	3.00	16	30
Social Responsibility	25.14	2.38	19	30
Problem Solving	22.96	2.70	16	29
Reality Testing	20.49	3.73	11	28
Flexibility	19.81	3.78	9	28
Stress Tolerance	20.16	4.34	8	29
Impulse Control	19.97	4.62	6	30
Optimism	23.29	3.17	12	30
Happiness	23.69	3.88	13	30

N = 100

As displayed in Table 3, teachers' EQ scores ranged from a low level of 219 (extremely underdeveloped emotional capacity) to a high level of 420 (extremely well developed emotional capacity). The mean EQ scores for all teachers (334.84) with a standard deviation of 35.93 suggested that EFL teachers had normal emotional capacity.

B. Distribution of Participants' Job Satisfaction

Descriptive statistics for general job satisfaction, present job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, and co-worker satisfaction are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS' JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI)

Job Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
General Job Satisfaction	145.53	23.97	89	201
Present Job Satisfaction	44.68	8.72	6	54
Pay Satisfaction	21.13	10.10	0	42
Supervision Satisfaction	42.36	7.68	20	54
Co-worker Satisfaction	37.36	9.83	18	54

N = 100

Overall, the teachers in this study had high general job satisfaction ($M > 108$), and were highly satisfied with their present job, supervision, and co-workers ($M \geq 27$), but they were somewhat dissatisfied with their salary ($M < 27$).

C. Results of the First Research Hypothesis

To address the first research hypothesis, Pearson product moment correlations have been calculated. The results are reported in Table 5.

TABLE 5-
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN EQ AND JOB SATISFACTION

		PJ	PP	SU	CW	GJS
Total EQ	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.306** .002	-.074 .467	.274** .006	.228* .023	.262** .009
Intrapersonal	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.274** .006	-.056 .579	.301** .002	.231* .021	.267** .007
Interpersonal	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.237* .018	-.036 .719	.292** .003	.282** .005	.280** .005
Adaptability	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.335** .001	-.109 .280	.260** .009	.212* .035	.246** .014
Stress Management	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.086 .393	-.064 .524	.051 .615	.090 .374	.057 .570
General Mood	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.302** .002	-.020 .843	.145 .150	.074 .465	.178 .076
Emotional Self-Awareness	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.169 .093	-.122 .225	.132 .191	.147 .145	.112 .265
Self-Actualization	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.293** .003	-.133 .186	.246* .014	.203* .043	.212* .034
Self-Regard	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.195 .052	-.008 .939	.259** .009	.101 .319	.192 .056
Assertiveness	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.196 .051	-.002 .982	.430** .000	.289** .004	.327** .001
Independence	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.251* .012	.022 .825	.106 .292	.173 .085	.206* .040
Empathy	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.261** .009	-.175 .082	.335** .001	.292** .003	.240* .013
Interpersonal-Relationships	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.101 .318	.149 .139	.030 .765	.086 .396	.114 .152
Social Responsibility	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.195 .052	-.083 .413	.344** .000	.296** .003	.268** .007
Problem Solving	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.259** .009	-.143 .156	.112 .266	.045 .654	.089 .381
Reality Testing	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.205* .040	-.132 .190	.284** .004	.166 .099	.178 .076
Flexibility	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.369** .000	-.013 .895	.227* .023	.282** .004	.317** .001
Stress Tolerance	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.196 .050	-.054 .593	.191 .057	.168 .095	.179 .075
Impulse Control	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	-.033 .746	-.062 .537	-.090 .373	.000 .996	-.067 .508
Optimism	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.259** .009	-.027 .787	.107 .289	.119 .237	.166 .099
Happiness	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.263** .008	-.009 .927	.140 .164	.019 .855	.144 .152

Note. The following are explanations of abbreviations: PJ = present job; SU = supervision;
PP = present pay; CW = co-worker; GJS = general job satisfaction.
N = 100; *p < .05, **p < .01.

As it is observed from Table 5, there was a high positive correlation between total EQ and general job satisfaction ($r = .262$; $p = .009$). It means that teachers with higher emotional intelligence also reported greater satisfaction of their job. Therefore, the first research hypothesis is supported.

Table 5 showed that there was not significant relationship between ten EQ subscales - stress management, general mood, emotional self-awareness, self-regard, interpersonal relationships, problem solving, reality testing, stress tolerance, optimism, and happiness - and general job satisfaction. Findings suggested that there was a negative correlation between only one EQ subscales, impulse control, and general job satisfaction ($r = -.067$; $p = .508$).

D. Results of the Second Research Hypothesis

To address the second research hypothesis, independent-samples t-test was run. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6-
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GENDER

Total EQ/ Broad category/ Subcategory	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Total EQ	-.455	98	.650	-3.280	7.216	-17.600	11.040
Intrapersonal	-1.006	98	.317	-3.000	2.983	-8.919	2.919
Interpersonal	1.072	98	.287	1.340	1.251	-1.142	3.822
Adaptability	-.583	98	.561	-1.000	1.716	-4.405	2.405
Stress Management	-.577	98	.566	-.940	1.630	-4.176	2.296
General Mood	.261	98	.795	.320	1.226	-2.113	2.753
Emotional Self-Awareness	-1.007	98	.316	-.640	.635	-1.901	.621
Self-Actualization	-1.002	98	.319	-.740	.739	-2.206	.726
Self-Regard	-.237	98	.813	-.180	.758	-1.685	1.325
Assertiveness	-1.126	98	.263	-.940	.835	-2.596	.716
Independence	-.681	98	.497	-.500	.734	-1.957	.957
Empathy	2.202	98	.030	1.180	.536	.116	2.244
Interpersonal Relationships	-.199	98	.843	-.120	.604	-1.318	1.078
Social Responsibility	.585	98	.560	.280	.479	-.671	1.231
Problem Solving	-1.184	98	.239	-.640	.540	-1.712	.432
Reality Testing	-.990	98	.325	-.740	.748	-2.224	.744
Flexibility	.500	98	.618	.380	.760	-1.129	1.889
Stress Tolerance	-.735	98	.464	-.640	.871	-2.368	1.088
Impulse Control	-.323	98	.747	-.300	.929	-2.144	1.544
Optimism	-.157	98	.876	-.100	.638	-1.366	1.166
Happiness	.538	98	.592	.420	.781	-1.129	1.969

As indicated in Table 6, there was not a significant difference between male and female teachers' total EQ ($p > .05$). This finding was true for all EQ subscales except one – empathy ($p < .05$). So, there was a significant difference between male and female teachers' empathy.

TABLE 7-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	50	333.04	35.23	4.982
Female	50	333.20	36.90	5.220

N = 100

Based on the data presented in Table 7, the mean EQ of female teachers was the same as the mean EQ of male teachers and it showed that female and male teachers had the same level of emotional intelligence and as a result, the second research hypothesis is rejected.

E. Results of the Third Research Hypothesis

To address the third research hypothesis, independent-samples t-test has been run, which its results are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8-
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR JOB SATISFACTION AND GENDER

Job Satisfaction	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
General Job Satisfaction	3.832	98	.000	17.220	4.494	8.302	26.138
Present Job Satisfaction	2.645	98	.010	4.480	1.694	1.119	7.841
Pay Satisfaction	4.229	98	.000	7.900	1.868	4.193	11.607
Supervision Satisfaction	.936	98	.352	1.440	1.538	-1.613	4.493
Co-worker Satisfaction	1.747	98	.084	3.400	1.946	-.463	7.263

It is observed from Table 8 that there was a significant difference between general job satisfaction and gender of EFL teachers ($p < .05$). It means that male and female teachers had different general job satisfaction. This finding was true for present job satisfaction and pay satisfaction, but not for supervision and coworker satisfaction ($p > .05$).

TABLE 9-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	50	154.14	22.86	3.23
Female	50	136.92	22.06	3.12

N = 100

Based on the data presented in Table 9, the mean job satisfaction of male teachers was more than the mean job satisfaction of female teachers and it showed that male teachers were more satisfied with their job than female ones.

Thus, the third research hypothesis is supported.

F. Results of the Fourth Research Hypothesis

To address the fourth research hypothesis, independent-samples t-test was run. Table 10 reports the results of this analysis.

TABLE 10-
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND AGE

Total EQ/ Broad category/ Subcategory	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Total EQ	-1.776	98	.079	-23.272	13.104	-49.276	2.732
Intrapersonal	-1.231	98	.221	-6.750	5.483	-17.632	4.132
Interpersonal	-1.154	98	.251	-2.658	2.303	-7.227	1.912
Adaptability	-2.285	98	.024	-7.054	3.087	-13.180	-.929
Stress Management	-1.226	98	.223	-3.663	2.987	-9.591	2.265
General Mood	-1.406	98	.163	-3.147	2.238	-7.588	1.295
Emotional Self-Awareness	-.736	98	.463	-.864	1.174	-3.194	1.465
Self-Actualization	-.733	98	.465	-1.000	1.364	-3.708	1.708
Self-Regard	-1.680	98	.096	-2.315	1.378	-5.050	.420
Assertiveness	-.457	98	.649	-.707	1.547	-3.776	2.362
Independence	-1.388	98	.168	-1.864	1.343	-4.529	.801
Empathy	.059	98	.953	.060	1.012	-1.948	2.068
Interpersonal Relationships	-2.402	98	.018	-2.598	1.081	-4.744	-.452
Social Responsibility	-.135	98	.893	-.120	.884	-1.874	1.635
Problem Solving	-2.268	98	.026	-2.217	.978	-4.158	-.277
Reality Testing	-1.294	98	.199	-1.777	1.373	-4.502	.948
Flexibility	-2.236	98	.028	-3.060	1.368	-5.775	-.344
Stress Tolerance	-1.778	98	.079	-2.815	1.584	-5.958	.328
Impulse Control	-.496	98	.621	-.848	1.711	-4.243	2.548
Optimism	-2.337	98	.021	-2.674	1.144	-4.944	-.404
Happiness	-.328	98	.743	-.473	1.440	-3.331	2.385

It is clear from Table 10 that there was not a significant difference between young and old teachers and their total EQ ($p > .05$). This finding was true for all broad and subcategories of EQ except five - adaptability, interpersonal relationships, problem solving, flexibility, and optimism ($p < .05$). So, there were significant differences between young and old teachers in terms of these five subscales.

TABLE 11-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF YOUNG AND OLD TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Young (20-35)	92	332.98	36.20	3.77
Old (36-50)	8	332.25	32.55	2.03

N = 100

Based on the data presented in Table 11, the mean EQ of young teachers was the same as the mean EQ of old teachers and it showed that there was no differences between young and old teachers emotional intelligence. So, the fourth research hypothesis is rejected.

G. Results of the Fifth Research Hypothesis

To address the fifth research hypothesis, independent-samples t-test was run. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 12.

TABLE 12-
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR JOB SATISFACTION AND AGE

Job Satisfaction	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
General Job Satisfaction	-.996	98	.322	-8.799	8.836	-26.334	8.737
Present Job Satisfaction	-.066	98	.948	-.212	3.231	-6.624	6.200
Pay Satisfaction	-2.667	98	.009	-9.641	3.615	-16.815	-2.468
Supervision Satisfaction	.042	98	.967	.120	2.848	-5.532	5.771
Co-worker Satisfaction	.257	98	.798	.935	3.642	-6.292	8.161

As Table 12 indicates, there was no difference between participants' general job satisfaction regarding their age ($p > .05$). It means that there was no difference between EFL teachers' general job satisfaction and their age. This finding was not true for pay satisfaction ($p < .05$).

TABLE 13-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF YOUNG AND OLD TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Young (20-35)	92	153.96	38.83	13.76
Old (36-50)	8	153.63	36.15	12.78

N = 100

As can be seen from Table 13, the mean job satisfaction of young teachers was the same as the mean job satisfaction of old teachers and it showed that both are satisfied with their job. Therefore, the fifth research hypothesis is rejected.

H. Results of the Sixth Research Hypothesis

Independent-samples t-test has been run to address the sixth research. Table 14 shows the results of this analysis.

TABLE 14-
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Total EQ/ Broad category/ Subcategory	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Total EQ	-.324	98	.747	-4.083	12.614	-29.114	20.948
Intrapersonal	-1.231	98	.221	-6.750	5.483	-17.632	4.132
Interpersonal	-1.154	98	.251	-2.658	2.303	-7.227	1.912
Adaptability	-2.285	98	.024	-7.054	3.087	-13.180	-.929
Stress Management	-1.226	98	.223	-3.663	2.987	-9.591	2.265
General Mood	-1.406	98	.163	-3.147	2.238	-7.588	1.295
Emotional Self-Awareness	-.359	98	.720	-.400	1.115	-2.613	1.812
Self-Actualization	2.015	98	.047	2.560	1.271	.038	5.083
Self-Regard	.631	98	.530	.834	1.322	-1.790	3.458
Assertiveness	-.906	98	.367	-1.325	1.461	-4.225	1.576
Independence	-.553	98	.582	-.709	1.283	-3.256	1.838
Empathy	.621	98	.536	.595	.957	-1.305	2.494
Interpersonal Relationships	-1.856	98	.066	-1.924	1.037	-3.982	.133
Social Responsibility	2.124	98	.036	1.741	.820	.115	3.368
Problem Solving	.082	98	.935	.078	.951	-1.809	1.965
Reality Testing	.597	98	.552	.783	1.310	-1.818	3.383
Flexibility	-1.269	98	.207	-1.674	1.319	-4.292	.944
Stress Tolerance	-1.586	98	.116	-2.388	1.506	-5.377	.601
Impulse Control	-1.465	98	.146	-2.353	1.607	-5.541	.835
Optimism	-.262	98	.794	-.292	1.114	-2.502	1.919
Happiness	.287	98	.775	.392	1.365	-2.317	3.101

As it is clear from Table 14, there was no difference between years of teaching experience and total EQ ($p > .05$). This finding was true for all EQ subscales ($p > .05$) except three – adaptability, self-actualization and social responsibility ($p < .05$).

TABLE 15-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF LESS AND MORE EXPERIENCED TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Less Experienced (1-10)	91	334.47	35.38	3.70
More Experienced (11-20)	9	334.56	33.31	2.43

N = 100

Based on the data presented in Table 15, the mean EQ of more experienced teachers was the same as the mean EQ of less experienced teachers and it showed that both had the same level of emotional intelligence. Thus, the sixth research hypothesis is rejected.

I. Results of the Seventh Research Hypothesis

To address the seventh research hypothesis, independent-samples t-test was run, which its results are presented in Table 16.

TABLE 16-
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR JOB SATISFACTION AND YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Job Satisfaction	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
General Job Satisfaction	.534	98	.595	4.490	8.407	-12.193	21.173
Present Job Satisfaction	2.558	98	.012	7.585	2.966	1.700	13.470
Pay Satisfaction	-2.859	98	.005	-9.747	3.410	-16.514	-2.981
Supervision Satisfaction	1.757	98	.082	4.669	2.658	-.606	9.944
Coworker Satisfaction	.575	98	.566	1.983	3.447	-4.858	8.824

Table 16 reports that there is no difference between years of teaching experience and their general job satisfaction ($p > .05$). This finding was not true for present job satisfaction and pay satisfaction ($p < .05$).

TABLE 17-
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DISTRIBUTION OF LESS AND MORE EXPERIENCED TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Less Experienced (1-10)	91	141.93	46.06	17.20
More Experienced (11-20)	9	141.44	45.79	15.26

N = 100

As reported in Table 17, the mean job satisfaction of less experienced teachers was the same as the mean job satisfaction of more experienced teachers and it showed that both had the same job satisfaction. So, the seventh research hypothesis is rejected.

V. DISCUSSION

The present study expanded the literature on the effectiveness of emotional intelligence with teacher job satisfaction. Analysis of the data supported that EQ was positively correlated with job satisfaction among Iranian EFL teachers. It appeared that EQ did make a difference in how teachers perceived their satisfaction on the job. It was found that EQ subscales general mood, emotional self-awareness, self-regard, interpersonal relationships, problem solving, reality testing, stress tolerance, optimism, and happiness did not make any difference in teachers' job satisfaction and subscale impulse control had a negative relation with their job satisfaction.

The result of this study showed that male and female EFL teachers had somewhat same level of emotional intelligence. Moreover, findings indicated that gender was positively correlated with EFL teachers' job satisfaction. It was revealed that male teachers were more satisfied with their job than females. In addition, results reported that young and old EFL teachers did not differ from each other in terms of their EQ. It was also clear that age was not correlated with EFL teachers' job satisfaction. Findings also confirmed that there was no significant difference between less and more experienced teachers' EQ. Moreover, it was revealed that years of teaching experience was not correlated with EFL teachers' job satisfaction.

The results of the study can be practical for teacher trainers and authorities as well as EFL teachers. Perhaps remedial and in-service trainings could be implemented to help teachers in increasing their EQ, which would increase their job satisfaction (Goleman, 1998). Accordingly, EFL teachers are advised to hold some regular meetings where those with different ages and teaching experience are encouraged to share their various emotional experiences and knowledge.

VI. CONCLUSION

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional Intelligence was defined as the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to distinguish between them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions. This kind of ability includes interaction between feelings and recognition that manage people to adopt with life situation. The results of this study showed a positive relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' EQ and job satisfaction, so teachers with higher EQ and skills in controlling emotions, had more job satisfaction, because they were more skilful at controlling their own emotions and aware about the influence of emotions on behaviour and outcomes.

Based on findings of this study, it could be concluded that:

1. There is a significant relationship between EQ and job satisfaction among Iranian EFL teachers in Language Institutes.
2. Male and female teachers do not differ from each other in terms of their EQ.
3. Male and female teachers differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction.
4. Young and old teachers do not differ from each other in terms of their EQ.
5. Young and old teachers do not differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction.
6. Less and more experienced teachers do not differ from each other in terms of their EQ.
7. Less and more experienced teachers do not differ from each other in terms of their job satisfaction.

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Comparison of Features of Chinese and Western Cyberliterature*

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Abstract—Attention has been increasingly paid to cyberliterature which is a newly developmental type of literature. Both Chinese and western cyberliterature has its own unique features. Comparison of these features is conducted from the following four aspects: difference of technicality, game spirit, love and imaginative novels. Through this paper people can understand the different features of Chinese and western cyberliterature more comprehensively and profoundly.

Index Terms—Chinese, western, feature, cyberliterature, difference

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years internet has developed rapidly all over the whole world, not only greatly influencing the social economic life, but also strongly hammering the traditional ideology and changing the working and living way of people. Literature appeared accompanying the life of human beings, changed following the advent of humans' life on the internet and entered the time of internet to become cyberliterature.

By the end of 20th century cyberliterature has become a new member of Chinese and western literature. Studying the developmental states and different features of cyberliterature and focusing on the technicality and innovation are the subject of literary research. (Guo, 2013).

Nowadays in a large number of monographs and articles cyberliterature is discussed and studied. Aarseth's book *Cybertext* initiated the discussion of definition and features of cyberliterature in the West. Many western scholars participated in the discussion. Domestically a great many academic institutions and scholars are engaged in the research of cyberliterature. The teachers headed by Ouyang Youquan in Central South University published the monograph *An Outline of the Network Literature* and *Professor Forum of Network Literature*, established the first research institute of cyberliterature and built the website *Research of Online Culture*.

Cyberliterature in China and the West, which has its own different unique features, will be studied in the perspective of comparative literature. The network literature in China and the West will be compared from the following aspects: difference of technicality, game spirit, love and imaginative novels.

II. COMPARISON OF THE DIFFERENT FEATURES OF CHINESE AND WESTERN CYBERLITERATURE

A. *Difference of Chinese and Western Cyberliterature in Terms of Technicality*

Difference of technicality of Chinese and western cyberliterature is mainly revealed in the aspect of the creation of hypertext cyberliterature. Hypertext is the earliest and representative type in English cyberliterature inspired by the creation of the electronic texts. This type of texts, influenced by the European and American poststructuralism, is the online literary experiment. The hypertext literature in the Chinese cyberliterature is created under the western influence, because it demands the online writer's good operating skill. Most of the domestic literary netizens don't have the ability and interest to be engaged in the creation of the texts, so there are few hypertext works on the Chinese internet.

The European and American cyberliterature came into being and developed in the environment of the strong electronic art. Hypertext is a concept which was put forward by the American Vanguard Literature. Compared with the traditional printed texts, hypertext in fact goes beyond the literary category and is a new media art. (Wang, 2011). The creator can adopt the technology of hypermedia and add music, pictures, animation and video to assist the literal expression. Another important feature of hypertext is the application of technology of hyperlink. Hyperlink is the widely used technique. Hypertext is displayed on a computer display with hyperlinks to other texts which the reader can immediately access. (Bolter, 1991). The hypertext pages are interconnected by hyperlinks, typically activated by a mouse click, keypress sequence or by touching the screen.

Critics of hypertext claim that it inhibits the old, linear reader experience by creating several different tracks to read on, and that this in turn contributes to a postmodernist fragmentation of worlds. (Cicconi, 2000). They do see value in its ability to present several different views on the same subject in a simple way. This echoes the arguments of 'medium theorists' like Marshall McLuhan who look at the social and psychological impacts of the media. New media can

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become so dominant in public culture that they effectively create a "paradigm shift" as people have shifted their perceptions, understanding of the world and ways of interacting with the world and each other in relation to new technologies and media. So hypertext signifies a change from linear, structured and hierarchical forms of representing and understanding the world into fractured, decentralized and changeable media based on the technological concept of hypertext links. (George, 1994).

Electronic literature first came to prominence in the 1980s, with the advancement of computing technology. The earliest electronic literatures were known as hypertext fiction and used hyperlinks to connect otherwise isolated story nodes. Eastgate Systems published many of the first hypertexts on CD-ROM, including Michael Joyce's *afternoon, a story*, which is often regarded as the first hypertext.

These texts were supplemented in the 1990s by "digital born" texts, designed specifically for the World Wide Web. At the same time, developments in multimedia software allowed authors to integrate an increasingly sophisticated multimodal range of resources into digital texts. The focus of digital texts moved away from storytelling through words alone and highlighted visual elements of the text. Text-based adventure games, also fall into this genre.

In the early 90s of last century, some American novelists attempted to put the concept of hyperlink into the creation of novels and they worked on the text experiment of hypermedia and hyperlink.

Afternoon, a story is a work of electronic literature written in 1987 by American author Michael Joyce. It was published by Eastgate Systems in 1990 and is known as the first hypertext fiction. Shortly afterwards many American professional writers were dedicated to the creation of the online text fiction. *Patchwork Girl* is a work of electronic literature by American author Shelley Jackson. It was written in Storyspace and also published by Eastgate Systems in 1995. It is often discussed along with Michael Joyce's *Afternoon, a story* as an important work of hypertext fiction.

In the contemporary English cyberliterature, there are a large number of hypertext fictions, which are included on the numerous English websites. The hypertext fictions are sold and the theoretical articles about the hypertext experiment are included on those websites. For example, hundreds of hypertext fictions created by groups of writers and individuals and some critical theoretical articles are included on the website called "Hyperizons". In America some excellent online hypertext fictions are made into CD. The creation of online hypertext fictions in Europe and America is on the increase, in accordance with the poststructuralism and the narrative concept of deconstruction, promoted by the continual development of the online computing technology.

The writers in Taiwan began to carry out the experiment and exploration of the hypertext literature very early, influenced by the western hypertext literature. The representative writers are Dai Ju, Xu Wenwei, Cao Zhilian, Li Xunxing and so on. However the number of the hypertext fictions is small. At present only Li Shunxing's novel of automatic link *Filth* can be found. In the mainland cyberliterature, there are sporadic experimental works of hypertext literature. The hypertext fiction *Midsummer Valentine* was introduced on the famous mainland online website *RongShuXia*. Five hypertext fictions were introduced on the website of Tom's Chinese literature. To date those are the comparatively formal hypertext works in the mainland, which are XuanHuan fictions *Summon the War Locks*, *The Wind and Cloud*, *The ordinary and extraordinary*, *The archer's story*, *white night*. Currently this kind of works in Chinese cyberliterature is imitated, for example *Midsummer Valentine* imitates Rick Pryll's *Lies* in Massachusetts Institute of Technology in the aspect of plots and structure. Because the creation of hypertext needs to be supported by the high technology and at the same time readers have to be patient to read the work, so netizens and readers seldom pay attention to the hypertext fictions.

The popularity of hypertext fictions in Europe and America is on the increase, while the creation in Chinese cyberliterature is without any progress, due to the lack of creating environment of the electronic art and hypertext experiment. The only existing hypertext fictions seem to be a kind of exhibition. This is the important difference between Chinese and western cyberliterature in terms of technicality.

B. *Difference of Chinese and Western Cyberliterature in Terms of Game Spirit*

Cyberliterature created in the postmodern context conspicuously possesses the cultural features of postmodernism and the basic representation is its game spirit. In cyberliterature, literature is regarded not only as a serious mission, but also a kind of amusement and games. People even lay more emphasis on the fun of the works on the internet. Both of Chinese and English Cyberliterature shows the characteristic of game spirit, but the difference lies in the point that in the English cyberliterature, hypertext fiction adopts the form of game spirit, while the Chinese cyberliterature reveals the game spirit represented by the content of novels of reasonless humor. Chinese novels of reasonless humor manifest the game of the literary spirit.

Chinese online writer Li Xunhuan once used a vivid metaphor: Father of cyberliterature is the internet, and mother is the literature. English professor of University of California N.Katherine Hayles had the similar expression. She said: "The parents of cyberliterature are computer game and literary tradition." Both Chinese and western online literary critics searched for the root of father and mother of the cyberliterature. They have the same expression in terms of literary features, but as for the root of father of cyberliterature, they have the different understanding. "The computer game" said by Catherine is a technical concept, while in the expression of Li Xunhuan, internet is a spatial concept. From Catherine's expression, we can see that computer game is a constituent element of the English cyberliterature. In fact English online hypertext fictions are both literary works and online literary games which readers can take part in. The internet said by Li Xunhuan is comparatively general, referring to the cyberspace as the environment of

cyberliterature. The internet provides literature with new way of expression and space. The different technical atmosphere and cultural context on Chinese and western internet have different impact on cyberliterature in terms of form and content.

Influenced by the postmodern trend of thought, the contemporary western literature overturns and innovates the traditional literary way of expression. The combination of revolution of the literary form and modern network technology is hypertext literature. The game spirit of English cyberliterature is represented by that of the form of hypertext literature. Hypertext is the game among the different text paths. Because most hypertext is accompanied by sound and pictures, so this kind of text is like the video games. Arthurs put forward the later concept of cypertext, when he analysed the video games. While analyzing, he put the video games with the words into the category of cyberliterature texts in the broad sense. The game spirit of English cyberliterature is represented by the combination of cyberliterature expression and the form of video games.

Compared with the western cyberliterature, Chinese cyberliterature lacks the making of video games and innovating atmosphere of literary form. So there are few hypertext works in Chinese cyberliterature. However the internet in the contemporary Chinese society possesses the feature of free discourse space, which leads to the game spirit of Chinese cyberliterature in terms of content. Chinese network community, made up of adolescents, in whom the free discourse atmosphere challenges and makes fun of the classic, exists. The postmodern elements, cultural democratic issues and free spirit of youth are shown in some Chinese online works, in which the most representative one is the novel of reasonless humor.

C. *Difference of Chinese and Western Cyber Literature in Terms of Love Novels*

The love novel is the main type in Chinese and western cyberliterature. Because the chief creating force of cyberliterature is the youth, so the love writing is the material of the Chinese and western cyberliterature. However the specific types of the online love novels in China and the West are quite different.

The novel of pure love in TaiWan is noticeable and popular, which is influenced by the cyberliterature of South Korea and Japan. Currently the novel of pure love in the mainland begins to emerge, but only a few.

The novel of pure love in the West consists of cyberlove story, romance and erotic novels. The cyberlove story shows love on the internet. This kind of online love novel is the continuation of the western traditional love novels. The explicit classification originates from the mature classification system of novels of the western traditional publishing industry. Most of the western love novels are sold in the form of electronic and printed books.

Love novels are the main type of Chinese cyberliterature. Before 2000 love was ubiquitous on the Chinese internet, which made the Chinese internet entitled "the net of love". With the continuous development of cyberspace, the type of cyberliterature is diverse, but the love novel occupies a large portion. The subject is not only love, but also the thinking of individual fate and social reality through the writing of the pursuit of love and insight.

The representatives of love novels in China are Murong Xuecun's *Leave me Alone: a Novel of Chengdu*, Anne Babe's *Seven Years*, Ning Caishen's *Countless Intimate touches*, Li Xunhuan's *Lost in the Love between the Internet and the Reality* and Muzimei's *Diary of Muzimei*. The material of love becomes the main type of Chinese cyberliterature.

Muzimei put her personal diaries onto www.blogcn.com, one of the earliest blogging websites in China. In her diaries, she gave a detailed description of "one-night stand romance", or her sexual experience with different men. The hardcore description of sex was criticized by the netizens and the critics. The pure erotic novels can't exist in the traditional Chinese literature and can't gain the legal position on the internet. The other online love novels reveal the real living state of the young men, expressing the understanding of life and social reality. *Leave Me Alone: A Novel of Chengdu* is the representative one.

Leave Me Alone: A Novel of Chengdu is an unflinching, darkly funny take on love and life in modern China. It's the story of three young men, Chen Zhong, Li Liang and Big Head Wang, and their tragi-comic struggles to make their way in Chengdu, China's fifth most populous city. Despite their aspirations in the newly capitalist China, the trio's lives are beset by dead-end jobs, gambling debts, drinking, drugs, and whoring. The comment on a website is like this:

"This novel was the hottest one in the Chinese online forum in 2002. In a sense, it is more like a life portrait 'against love'. Love in the novel becomes the homeless tramp. Besides the lust day after day, only the broken memory of youth remains. The contemporary young men's thinking of love, affection and sex are expressed with the crushing pain. The eagerness for true love in the contemporary society shown in this novel makes people's heart broken."

The bitterness of love expressed in this work is the mutual feature of all the Chinese love novels. The loss of pure love, the indulgence of desires and the dejecting pain are the keynote of the contemporary Chinese love novels. The feature is firstly influenced by the tradition of the Chinese love novels, and is secondly closely related to the realistic environment of the Chinese contemporary society.

In addition, there is much expression of love in the Chinese online science fiction, fantasies and martial arts novels. Most of those types of online works express love under the cover of emprise. In an online prose entitled *The Expression of Love in the Way of Love*: "To express ideals in the way of love, in fact, is also a kind of ideals. Love is a kind of more specific expressing way of ideals." From those words the conspicuous feature of Chinese love novels is shown and that is pouring out the pain of love to express the thinking of society and life and the pursuit of desires.

D. *Difference of Chinese and Western Cyberliterature in Terms of Imaginative Novels*

In China and the West, the popular imaginative novels have a long history. The popularity of imaginative novels in contemporary Chinese and western society greatly influences the creation of online novels. Imaginative novels occupy a very large proportion in Chinese and western cyberliterature. The main types of western imaginative novels are science fiction and fantasies, while the types of Chinese online imaginative novels are science fiction and Xuanhuan novels. Science fiction once played a leading role in English cyberliterature, while the Xunhuan novels have become popular in Chinese cyberliterature since the last two years.

The difference of Chinese and western online imaginative novels lies in the creation of online science fiction, fantasies and Xuanhuan novels.

Firstly, Chinese and western science fiction develops differently. The online science fiction dominates the English cyberliterature. The popularity of English online science fiction originates from the imaginative cultural mood of the western society.

An American website entitled *Archined: Cyberfiction and Architecture*, describes like this:

“In the era of machine science fiction came into being. This kind of literature and the subsequent science fiction movies show us a futuristic society dominated by the machine. Cyberfictions, which provide us with a picture in which the world is ruled by the computing culture, poured out in the time of information, as a branch of science fiction.”

From the above paragraph, we can see that cyberfiction is nearly regarded as a type of science fiction. A cyberfeminist of New Zealand had the following expression in her article named *Cyberliterature: the traveling of novels in cyberspace*:

“Up to now, cyberfiction has become the exclusive territory of the online science fiction writers, especially the male writers.” It shows that science fiction once had a leading position in English cyberliterature.

Comparatively speaking, the creation of Chinese online science fiction is not as active as that of the West. In Chinese society, there is no good creating atmosphere for the literature of science fiction and people have much less interest in science fiction than in martial arts and love novels, which leads to the same situation on the internet. On the Chinese biggest literary website *Rong Shuxia*, science fiction isn't included. In the developmental history of Chinese cyberliterature, there has been no sensational masterpiece of science fiction.

Secondly, Chinese and western science fiction has different features. There are numerous types in western science fiction and any work is filled with a kind of adventurous spirit, showing the awe of the nature and religion. The whole system of *Star Wars* the Chinese audience is acquainted with is based on the Christian doctrine. In the book *The Explosive Formula of Thought* written by a French writer, the strong “scientific and religious atmosphere” exists. This makes the western science fiction possess the dual characteristics of the exploration of scientific technology and spirit. In American cyberwriter Robert P. Fitton's online science fiction work *The Awaited One*, an imaginary salvation across the galaxy is described. The protagonist is a savior and with the help of the prophet he leads the arm aided by the high technology to win the victory to save his nation. The combination of similar scientific fantasies and religious elements exists in most of English science fiction.

In comparison, Chinese online science fiction lacks the most important element that is science fiction writer's awe of nature and religion. The deeply awe is not only an element of plots, but also the soul of the creation of science fiction. The mainland science fiction writer Liu Cixin once pointed out that Chinese science fiction lacked the religious belief, which was not the religion in reality, but the awe of the scientific religion. In this kind of creating atmosphere, nature is mostly regarded as the setting and scientific technology is used as something magical in Chinese science fiction, while the realistic social struggle and emotional entanglements are described, such as Zheng Jun's *Miracle Trilogy*, in which the current Chinese social economic problems are discussed. *Tempestuous Waves* in the background that Chinese companies explore the deep ocean resources is about the fierce conflicts among the rich businessmen, scientists and extreme environmentalists, mainly describing the thinking of the economic developmental issues of the current Chinese ocean. Chinese science fiction focuses on solving problems, but the discussion of those problems is too realist and lacks imagination.

Thirdly, the important difference of Chinese and western imaginative novels lies in the disparity between Chinese Xuanhuan novels and western online fantasies. The ethnic cultural origin of Chinese online Xuanhuan novels dates back to the traditional novels of gods and demons which are represented by *Journey to the West*, *feng-shen-yan-yi* and so on.

Chinese novels of gods and demons greatly influenced the creation of online Xuanhuan fictions. In spite of mixing with the western elements of science fiction and fantasies, Chinese Xuanhuan novels still inherit the narrative pattern of traditional ones of gods and demons. *Zhu Xian* is the representative work, in which gods and demons fight against each other and eventually the supernatural justice wins. It is narrated in the traditional way. In the famous online work *Beijing War*, there is a war between Chinese and American army and of course finally the American invasion fails. The author expresses his personal opinions in regard to some current issues of Chinese society, such as Beijing sandstorm, Sino-Japanese relations, Chinese football and so on

Compared with Chinese science fiction, Chinese online Xuanhuan novels seem too vague and general. Currently Chinese Xuanhuan novels are in the free state without any principles and the handling of content and details is not good enough. Around 2003, Xuanhuan novels reached its peak and got millions of click-through rates. The achievement was amazing, while these works have simple pattern and empty content and the subjects are mostly justice, conspiracy and

love. The positive characters are almost handsome men, beautiful women and men with wealth and power. The imagination is too simple and superficial, compared with that in the western fantasies, in which the ancient cultural element and the belief of paganism are explored in detail. The first English novel published on the internet is *The Magic Life*, which is a fantasy. It describes a young accountant called James and he pursues the truth of life with the help of the magician Maximillion. It starts with a nightmare and shows the long process to pursue the existing philosophy in the magical environment, interweaving with magic, love, oriental religion and some other diverse elements. It reflects the truest psychological state of the westerners. From the structure and content, English online fantasy is more deeply. It shows the foreign culture and explores the philosophy of life and is real despite the fancy appearance. Chinese online Xuanhuan novels are filled with limitless imagination, so they look dreamy and illusionary.

Chinese and western imaginative novels are respectively represented by Xuanhuan novels and science fiction. They manifest the different style. Comprehensively speaking, Chinese online imaginative novels are in a new developmental period and there's much room for its improvement. As the most popular literary genre of the internet, both Chinese and western imaginative novels have a long way to go.

III. CONCLUSION

Chinese and western cyberliterature comes into being in the same technical environment with the different developmental states and features, influenced by the different cultural traditions and realistic contexts. The creation of Chinese and western online hypertext, the game spirit of online texts, the difference of love and imaginative novels are analyzed at great length. Chinese and western cyberliterature develops fast with a large number of subjects. Cyberliterature has the edge over the traditional one in the aspect of technology, free literary spirit and literary form. In the futuristic development, the edge will become more and more noticeable with the global expansion of the internet. The original online free spirit and convenient online publishing bring new vitality to the literature of the world and the developmental road of cyberliterature will be wider and wider.

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Analysis of Iranian EFL Teachers' Leadership in English Language Institutes

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Abstract—Researchers have demonstrated that effective teacher leadership has a positive influence on English language students' achievement and it is seen as an essential means for institution improvement and renewal. To this end, the present article aimed at exploring and quantitatively analyzing the extent to which EFL teachers perceive teacher leadership. Therefore, through the adoption of a Questionnaire of Teacher Leadership School Survey (presented in appendix B) developed by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), a questionnaire survey was carried out to collect data from 60 EFL teachers across four English language institutes in Alborz province in Iran. Then, as a result of the data analysis, it was indicated that most of the EFL participant teachers practiced and implemented at last an average level of teacher leadership in their classes.

Index Terms—EFL teacher leadership, institution improvement, English language students' achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

The involvement of teachers in the leadership of the school has been given many names. Participatory, shared, collaborative, and distributed have all been used to describe a style of school governance that includes teachers in the decision making process. As the need to improve the effectiveness of schools increases, it becomes certain that one person cannot meet all of the leadership demands. The call for higher levels of student achievement alone requires that leadership be extended to persons other than the administrators (Hook, 2006).

Many studies have documented the influence that effective school leadership has on both the achievement of students and the effectiveness of schools (Muijs and Harris, 2006; Salazar, 2010; DeHart, 2011). Teacher leadership suggests that EFL teachers rightly and importantly hold a central position in the ways English language institutes operate and in the core functions of English language teaching and learning. Building the capacity for English language institute improvement needs careful attention to how collaborative processes in the institutes are fostered and developed. Particularly, concerning with maximizing EFL teacher professional learning, It suggests a view of the institute as a professional community where EFL teachers have the opportunity to learn from each other and to work together (Muijs and Harris, 2006).

Within the literature the concept of 'EFL teacher leadership' is defined in various ways. Muijs and Harris (2006) interpreted it as comprising of the formal leadership roles that EFL teachers undertake that have both management and pedagogical responsibilities. Salazar (2010) conceptualized teacher leadership as a set of behaviors and practices that are undertaken collectively. It is centrally concerned with the relationships and connections among the individuals within an institute.

In this regard, Cindy Harrison and Joellen Killion (2007) postulated ten roles for teacher leaders which are used in multiple, sometimes overlapping ways. They believe that teacher leaders assume a wide range of roles to support school and student success. The roles are attached in Appendix A.

Over the past 30 years, teacher leadership has gone through a process of three wave evolution (DeHart, 2011). During the first wave in the early 1980s, teacher leadership focused on formal roles such as department head or grade level chair. They function as managers who work to further the efficiency of institute operations.

During the second wave of reform beginning in the mid-1980s, teacher leadership emphasized more on the instructional expertise of teachers. Principals or district leaders appointed teachers as curriculum leaders, staff developers, and mentors for new teachers.

The third wave of teacher leadership began in the late 1980s. Teachers in these leadership roles share best practices with their colleagues, engage in administrative and organizational responsibilities along with the principal, participate in institute wide decision-making.

Formal and informal leadership can be distinguished. Informal leadership relates to classroom related functions such as planning, communicating goals, regulating activities, creating a pleasant workplace environment, supervising, motivating those supervised and evaluating the performance of those supervised (Berliner, 1983). Wasley (1991) mentions that informal leadership practice can also include sharing expertise, volunteering for new projects, and bringing new ideas to the school. In contrast, formal leadership is used by those in positions such as lead teacher, master teacher, department head, union representative, or member of the school's governance council. In a perfect school, all teachers assume varying levels of leadership. In the world of education, effective school administrators do not rely on volunteerism and invite teachers to accept both formal and informal roles (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

In light of these studies, it is expected to observe a close relationship between EFL teacher leadership in educational settings and EFL student and English language institute improvement. Thus, there is a real need for study and analysis of the current status of EFL teacher leadership and its impact on the English language student's achievements in English language institute classrooms.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research on teacher leadership has identified positive influences on teacher leaders, their colleagues, the school organization, and the students (DeHart, 2011). Ryan (1999) found that teacher leaders could have a positive effect on students because they influenced the instructional practices of colleagues and were involved in school-level decision making.

Barth (2001) suggests that the students, school, teachers, and the principal all benefit when teacher leadership is in place. Students benefit when teachers are fully informed and work to make reforms and improvements take hold. The school benefits as effectiveness increases as teachers feel like they are a part of the decision making process on campus.

Hook (2006) in a qualitative study used naturalistic inquiry methodology to study the impact that teacher leadership has on school effectiveness. Two suburban high schools were chosen for this study. Interviews, observations, and surveys were used to obtain data. Through these, seven categories emerged that were used to create a written description of teacher leadership on the campuses. Teacher leadership in the past, teacher leadership roles, teacher leadership enablers, teacher leadership restraints, products of teacher leadership, teacher leadership in the present, and the role of the principal emerged when the data were analyzed. The findings indicated that when teacher leadership played a role on these campuses there was an expectation by school administrators that teachers would be leaders. Principals on both campuses had a vision of student success. Communication between school administrators and teacher leaders was strong. Overall, the role of the principal had a powerful impact on teacher leadership and consequently school effectiveness. Teacher leadership being fostered and supported was in large part due to the efforts of the principal.

Using data gathered in Flemish school effectiveness research in technical secondary education, Maeyer, Rymenans, Petegem, Bergh, and Rijlaarsdam (2007) examined whether and how integrated leadership influences two measures of pupil achievement: functional mathematics achievement and reading proficiency. This relationship was tested by means of four conceptual models: (1) the direct effect model, (2) the indirect effect model, (3) the direct and indirect effect model, and (4) the antecedents model. Their research findings show that the antecedent model fits best with the data.

Aliakbari and Sadeghi (2011) examined teacher leadership practice in a sample of Iranian schools. The major intent was to examine the teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership practice in schools and the ways through which such perceptions might be influenced by variables including gender, age, teachers' educational degree, teaching experience, and the level they teach at. Descriptive statistics, t-test, and one way ANOVA were employed to analyze the collected data. The findings revealed that teacher leadership is *often* practiced in the sample schools. Further, data analysis indicated significant difference in teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership practice with reference to their educational degree and the level they teach at. However, no significant differences were found between teachers' perceptions in terms of their age, gender, and teaching experience.

Keow Ngang (2012) identified effective teacher leadership style in managing classroom which included managing classroom environment, He conducted a cultural comparative study between China and Malaysia, and it employed the quantitative method to collect data from the participating schools. The study assessed the perception and the implementation of teacher leadership practice of special education teachers in creating energy in the classroom; building capacity; securing environment; extending the vision; meeting and minimizing crisis; and seeking and charting improvement dimensions. Data were analyzed and the results reveal that the special education teachers practice all the six dimensions of teacher leadership at high level in both countries.

The role of the principal must be taken into account. Harris and Drake (1997) suggested that in order to create a school culture that will sustain teacher leadership, administrators must clearly define goals and allow time for the staff to make sense of problems. Allowing time for the culture or climate of a school to change is an important step to increase teacher leadership. These researchers also suggest that a culture must be created in which control is not found in the principal, but rather the principal supports teachers and creates opportunities for them to develop and grow. Barth (2004) suggests that the principal can create or stop almost everything that takes place on a school campus. This would include teacher leadership on any given campus. Conley (1991) states the first dimension of participation in teacher leadership is principals delegating specific decisions to teachers.

While teacher leadership has many positive effects, many barriers exist to the establishment of its roles. Wynne (2001) suggests that too little time, rigid school schedules, unrelated instructional tasks, lack of support from peers and administrators, and an overemphasis on standardized test scores. Time is mentioned often as a barrier to teacher leadership. Wynne (2001), Ryan (1999), Le Blanc and Sheldon (1997), and Blegen and Kennedy (2000) all suggest that the lack of time inhibits teacher leadership.

Muijs and Harris (2006) aimed at exploring both the ways in which teacher leadership can influence school and teacher development, and what in-school factors can help or hinder the development of teacher leadership in schools. The study was undertaken using a qualitative case study approach, purposively selected as being sites where teacher leadership was operational.

Data indicated that teacher leadership was characterized by a variety of formal and informal groupings, often facilitated by involvement in external programs. Teacher leadership was seen to empower teachers, and contributed to school improvement through this empowerment and the spreading of good practice and initiatives generated by teachers.

While teacher leadership has many positive effects, many barriers exist to the establishment of its roles. Muijs and Harris (2006) found three main categories of barriers. The first one is the external educational context. External accountability mechanisms, especially in low performing schools, put a strong burden on teachers and on senior management that makes the distribution of leadership more difficult and more risky. The second barrier relates the lack of time for teachers to engage in activities outside of classroom teaching and administration appears to be a key inhibitor to teacher leadership, as it is to other educational initiatives. Finally, the role of senior managers in some cases can be seen as a barrier particularly where not all senior managers are willing to relinquish control, where leadership from the head is seen as weak, or where senior managers are poor communicators.

In another attempt to find the barriers, Reeves (2008) considered blame, bureaucracy, and baloney. Blame is efficacy's evil twin. When we blame our present or prospective failure on conditions we cannot influence, then we forfeit efficacy and replace it with the status of a victim. Schools are hierarchical organizations, with organizational charts and clear lines of authority—or so we have been told. But in the context of considering change barriers, we can explore an alternative to hierarchy: the network. Baloney is the unappetizing combination of ingredients including superstition, prejudice, and deeply held convictions, all unburdened by evidence."

DeHart (2011) mentions three types of barriers: relational barriers which involve the dynamics of the relationships between teacher leaders and both their colleagues and their principals. Personal barriers arise from within the teachers themselves and contribute to the difficulty of successful teacher leadership programs. Other barriers, such as time and space, are structural and require either accommodation or adaptation for teacher leadership to prosper.

In light of the apparently fundamental role of teacher leadership in educational setting further inquiry into the role of teacher leadership in Iran, especially EFL teacher leadership in English language institutes, seems to be called for. Hence this study aimed at quantitatively exploring the EFL teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership practice.

III. METHOD

Situation analysis: The role of EFL teacher leadership on students' English language improvement in English language institutes

Although many scholars have conducted studies on teacher leadership, little research has been carried out so far to address the issue in an Iranian context. However, the changing needs of educational systems from top-down and centralized system can only be met in part by improvement in leadership capacity and practice (Aliakbari and Sadeghi, 2011). In line with these changes, EFL Iranian educational system needs to provide English language students with the skills and knowledge they need to be successful in the world that awaits them. Hence, this study intends to quantitatively examine teacher leadership practice from the perspective of the EFL teachers in Iranian English language institutes.

Research Question

To what extent EFL Iranian teachers perceive teacher leadership in English language institutes?

Participants

The participants in the study included 60 EFL teachers of four English language institutes of Alborz province. The participants were selected on the basis of convenience sampling method. According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), a convenience sampling involves including the sample whoever happens to be available at the time. 48 participants were females and 12 were males. Of the 60 EFL teachers who answered the questions, 51 held a Bachelor degree and the remaining nine held a Master degree on English language teaching.

Instrument

"Teacher leadership school survey" (TLSS) developed by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) to measure teachers' perceptions of the levels of teacher leadership was used. Five choices were given for each statement to determine the occurrence of the dimensions in teachers' perspective. The choices included (a) never, (b) rarely, (c) sometimes, (d) often, and (e) always. These seven aspects included (a) developmental focus, (b) recognition, (c) autonomy, (d) collegiality, (e) participation, (f) open communication, and (g) a positive environment. Content Validity of the questionnaire was measured in some previous studies. The result obtained for the reliability of the questionnaire by Cronbach's Alpha was .85.

Data collection and analysis procedure

To manage the investigation, the Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS), developed by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), was applied to total of 60 EFL teachers at four English language institutes. The researchers explained the general purpose of the study and asked EFL teachers to complete the questionnaires. English language institutes were studied across seven dimensions of teacher leadership, including developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment.

Sixty EFL teachers participated in the study were asked to respond to 49 statements in the questionnaire. Five choices were given for each statement included (a) never, (b) rarely, (c) sometimes, (d) often, and (e) always.

A descriptive analysis was conducted by analyzing the means and frequencies of every survey dimension of teacher leadership. Survey dimensions were ranked from highest to lowest. A high mean score indicated high existence of dimension where as a low mean indicated that the dimension of teacher leadership was not observed at their English language institutes and could be considered as a barrier. To determine which institute scored highest on TLSS Leadership, institutes were ranked. Then, one-sample t-test was conducted to examine whether teacher leadership is practiced at each institute.

IV. RESULTS

TLSS Leadership dimensions for the full sample of 60 EFL teachers from four English language institutes who completed the survey are presented in Table 1. Leadership domain mean scores ranged from 2.63 for Participation (SD = .86) to 3.60 for (SD = .70) Developmental Focus. The total TLSS Leadership across dimensions averaged 3.22 (SD = .66) on a five-point scale. Developmental Focus is followed by Recognition dimension (mean=3.45, SD=.73), the Collegiality dimension (mean= 3.40,SD= .72), Autonomous dimension (mean= 3.25, SD= .72), the Positive Work Environment dimension (mean= 3.17, SD=.81), and the Communication dimension(mean= 3.02, SD= .76). The lowest mean score was on the participation dimension.

TABLE 1.
MEAN SCORES OF DIMENSIONS OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Dimensions	Mean	N	SD
Participation	2.63	60	0.86
Communication	3.02	60	0.76
Positive Work Environment	3.17	60	0.81
Autonomous	3.25	60	0.72
Collegiality	3.40	60	0.72
Recognition	3.45	60	0.73
Developmental Focus	3.60	60	0.70
Total	3.22	60	0.66

To answer the research question, as the study investigates teacher leadership practice in four English language institutes (Safir, Gouyesh, Navid, and Kosar English language institutes) we subdivided it into four sections. In fact, the extent of teacher leadership practice was examined separately for each institute. Leadership ranged from 3.49 (SD = .61) for Safir to 2.95 (SD = .65) for Gouyesh (Table 2). Then, one-sample t-test was conducted to examine whether teacher leadership is practiced at each institute. The obtained results are presented in Table 3. As the table displays, the level of significance in three institutes, Navid, Safir, and Kosar, is lower than the value $p < 0.05$. It indicates that teacher leadership is practiced at these institutes. Thus, in three institutes, according to the obtained significance level and mean value exceeding the moderate level 3, the highest and lowest mean scores that can be acquired for leadership practice are 5 and 1 respectively, it can be said that the teacher leadership is *sometimes* practiced at these institutes. In Gouyesh language institutes, on the other hand, with the mean score of 2.95 and the level of significance of 0.07 which is higher than $p < 0.05$, teacher leadership is not practiced.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SEVEN DIMENSIONS SCORES OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP AT ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTES

English language institutes	Mean	N	SD
Kosar	3.30	14	0.50
Gouyesh	2.95	12	0.65
Safir	3.49	16	0.61
Navid	3.04	18	0.72

TABLE 3.
ONE-SAMPLE T-TEST OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP PRACTICE AT ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTES

English language institutes	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Kosar	3.30	13	0.02
Gouyesh	2.95	11	0.07
Safir	3.49	15	0.006
Navid	3.04	17	0.04

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study sought to investigate a sample of EFL Iranian teachers' perceptions of the practice of teacher leadership. To examine the question, quantitative methods were used. The researcher employed the Teacher Leadership School Survey to identify the case study English language institutes. Observing the results for the four institutes in the study, it can be concluded that there are differing degrees of teacher leadership for EFL teachers at each institute. According to the analysis of survey data, Safir English language institute scored highest in overall leadership. In three out of four English language institutes teacher leadership is sometimes practiced and in Gouyesh English language institute teacher leadership is not practiced at all.

Some useful hints may be effective in increasing teacher leadership level at English language institutes. Creating an open and healthy institute climate is critical to the employment of teacher leadership. It is what allows EFL teachers to live effective, professional lives, and creates the potential for English language institutes to enable superior EFL student outcomes (Triska, 2007). There must be support for risk taking too. Everyone must be encouraged to try new things. Meanwhile, seminars should be organized about teacher leadership at regular times. Learning communities that promote autonomy and a willingness to implement best practices for EFL student and teacher learning is necessary for the improvement of struggling institutes (Salazar, 2010). The facilities and opportunities should also be given to EFL teachers to interact with each other for their professional development. The study reveals that there is still some work to be done to improve teacher leadership for improved English language learner-achievement.

Ideally, further research would expand the number of EFL teachers and English language institutes studied to generate findings that might be more generalizable. Additional research is also needed on the relation between gender, age, teachers' educational degree, and EFL teaching experience and teacher leadership.

APPENDIX A. TEN ROLES POSTULATED BY CINDY HARRISON AND JOELLEN KILLION (2007)

1. Resource Provider

Teachers help their colleagues by sharing instructional resources. These might include Web sites, instructional materials, readings, or other resources to use with students. They might also share such professional resources as articles, books, lesson or unit plans, and assessment tools.

2. Instructional Specialist

An instructional specialist helps colleagues implement effective teaching strategies. This help might include ideas for differentiating instruction or planning lessons in partnership with fellow teachers.

3. Curriculum Specialist

Understanding content standards, how various components of the curriculum link together, and how to use the curriculum in planning instruction and assessment is essential to ensuring consistent curriculum implementation throughout a school. Curriculum specialists lead teachers to agree on standards, follow the adopted curriculum, use common pacing charts, and develop shared assessments.

4. Classroom Supporter

Classroom supporters work inside classrooms to help teachers implement new ideas, often by demonstrating a lesson, coteaching, or observing and giving feedback. Blase and Blase (2006) found that consultation with peers enhanced teachers' self-efficacy.

5. Learning Facilitator

Facilitating professional learning opportunities among staff members is another role for teacher leaders. When teachers learn with and from one another, they can focus on what most directly improves student learning. Their professional learning becomes more relevant, focused on teachers' classroom work, and aligned to fill gaps in student learning.

6. Mentor

Mentors serve as role models; acclimate new teachers to a new school; and advise new teachers about instruction, curriculum, procedure, practices, and politics.

7. School Leader

Being a school leader means serving on a committee, such as a school improvement team; acting as a grade-level or department chair; supporting school initiatives; or representing the school on community or district task forces or committees.

8. Data Coach

Teacher leaders can lead conversations that engage their peers in analyzing and using this information to strengthen instruction.

9. Catalyst for Change

Teachers who take on the catalyst role feel secure in their own work and have a strong commitment to continual improvement. They pose questions to generate analysis of student learning.

10. Learner

Among the most important roles teacher leaders assume is that of learner. Learners model continual improvement, demonstrate lifelong learning, and use what they learn to help all students achieve.

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP SCHOOL SURVEY DEVELOPED BY KATZENMEYER AND MOLLER
(2009)

- 1 At my school, administrators and teachers try hard to help new teachers be successful
- 2 At my school, teachers are provided with assistance, guidance or coaching if needed.
- 3 Administrators at my school actively support the professional development of faculty and staff.
- 4 We gain new knowledge and skill through staff development and professional reading.
- 5 We share new ideas and strategies we have gained with each other.
- 6 Teachers at my school are supportive of each other personally and professionally.
- 7 Teachers at my school are engaged in gaining new knowledge and skills.
- 8 The administrators at my school have confidence in me.
- 9 My professional skills and competence are recognized by the administrators at my school.
- 10 Other teachers recognize my professional skills and competence.
- 11 It is apparent that many of the teachers at my school can take leadership roles.
- 12 The ideas and opinions of teachers are valued and respected at my school.
- 13 At my schools we celebrate each others' successes.
- 14 Many of the faculty and staff at my school are recognized for their work.
- 15 In my role as a teacher, I am free to make judgments about what is best for my students.
- 16 At my school I have the freedom to make choices about the use of time and resources.
- 17 I know that we will bend the rules if it is necessary to help children learn.
- 18 Teachers are encouraged to take the initiative to make improvement for students.
- 19 I have input to developing a vision for my school and its future.
- 20 At my school teachers can be innovative if they choose to be.
- 21 Administrators and other teachers support me in making changes in my instructional strategies.
- 22 Teachers at my school discuss strategies and share materials.
- 23 Teachers at my school influence one another's teaching.
- 24 Teachers in my school observe one another's work with students.
- 25 I talk with other teachers in my school about my teaching and curriculum.
- 26 Teachers and administrators work together to solve students' academic and behavior problems.
- 27 Other teachers at my school have helped me find creative ways to deal with challenges I have face in my classes.
- 28 Conversations among professionals at my school are focused on students.
- 29 Teachers have input to decisions about school change.
- 30 Teachers have a say in what and how things are done.
- 31 Teachers and administrators share decisions about how much time is used and how the school is organized.
- 32 Teachers and administrators at my school understand and use the consensus process.
- 33 Teachers participate in screening and selecting new faculty and/or staff at my school.
- 34 My opinions and ideas are sought by administrators at my school.
- 35 We try to reach consensus before making important decisions.
- 36 Because teachers and administrators share ideas about our work, I stay aware of what is happening.
- 37 At my school everybody talks freely and openly about feelings and opinions they have.
- 38 Faculty and staff at my school share their feelings and concerns in productive ways.
- 39 Teachers at my school discuss and help one another solve problems.
- 40 Faculty and staff talk about ways to better serve our students and their families.
- 41 When things go wrong at our school, we try not to blame, but talk about ways to do better the next time.
- 42 Faculty meeting time is used for discussions and problem solving.
- 43 Teachers are treated as professionals at my school.
- 44 Teachers at my school look forward to coming to work every day.
- 45 There is a general satisfaction with the work environment among teachers at my school.
- 46 Teachers and administrators at my school work in partnership.
- 47 Teachers at my school are respected by parents, students, and administrators.
- 48 The principal, faculty, and staff at my school work a team.
- 49 We feel positive about the ways we are responding to our students' needs.

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The Tradition Defender—Three Women Characters in “There Was a Queen”

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Abstract—William Faulkner’s short story “There Was a Queen” has aroused increasing attention in recent years. Three women characters, Virginia, Narcissa and Elnora, live in this unmanned house and strive to protect the reputation of Sartoris family. As the tradition defender, they stick to the old tradition and sense of morality, repress their natural humanity and live a lonely and empty life until death. Faulkner strongly condemns the inhumane morality which demolishes the natural humanity and at the same time reveals the root of these women’s tragedy with deep sympathy.

Index Terms—the tradition defender, “There Was a Queen”, Virginia, Narcissa, Elnora, Sartoris family

I. INTRODUCTION

William Faulkner, winner of the 1949 Nobel Prize for literature, has made great and prominent contributions in American literature. The glory of his novels is so dazzling that his short stories are hidden behind. However, in recent years, his short stories have aroused more and more attention, as there are too many studies on his novels, and at the same time his short stories are considered artistic and valuable, especially his unique narrative skill. “There Was a Queen” is one of them. There are several scholars focusing on the narration of Elnora, considering her as an unreliable narrator. There are some critical interpretations based on feminism, and there is also a special comparison between the two women, Narcissa and Emily, the latter being a famous Southern lady in Faulkner’s another famous short story “A Rose for Emily”. However, these comments mainly focus on Virginia or Narcissa, ignoring an important little figure Elnora, who plays an important role in forming Faulkner’s viewpoint on women. Therefore, this paper is to interpret objectively and comprehensively these three women characters, Virginia, Narcissa and Elnora, and accordingly presents William Faulkner’s attitude towards women.

“There Was a Queen” was created in 1933 and originated from his novel Sartoris. The Sartoris family is a big and old one, but when the story happens, all the Sartoris men have died except the ten-year-old Benbow, Colonel John’s great-grandson. In the old house live Colonel John’s sister Virginia Du Pre, Benbow, his mother Narcissa, Elnora and her son and daughter. Virginia, also called Miss Jenny, came to her brother’s house for a shelter in 1869, after the Yankees killed her father and her husband and burned her house. She has been a widow for more than 60 years. Elnora, a proud Negro, is the daughter of Colonel John and a black woman and the half-sister of old Bayard, so Miss Jenny is actually her aunt, which can be a good explanation of her loyalty to Sartoris family and her contempt of Narcissa, although her secret identity is probably not known by anyone. Narcissa is longing for the recognition of Sartoris family, but she can not give up the physical desire as a common woman. In order to regain those love letters which are lost twelve years ago and keep the dignity of being a Sartoris woman, she has to go to Memphis to sleep with the Federal agent so that she can buy those letters back with her own body. After she returns, she does not immediately explain the sudden journey, and in the early afternoon she takes her son to go down across the pasture towards the creek. After Narcissa is back and changes her wet clothes, she comes to explain her sudden journey to Miss Jenny. At first Miss Jenny has thought that she might marry someone, even that Yankee, but her explanation makes her startled. After Narcissa confesses all of these things to Miss Jenny, this old woman passes away quietly.

These three women, to some extent, are worthy and pathetic. They live in this unmanned house in order to defend the old and decayed tradition, which symbolizes the Southern society and order, and at the same time they repress their natural humanity and come to the end of life in loneliness and emptiness.

II. VIRGINIA

Virginia Du Pre is now ninety years old and lives in a wheel chair. She came to her brother’s house for a shelter in 1869, after the Yankees killed her father and her husband and burned her house. She comes all the way from Carolina to Mississippi by herself. The war and tribulation do not defeat her but make her strong-minded, brave and determined and get out of crying. She can cry only before her own brother. She has lost most of the feminine style and hardened to be a Sartoris man. When she gets to know those anonymous and obscene letters to Narcissa, she would rather let the whole world know that somebody thought that way about her once and got horsewhipped than to have him keep on thinking that way about her unpunished. She chooses to resort to violence to solve problems like strong men. She has witnessed the death of her brother, her nephew, then her great-nephew and then her two great-grand-nephews. She has inherited the

Sartoris spirit and is a true noble Sartoris woman like those dead brave Sartoris men. But at last her inherent nature is revealed, and she is only a paper tiger with strong and fierce surface. She can never be changed into a real man, although she has been pretending to be the patriarch of the big family without men.

The beginning of the story is endowed with heavy and sad atmosphere, being written like this, "...he (John Sartoris) had died in it and his son Bayard had died in it, and Bayard's son John and John's son Bayard in turn had been buried from it even though the last Bayard didn't die there" (Faulkner, 1977, p.727). The writer does not say simply that all the Sartoris men have died, but applies very simple sentence structures repeatedly in order to reveal the same fact, and at the same time lets the old tradition known. These two names, John and Bayard, are passed down generation by generation, which are internalized as the honor and glory of their whole family. Therefore, Virginia persists in calling her great-great-grandson Johnny after his uncle rather than Benbow, who is the only inheritor of Sartoris family. She is internalized as the tradition defender, to be more precise, the tradition itself. She carries on the responsibility of keeping the order of Sartoris family and thinks of herself as the supervisor of order and morality.

Virginia is the queen of Sartoris family. She spends most of her life, especially the golden young life in making herself hardened and becoming the authority of Sartoris family, at the same time giving up all the happiness and desire. She has indulged in the old tradition and tried her best to keep the Southern society where it is, while time and society can not remain because of her personal consciousness, because the Southern society at that time is going to its end. In this short story, the colored glass and jasmine are mentioned several times, which Virginia brought to Mississippi from Carolina. This is a good proof of her valuing the old time.

In this unmanned house with no real patriarch, Virginia is actually the "father" of the family, and controls everything in her wheel chair, although she seems to lose contact with the outside world. She is, without any doubts, a gentle and noble lady. "She sat erect; a thin, upright woman with a delicate nose and hair the color of a whitewashed wall. About her shoulders lay shawl of white wool, no whiter than her hair against her black dress. She was looking out the window; in profile her face was high-arched, motionless" (Faulkner, 1977, p.730). Her appearance and clothes give a picture of a strong-minded and elegant lady, but at the same time with no energy to move forward. The comparison of white and black highlights the elegance and quietness. This is just the picture of Southern society, which has no power and room to fight against the progress of the time. On the other hand, she is the authority of the whole family. When Narcissa deals with the obscene letters, she tells Virginia and wants to know how a noble lady deals with that case. When Narcissa retrieves those letters by selling out her body, she confesses everything to her. In Narcissa's eyes, she is the supervisor and defender of Sartoris family and functions as patriarch of the family.

The black bonnet of an ancient shape is actually her crown as a queen, the third thing through which she can have something with the Old South, beside the colored glass and jasmine. When she became upset, she would place it on the exact top of her head and sit there by the window. And with this black bonnet she comes to the end of her life. After she knows the whole story about those obscene letters, she seems to be awakening and realize the hopelessness and helplessness women have to encounter under the control of patriarchy, especially when they have to solve problems by themselves. "Us poor, fool women" (Faulkner, 1977, p.741) in her "sharp, peremptory" (Faulkner, 1977, p.741) voice shows her last impotence. She has not any power to change the cruel reality, and not any energy to carry on the responsibility of being the patriarch any more. She is too tired and is passing away with no sound.

William Faulkner shows his admiration for Virginia, a worthy and noble Southern lady, a backbone of Sartoris family. She is persistent, strong-minded, self-disciplined and loyal to the social tradition and her own family. However, at the same time Faulkner shows his sympathy towards this great woman. In order to be the supervisor and defender of the family, she has been a widow for more than half a century. She has given up all inherent desire and carried on all the responsibility of being the "father" of the family, while finally she has realized women's helplessness.

III. NARCISSA

Narcissa is an orphan. She has only one brother who is also off to the war in France like her fiancé. She is only an ordinary perhaps pretty girl who has no social position, so in Elnora's eyes she has no quality to be a Sartoris member. It is this great disparity of position that makes her feel uncomfortable and lonely when she comes to the house. Maybe this is also the reason why she is engaged to Bayard all the time and does not tell Miss Jenny, but she does not give up the chance of being a Sartoris woman and she has been trying hard to do like a Sartoris woman.

To be a Sartoris woman means to be noble, resolute, reserved, and aloof and to repress sexuality. Miss Jenny is a good example. She is born a Sartoris woman and inherits these dignified qualities naturally, but Narcissa is a common young woman and she has the common physical desire, so it is difficult for her to learn to be a Sartoris woman. That is a dilemma for her: she is crazy for being accepted as a Sartoris woman but she cannot bear the torment which is caused by the repression of sexuality. In addition, Bayard is far away from her, which makes her more lonely and painful. These anonymous and obscene love letters just come at this time when her heart is in need of comfort. They lessen her inner loneliness and emptiness. These obscene words also seemingly satisfy her vanity as a woman, and confirm her existence and identity as a desirable and physical woman. That is an unmentionable secret. Shortly before Bayard comes back, she decides to show one of letters to Miss Jenny, because they will get married and she will become a Sartoris member legally. She is thirsty for the recognition of the position, so she needs to know how a Sartoris lady handles it. However, Miss Jenny says that "no lady would permit herself to receive anybody anonymous love letters, no

matter how badly she wanted to" (Faulkner, 1977, p.739) and she tells her to give it to Colonel Sartoris and let him find out who sent it and punish him, but Narcissa refuses. She does not agree with what Miss Jenny says—"I'd rather have the whole world know that somebody thought that way about her once and got horsewhipped than to have him keep on thinking that way about her unpunished" (Faulkner, 1977, p.736). She says she cannot let any man know that anybody thinks such things about her. She would rather burn it. That is the difference of a Sartoris woman and a common woman. She tries to use a different way to protect her reputation meanwhile she gives herself a gleam of chance to get back to be a common woman with sexual desire. She lies and keeps all of the letters in secret and sometimes takes them out to read again and again in order to fill her inner emptiness and satisfy her sexual desire psychologically. Brooks also thinks that "from some obscure motive—perhaps the letters provide her with a vague, erotic excitement—she preserves them" (Brooks, 1982, p.15). However, after these letters are stolen, she is afraid that her secret will be revealed and she will be considered an erotic and carnal woman. This is a great threat to her status which she is endowed with by the marriage and is to some extent unaccepted by family members. She lives such a terrified life, but fortunately nothing happens. She gets over this worry gradually and decides to repress her sexuality to be a true Sartoris woman, so she refuses to remarry when Miss Jenny tells her she can. She tries hard to protect the family reputation as her own and take care of Miss Jenny and Benbow, although Miss Jenny regards her as an outsider all the time in her deep heart and Elnora is hostile to her, and even often speaks ill of her before Miss Jenny. They live their women's life quietly in the big house without men.

When the Yankee suddenly appears with those obscene letters, Narcissa is determined to induce him with her body to get them back in order to protect not only her own reputation but also the Sartoris family's. She has been accustomed to her sexless life, and all that she does is for the Sartoris' reputation and her position which are obtained at the cost of repressing her sexuality, just like what Suwabe Koichi points in "The Sartoris Women: Mapping 'There Was a Queen' in Faulkner's Career" that she has repressed her sexuality to be a Sartoris woman so much so that she does not care about using it to protect the respectability of the Sartorises. She thinks it correct and necessary to surrender her body as a sacrifice for the family's reputation as a Sartoris woman. However, she is totally wrong. After Miss Jenny learns of the whole thing, "the heart of this genteel old warrior cannot bear the stress of this last and greatest indignity to the Sartoris name, and she dies quietly sitting in her chair [...]" (Bell, 1985, p.168). The Sartorises are never submissive. It is impossible for a Sartoris woman to obtain something which can destroy her reputation at the cost of her body. The unyielding Sartorises would rather resort to violence just like what Emily Grierson did to Homer Barron. Koichi also indicates in the same paper that not only is Narcissa's action to retrieve the obscene letters extremely outrageous to the old "Southern Lady," but also Narcissa, in her own style, behaves as a Sartoris woman, which devastates the matriarch. She has been trying to be a Sartoris woman and regarding herself as a Sartoris woman, but she never can be that one. That is her tragedy.

Narcissa has protected her reputation at the cost of her body. Actually this is a ridiculous contradiction. In order to save her reputation she gives up her innocence. She is tortured by this contradiction, so after she comes back from Memphis she and her son go through the hot afternoon, down cross the pasture toward the creek. She is longing for a baptism to wash away all of the sins and impurity. She does not do this by herself, but with her son, the future patriarch of the family, which indicates that she wants to get understanding and forgiveness from the authority. Therefore, after she has purified herself she tells everything to Virginia. She thinks that she has done everything she can to hold down the tradition and reputation. After she is baptized in Jordan, she wears white, "her white dress flowing slowly, heroic, like a caryatid from a temple facade come to life" (Faulkner, 1977, p.738). The color white is a symbol of purity and innocence.

Faulkner endowed Narcissa with obedience to the tradition and morality, and on the other hand implanted rebellion in her inner heart. She is the combination of obedience and rebellion, so she is tortured all the time. Her tragedy is unavoidable.

IV. ELNORA

Elnora is a very important figure in this short story. She appears at the beginning of the story and has carried on the major part of the narration, presenting us the story happening long ago. She has witnessed the glory and decline of the Sartoris family. Strictly speaking, Elnora is not only the housemaid of the family, but also a member of the family. She is the daughter of John Sartoris and the half-sister of old Bayard. Virginia is actually her aunt. Elnora's mother is probably a housemaid of Sartoris family, and she was occupied by John Sartoris and gave birth to Elnora. However, this special relationship does not make her as noble as a Sartoris woman, and she is a housemaid all the time, taking care of all chores of Sartoris family. Her hands never stop even when she is talking. This is a common phenomenon. Negro has no freedom and they belong to white people. In Old South, men can have affairs with Negro, because men are the owner and they can control everything, but women are forbidden. Women's virginity is valued more than their life. Therefore, to some degree, Elnora is a proud Negro, because she has a part of blood relationship with Sartoris family. This is also one reason why she is always looking down upon Narcissa and speaking badly of her.

Elnora is extremely loyal to Sartoris family and respects Virginia very much, who symbolizes the social tradition and order. "When she spoke of the two women she used "she" indiscriminately, putting the least inflection on the one which referred to Miss Jenny" (Faulkner, 1977, p.732). When she narrates the whole story of Miss Jenny coming all the way

to Mississippi by herself, she is full of admiration and worship. "Because it's a Sartoris job. Cunnel knowed that when he died and tole me to take care of her. Tole me. Not no outsiders from town" (Faulkner, 1977, p.728). The last words of John Sartoris endow Elnora with a glorious task—taking care of Virginia. John Sartoris gives the great task to her rather than outsider from town which indicates Narcissa. Therefore, in Elnora's heart she thinks of herself as a member of Sartoris family and she never recognizes Narcissa as a family member and look down upon her. She even does not want to speak out her name unless it is absolutely necessary. "It's little you done for anybody since you come out here. We never needed you. Don't you ever think it...And you needn't to come back" (Faulkner, 1977, p.729). Although she never speaks out, she just thinks it. "Trash. Town trash" (Faulkner, 1977, p.729) is her remarks of Narcissa. "I nigger and she white. But my black children got more blood than she got. More behavior" (Faulkner, 1977, p.732). Elnora refuses to accept Narcissa from her inner heart. Although she is white she has no quality at all.

Elnora is full of suspicion about Narcissa's going to Memphis and staying there for two nights, although she does not care if she comes back or not on the surface. She even asks her daughter Saddy where Miss Narcissa went, expecting Narcissa may tell Saddy the truth because Saddy has a better relationship with Narcissa than her. "Her not come back? When she worked for five years to get herself married to Bayard? Working on Miss Jenny all the time Bayard was off to that war? I watched her. Coming out here two or three times a week, with Miss Jenny thinking she was just coming out to visit like quality. But I knowed. I knowed what she was up to all the time .Because I knows trash. I knows the way trash goes about working in with quality." (Faulkner, 1977, p.734). Elnora, from the beginning, has the suspicion that Narcissa tries her best to please Miss Jenny in order to get married to Bayard, and she can get wealth, status and honor. She is sure that Narcissa will never give up what she has made every effort to gain, so when Saddy says Narcissa may get married, Elnora utters her opposition immediately. "Her marry? What for? Give up what she got here? That ain't what it is" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 734). To some degree, this also shows Elnora's loyalty to Sartoris family. She lives to defend everything for this great family from beginning to end, not allowing any harm to this family.

Elnora is the first person to find Miss Jenny is dead. It seems that she has a kind of presentiment. "She stopped, invisible, soundless, her eyes suddenly quite luminous in her almost-vanished face" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 744). Then she found Miss Jenny had died. Although Miss Jenny lives in her wheel, she is still the backbone of the family. Her death is a heavy strike to the family. "She stood in the doorway, tall, not touching the jamb on either side. Her face was blank; she did not appear to be looking at, speaking to, any one" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 744). She is startled to silence. At last her "soft, cold, peremptory" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 744) voice indicates that she has taken herself as the new supervisor and defender of the family. She is also the tradition defender, although she belongs to the lower social status in this society.

V. CONCLUSION

To sum up, Virginia, Narcissa and Elnora, all of these three women are sentimentally attached to the tradition of Old South, which becomes deeply ingrained in their inner heart, and at the same time they all accept it, and try their best to defend it, even at the cost of their precious youth, freedom and inherent natural desire. Virginia is a sheer defender and even considered as the tradition and authority, and at the end of her life she realizes women's helplessness. Narcissa strives for the recognition of Sartoris family and does not hesitate to retrieve her reputation by selling out her body. Elnora takes herself as the defender of the family and devotes herself to the family chores wholeheartedly and without complaint. However, Narcissa is the combination of obedience and rebellion. She keeps a small part of emotion and sexual desire in her inner heart. But when her reputation and the family's reputation are threatened, she chooses to save reputation resolutely. These three women are brave to take on responsibility, so they are worthy of respect, and at the same time their fate is destined to be a tragedy, so they are worthy of sympathy.

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The Impact of Extroversion and Introversion Personality Types on EFL Learners' Writing Ability

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Abstract—The way we learn is very much affected by our personality. Practitioners have claimed that perception of personality type can help teachers to understand the reason why students perform differently in class activities (Wilz, 2000). Regarding the significant role of different personality types in language learning in general and in mastering L2 writing in particular, the present study aims at investigating the possible impact of extrovert/introvert personality types of Iranian EFL learners on their writing performance in terms of its different subsets (i.e., content, organization, language, mechanics, and vocabulary). In so doing, 50 writing samples, elicited from 50 extroverted and introverted university students were collected and rated by the researchers using Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) analytic scoring scale. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was run. Analysis of the results revealed that introverts significantly outperformed extroverts in all subsets except organization. This may be due to some of the introverts' personal characteristics that the extroverts lack, such as being careful, having more concentration in their solitude, and ability to generate much more ideas alone.

Index Terms—analytic scale, extroversion, introversion, writing, writing subsets

I. INTRODUCTION

People have different characteristics which affect their life affairs; even the way they learn is influenced by these personal characteristics. One reason for having these different and stable characteristics is related to personality types of individuals. According to Freguson (2000), the main assumption behind personality type is that people differ from one another in their style of behavior which is at least relatively consistent across time and place. Many definitions are suggested for personality by psychologists. As Funder (2007) states, personality refers "to an individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behavior, together with the psychological mechanisms, hidden or not, behind those patterns" (p. 5). It is defined as "the organized, developing system within the individual that represents the collective action of that individual's major psychological subsystems" (Mayer, 2007, p. 14). Thus, from this definition it is inferred that peoples' personality types are exclusive to them and stable over time which would influence every aspect of their lives including learning in general and language learning in particular.

Writing is one of the four basic communication skills whose learning can lead to learning a second language. According to Bello (1997), writing increases language acquisition because learners deal with words, sentences, and other elements of writing to convey their ideas effectively and to reinforce the grammar and vocabulary they are learning in class. As Chastain (1988) states, writing is a kind of practice which helps writer to store the material in long-term memory, in other words, the vocabulary, grammar, and patterns are more easily learned through being carefully applied in a piece of writing. Undoubtedly writing is the most difficult skill for second language learners to master (Richards & Renandya, 2002). As a skill, production of a piece of writing which is coherent, fluent, and extended is probably the most difficult task to do with language, even for a native speaker (Nunan, 2003). Cumming (2006), emphasizing the role personality plays in writing, defined this skill as a "uniquely personal form of individual expression" (p. 473). The belief that each student, as an individual, has individual traits that uniquely influence his or her behavior and the difficulties most learners face in producing a coherent, fluent, and extended piece of writing persuades the present researchers to design this study focusing on EFL learners' personality type and its effect on their writing ability.

A. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Different psychologists identified different personality traits based on different theories. In order to better understand individual learners' personality traits, many researchers have employed the Jungian personality traits measured by the Myers-Briggs type indicator (MBTI) (Matthews, Deary & Whiteman, 2003).

As Myers and McCaulley (1985) mention, the MBTI is a means to implement Jung's psychological type theory. Its mechanism focused on measuring individuals on four dimensions comprising of opposite pairs: Extraversion/Introversion (E-I), Sensation/Intuition (S-N), Thinking/Feeling (T-F), and Judgment/Perception (J-P), resulting in 16 possible psychological types (Carducci, 1998). Each type is introduced by a four-letter code. For example, ESTJ would identify a person with extroversion, sensing, thinking, and judging attributes.

B. *Extroversion and Introversion*

Extraversion (E) and introversion (I) dichotomy deals with the way people prefer to attain energy and focus their attention. Extroverts prefer to get energy from outside sources or outer world, but introverts prefer solitary activities and the inner world of ideas as the source of their energy (Eysenck & Chan, 1982). According to Jensen and Ditiberio (1984), it is the first dimension of Jung's system identified a person's general orientation toward life. Extroverts mainly focus their energy outward and tend to interact with people and things. Outer experience (i.e., talking and acting) is so highly important for them that they often begin performing tasks with little planning, then rely on trial and error to complete the task. Since they spend more time dealing with outer experience rather than inner experience (i.e., reflecting and observing), they think most clearly and develop more ideas in action or in conversation. Moreover, they state that introverts mostly focus their energy inward; they tend to consider and contemplate. More cautious about the outer world; they anticipate and reflect before becoming involved in action to avoid errors. When they are alone and uninterrupted by people and incidents, they think best and develop more ideas.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of *type* emerged in the work of Swiss psychologist Carl Jung (1921) and two American women, Katharine Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Briggs Myers (Myers, 1962). Jung, a psychoanalyst, found that the seemingly unpredictable behavior could in fact be anticipated through understanding the underlying mental functions and attitudes people preferred (Tieger & Barron-Tieger, 1995). In 1921, Jung's theory of personality was published in a book called *Psychological Types*, theorizing that "individuals have mental or psychological preferences for performing certain tasks, just as they have physical preferences such as a dominant hand" (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2004, p. 38).

When Katharine read the English translation of the book published in 1923, she realized that Jung had already discovered what she had been looking for, so she adopted his model and began a serious study of his work. Also, she made her young daughter Isabel interested in her pursuit (Tieger & Barron-Tieger, 1995). They expanded Jung's psychological type theory and gave it practicality. This mother-daughter studied under Jung and desired to develop a method to test Jung's theory and put it into practice (Myers & Myers, 1980). They accomplished their goal by developing a psychometric measurement instrument called the Myers-Briggs type indicator.

Many studies have tried to investigate the impact of different personality types on different aspects of life including: vocation, education, sports, business, and psychology, etc. Regarding education, much works have been done on the relationship between personality types and language learning. In a study, in 1973, Smith, Irely, and McCaulley found that personality types can influence L2 learners' attitude and performance in self-paced instruction. Milton and Cranney (1979) conducted a study on the relationship between personality type and learning style in reading comprehension and found a significant relationship between personality types of introversion, intuition, and perceiving and learning style. Besides, Busch (1982) investigated the relationship between extroversion/introversion and English proficiency among the EFL students in Japan. He rejected the hypothesis that the extraverts are more proficient than the introverts. Pazhuhesh (1994), also, examined the relation between extroversion/introversion and reading comprehension among EFL Iranian students. It was indicated that the introvert students were more successful than their extrovert counterparts. Another study was conducted by Dewaele and Furnham (1999) on the relationship between personality type and speech production. They concluded that extrovert bilinguals speak more fluently than introvert bilinguals, especially in interpersonal stressful situations. In another study, Badran (2002) attempted to determine if there existed any relationship between extroversion/introversion and the pronunciation accuracy in English as a foreign language with respect to the gender variable. He found firstly a positive relationship between extroversion/introversion and English pronunciation accuracy, that is, the extroverts outperformed the introverts in English pronunciation. Secondly, males were better in pronunciation accuracy than females. Alibakhshi (2011), also, conducted a study on 280 male and female Iranian EFL teachers investigating the impacts of personality and gender on their teaching activities preferences and their teaching efficacy. Using MBTI, Teaching Efficacy, and Teaching Activities Preference questionnaires; he found no significant influence for personality and gender on teachers' teaching efficacy, but a significant influence was observed for both personality and gender of teachers on their teaching activities preference.

Some others have investigated the effect of personality types on EFL writing, for example, in an empirical study on the role of personality types in writing among writers and raters, Carrell (1995) found that the writers' personality types affected the ratings their essays received, and the raters' personality types affected their rating process. But, no significant relationship was observed between writers' and raters' personality types. Callahan (2000), also, conducted a

study with student teachers investigating the relationship between student reflective writing and teacher feedback. Using the MBTI, three students whose personality types completely differed from hers were selected as raters. They read other participants' reflective writings and tried to identify the writers' types. It was revealed that as writer students need to go beyond their own interests and familiarize themselves with other choices, the readers' comment on student writing can play a vital role in forming their own preferences and in developing their less preferred approaches. Besides, Marefat (2006) investigated the relationship between learner's personality type and his or her writing ability in the first place, then, between rater personality and his or her rating procedure; it was revealed that the only dimension showing significant impact across writing ability was the sensing/intuition preference and a relation was observed between rater personality and her rating procedure. In another study, Layeghi (2011) investigated the relationship between EFL learners' extroversion/introversion personality types and their performance in the argumentative writing with regard to the content, form, and their overall performance; she found that introverted writers significantly outperformed extroverts in all three sections. Also, Mansouri Nejad, Bijami, and Ahmadi (2012) studied the extent to which extrovert/introvert types of personality predict academic writing ability; it was revealed that there was no significant relation between personality and writing ability. Besides, the widespread assumption that extraverts outperform introverts in skills like writing was rejected.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Because of the popularity of extroversion and introversion both in theory and in research, and difficulties in instruction and mastering of EFL writing, the present researchers tried to investigate the possible effect of extroversion/introversion personality traits on different features of EFL writing, such as content, organization, language, mechanics, and vocabulary. Learners from one category of personality type may differ from other learners from different categories in following different features of writing, such as organization, sentence structure, development and support, choice of vocabulary, grammar, and mechanical conventions. The results of this study can help EFL teachers employ teaching strategies which fit different characteristics of extrovert and introvert learners and can make learners aware of their own characteristics in order to develop their most preferred strategy and practice their less preferred one to compensate for their weak points.

With regard to what mentioned above, the present study tried to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between extrovert and introvert Iranian EFL learners in terms of their writing ability?
2. Is there any significant difference between extrovert and introvert Iranian EFL learners in terms of different subsets of writing, such as content, organization, language, mechanics, and vocabulary?

Accordingly, in line with the research questions above, the following null hypotheses are addressed in this study:

H_{01} : There is no significant difference between extrovert and introvert Iranian EFL learners in terms of their writing ability.

H_{02} : There is no significant difference between extrovert and introvert Iranian EFL learners in terms of different subsets of writing, such as content, organization, language, mechanics, and vocabulary.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 50 undergraduate Iranian university students majoring in English Translation and English Teaching at Shahrekord and Yasuj Universities. They were both female and male EFL students with the age range of 19-26, passing at least three semesters in order to ensure that they have passed or are passing the Writing course.

B. Instruments

In order to homogenize the participants in terms of their language proficiency, the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP) was used. It consists of 100 items with three independent subtests, 40 multiple-choice structure items, 40 multiple-choice vocabulary items, and 20 multiple-choice reading comprehension items. To identify their personality types, the researchers administered the MBTI, a 94-item paper-and-pencil inventory with two options for each item. The Persian version of the questionnaire, which was translated and validated by Hoseini (2003), was used in this study. The third instrument was a free writing test; the participants were asked to write one paragraph about 250 words on the topic "Do You Prefer Team Sports or Individual Sports?" because the researchers thought it was a general topic which made it possible for almost all of the Iranian EFL learners to write about it.

C. Procedure

At first the researchers administered the MTELP to participants to homogenize them in terms of proficiency. Among the participants who took the test, only those whose scores was above 50% of the total possible score were selected as the sample for the study. Then, the MBTI was administered to them to identify their personality type. Finally, they were asked to submit a writing sample on the determined topic to assess their writing ability.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

To deal with the data collection procedure, firstly, the MTELP questionnaire, with the permission of teachers, was administered to be completed by the participants. Secondly, the researchers administered MBTI questionnaire to them. Then, they were asked to write a paragraph on the presented topic within the time limit of one hour. The participants were assured that any information given would be recorded anonymously and used only for the purpose of the very research. Besides, they were guaranteed that it would not affect their scores. The data collected were subjected to a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA) by the researchers, using SPSS (version 18) to answer the research questions.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Coefficient for the intra-rater reliability of the scores given was calculated. Using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, the intra-rater reliability coefficient was $r = .98$, $n = 50$, $p < .05$ (two-tailed). Therefore, there was a high level of intra-rater correlation.

In order to examine the difference in the performance of extrovert and introvert Iranian EFL learners in different subsets of writing (i.e., content, mechanics, organization, vocabulary, and language), a one-way MANOVA was run. Besides, preliminary statistics were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity. Table 1 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference in writing performance of extrovert and introvert personality types.

TABLE 1
EXTROVERTS AND INTROVERTS DIFFERENCE IN WRITING

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
pt Pillai's Trace	.413	6.182 ^a	5.000	44.000	.000	.413
Wilks' Lambda	.587	6.182 ^a	5.000	44.000	.000	.413
Hotelling's Trace	.702	6.182 ^a	5.000	44.000	.000	.413
Roy's Largest Root	.702	6.182 ^a	5.000	44.000	.000	.413

As Table 1 demonstrates, Wilks' Lambda value of .587 with a significance value of .000 is less than .05. Therefore, there is statistically significant difference between extroverts and introverts on a linear combination of the dependent variables. But, this difference should be investigated in relation to each of the dependent variables. Table 2 indicates the significance of difference in relation to each of the dependents variables.

TABLE 2
THE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXTROVERTS AND INTROVERTS ON WRITING SUBSETS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
pt	vocabulary	50.000	1	50.000	12.225	.001	.203
	mechanics	12.500	1	12.500	12.315	.001	.204
	language	76.880	1	76.880	8.712	.005	.154
	organization	.720	1	.720	.094	.760	.002
	content	79.380	1	79.380	7.256	.010	.131

As Table 2 reports, the observed difference between introverts and extroverts is statistically significant in relation to most of the dependent variables (i.e., content, language, mechanics, and vocabulary) except organization. Using Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .01, the researchers found that extroverts and introverts differ in terms of content, $F(1, 48) = 7.25$, $p = .01$, partial eta squared = .131; language, $F(1, 48) = 8.71$, $p = .005$, partial eta squared = .154; mechanics, $F(1, 48) = 12.31$, $p = .001$, partial eta squared = .204; and vocabulary $F(1, 48) = 12.22$, $p = .001$, partial eta squared = .203. In all of the above mentioned dependent variables, introverts outperformed extroverts. Table 3 reports the mean scores of extroverts and introverts on all of the dependent variables.

TABLE 3
THE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXTROVERT AND INTROVERT TYPES ON WRITING SUBSETS

Dependent Variable		personality type	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Vocabulary	extrovert		14.560	.404	13.747	15.373
	introvert		16.560	.404	15.747	17.373
Mechanics	extrovert		2.840	.201	2.435	3.245
	introvert		3.840	.201	3.435	4.245
Language	extrovert		17.280	.594	16.085	18.475
	introvert		19.760	.594	18.565	20.955
Organization	extrovert		15.160	.553	14.048	16.272
	introvert		15.400	.553	14.288	16.512

Inspection of the mean scores indicated that introverts reported higher content performance ($M = 21.16$, $SD = 3.659$) than extroverts ($M = 18.64$, $SD = 2.91$); higher levels of language ($M = 19.76$, $SD = 2.79$) than extroverts ($M = 17.28$,

$SD = 3.14$); of mechanics ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 1.02$) than extroverts ($M = 2.84$, $SD = .98$); and of vocabulary choice ($M = 16.56$, $SD = 1.35$) than extroverts ($M = 14.56$, $SD = 2.51$).

As Table 3 indicates, the mean scores of introvert learners for all the dependent variables are higher than those of extrovert learners. But, the difference is statistically significant for most of these variables, (i.e., content with a large effect size of 13.1%, language with a large effect size of 15.4%, mechanics with a large effect size of 20.4%, and vocabulary with a large effect size of 20.3%.) But, the slight difference observed between their mean scores on organization subset turned out to be statistically insignificant.

As it was revealed, introverts outperformed their counterpart in writing and its different subsets. As Jensen and Dittberio (1984) claim, introverts generally have less difficulty in writing than extroverts. Although researchers such as Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) and Eysenck (1979) claim that introverts mostly attend grammatical and mechanical aspects of writing due to their attentional selectivity, it was shown that introverts also pay attention to content of writing. As Jensen and Dittberio (1984) note, introverts generally want to clarify most of their ideas before writing; they can be encouraged to develop ideas while writing and they are usually able to generate their ideas in isolation. That is, their performance in content seems to be better than extroverts', who just easily express their thoughts in writing. Introverts are usually in search of the best vocabulary choice; for this reason they probably experience more difficulty in speaking an L2 fluently than extroverts. But, the same reason has made their writing much more professional.

Jensen and Dittberio (1984) found the extraverts' writing with little planning, not writing from outlines; their writing process is quick, that is, they write down immediately whatever comes in their mind without so much contemplation. They further state that the difficulties that many extraverts have with writing is because of the isolation and the lack of oral feedback in writing process; writing seems too isolated a process for them which causes them become blocked. Extroverts' progress in generating ideas depends too much on talking about the topic, interviewing, or presenting reports. They understand the oral presentation better than the written version. Thus, they can revise their writing better through their advisers' talk and oral feedback.

The results of this study are in line with the findings of a study conducted by Carrell, Prince, and Astika, (1996) in which they found that introverts obtained better scores than extroverts in writing course during both the first and second semesters. Likewise, these results confirm Jahanbazi's (2007) investigation in Iran in which he found out that introverts were more successful than their extrovert counterparts in the overall writing quality. Findings also lend support to Callahan's (2000) claim that writing for extroverted learners seems to lag behind speaking, whereas, introverts are better at expressing themselves through writing rather than speaking. In a similar vein, findings of this study asserts the results of another study conducted by Layeghi (2011) on the relationship between learners' extroversion/introversion personality types and their performance in the argumentative writing with regard to the content and form; he found that introverts significantly outperformed extroverts in both form and content.

VI. CONCLUSION

Although extroverts were assumed to be good at expressing themselves through speaking, the findings of this study revealed that they were not as successful as introverts in writing. Introverts outperformed their extrovert counterparts in most of writing subsets, such as content, language, mechanics, and vocabulary. The results of this study make teachers aware of certain general realities that hold for most extroverted and introverted writers and they can more directly address students' needs. They can apply this knowledge to motivate extroverts to write diaries in order to improve their writing.

Having knowledge of learners' personality types enables writing teachers to adjust their expectations with writers' abilities. For instance, realizing that extroverts are not apt for writing causes teachers to reduce their expectations and affects the scores they assign to students. Being informed of learners' personality types, teachers are able to choose appropriate writing prompts. As Callahan (2000) suggests, extroverts show interest in thinking about the external world and their experiences, whereas, introverts prefer to reflect on their inner side. Thus, teachers are able to suggest choices of prompt to writers in which each group of writers choose their favorite topic.

Also, the findings can help extrovert learners to improve their motivation and enhance their performance in writing through realizing their personality types and their difficulty in different subsets of writing. Recognizing extroverts' difficulty in generating ideas in isolation, writing teachers should attempt to provide opportunities for them to discuss the topic before beginning to write.

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Analysis of *The Trumpet of the Swan* from the Perspective of Functional Equivalence

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Abstract—In the field of translation, different translation theories are adopted for different purposes and target readers. For the translation of children's literature, Eugene Nida's Functional Equivalence is one of the most influential and effective translation theories. In this paper, the author tries to study the Chinese version of *The Trumpet of the Swan*, the most beloved fairy tale in 20th century, from the perspective of Functional Equivalence, in order to prove that, this theory is so flexible that it can be used in the translation of children's literature, which will definitely enhance the development of the translation of children's literature in China.

Index Terms—*The Trumpet of the Swan*, functional equivalence, children's literature

In the past few decades, great progress has been made in Chinese translation theory and practice. Among those progresses, translation of one kind of literature genres is paid special attention to—children's literature, since it is very different from other kinds of literature in its target readers: children. Because children are not so literate as adults are, also, their acceptance of certain information may have more influence on their growth, besides, some kinds of ways of expression may be beyond their reach, under these circumstances, translators of children's literature must always bear in mind these special features of children and attach great importance to the choice of words, phrases and sentences of their translated work.

Although translation of English children's literature has been developed along with that of the other kinds of literary works, its pace of development seems not to be so fast that more work needs to be done. In order to meet the demands of Chinese parents and their children for beautiful and original works from other languages, more and more translators are pouring more and more time and energy into the translation of children's literature. Besides, these translators are trying to adopt some widespread translation theory which could be applied as a guideline in their translation practice to suit the special features of children's literary works. Despite the pains-taking progress, a lot of translators do have some breakthrough and discoveries. One of those discoveries is that they find Eugene Nida's Functional Equivalence, which is based on sociolinguistics and years of practice for the translation of the worldwide book, Bible, is an effective and can be applied in the translation of children's literature. Nida (2001) argues "it is essential that functional equivalence be stated primarily in terms of a comparison of the way in which the original receptors understood and appreciated the text and the way in which receptors of the translated text understand and appreciate the translated text." (Nida, 2001, P86)

Ren Rongrong, who is a master in the field of children's literature, has translated many famous children's literary works into Chinese. Among them, *The Trumpet of the Swan*, the most beloved fairy tale in 20th century, is a masterpiece in the translation field. In this book, Ren's translation of the original work has created the same effect on the target readers as the source text on the source reader. Since the target readers of children's literature are small kids, for them, those "word-for-word" translations are not so good a choice.

In this paper, the author tries to study the Chinese version of *The Trumpet of the Swan* translated by Ren Rongrong from the perspective of Eugene Nida's Functional Equivalence which consists of three important aspects: meaning equivalence, stylistic equivalence and cultural equivalence. The author holds the view that, just it's the proper adoption of Eugene Nida's Functional Equivalence in the Chinese version of *The Trumpet of the Swan* that makes it an extraordinary masterpiece in the field of translation of children's literature. After the study, it can be safely said that Eugene Nida's Functional Equivalence is suitable for the translation of children's literature, thus can be used for the further development of translation of children's literature in China.

I. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO *THE TRUMPET OF THE SWAN* AND ITS CHINESE VERSION

A. About the Author

E. B. White, (1899-1985) the author of such beloved children's classics as *Charlotte's Web*, *Stuart Little*, and *The Trumpet of the Swan*, was born in Mount Vernon, New York. He graduated from Cornell University in 1921 and, five or six years later, joined the staff of The New Yorker magazine. E.B. White authored over seventeen books of prose and poetry and was elected to the American Academy of Arts and Letters in 1973. In addition to writing children's books, E. B. White also wrote books for adults, as well as writing poems and essays, and drawing sketches for The New Yorker magazine. Some of his other books include: *One Man's Meat*, *The Second Tree from the Corner*, *Letters of E. B. White*, *The Essays of E. B. White*, and *Poems and Sketches of E. B. White*.

Mr. White has won countless awards, including the 1971 National Medal for Literature and the Laura Ingalls Wilder Medal, which commended him for making “a substantial and lasting contribution to literature for children.”

B. *About the Novel*

The Trumpet of the Swan is a children’s novel by E.B. White published in 1970. It is a story about growing up. The main character of this book is Louis, a Trumpeter Swan born without a voice and trying to overcome it. In order to communicate with others, he learns many skills including how to write and how to play a trumpet. At last, he becomes a famous musician and falls in love with a swan named Serena. They live a happy life together.

This book is the last fairy tale book of E B White. And the story is based on a real news report of *New York Times* in 1965. It was about two trumpet swans in Philadelphia zoo gave birth to 5 little swans, and people took pictures of them. White was astonished by the rare swan and felt interested in them, and then he collected lots of information about the swan and finally he decided to write a fairy tales about the swan. In this book, the author tells us a beautiful story in a vivid tone by using many figures of speech, colloquial words and so on. After reading it, readers will be touched by Louis’ spirit of optimism. It’s a warm story and it has inspired people generation by generation. And that may be the reason why it is praised as “the most beloved fairy tale in 20th century”.

C. *About the Translator and the Chinese Version*

Ren Rongrong (1923-) is master of the translation of children’s literature. In his translation career of more than 60 years, he has translated about 300 works, most of which are in the category of children’s literature. Ren’s translation is vivid and readable, thus greatly welcomed by children all around China.

Ren can do translation in Russian, English, Italian and Japanese. People get an easy access to great authors and famous works of children’s literature. Ren does his translation with a conscientious and serious attitude. His translation works are perfect combination of thoughts and artistic forms with unique styles. His works not only benefit young readers, but also help the creation of children’s literature in China.

Ren’s Chinese version of *The Trumpet of the Swan* is a masterwork in the translation of children’s literature. His version is best known and the most accepted one in China. With easy, simple and beautiful language, Ren’s version meets the reading and psychological needs of children and benefits Chinese children a lot. As a translator, Ren tells a story of a swan who surmounts various difficulties and grows up happily in a childlike language style from the viewpoint of a child. Ren himself also pays attention to whether his version provides the same reading experience with the readers of the original text for Chinese readers. His version not only meets the reading need of children, but also meets the artistic demand of adults.

II. ANALYSIS OF *THE TRUMPET OF THE SWAN* FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF FUNCTIONAL EQUIVALENCE

Among all the translation theories, Eugene Nida’s theory of functional equivalence is one of the most influential, which is the vital part of all those Eugene A. Nida’s translation theories. In language, Culture and Translating, Nida has stated different degrees of “functional equivalence”, including the minimal, realistic functional equivalence and the maximal, ideal functional equivalence. As for the maximal, ideal functional equivalence, Nida (1993) argues, for the translated text, its readers should understand and appreciate it just as the original readers did (Nida, 1993). To achieve this ideal degree, the translator should always bear three aspects in mind: meaning equivalence, stylistic equivalence and cultural equivalence. Also, because the target readers are children, some scholars, include Xu (2004) argues that a translation that applies children-featured and humorous language style is more likely to resonate with young readers and create a close feeling among them. Thus, it requires a translator be familiar with children’s language style, know what children like and make his translated version accepted by young readers (Xu, 2004).

A. *Meaning Equivalence*

One theory of translation is “word-for-word’ translation to preserve the meaning. But not all words in one language can find the same word in another language. If the translator just sticks to this theory, he may find the translation work is an impossible mission. Due to the linguistic and cultural diversity between languages, translators must change the form in order to preserve the meaning, especially between Chinese and English, which belong to different language systems. Words normally have more than one meaning, and in different languages, the semantic areas of corresponding words are not identical. Therefore, translator should not always translate one word in the source language into a corresponding word in the receptor language. Instead, the choice of the right word which can produce the same meaning in the target language according to the context is important in order to achieve meaning equivalence. For example:

“Now is my time to act!” he said to himself. “Now is my moment for risking everything on one bold move.”(White, 1995)

“现在我行动的时刻到了！”它对自己说。“现在我孤注一掷的时刻到了。”(White,2010)

“Risking everything on one bold move” means to act no matter what the consequence is. It can be translated as “一个冒着所有风险的大胆行动”, but the translator used “孤注一掷” to convey the meaning of this phrase, it’s more acceptable in the target language and familiar to the target readers. By using this phrase “孤注一掷”, the target readers can see the determination of the father swan’s intention to get a trumpet for his son. And actually, he sets his safe and

reputation aside in order to help his son. The trumpet is the last hope for Louis to have his voice. From this we can say, the choice of the phrase “孤注一掷” is both faithful to the original meaning and close to the target readers.

“*He is over there sitting on a muskrat house, dreaming about the empty-headed young female he’s so crazy about.*” (White, 1995)

“它正坐在那边鼯鼠窝上，梦想着它想的发疯了的那位傻乎乎的天鹅小姐。”(White, 2010)

“Empty-headed” means one is dull or ignorant. The Chinese translation can be “没有头脑的” “傻而无知的”，in most cases, it bears a negative meaning, but here the translation use “傻乎乎的” in stead of “没有头脑的” to describe the female swan. This is a conversation of Louis’s parents’, “傻乎乎” is a tender tone of the parents. and it shows that the lady swan is adorable and even Louis’ parents like her. And they are proud of their son’s falling in love.

B. Stylistic Equivalence

Stylistic equivalence is another important aspect of Eugene Nida’s theory of functional equivalence. Sometimes it seems to be more important than meaning equivalence. Under some circumstances, the translator should sacrifice meaning equivalence for stylistic equivalence. In order to reproduce the style of the original, one should not follow the usually misleading role of formal correspondence. He should try his best to reproduce the same effect upon the reader of his translation as that upon the reader of the original by following the author’s style in a dynamic way. The readers of a translated text should be able to understand and appreciate it in essentially the same manner as the original readers did. Song and Huang (2010) argue that a stylistically equivalent translation should be one that has the same stylistic value. Plain it should be if the original is plain, and elegant if the original is elegant (Song & Huang, 2010).

1. Reduplicate words and Interjections

The usage of reduplicated words is a unique characteristic of Chinese language and a way to bring the childlikeness in translation. Using reduplicated words in translation will make it easy for children to accept. For example:

Just then, three young girls entered the lobby. They were giggling and squealing. (White, 1995)

正好这时候，三个年轻的姑娘走进大堂。她们在格格笑，还唧唧喳喳的。(White, 2010)

The translator uses “咯咯笑” and “叽叽喳喳” to describe the girls’ laughter. The translation gives a vivid description of the scene and the outgoing characteristics of the girls.

The first baby, the first cygnet was soft and downy. (White, 1995)

这是它第一个小宝宝，第一只天鹅，它毛茸茸，软绵绵。(White, 2010)

The translator uses “毛茸茸” and “软绵绵” to describe a new life, a baby swan. These two reduplicate words show how cute and lovely the swan is. And it also shows the love of the parents for their kids.

Interjections can enhance the tone, helping stand out the context and making the translation more inspiring and meet the needs of children as well. For example:

The cygnet can breathe now; it just keeps wiggling until it wiggles free. (White, 1995)

小天鹅现在能够呼吸了，它就是不断地扭，扭啊扭啊，直到从蛋壳里挣出来为止。(White, 2010)

The translator repeatedly uses the interjection “啊” as a rhetorical method to describe the action of “扭”，which enhances the tone of the speech, lifts the simple sentence and provides a vivid scene where the swan breaks its way to the world with so big difficulties for the children readers. Ren also repeatedly uses interjections like “吧”，“吗”，“嘛” and “呢”。For instance, Ren uses 15 interjections in the 5th chapter to express various emotions of animals and make the translated version more inspiring. More examples are as follows:

A real live swan, playing a trumpet! Life was a dream, all right. What a lark! What fun! What pleasure! (White, 1995)

一只真正的活天鹅，还吹奏起小号来！生活如做梦，一点不假。多么有趣啊！多么好玩啊！多么快乐啊！(White, 2010)

On and on he flew, toward Boston. (White, 1995)

它向着波士顿飞啊飞。(White, 2010)

“Wear it in health!” he said. “Blow it in happiness! Make the woods and the hills and the marshes echo with the sounds of your youthful desire!” (White, 1995)

“健康地挂着它吧！”它说。“快乐的吹奏它吧！让森林、群山、沼泽地回响起你青春渴望的声音吧！”(White, 2010)

2. Colloquial words

Colloquial language style is a unique feature in children’s literature. Children develop concrete thought to abstract one during the growing process, which requires concrete images to a large extent. For example:

“Welcome to the world that contains this lonely pond, this splendid marsh, unspoiled and wild!” (White, 1995)

“欢迎到这个世界来，它包括了这可爱的池塘，这呱呱叫的沼泽地，它们保持着大自然的风貌，没遭到过破坏！”(White, 2010)

This is a remark given by the father swan to welcome his kids to their living place. In this sentence, the translator uses “呱呱叫” in stead of “壮丽的” to convey the meaning of “splendid”. The translation is vivid and the word “呱呱叫” is more frequently used in children’s daily conversation, and it is full of childlike flavor.

3. Exclamatory sentences and parallel structures

Exclamatory sentences and parallel structures are frequently used in the translation of children's literature. Exclamatory sentences help authors to express what is in their mind. While parallel structures enhance the tone of speech and make readers resonate with the author. For example:

What a triumphant return it would be! When he left Montana, Louis had been penniless. Now he was rich. When he left, he had been unknown. Now he was famous. When he left, he had been alone in the world. Now he had his bride by his side---the swan that he loved. (White, 1995)

这是怎样的凯旋啊！离开蒙大拿的时候路易斯身无分文。现在它有了钱。离开的时候它是个无名小卒。现在它有了名。离开的时候它在这个世界上孤孤单单。现在在它身边有了新娘--它心爱的天鹅。(White, 2010)

The first sentence is an exclamatory one and the translator deals with it in the same way to achieve the equivalence in structure. Parallel structure is also applied in the following contrastive sentences and Ren deals with them in the same way. For instance, “它有了钱”, “它有了名”, “它有了新娘” enhances the contrastive effects between the former and the latter part. Meanwhile, Ren uses four-character phrases in his translation. For example, the phrases like “身无分文”, “无名小卒” and “孤孤单单” give a realistic description of Louis' life. Such contrast illustrates the process of Louis' growth.

4. Figures of speech

As a frequently used rhetorical device, simile helps to illustrate the vivid action of characters, giving direct, visual and subtle reading experience to children readers and making the work childlike. For example:

He climbed steeply, like a jet plane, and then leveled off, flying high and fast toward the Northeast. (White, 1995)

它像架喷气式飞机那样陡直的上升,接着平飞,高高的向东北方向急速前行。(White, 2010)

The author uses a simile to describe the flying posture of the swan as a jet plane, which gives a direct image to readers. That it flies speedily shows the courage and determination of the father swan to help Louis. And the translator also keeps the image of jet plane and translates it into “喷气式飞机”, which can express the meaning and be easily understood by the children.

C. Cultural Equivalence

A lot of translators just think meaning equivalence and stylistic equivalence are all they should achieve, but there is one other factor to be considered, that is cultural equivalence. Since culture is something that can't be omitted in the translation process. A language lies in culture, and a certain culture influences a language. From the perspective of culture, the translation criterion is that the original cultural features should be transferred to the fullest extent. In order to reach that purpose, three points must be taken into consideration.

In the first place, the translator is supposed to understand the original text and its cultural background as accurately as possible. Yu (2010) argue that a misinterpretation will inevitably lead to an incorrect translation, not to mention the representation of the cultural connotation (Yu, 2010).

In the second place, he should try to retain the original images to render the cultural message to the maximum to prevent the cultural color from dimming. To be faithful to the original content includes the faithfulness to the original images, that is, to represent them as far as possible. In most cases, if a sentence conveys cultural information, annotation can be a good method to solve the problem of misunderstanding, and readers can know more background information about the source culture. For example:

He finally decided to play “Beautiful Dreamer, Wake Unto Me.” He had always loved that song. It was sad and sweet. (White, 1995)

它最后决定吹奏《入梦的美人,给我醒来吧》。它一直爱这曲子。曲子忧伤而甜蜜。(White, 2010)

注:这是美国作曲家福斯特(1826-1864)的著名歌曲。

In the third place, the original images must not go beyond the limit of the reader's acceptance. When there are distinct differences between the implied meanings of the cultural images, if retaining the original images, the target text is likely to be misunderstood by the reader or even opposes little meaning to the reader, then translators can shift the image of the original text to a familiar image in the target culture or just reproduce the implied meaning of the original in order to convey the full information. For example:

“Danger!” said the old cob. “I welcome danger and adventure. Danger is my middle name.” (White, 1995)

“危险!”天鹅老爸说,“危险!我欢迎危险和冒险。冒险是我突出的个性。”(White, 2010)

In the Western culture, a middle name is a given name that often helps to differentiate between individuals in a family with the same first name. However, in this example, “middle name” gains a figurative connotation meaning a notable or outstanding attribute of a person. If literally translated as “冒险是我中间的名字”, the children readers would wonder what it really means. Therefore, the translator abandons the original image and keeps the implied meaning “突出的个性”. This makes sense. The father swan is very confident and proud about himself, by addressing this speech, he will put himself in danger in order to finish his mission and recover his reputation.

III. CONCLUSION

The author of this article tries to analyze the Chinese version of *The Trumpet of the Swan* from the view of functional

equivalence by illustrating some typical examples, which proves that the functional equivalence is practical in the translation of children's literature and general equivalence can be achieved.

From what has been analyzed, we may conclude that Ren's version keeps a childlike flavor, because it emphasizes stylistic equivalence, which has become a very prominent feature of Ren's version. In real translation process, maybe the meaning equivalence, stylistic equivalence and culture equivalence are not put in the same position, but they are all important. Translators can choose their own style in order to maximize the ideal response of the target readers. Another important idea is that, in order to produce some translators to meet the demands of target readers, translators themselves need to learn more, not only about two different languages, such as words, phrases, and sentences, but also they should learn the different cultures and other important knowledge relating to the languages, only in this way can they find the most appropriate way of expression in the target language for the source language.

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