

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 5, Number 3, March 2015

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Resistance as Madness in *The Catcher in the Rye*

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Abstract—J. D. Salinger's *The Catcher in the Rye* (1951) is a story of Holden Caulfield's crises with his society. Holden is a teenager who has a lingering position between accepting and rejecting the cultural codes of his decade. In this paper, we intend to analyze Holden's resistant character based on Foucauldian concepts of madness, power and resistance. Heading this aim, we explain how society eliminates the resistant individuals in Foucauldian views. Through close reading of the text, we intend to find a relationship between madness, power and resistance. We also hypothesize that in this context Holden's resistance to disciplinary power is regarded as madness. Moreover, we hypothesize that Holden like a sociologist figure scrutinizes his society to figure out society's madness by following the cultural codes. However, because of his individuality and resistance, he is considered mad and eventually is sent to a sanitarium to be cured. Furthermore, we observe that Salinger challenges society's cultural codes through Holden's crises and presents a new form of resistance to social norms in his novel.

Index Terms—madness, resistance, disciplinary system, power, cultural codes

I. INTRODUCTION

Madness has always been an ambivalent concept in man's life. Desired or not, madness has a strong presence in the history of human being and it immortalizes itself through the writings of the men of letters who were attracted to madness. Madness exists in our life, our philosophy, our medicine and our mind that one cannot deny its influential role in shaping our existence.

In the history of madness, different philosophers and psychologists attempt to bring different definitions for madness. Some regards it a mental disorder and some regards it an anomie that is a "sociological madness [that] depicts characters estranged from society's "sane," "normal" or "rational" behaviors." (Reiger, 2011, p.8) Hence, we will locate this study within philosophical realm of madness that defines madness based on its relation to the social norms and conventions. Thus, we analyze *The Catcher in the Rye* through Foucauldian lens since Foucault is the only thinker who denies the existence of madness and argues that society's vital need for homogeneity degenerates individuals as madmen. Furthermore, Foucault denounces psychiatry for utilizing power to normalize the madman.

Foucault in *History of Madness* presents an interconnected relation between madness and reason. In this light, Foucault (2006a) has defined the madman as:

The madman leaves the path of reason, but by means of the images, beliefs, and forms of reasoning that are equally to be found in men of reason. The madman therefore is never mad to his own way of thinking, but only in the eyes of a third person who can distinguish between reason and the exercise of reason. (p. 184)

Thus, we comprehend that in Foucauldian term, the definition of madness is reliant on the definition of reason in a specific time and place; which means that whatever is observed against the common sense of the period is considered madness even if it may appear more logical than the accepted norm.

Foucault (2006a) argued that the madman is the figure who breaks the "fastidious conformity" of society and consequently brings upheavals and unrest. Therefore, he is more an asocial factor than a mind empty of reason and recognition. Thus, we can assume the madman as a person whose ideals does not compatible with the rest of the society and he resists the accepted norms. (Foucault, 2006a, p.346)

II. MAD HOLDEN VERSUS MAD SOCIETY

Madness is one of the most salient concepts that are used in *The Catcher in the Rye*. So far, Holden's madness has been the focal point of many critical papers written on *The Catcher in the Rye*; nevertheless, the significance of this study lies in the point that we focus on society's madness rather than Holden's madness; because in our view Holden is not a madman but he is a social observant figure. Like a sociologist, Holden scrutinizes the society and he is aware of the impending danger of losing a genuine idea and intellect that results in losing individuality and authenticity. As a matter of fact, what Holden criticizes as "phony" is proposed as sanity and social accepted behavior; therefore, it is clear that Holden's resistant behavior would be regarded as madness. So far, all critics have been unanimous that Holden is a problematic character and due to his problems he is sent to a sanitarium.

On the contrary, we argue that all these critics miss this ironical point that as much as the society regards Holden mad, Holden cynically refer to his surrounding people as madmen. There are many occasions in the novel that Holden verifies people's madness, while there is no actual evidence of his own madness, except that he is sent to a sanitarium at the end. Thus, in our view society is mad; however, since Holden resists to conform to society's madness, his resistance is considered as madness.

There are several occasions in the text that make Holden say "I can't stand it", "it makes me so depressed I go crazy" and "it drives me crazy." As an example, observing "fuck you" on the walls drives Holden "crazy." (Salinger, 1991, p. 200-01) When Holden thinks of Jane having sexual relationship with Stradlater and imagines that she may turn to be a conformist as well, he drives "starking mad." (Salinger, 1991, p. 48).

When D. B.'s ex-girlfriend thinks that being in Hollywood is marvelous and "a big deal", she drives Holden crazy. (Salinger, 1991, p. 86) Mr. Spencer's habit of repetition drives Holden crazy because people should not "say something twice that way, after you admit it for the first time." (Salinger, 1991, p. 10) And when they are visiting the cemetery and it starts raining, the way people flee to the warmth of their cars nearly drives Holden crazy. (Salinger, 1991, p. 156)

Evidently, Holden goes crazy by any behavior that is regarded as common or normal in the society. Therefore, for Holden the mere cultural codes of his society is the cause of madness and in our view, he doesn't follow the norms in order to be safe from the epidemic madness.

In this respect, we refer to Foucault's (2006a) explanation of "a practical consciousness of madness" that allows the majority the right to exclude the individuals as madmen. Foucault (2006a) has stated that:

The merely critical consciousness that those outsiders have somehow deviated rests on the consciousness that they have chosen a different path, and there it finds its justification, at the same time becomes brighter and obscure, turning into unmediated dogma. (p. 165)

Foucault (2006a) continues that the problem of madness in this form of consciousness is the difference between the definition of madness and reason and madness is measured based on the scale of devotion to the group who are the "bearers of the norms of reason." (Foucault 2006a, p. 165)

Thus, in *The Catcher in the Rye*, Holden functions as an asocial different individual who must be normalized. Holden is a dangerous factor who breaks the established conventions of the society; therefore, he is regarded a mad individual.

It is clear that Holden does not believe in the validity of the norms and antithetically, he regards madness as following the cultural codes. The evidences in the text that verify people's madness in Holden's views are as follows:

When Holden goes to check in the Edmont Hotel, he takes off his hunting cap in order not to look eccentric. Very soon Holden realizes that he is the only normal person in the hotel: "I didn't know then that the goddam hotel was full of perverts and morons. Screwballs all over the place.... The Hotel was lousy with perverts. I was probably the only normal bastard in the place." (Salinger, 1991, p. 61-2)

In the hotel, Holden looks into other rooms through his window and he is fascinated by their madness; a man was trying a woman's night dress and a couple was squirting their drink all over each other's face. Holden cannot comprehend how they can enjoy such a game. Although Holden confesses that he is able to "think of very crumby stuff I wouldn't mind doing if the opportunity came up," (Salinger, 1991, p. 62) after he analyzes the couple's game, he concludes that it is madder than his maniac thoughts:

I don't like the idea. It stinks, if you analyze it. I think if you really don't like a girl you shouldn't horse around with her at all, and if you do like her, then you're supposed to like her face, and if you like her face, you ought to be careful about doing crumby stuff to it, like squirting water all over it. (Salinger, 1991, p. 62)

There are other instances in the text that Holden points to people's madness; like when Ernie plays the piano, "people went mad" and when he finishes "everybody was clapping their heads off." (Salinger, 1991, p. 84)

Holden knows he can make Sally mad just by buying her a ticket for a show with the Lunts in it:

I didn't much want to see it, but I knew old Sally, the queen of the phonies, would start drooling all over the place when I told her I had tickets for that, because the Lunts were in it and all. (Salinger, 1991, p. 116-17)

It seems that Holden cannot escape people's madness and wherever he goes he is stuck in their insanity. Holden goes to watch a show in order to kill the time and he gets depressed by observing people's madness. Holden's description of the show indicates his aversion of people's madness: "The Rokettes were kicking their heads off... the audience applauded like mad.... thousands of them kept singing 'Come All Ye Faithful!' like mad." (Salinger, 1991, p. 137)

Holden is not able to enjoy the show because apparently he is the only individual among the audience who can picture the actor "practicing to be a guy that roller-skates on the stage." (Salinger, 1991, p. 137) For Holden it sounds absurd and mad.

In another club, Holden again perceives people's madness. For Holden, getting overexcited by a French singer is madness: "she'd sing some dopey song, half in English and half in French, and drive all the phonies in the place mad with joy." (Salinger, 1991, p. 142)

As it is stated, in this context madness is defined in relation to the norms; thus, whether or not Holden is right in perceiving other's madness, he is proved to be mad by the authorities because Holden is not able to fight with the established norms. In our view, Holden's madness in this text is his punishment for his being a "goddamn minor" and a resistant individual. (Salinger, 1991, p.70)

However, observing people's madness and their ignorance of their mad status results in Holden's deep depression. Mr. Antolini is the only person who understands the nature of Holden's depression. Mr. Antolini affirms Holden that one day he will find that he is not "the first person who was ever confused and frightened and even sickened by human behavior." (Salinger, 1991, p. 189)

Regarding Mr. Antolini's forbidden sexual tendencies, we can assume that Mr. Antolini is confused and frightened as well when he continues that, "You're by no means alone on that score, you'll be excited and stimulated to know. Many, many men have been just as troubled morally and spiritually as you are right now." (Salinger, 1991, p. 189)

The important revealing point about Mr. Antolini is his indirect advice for Holden to resist the established norms by making records of his troubles. Mr. Antolini enlightens Holden to open a new path for the future individuals by immortalizing his "madman stuff." We think Mr. Antolini's advice is one of Holden's motivations in retelling his story despite his parents' disagreement:

Happily, some of them kept records of their troubles. You'll learn from them--if you want to. Just as someday, if you have something to offer, someone will learn something from you. It's a beautiful reciprocal arrangement. And it isn't education. It's history. It's poetry. (Salinger, 1991, p. 189)

We believe that Mr. Antolini exposes his own disgust of the controlling education when he asserts that Holden's writings would not be considered as education. Nevertheless, Mr. Antolini may not be courageous enough to utilize the same strategy and he prefers "to live humbly for a cause." (Salinger, 1991, p. 188) It can be construed that Mr. Antolini may have found himself too mature or old to die nobly and he expects Holden as a young immature to accept the responsibility when he pronounces: "The mark of the immature man is that he wants to die nobly for a cause, while the mark of the mature man is that he wants to live humbly for one." (Salinger, 1991, p. 188)

In this respect, we declare that Mr. Antolini's advice in immortalizing the resistance by writing about it is the second form of Foucauldian resistance that is "aesthetics of existence." Thompson (2003) explains that:

An "aesthetics of existence" means then that just as any technician, artisan, or artist, always crafts a new work under the guidance of critical scrutiny, examining what has been achieved thus far, recalling the rules of the art itself, and comparing the former against the latter. So are we, for Foucault, to fashion new sorts of non-fascistic subjectivities, working under the direction. (p. 124-25)

In our view, any work of art that has an enlightening rule in widening people's view about the truth is considered an "aesthetic of existence." In this form of resistance, no social or legal rule is broken however, they are fundamentally weakened when their validity is put to question; a task that Mr. Antolini asks Holden to accomplish.

III. HOLDEN AND RESISTANCE

So far, we have observed that how Holden reveals his different character that results in his being depressed and alienated. In *The Catcher in the Rye* there are lots of rules and norms that are deployed in the society by the term of "to be supposed to." Holden is obliged to follow these rules; antithetically, he can't find any logic behind them. As an example, he is supposed to like the Disciples because they are selected by Jesus and he is set to believe that, "if I didn't like the Disciples, then I didn't like Jesus and all." (Salinger, 1991, p. 99)

However, the Disciples annoy him because "they were all right after Jesus was dead and all, but while He was alive, they were about as much use to Him as a hole in the head. All they did was keep letting Him down." (Salinger, 1991, p. 99)

It is clear that Holden prefers anti-social individuals to the supposed normal people. Holden confesses that although he is not a religious person, he first likes Jesus and then the lunatic character of the Bible because of their individual character. As it is obvious, Christ was punished because of preaching the ideas that were different from society's cultural codes.

Bloom (2008) has regarded Holden's admiration for the outcasts and the lunatic because of his self-destructive characteristic. On the contrary, we argue that Holden regards society's acceptable behaviors as destructive madness. Moreover, Holden exposes no sign of masochistic attitudes in the text except when he breaks his fist after Allie's death. As Shaw (1993) has explained, Holden's reaction to Allie's death is a common reaction among the kids because he feels guilty for his inability to save Allie from death. (p. 104)

Elsewhere, Holden refers to Wicker Bar that is supposed to be a sophisticated place. However, Holden disrespects Wicker Bar for deploying phoniness because it makes people hide their genuine character in order to look acceptably sophisticated. Holden abandons Wicker Bar because, "the phonies are coming in the window." (Salinger, 1991, p. 141)

Ernie's club with its supposed to be holy music is another place that is "jam packed with prep school jerks and college jerks." (Salinger, 1991, p. 83) However in Holden's view, Ernie's playing is far from being holy "for God's sake." (Salinger, 1991, p. 38) Holden believes that, Ernie is nothing more than a "big fat colored guy" who is a "terrific snob" that "won't hardly even talk to you unless you're a big shot or a celebrity or something." (Salinger, 1991, p. 80) Although Holden admits that Ernie is a talented pianist, he sometimes feels like "turning his goddamn piano over." (Salinger, 1991, p. 80) It is obvious that Holden does not enjoy what he is supposed to adore.

In this respect we disagree with Edwards (1977) who believed that Holden is not a resistance and his rebellion is all fantasy. We argue that accrual of these contradictions between Holden and society presents Holden as an individual who resists accepting society's "shoulds." From the beginning of the text, Holden proves that his character and story is

going to be different from the traditional bildungsroman texts. Holden's intention in not following the "shoulds" of David Copperfield's traditions indicates another contradiction in Holden's personality that makes him a resistance:

If you really want to hear about it, the first thing you'll probably want to know is where I was born, and what my lousy childhood was like, and how my parents were occupied and all before they had me, and all that David Copperfield kind of crap, but I don't feel like going into it, if you want to know the truth. (Salinger, 1991, p. 1)

To relate Holden's resistance and difference to madness, we refer to Foucauldian view that states that the disciplinary society for having a better control over the members creates groups and classifies people according to their personality and potentiality. The disciplinary system attempts to homogenize people by appointing them to different groups. As Foucault (1995) has founded:

[Disciplinary power] dissociates power from the body; on the one hand, it turns it into an 'aptitude,' a 'capacity,' which it seeks to increase; on the other hand, it reverses the course of energy, the power that might result from it, and turns it into a relation of strict subjection...[d]isciplinary coercion establishes in the body the constricting link between an increased aptitude and an increased domination (p. 138)

Foucault (2006b) argues that in a disciplinary system there are always some counter normal figures who do not conform to the mainstream of normalization. Foucault in *Psychiatric Power* has stated that these people are considered residue in the disciplinary system and they are "unclassifiable":

Disciplinary systems, on the other hand, which classify, hierarchize, supervise, and so on, come up against those who cannot be classified, those who escape supervision, those who cannot enter the system of distribution, in short, the residual, the irreducible, the unclassifiable, the inassimilable. This will be the stumbling block in the physics of disciplinary power. That is to say, all disciplinary power has its margins. (Foucault, 2006b, p. 53)

Likewise, Holden does not fit into any groups that are shaped by the disciplinary system. He does not enjoy social gatherings like games, he resents mass-culture for deploying phoniness, he refuses to submit to controlling agents' rules, he is not able to have a healthy relationship with his peers, and worst of all, he reveals society's vicious facades. Thus, Holden is regarded a residue; a mad residue who must be cured. For Foucault, the disciplinary system regards madman as the "residue of all residues" since he is "inassimilable" to all forms of disciplines in the society. (Foucault, 2006b, p. 54)

IV. HOLDEN'S END

The socio-analytic Holden wonders in New York, observes people's madness and gets depressed of people's madness and ignorance. Nevertheless, when he finishes his journey he comes into a disappointing conclusion: Not only he is not able to change anything, but also he is merging with the consumer society. In our view, Holden's feeling of disappearance while passing the street implies his fear of dissolving in the mad society.

Holden experiences his disappearance in two occasions in the text: first, at the beginning of his adventures, and then towards the end of his journey. We think Holden's first experience functions as a prediction for his final disappointing conclusion.

In a "terrifically cold crazy afternoon" with "no sun" to shine on people's mind, Holden feels for the first time that he is "disappearing every time" he crosses "a road." (Salinger, 1991, p. 5) Holden does not specify the reference of the term "terrifically cold" and in the first reading it may look related to the weather. However, when we go further it may well imply the freeze of people's mind. I think from the beginning, Salinger puts these clues to show the frustration of the society who is not willing to accept any changes.

In the second disappearance, after gathering more experiences from society's madness, Holden feels that, "I'd just go down, down, down, and nobody'd ever see me again. Boy, did it scare me." (Salinger, 1991, p. 197) We think Holden's fear is reasonable. There are many occasions in the text that Holden repeats people's madness, sometimes intentionally and sometimes unconsciously; thus, prefiguring his unavoidable fall into society's madness, Holden entreats Allie to help him not to dissolve in the common madness. Since Allie dies before the society finds time to change him into a "docile-body", Holden clings to Allie as the only figure who can rescue him:

I'd say to him, "Allie, don't let me disappear. Allie, don't let me disappear. Allie, don't let me disappear. Please, Allie." And then when I'd reach the other side of the street without disappearing, I'd thank him. (Salinger, 1991, p. 198)

Reaching the end of his adventures, Holden is deeply back warded from his ideals that even his dream of being a catcher in the rye sounds crazy to him: "I'd just be the catcher in the rye and all. I know it's crazy, but that's the only thing I'd really like to be. I know it's crazy." (Salinger, 1991, p. 173)

There are different interpretations about Holden's being a catcher. Steinle (2007), Shaw (1993) and Galloway (2008) have related it to Holden's attempt in saving society's innocence. In contrast, Edwards (1977) has regarded Holden's dream as his "unwillingness to distort the truth by ignoring- or even changing the facts." (p. 555)

However, we argue that Holden intends to save the kids from falling into madness more than anything else. He comprehends his inability to survive himself and the rest of the society; hence, he targets his aim to save kids from the danger of madness because they are his only hope for a better future.

In the final chapter Holden states that a lot of people and especially the psychoanalyst, ask him if he is going to "apply" himself with the school. We think the question shows the psychiatrist's efforts in homogenizing Holden with

the society. As Foucault (2006a) has stated, the knowledge of psychiatry aims to alienate the madman with his self in order to change him to an acceptable member of the society:

From that point on madness no longer indicated a certain relation between men and the truth – a relation which, silently at least, always implied freedom; what it indicated instead was a relationship between man and his own truth ... While previously he was a Stranger to Being ... now he was held trapped in his own truth and thus exiled from it. A Stranger to himself, Alienated. (Foucault, 2006a, p. 516)

According to what is stated above, the madman would achieve his truth only the time he got alienated to himself. This is the foremost goal of the moral therapy; correcting the madman by making him a stranger to himself and by making him more similar to a desirable object for the psychiatrist.

Similarly, Holden also is under the pressure of being homogenized and his assertion shows that whatever decision he makes, he will not apply himself with the society he has been banished:

"It's such a stupid question, in my opinion. I mean how do you know what you're going to do till you do it? The answer is, you don't. I think I am, but how do I know? I swear it's a stupid question." (Salinger, 1991, p. 213)

Holden narrates his story after he is supposedly cured by the psychiatrist; however, he does not show any difference from the Holden he was in his story. Seemingly, even the psychiatric power has failed to change Holden to a submissive character, at least until the time of narrating his story.

Therefore, we can conclude that the psychiatrist has not been successful in alienating Holden from himself. Holden's decision to write his accounts proves that he still believes in his resistance and he decides to change his strategy from "tactical reversal" to "aesthetic of existence."

It is evident that when Holden fails to submit to society's norms he is excluded from society and he is sent to a sanitarium as the last chance to be cured, or in a better sense to be homogenized by the psychiatric power. Hence, Holden becomes a candidate for asylum to bring intellectual comfort for disciplinary system. This is Holden's punishment for his non-conformity to the social norms.

V. CONCLUSION

In this fresh analysis of *The Catcher in the Rye* we argued how Holden's resistance to cultural codes of his society is regarded as madness. We explained that Holden's madness is characterized by his resistance to social maxims that he considers destructive and maddening. Whereas the previous readings of *The Catcher in the Rye* approached it as a story of Holden's madness because of his adolescence problems, we put my focus on Holden's normal state as a socio-analytic figure and proves that as much as the society considers Holden a madman, Holden observes society's madness and gets depressed of their ignorance.

Utilizing Foucault's theoretical framework, we explained that Holden has no sign of madness, and just because his reasoning and views are in contradiction with the society he is considered mad. Thus, in *The Catcher in the Rye* Holden is perceived mad because of his non-conformity although he believes in society's madness because of their blind following the cultural codes.

Holden is an outcast because he cynically presents follies and brings unrest. Holden's resistance and criticisms make a breach in controlling agents' homogenizing function, therefore society prefers to exclude him in order to restore its tranquility. Therefore, in this context, Holden's resistance to cultural codes is regarded as madness.

Moreover, we believe that Salinger as the creator of Holden employs "aesthetics of existence" strategy to question the validity of the cultural codes of the era. Through Holden, Salinger poses questions, presents follies and asks readers to compare Holden with other characters of the text to judge between madness and sanity. Holden, through his three days journey in New York, requests the readers to question the validity of what they have accepted as social norms.

Salinger presents *The Catcher in the Rye* as his strategy to deconstruct the power of controlling institutions. Through Mr. Antolini, Salinger instructs all the individuals to immortalize their resistance by keeping records of their individual self; the task that he has accomplished by writing *The Catcher in the Rye*.

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Indigenous Languages as Tools for Effective Communication of Science and Technology for Food Production in Nigeria

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Abstract—It is possible to assert that one of the reasons behind Nigeria's inability to break even in agricultural production is the sociolinguistic complexity of the nation. But then, some advanced nations that equally have many languages are faring better in food production. In Nigeria, taboos and wrong beliefs by farmers towards agriculture as obtained in the past are still extant. Majority of farmers find it difficult to adopt modern agro-based technologies except the few who are into large-scale farming. Based on this background, the study holds that the indigenous languages which ought to have been fully harnessed as models for effective transmission of improved agro-technologies to alter the obsolete methods and promote virile agricultural enterprise have been treated with a wave of hand. This paper therefore provides rationale and framework for latent use of our indigenous languages for integrating relevant innovations in science and technology into agriculture for sustainable development.

Index Terms—sociolinguistic complexity, wrong beliefs, indigenous languages, integration and agricultural production

I. INTRODUCTION

This concerns the background knowledge of language as a vehicle of communication within any society especially in a multi-lingual society especially in a multi-lingual set up like Nigeria.

Agriculture remains the basis of life for most citizens in Nigeria. However, growth in the agricultural sector has been slow since the discovery of oil in the 70s. This has no doubt resulted in deficits in domestic food supply and persistently high increasing food import bill. It therefore seems clear from the foregoing that Nigeria's economic underdevelopment problem in agriculture may not be close to being alleviated without improved literacy, and literacy in this context, means paying more attention to indigenous languages as effective means of eradicating poverty in the country. (Bamgbose, 1991, p. 39) opines that:

...Literacy enables the peasant farmer to gain knowledge in the use of fertilizers, use of credit marketing and price trends and other techniques; it helps the industrial worker to convert from old to new plants, and from being unskilled to skilled, and thus, to improve production.

Taken from the above therefore, it can be argued that at its most elementary level, the use of indigenous languages for our farmers can ensure a flow of information on fertilizers, pesticides, high yield variety of crops, appropriate planting seasons, irrigation and preservation as well as marketing outlets. In the view of (Okonkwo 1983, p. 39), indigenous languages play a very important role in the process of formal and informal education, that is, in the process of enculturation. This would be made easier by employing the local languages in agricultural education and extension services which transform new agro-technologies to the rural farmers with a view to increasing their yields, income and enhancing their standard of living. Perhaps this is why (Gekkie, 1995, p. 34) opines that the important point in agricultural education is to show rural people how the ability to read and write can help them tackle day-to-day concerns. And how to foster this is through the use of languages which the rural people understand, practice and evolve in their everyday lives. There is no denying the fact that when farmers are talked to in their languages, it becomes easier for both the facilitator and the farmers themselves.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study identifies agriculture to constitute a major determinant of Nigeria's national development. This is to stress that among the non-oil products, agriculture remains the focal issue in pursuance of our growth and development. However, this sector has been found not to be fully exploited in recent years. To therefore harness this sector, indigenous languages have been identified as the major agents of simplifying the drive towards growth and development. The data are organised into specific instances of adopting the indigenous languages use as the cultural, environmental, social and political contexts. The content analytic method is the technique used to achieve the purpose of this study.

III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

(Floyd, 1980, p. 55) suggests that the task of training and educating farmers to improve their methods of crop and livestock production cannot be treated in isolation from tasks of educating Nigerians of all ages no matter their intended or actual economic pursuits. From the foregoing, the main point that stands out today is that majority of those in agricultural production are illiterates who can only use their indigenous languages. This category of farmers, because they are limited in agro-technological innovations and skills and can only produce food for their immediate families with no recourse to export promotion, efforts which has gotten an international effect, since it has not made Nigerian agricultural sector to position effectively in the global market. And in order to meet the current developmental trend of growth in technology, the country's goods for export must meet competitive standards i.e, there should be a provision of conducive and stable export policy environment.

To this end therefore, the potentials of agriculture and other agro-allied investments can be fully explored and harnessed if the benefits of science and technology could be appropriately utilized in the Nigerian languages, just as it is done in advanced countries of the world like Japan, China, Germany and so on. According to (Morgeka, 1995, p.30), the intention of the language education in agricultural economy is to achieve meaningful transmission of ideas, alter wrong beliefs and taboos while assimilation of positive values and norms can be favourably promoted among the locals. It can then be a matter of fact that national development and growth in agro economy, even if narrowly conceived in terms of socio-economic goals, has relevance for language particularly in terms of such agents of development and literacy, orientation and communication. Thus, the importance of our indigenous languages cannot be glossed over with reference to linguistic communication in promoting development in agriculture and food security. There is no doubting the fact that one of the causes of insecurity today is poverty. If the vast majority of the rural farming population, who produce food at subsistent level, were to be reached with technological know-how in agriculture, the mother tongue must be used. (Gekkie, 1995, p.9) opines that for the Nigerian languages to be an effective vehicle of modern education, they must also be capable of expressing the ideas and concepts of modern science.

It is obvious that advanced countries of the world, especially those that have had experience of colonialism as ours, have wilfully disengaged from their cultural backgrounds (though cultural and diplomatic affinity unaltered) in terms of technological terminologies. The point then is that language unification can be seen as an inevitable foundation for any successful development planning in a multilingual society as ours. It is therefore the responsibility of the government to create and nurture an enabling environment for our indigenous languages to be harnessed for massive resurgence if basic life in the service of ordinary man.

Importance of Indigenous Languages in Food Production

Linguistic communication is a necessary condition for the existence of a human group. It enables man to achieve a form of social organisation. (Gbenedio, 1994, p.24) has identified a dual relationship between language and science:

While science has influenced linguistics as well as the literary genres in diverse ways, language provides the tools for scientific investigation, report and dissemination of scientific information. Hence, without science, language cannot be studied as it is today.

Little wonder then why developed countries such as China, Japan and Germany have to use their indigenous languages for almost all their technological terminologies. From this perspective therefore, the relevance of Nigerian languages – Yoruba, Igbo, Hausa and a host of others – must take priority in the resolution of illiteracy since diffusion of new technology, knowledge and skills are very vital to adequate agricultural production in any country. The emphasis given to the use of African languages in pursuance of growth and development in agriculture, according to (Bamgbose, 1991, p.45) cannot be ignored because, in his view, any attempt to do that and concentrate on the use of foreign languages, is not only to defeat the main aim of mass participation in the sector but also to limit the advantages accruing from foreign industry and investment to a privileged urban elite.

From the foregoing, it does mean that if the nation must improve on the agricultural production she currently embarks on, the foreign ideas, concepts and technology which would undoubtedly be imported in a foreign language must be transmitted to the farmers in the language that they understand. We should come to terms with the fact that the economic miracle achieved by countries as Japan, China and Germany is not based on a widespread dissemination of English or French, rather, it is the result of the indigenization of such technology in the local languages of the stated countries, coupled with the translation of the processes into terms that the ordinary farmers can grasp anytime any day. Therefore, what those countries mentioned have adopted should be practiced here in Nigeria. It is then that the nation can move towards advancement in agro-technology.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Communication is a social function which occurs whenever persons attribute significance to message related behaviour. And what facilitates communication is language. Tackling hunger and food insecurity in the country remains major development priorities, made worse by climate change, price volatility in globalized food markets and over consumption in wealthy nations. To this end, existing agriculture and food systems are central to sustaining poor people's livelihoods which are technically capable of producing adequate food for all, but sad enough, campaigning on

this sector is vastly felt on paper but not translated to reality due to the main fact that rural people are not adequately involved towards agricultural innovations in the provision of food security.

To make the agricultural sector of the economy attractive, both Federal and State governments have a role to play by letting the government's programmes reach the grassroots. And how this can be made possible is by encouraging the use of indigenous languages for proper dissemination of information on those programmes to local farmers. Successive governments, in efforts to improve the agricultural sector, have introduced various programmes but due to the educational policy that has not factored in the indigenous language towards its implementation, the programmes have remained dormant, with little impact in the sector.

Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), a scheme introduced in the 70s, was aimed at involving both educated and illiterates to focus on farming but the scheme failed to meet its aims due to continued reliance on importation of agricultural products from advanced nations without serious efforts to revitalise the sector through proper sensitization of the people on the success of the programme. Good as the programmed was, it ended in failure because the government only used the media to enlighten the elites who had little or no interest in agriculture, excluding those farmers who produce the food products. Most of these campaigns were centred in the urban centres with English language as the main channel used to propagate the need to increase yields and other agricultural innovations.

Another institute established to ensure revitalisation of the sector is Agricultural and Rural Management Training (ARMTI), a big institute for that matter, has not been able to achieve remarkable success since its inception many decades ago because the farmers who should have been reached through their languages towards the essence of the programme have been side-lined. Little wonder that the former President, Olusegun Obasanjo (The Guardian, 2013, p.6) remarks that the agricultural sector recorded seven per cent annual growth between 2003 and 2007. At a point after 1979, when almost all the gains seemed to have been destroyed through indiscriminate importation and dumping, I was sceptical if we could ever make it in the area of agriculture. According to him, the progress his government made between 2003 and 2007 when Nigeria grew its agricultural production by an average of 7 per cent yearly enhanced his optimism and enthusiasm. He continues in his remarks that then (during his tenure), cocoa production increased from 150,000 metric tonnes to 400,000 while cassava moved from 30 million metric tonnes to 50 million. Obasanjo therefore opines that Nigeria was on the path of self-sufficiency again in vegetable oil, maize and sorghum and even rice.

The above observation speaks volumes of how decadent the state of agriculture has reached, in spite of many efforts made by previous governments to reinvigorate the sector. It is then plausible to ask why Nigeria should not adopt the system obtainable in most advanced countries like Japan and China where all policies and programmes are transmitted into the languages of the local farmers that make them to participate fully with pride and enthusiasm. Rather than doing this, it is only the elite that is given training, leaving out the bulk of farmers who have farming as their major undertaking.

Directorate of Food and Research Institute (DFRI) was one of these programmes which only fizzled out as it came because the offices of the institute were located only in the urban areas, making it far removed from those farmers that were supposed to see it function. The latest of these agencies, Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA), has equally not seen the light of the day since those that are actually benefitting from the agenda are the elite who do not even know the road to any farm. The government has made these agencies alien to the local farmers. For instance, no local farmer knows what ARMTI, DFRI or ATA mean in their language yet they are the actual people who engage in agriculture.

In counties where agriculture is taken seriously, the local farmers would be addressed in their indigenous languages on the supposed programmes because they know the farmers are those who work on the land but not the elite who stay in the office. Thus we can see the essence of language towards the growth of the agricultural sector. If the nation were to really achieve growth and development in this sector, a proactive measure is to be mounted towards infusing all our stated well-meaning agricultural institutes with the local languages and allow most of the foreign ideas and concepts to be at the reach of farmers so that success can be rapidly attained.

Crucially, Nigeria, being a multilingual country with more than 450 different languages must find ways of attaining growth, at all costs, in agriculture and one of these ways is to harness the indigenous languages to full capacity level. At this juncture, government must accord priority attention to the provision of critical infrastructure coupled with the involvement of agricultural banks to vigorously put the local farmers on the front burners of their policies, effort which could only be made successful in encouraging the use of indigenous languages to disseminate whatever information in place towards the growth and mainstay of the sector.

Successive governments have declared the revitalisation of the agricultural sector be given the highest priority. And to make this possible, the local farmers should be reached through their languages. To this end, communication in the linguistic sense of verbal and non-verbal exchange is very crucial to the rapid growth of agriculture in the country. (Omondi 1979, p.10) has found that there is an importance in the use of gestures in dissemination. This would mean that in the absence of the mutual intelligibility between the extension worker and the farmer, the extra linguistic features such as gestures can be applied. (Emenanjo, 1996, p.50) suggests that a large number of sub-professional personnel like field instructors and extension workers who are willing to take up this task should be people who are closer to the farmers and know their fauna and flora, people who understand the norms and folklores of these farmers. In this light, the teachers and the extension workers have therefore assumed a multidimensional role of being the instructors, the facilitators, the motivators and above all, the communicators.

From the foregoing, it is imperative that extension services in all major agricultural areas should be available and all methods of dissemination of information be done in the mother tongue of the farmers.

The dissemination of information to the farmers through the local languages is confronted with some problems. (Opubor, 1973, p.15) draws attention to the fact that media content in Nigeria is oriented towards the elite, that on radio and television, news bulletins in English language is three times as long as the equivalent in any other language and that media coverage in minority languages is virtually non-existent. This fact is truly demonstrated in the agricultural programmes serialised on television and radio for farmers. For instance, the network programme "Food Basket", a government pet programme which ought to be disseminated in the local languages is aired in the English language. Thus, the dominance of English over the local ones is still felt in news broadcasts, documentaries on agricultural news and so on. (Bamgbose, 1991, p.45) attests to this when he says:

Virtually all the radio stations in Nigeria are government owns and most of these programmes that would inform the local farmers on the best ways to increase yields and other innovations are not done in the language they understand.

Luckily however, some private individuals have been granted ownership of radio and televisions but ironically, these individuals are more interested in the profits they would make from advertisement than disseminating information in local languages which would boost agricultural production. Based on this development, it becomes difficult for farmers to access news since they are excluded from benefitting what is currently run in these media units. The crux of the matter is that those who actually access the news are the elite that are not interested in the content of the news because they do white collar jobs.

Even if it is agreed that the aforementioned media would be used, the inappropriateness of their adoption poses another structural and logistic problem in view of the regional groupings of our society. A scheme proposed for Nigeria by (Nwoye, 1978, p.193), based on six zones illustrates that all the states in the geographic North including Benue, Kwara and Kogi States should be grouped under Hausa; Anambra, Imo and other Igbo speaking states, under Igbo. Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Oyo and other Yoruba speaking areas in the South West under Yoruba; Cross River, under Ekiti; Rivers under Ijaw, Bendel, (now Edo) under Edo. From these groupings, it is pertinent to argue that while the largely monolingual states would have no difficulty in imbibing the proposed languages, there would obviously be problems in the multilingual states, that is, it would spark off both psychological and political problems. For instance, how can Kwara, Borno, Benue, Kogi and Plateau States accept Hausa as their lingua franca or state language? How about Edo State, with its attendant multilingual settings? What these point to is that a compromise has to be made in some cases, by which case, more than one regional or state language may be adopted as a transitional measure.

Another feasible problem is the training of extension workers. How many of them are trained in these local languages? They are few in number who can possibly translate foreign terminologies into indigenous ones. Most of them even become aggressive when a local farmer proves inquisitive on account of the farmer's level of incompetence at imbibing the instructions.

There is no gainsaying the fact that the nation has not fared well on the journey to achieving food security. In fact, we are daily confronted with the problems of hunger, strife and environmental degradation. Steps towards developing and managing our abundant natural resources upon which our wellbeing and livelihood largely depend must be done through our indigenous languages. We can evaluate some of these options:

Agricultural programmes on television and radio should be run in the local languages. The Nigerian government, both national and state, should adopt the system of South Africa's Department of Arts and Culture for this purpose. What South Africa did was to launch a system known by the acronym TISSA (Telephone Interpreting Service for South Africa) in 2005. The essence of this scheme is that any citizen of that country can make a phone call to any government department in his or her language and be automatically translated into any of the country's eleven official languages. This has led to the inclusion of everybody in the programmes of the State government nationwide. What is more in this purpose, journals on agricultural technology should be circulated in the indigenous languages so that extension workers would be saved the problems of translating from foreign to the local languages. Experience has shown that in the course of translation, some vital issues could be omitted or out rightly distorted.

The trained agricultural science teachers required to carry out the evangelism of entrenching the local languages and thus help in the dissemination of foreign technologies to farmers should be sought. According to (Miachi, 1992, p.4), 'without trained teachers, no programme will hardly stand the test of time.' Thus the teaching methods can further be enhanced so that the way some people look down on extension workers – 'farm teachers' could be excluded from our national psyche.

Communication units should be set up in agricultural departments at all levels of government including non-governmental organisations. These units should of course be manned by personnel with adequate knowledge of agriculture. Again, the media houses should be engaged in order to provide sufficient publicity needed but every channel employed should be factored into the local languages for assimilation by the farmers. Film shows, seminars at local levels could be provided using the mother tongues of the locals.

Nigeria is a multilingual nation which has more than four hundred languages. Only few farmers in the country practise modern methods of agricultural production. A question therefore arises about the actual role of language in the face of this multi-ethnic composition. The truth is that language does not have a role to play if really the nation aims to

achieve growth in agriculture. Linguistically heterogeneous states are said to be usually economically underdeveloped while the heterogeneous ones are highly developed, (Bamgbose, 1991, p.36).

However, the basic problem posed by language diversity is how really to achieve mass participation and grass roots involvement in order to ensure widespread and genuine development in agriculture. As it is now, not much is gotten in the area of mass communication i.e. there is no flow of information since communication specialists in the country feel that indigenous languages do not provide sufficient audiences to be explored. Yet the bulk of farmers in Nigeria remains the peasants who can only be reached through the local languages to disseminate information on fertilizers, pesticides, high-yield varieties of crops, appropriate planting seasons, irrigation and preservation as well as marketing outlets.

In the foregoing development, only the serious-minded extension workers can make the dissemination of the information possible in the face of multiplicity of language. For instance, how do you get enough teachers for each locality? In Edo State alone, there are close to 50 different linguistic groups. Does it mean that if the foreign technology, whether transferred should be domesticated and indigenized to conform to the norms of 50 groups in Edo alone, 50 or more teachers should be sought? They are not adequate for this task. Everyone wants the white collar jobs. This is the major problem confronting agricultural production in Nigeria. Hence, the resort to 'produce and eat' practice without any consideration for export management. This is perhaps why (Bamgbose, 1991, p.53) puts it thus:

It has been shown that even where languages are not same, some form of 'semi-communication' across languages is possible.

However, only few of these languages are so similar to warrant this condition to succeed. Apart from the major languages, Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo, the remaining linguistic groups have not done much in transmitting the foreign ideas, concepts and technology in agriculture to the masses in the language that they can understand. But one point must be noted, since the agricultural growth and technology achieved by countries such as Japan, China and Germany was not based on a widespread dissemination of English, popularly known as global language but as a result of the indigenization of the technology in those countries mentioned and the translation of the processes into terms that the ordinary factory hand can understand, then Nigeria's case should not be an exception.

It must also be added that budgetary allocation to agriculture and agricultural training should be released in time to ensure proper training of agricultural personnel so as to fast track the implementation of the Agricultural Transformation Agenda of the Federal government. A radical viable language education which incorporates the function of our local languages would then have tremendous impact on this move. Once we give a pride of place to the indigenous languages in the dissemination of agro-induced information to farmers, it would spur enthusiasm which would lead to growth and development in the sector.

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Ulysses: Lost Homosocial Desire in Ambiguous Identity

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Abstract—This paper aims to analyze the homosocial desire and the lack of it in two protagonists and heroes of James Joyce in his *Ulysses*. Unlike the fame of this novel and the extensive research done on this novel, the theoretical relevance of Homosociality in *Ulysses* has not been widely discussed. This is mostly due to the fact that although, the theory first became popular in the 1990s, it is still a relatively new perspective. This study analyses various views of the social bonds and private lives beside their effects on social behaviors – to determine the reasons of lack of homosociality and the ways in which it is regained – in two Joyce protagonists. Furthermore, this study will seek to argue that if the characters endeavour logically to solve the problems in their lives and mind, their homosociality will be boosted. For example, according to the plot of the story, if Stephen and Bloom as the main characters find their paternity and the root of fatherhood, their relationships and associations with other males in society will be changed accordingly. In order to achieve the mentioned results, the theory of homosociality which was coined for the first time by Jean Lipman-Blumen in 1976 and became popular by Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick, will be applied to the novel.

Index Terms—homosociality, masculinity, paternity, triangle love, male-male relationships

I. INTRODUCTION

James Joyce's controversial novel, *Ulysses* is the story of male social relationships particularly between two Irish men on a particular day (June 16, 1904) in Dublin, Ireland, as they wander around from place to place from early morning to late at night. There is an obvious show of male dominance in this novel while the dominant presence of males is also conspicuous, particularly in relationships outside the home. (Other than Molly Brown, the wife of Leopold Bloom, one of the two major characters, the rest are male.)

This novel, unlike any other novels, concentrates on two characters - Leopold Bloom and Stephen Dedalus - as its major characters. Stephen and Bloom are both males who encounter problems and issues in the social setting through their interaction with other minor male characters who lead the motifs and themes of novel to their accomplishment. For the above two reasons, it was decided that the theory of homosociality would be a suitable analytical tool in a study of *Ulysses*.

Joyce saw *Ulysses* as the confluence of his two previous works. From *Dubliners* Joyce borrowed the fatalistic and naturalistic depictions of a gritty, urban centre and on the other hand, he took advantage of the protagonist from *A portrait of the Artist as a Young man*, Stephen Dedalus, in his interplay of relationships between two major characters of the novel.

Ulysses is widely regarded as the most revolutionary literary effort of the twentieth century, if only for James Joyce's stream of consciousness technique. In his efforts to create a modern hero, Joyce returned to classical myth only to deconstruct a Greek warrior into a parody of the *Wandering Jew*. Joyce's hero, Leopold Bloom, must suffer the emotional traumas of betrayal and loss from both society and his wife, Molly, while combating the anti-Semitism of 1904 Dublin. In place of Greek stoicism and power, Joyce presents a flawed and endearing human being. (<http://www.vahidnab.com/ulysses.htm>)

While Bloom is the major character of the work, Joyce spends considerable time focusing on Stephen Dedalus, the protagonist of his first work, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*. It is through Stephen, that Joyce is able to debate the contentious religious and political issues that dominated the novella (*A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*). Joyce, as a non-conformist continues his argument from *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* in *Ulysses*, that the Roman Catholic Church's structure facilitated corruption and more generally contributed to the alienation and the rot of the human soul as opposed to its uplift.

II. METHODOLOGY

Therefore, thematically similar to Joyce's previous works, *Ulysses* examines the relationship between the modern man and his myth and history, focusing on contemporary questions of Irish political and cultural independence, the effects of organized religion on the soul and the cultural and moral decay produced by economic development and heightened urbanization. While Joyce was writing the epic work, there were serious doubts as to whether *Ulysses* would be completed. Midway through his writing, Joyce had the first eleven eye operations to salvage his ever-worsening

eyesight. At one point, a disappointed Joyce cast the bulk of his manuscript into the fire, though Nora Barnacle (his wife) immediately rescued it.

As it comes from its definition homosociality is the associations and bonds of same-sex people in the social environment. Homosocial desire in its normal route evokes a kind of homophobia, which can be beneficial to the person in charge. To have the fear of being observed carefully by others (same-sex people) may encourage the members of a group to pay attention to their life much better than before. And this attention may influence them to be socially attentive and more active. However, contrary to this definition, we find that both the main characters are far removed from the defined stereotype, and as a result of this are ignored and considered as outsiders.

Ulysses, due to its universal reputation has been analysed from various angles by many critics and scholars since its publication, using most of the literary, psychological, and other theories. Nonetheless this paper will just focus on the social relationships of the two main characters, Stephen Dedalus and Leopold Bloom, with the latter receiving most attention due to his dominance in the novel. This paper aims to indicate the reasons of masculine aloofness and social faults engendered in the two main characters in an effort to show their social relationships with other males and their effect on each other.

Despite the extensive attention that has been paid to *Ulysses* by many as mentioned above, the social impact of the characters on each other and its effect on their private life and future thoughts have been somehow ignored or played down. In this paper, the characters are analyzed from different angles. The centre of this analysis will be Stephen Dedalus and Leopold Bloom encountering other male characters that have influence on them and their situation in society. In one of the crucial parts for this novel, female character Molly Bloom, Leopold Bloom's wife comes under focus as one component of a love triangle that also includes Blazes Boylan and Bloom himself. As Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick explains in her theory, triangle love plays a significant role in social relationships and its impact on male members, since this triangle creates a kind of competition for the favour of the target member, who usually is a female.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In the first step of this analysis, Stephen is the focus as he has come from *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* and carries his ideas and behavior from that novel; he brings along a somehow different attitude, looking for a person representative of fatherhood characteristics, which he has not found in his biological father. Then, the attention shifts from Stephen to Bloom, while Stephen is still kept in the picture. Bloom is analysed, both based on his friends around him, his colleagues and walking friends and on his private life and the males who influence his private life dramatically. Like the novel that has been divided into three periods, this study will divide these two character analyses into three different parts: morning, afternoon, and evening (night).

Stephen Dedalus

"Touch me. Soft eyes. Soft soft soft hand. I am lonely here. O, touch me soon, now. What is that word known to all men? I am quite here alone. Sad too. Touch, touch me" (Stephen, 70).

Stephen Dedalus enters *Ulysses* as a young medical student introduced from the novel *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* in which he is the protagonist. Therefore, there is ample evidence of his behavioral and social background and we can partially expect in advance the sociality and bonds he is going to have with the people around him and what reactions he will receive. In both *Ulysses* and *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* is a recall of James Joyce's biography and Stephen Dedalus is an almost bleakly drawn version of Joyce himself from childhood to youngster. Stephen is twenty-two years old in the beginning of *Ulysses*, i.e. one year after coming back from Paris to Dublin. The first three chapters of the novel are allocated to Stephen, to his dwelling and career.

In the previous novel (*A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*) Stephen was in solitude and had many questions in his mind about his religion, education, country, life, etc. This bewilderment makes him leave his country, Ireland in quest of his independence in thinking and his ambitions. He settles in Paris for a while but when informed about his mother's illness and near death, he returns to Ireland to be near his mother before she dies. So the time he is back in Dublin is described in *Ulysses*.

The characteristics that Stephen brings from *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* are boosted. They are expanded into a kind of arrogance and lost identity that causes him internal suffering. In the other words, he chiefly exists within his own world of opinions that is, his actions and behavior in his world intend to potentially detach him from others and from the real world. These features lead him to wander in life and force him to be impatient in almost all parts of *Ulysses*. This occurs in a way that his teenage aloofness makes him quite weak and fragile in front of others that leads them to take advantage of him and tease him.

—After all, I should think you are able to free yourself. You are your own master, it seems to me.

—I am a servant of two masters, Stephen said, an English and an Italian.

—Italian? Haines said.

A crazy queen, old and jealous. Kneel down before me.

—And a third, Stephen said, there is who wants me for odd jobs.

—Italian? Haines said again. What do you mean?

—The imperial British state, Stephen answered, his colour rising, and the holy Roman catholic and apostolic church (28, 29).

One of the most important problems that occupies Stephen's mind throughout the course of the novel is his interactions with his compulsory housemates Buck Mulligan and Haines (Mulligan's friend from England) in a way that Stephen calls them usurpers. Even they abuse and exploit Stephen's weakness in such a way that Mulligan wants the house keys when Stephen wants to leave the house, which is very painful for Stephen. His lack of comfort and sociality with Mulligan and Haines becomes a sort of homophobia and he cannot speak frankly with them about his problem with them. Stephen is not comfortable with Haines who is a free loader, paying for neither rent nor food. This discomforting situation makes Stephen restrain himself from saying what is in his heart and at the same time leads to Mulligan and Haines making fun of him, teasing him and treating him like a child:

Buck Mulligan suddenly linked his arm in Stephen's and walked with him round the tower...

—It's not fair to tease you like that, Kinch, is it? he said kindly. God knows you have more spirit than any of them (8).

Stephen shows such weakness in front of Mulligan that the latter behaves rudely towards him and mocks his family issues and members, including his mother. Mulligan's behaviour towards Stephen's mother saddens Stephen in such a way that sets him thinking of most of the time about what Mulligan says and about his behaviour. Mulligan calls his mother's death a beastly death because of Stephen's refusal to kneel and pray for his mother at her deathbed and spreads it around to others and that annoys Stephen. However, he is totally incapable of uttering anything in defence against Mulligan's words, which are very painful for him:

—You were making tea, Stephen said, and went across the landing to get more hot water. Your mother and some visitor came out of the drawing room. She asked you who was in your room.

—Yes? Buck Mulligan said. What did I say? I forget.

—You said, Stephen answered, O, it's only Dedalus whose mother is beastly dead" (10).

On the other hand, when Stephen is fully sober among his friends he takes solitude and prefers not to speak, share his ideas with them or involve himself in their discussions. However, when he does speak in these groups he speaks very arrogantly and does not like take kindly to those who disagree with him and acts in such a way that resents others, especially the elders. Furthermore, when he is sober he is into thinking about his own aloofness and the sins that this aloofness has brought him from his childhood up to his youngster and young adulthood days. This resentment influences others to be rude to him or to jokingly make fun of him, for example, when Mulligan mockingly applauds Stephen in front of other friends in the library or ignores Stephen's theory about Shakespeare and art.

However, when Stephen does emerge from his private world, which makes him aloof and distant from others, he starts to make social and homosocial relationships with his friends more deeply. However, this does not happen except when he is drunk, during which time he becomes a totally new person with a new personality, making himself busy to drink and occupy his mind with drunkenness and this drunkenness makes him involve himself with his friends, far away from thinking of his problems or other issues that usually occupy him. He sings with others, laughs with others and spends good times with them.

STEPHEN: (Mincingly) I love you, sir darling. Speak you englishman tongue for double entente cordiale. O yes, monloup. How much cost? Waterloo. Watercloset. (He ceases suddenly and holds up a forefinger)

BELLA: (Laughing) Omelette ...

THE WHORES: (Laughing) Encore! Encore!

STEPHEN: Mark me. I dreamt of a watermelon (758).

This indicates that Stephen has the ability and potentiality of being normal, acceptable company as and when he emerges from his own dark and ambiguous world. However, these associations and occasions of happiness are very temporary for him since he will become sober again in some hours and will retreat again into his previous private personality and behaviour. This personality, adapted from his childhood alienates him from the company of the others leads to his solitude and unhappiness. The lack of homosociality in Stephen's behaviour is somehow because of his mental obsessions that psychologically and emotionally imprison him.

By a careful attention in his behaviour from his childhood in *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* to his young adulthood in *Ulysses*, we can trace back all this obsessions and his weakness when encountering the male individuals in his family, especially his father as the head of the family. This is in such a way that in his family in his childhood a lot of limitations regarding religion and relationships were posed for him by his father, who somehow has failed with his only son, Stephen. This distance from his father in childhood prevents Stephen from understanding the meaning of father from the beginning and this lack of understanding causes him to have ambiguous interactions with his outer world male relationships especially among his friends. This is proven at the end of the novel when Stephen decides not to go to his house anymore because of the presence of Mulligan and Haines.

Simon Dedalus, Stephen's father, unlike Stephen himself has good enough homosociality among his friends to make himself a socially popular character in a way that most of his pals enjoy being in his company. He is almost always energetic and full of fun; he sings and makes a lot of jokes and makes his mates busy with him. Furthermore, he is a talented singer and is good at telling funny stories. He once used to be wealthy person but this wealth did not stay long with him although, that did not prevent him from having a jolly time with his friends. This is the significant reason why he is ever popular among his friends and is very much loathed in the family because he spends all his money on his fun and mates while his family faces financial difficulty. Stephen also does not like his father and sees him only as a

biological father since he does not have anything to be proud of his father due to Simon's bad behaviour and his harsh discipline for his children.

This lack of connection between father and son for Stephen brings several psychic obsessions and problems. This issue affects Stephen in such a way that leads him to think of a new approach about Shakespeare's *Hamlet* regarding Son and father relationship. He poses numerous questions regarding this issue in most of the discussion forums and mainly in his mind even though it is quite funny for his audience; however, he insists on his idea very strongly. Therefore, from this relationship (Stephen and his father) it can be concluded that his father has hurt him badly emotionally and psychologically.

If his father had had a suitable relationship and association with his son from the beginning, Stephen might have had suitable relationships with his peers in society as well; be free from any homophobia which has isolated him in solitude and led to his aloofness beside making him undeniably weak and vulnerable for others to mock and make fun of him. This lies at the heart of his bewilderment in his life and environment in the real world while he is sober, although, as mentioned, not so when he is drunk and not really in full control of himself and is distanced from the reality of his obsessions.

The transformation of Stephen's character from one extreme to another can be traced back to *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*. Being brought up in a strict Catholic family, Stephen primarily subscribes to an absolute faith in the morals of the church. As a teenager, this faith causes him to be pulled in two opposite extremes, both of which can be destructive. At first, he falls into the extreme of sin, repeatedly sleeping with prostitutes and deliberately turning his back on religion. Though Stephen sins wilfully, he is always aware that he acts in violation of his religion. Then, when Father Arnall (character in *A portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*) in a prompts him to return to Catholicism, he flies to the other extreme, becoming a strict, near fanatical model of religious devotion and obedience. Eventually, however, Stephen realizes that both of these lifestyles – the completely sinful and the completely devout – are extremes that have been false and harmful.

He does not intend to lead an entirely debauched life, but also rejects austere Catholicism because he feels that it does not permit him the full experience of being human. Stephen ultimately reaches a decision to embrace life and celebrate humanity after seeing a young girl wading at a beach. To him, the girl is a symbol of pure goodness and of life lived to the fullest. These doubts lead him to be far from reality about his religion; and this distance prompts him to refuse to pray for his mother at her deathbed as dictated by catholic traditions. This ignorance makes him more hateful of some people such as who Mulligan utters at the beginning of the novel:

—The aunt thinks you killed your mother, he said. That's why she won't let me have anything to do with you.

—Someone killed her, Stephen said gloomily.

—You could have knelt down, damn it, Kinch, when your dying mother asked you, Buck Mulligan said. I'm hyper-borean as much as you. But to think of your mother begging you with her last breath to kneel down and pray for her. And you refused. There is something sinister in you ... (5).

This obsession makes him accuse himself of being the murderer of his mother, which hurts him more and more. Even though he admits to his wrong behaviour with his mother, he still persists with his arrogance and will not admit to this misgiving to others.

Leopold Bloom

Leopold Bloom as the other main character in *Ulysses* is introduced in Chapter Four and remains present in all the other fifteen chapters which are allocated to him and his wanderings in the city of Dublin for the day and night of June 16, 1904. In this novel, Bloom functions in parallel with Homer's Odysseus but as a modern character of the twentieth century. His personality and mind are so elaborately described that Bloom can surely be one of the most detailed characters in literature. Bloom is a thirty-eight-year-old advertising canvasser and a Jew. Yet the social marginalization of Bloom is not simply one-sided. Bloom is clear-sighted and mostly unsentimental when it comes to his male peers. He does not like to drink often or to gossip, and though he is almost always friendly, he is not sorry to be excluded from their circles in the daily discussions and associations.

Bloom's comfort with the physical world - unlike Stephen who lives in his personal and inner world - also manifests itself in his sexuality, an aspect mostly absent from Stephen's character. There is ample evidence of Bloom's sexuality - from his desire for voyeurism and female underclothing to his masturbation and erotic correspondence - while Stephen seems sexually inexperienced and celibate. Furthermore, other disparities between the two men further outline Bloom's character; where Stephen is depressive and somewhat dramatic, Bloom is almost mature and level-headed. Bloom possesses the ability to cheer himself up and to decline practically to think about depressing subjects.

Two emotional crises infect Bloom's jolly demeanour throughout *Ulysses* – the collapse of his male family line and the infidelity of his wife, Molly. The untimely deceases of both Bloom's father (by suicide) and only son, Rudy (days after his birth), cause Bloom to feel deeply lonely and powerless. Bloom enjoys a brief break from these emotions during his union with Stephen in the latter part of the novel - which will be discussed in the following sections. It can be gradually recognized over the course of *Ulysses* that the first crisis of family line is related to the second crisis of marital infidelity: the Blooms' intimacy and attempts at procreation have broken down since the death of their only son eleven years ago. Bloom's feedback on Molly's decision to look for sex elsewhere (in Blazes Boylan) is quite complex.

Bloom adores the fact that other men appreciate his wife, and he is generally a passive and accepting person in this situation. Bloom is clear-sighted enough to comprehend, though, that Blazes Boylan is a paltry replacement for himself, and he eventually satisfies himself by re-contextualizing the problem. Boylan is only one of many, and it is on Molly that Bloom should focus his own energies instead of the others. In fact, it is this ability to change a viewpoint by sympathizing with another viewpoint that renders Bloom heroic. His kind-heartedness is obvious throughout – he is generous to animals and people in-need, his compassion extends even to a woman in labour. Bloom's masculinity is recurrently called into play by other characters; hence, the second irony of *Ulysses* is that Bloom to some extent is also feminine. And it is exactly his fluid, androgynous capacity to sympathize with people and things of all sorts – and to be both a symbolic father and a mother to Stephen – that makes him the hero of the novel (Symbolic father will be discussed in the following sections).

By this quite extended introduction regarding Bloom, this paper seeks to unearth the reasons that lead him to be excluded from other male mates and the reason he is questioned on a lack of masculinity by his peers in society. In order to analyse this lack of homosociality and to somehow understand Stephen's weakness, this paper starts from the beginning and focuses on his behaviour in the house in the early morning in Chapter Four, which describes his personal and intimate behaviour at home in front of his wife Molly.

On quietly creaky boots he went up the staircase to the hall, paused by the bedroom door. She might like something tasty. Thin bread and butter she likes in the morning. Still perhaps: once in a way (Bloom, 76).

Bloom indicates his femininity in the house where he prepares breakfast for his wife and serves her in bed. It is clear that femininity and masculinity are both opposites and an increase in one causes the other's decrease. The same happens here for Bloom with full desire for femininity instead of masculinity, which prevents him from enjoying the company of males. Bloom is very careful not to make any noise while he is making Molly's and his own breakfast. Then he brings her breakfast and her letters; one of the letters is from Blazes Boylan, Molly's colleague in the song industry, in which he indicates that he would like to come and visit Molly about their singing career, creating a quite assurance in Bloom about their sexual affair which is going to happen that afternoon at 4:30.

However, his weakness towards Molly prevents him from arguing about it. He leaves home for work but after closing the door he realizes that he has left the keys in his previous trousers. So he cannot go back home since Molly is sleeping and he does not dare to disturb her sleep. Thus, like the keyless, Stephen, Bloom wanders the whole day in the streets of Dublin. Therefore, this mentioned femininity and lack of masculinity would make others distance themselves from him in the course of his day's wandering. Keys in this novel play quite a significant role as a sign of both Stephen's and Bloom's wanderings. Stephen has left his keys for Mulligan and does not intend to go home anymore; on the other hand, Bloom has forgotten the keys, which leads him not to think of going home until night.

Furthermore, there is one more key, which makes Bloom wander and it is the key of the advertisement, which he wants to put in this work but is lost. He looks for it, from his office to the library where he encounters first eye contact with Stephen. Therefore, these keys are the issue that draws Stephen and Bloom close to each other as they need each other somehow in a way that they do not realize this desire of having each other in a close relationship like father and son. It is a relationship that satisfies both of them, even though this satisfaction is very temporary since they have got to depart from each other at the end of the night (this issue will be closely analysed in the fatherhood section).

Leaving the house, Bloom is dressed all in black like Stephen - however Stephen is in black because of his mother's death - since he wants to attend his friend Paddy Dignam's funeral with other male friends, including Stephen's father, Simon Dedalus. The first signs of a lack of homosociality in Bloom appears when he is with his friends on the way to the cemetery. Like Stephen, Bloom is in his own world and most of the novel is filled with his thinking and monologues in his mind. This speaking-with-himself leaves him in solitude even though he attempts to win a chance to show himself in the group. Bloom's outsider status is exposed even in the stilted congeniality of the cramped carriage.

It is not quite clear how much Bloom recognizes his solitude and exclusion in this circle. Power and Dedalus (Bloom's friends) are exceptionally brief in their comments to Bloom, though Cunningham (Bloom's other friend) does make an effort to express his compassion. Still, the conversation is triangular and Bloom devotes most of his time thinking of ways to jump into the conversation. His endeavour to be sociable is more of a faux pas than anything else and his comments paint him as a non-Catholic. Moreover, his religion causes him to be rejected by some people as he is a Jew in Ireland, a problem that adds to his solitude and his loss of desire for homosociality:

—Mark my words, Mr Dedalus, he said. England is in the hands of the jews. In all the highest places: her finance, her press. And they are the signs of a nation's decay. Wherever they gather they eat up the nation's vital strength. I have seen it coming these years. As sure as we are standing here the jew merchants are already at their work of destruction. Old England is dying (47, 48).

Chapter Seven is the first chapter in which Stephen and Bloom actually cross paths (at the very end of the chapter). From this beginning it is possible to understand a sort of foreshadowing about Bloom's attention to Stephen and Stephen's indifference to Bloom. Remarkably, Stephen ignores Bloom, while Bloom pays attention to Stephen's newer boots and, with displeasure, that Stephen has muck on his shoes and is leading the way to the pub. Bloom's and Stephen's separate but equal time in the chapter offers contrast between their appearances in the Freeman offices (where Bloom works and where Stephen has attended to have his school boss's letter published).

Bloom is unsuccessful in his task to secure the Keyes's (advertising customer) advertisement for three months, while Stephen does well in getting Deasy's letter printed. Stephen has the centre of the room, physically and symbolically, while Bloom remains unseen on the margins, bumped more than once. Bloom is humorously referred to as a representative for the art of advertising, while Stephen is treated like a near-equal by the men and is even offered the chance to write for the paper. We also notice the two men's contradictory attitudes to the domain of public expression. Bloom, as we have seen, has a pragmatic approach to the art of writing, oratory, and advertising as his career.

—I just wanted to say, he said. Ireland, they say, has the honour of being the only country which never persecuted the Jews. Do you know that? No. And do you know why?

He frowned sternly on the bright air.

—Why, sir? Stephen asked, beginning to smile.

—Because she never let them in, Mr Deasy said solemnly (51)

Moreover, when it comes to discussing religion, Bloom feels his loneliness again. He is a Jew and lives among the Christians. When the argument between Bloom and Citizen (one of the individuals in the pub) arises, no one cares about him and this feeling makes him defend himself against Citizen. When Citizen's anti-Semitism emerges, Bloom is forced to assume a heroic role in defending himself. The antics of the aptly named Citizen, force Bloom to show some masculinity - from which he suffers a shortage of through most of the novel - at the same time that he must define himself as something other than an unknown nomad. By defending his Jewishness and his simultaneous Irish citizenship, Bloom efficiently throws off his "No man" status.

Bloom self-confidently preserves himself as an honest person before presenting Citizen a brief catalogue of Jews who have made noteworthy contributions to European and Irish culture. When Bloom notifies Citizen that his own God (Christ) was also a Jew, Citizen becomes furious and as Bloom exits the pub triumphant, Citizen follows behind and throws an empty biscuit tin at Bloom's head.

—Mendelssohn was a Jew and Karl Marx and Mercadante and Spinoza. And the Saviour was a Jew and his father was a Jew. Your God.

—He had no father, says Martin. That'll do now. Drive ahead.

—Whose God? says the citizen.

—Well, his uncle was a Jew, says he. Your God was a Jew. Christ was a Jew like me.

Gob, the citizen made a plunge back into the shop.

—By Jesus, says he, I'll brain that bloody Jewman for using the holy name.

By Jesus, I'll crucify him so I will. Give us that biscuitbox here (497, 498).

Here, Bloom's outsider status in social issues is obvious one more time and this makes him being resented even more. Therefore, like Stephen, Bloom is affected by the issue of religion in homosocial circles, which makes him wonder about the reason for his exclusion from his peers and whether it is only because of religious differences. So once more, Bloom sullenly feels the solitude and the loneliness.

A crucial issue, which is quite significant, is the social relationship between Bloom and other female characters in the novel. He has a pen pal in Martha Clifford, whom Bloom is very attracted to even without meeting. On the other hand, in the street he visits a woman, Josie Breen, who used to be his girlfriend in his younger days. She speaks with great passion to Bloom and condemns a husband gone crazy. Furthermore, Bloom has a kind of sympathy for females rather than men. Having visited Breen, he decides to visit Mina Purefoy (one of their acquaintances) during her labour, having been admitted to hospital for three days. This femininity, once again, confirms the lack of masculinity in Bloom, which reduces his sociality with his same-sex peers in society. This lack of masculinity as mentioned earlier in this paper is foreshadowed in Chapter Four in the house of Bloom where he serves his wife breakfast and is very obedient husband. As such, this paper recaps the idea of Bloom's masculinity being the opposite of femininity; that if one of these desires increases the other one will surely decrease proportionally.

Sense of Fatherhood

Men attempt to improve their position in masculine social hierarchies, using such 'markers of manhood' as occupational achievement, wealth, power and status, physical prowess, and sexual achievement (Kimmel 1994, p. 129; Turner 2001).

Based on Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick's approach about homosociality and the above cited idea, males are into caring for their bonds and behaviours with each other and like to promote their position in these associations. This happens because there is a kind of observation by the other members for their behaviour as mentioned earlier. The same happens in this novel when the feeling of fatherhood for Bloom and the sense of need for a real father for Stephen become apparent from the early parts, albeit indirectly. Fathers mainly intend to see their children progress in their lives. They always pay special attention to their kids' behaviours so that if a fault occurs they are corrected or taught to correct themselves properly. This is a most pleasurable feeling especially in male children since the aim is to train them with masculinity features.

As mentioned in a previous paragraph, the sense of paternity is obvious from the early chapters of the novel. Therefore, at its most basic level, *Ulysses* can be counted as a novel about Stephen's search for a symbolic father and Bloom's search for a son. These senses come from their early years of life when Stephen lost his relationship with his father and Bloom saw his father commit suicide and a young child's death, which affected them for the rest of their

lives. In this respect, the plot parallels Telemachus's (Odysseus's son) search for Odysseus, and vice versa, in Homer's *Odyssey*: "Paternity may be a legal fiction. Who is the father of any son that any son should love him or he any son?" (299)

Bloom's quest for a son stems at least in part from his necessity to strengthen his identity and heritage through progeny (one of the other issues regarding homosociality as the individuals of this circle attempt to take advantage of the others to promote their own position in society. Stephen already has got a biological father, Simon Dedalus, but considers him a father "only in 'flesh' not more than that. Stephen feels that his own ability to mature and become a father himself (of art or children) is constrained by Simon's criticism and lack of understanding, found in both *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* and *Ulysses*. Therefore, Stephen's exploration and search includes finding a symbolic father who will, in turn, permit Stephen himself to be a father. Both men, in fact, are searching for fatherhood as a way to strengthen their own identities: "If the father who has not a son be not a father can the son who has not a father be a son?" (300).

Stephen in contrast is more cognizant of his search for paternity than Bloom, and he mentally persists through several important motifs with which to recognize fatherhood. Stephen's thinking about the Holy Trinity involves, on the one hand, Church doctrines that endorse the unity of the Father and the Son and, on the other hand, the works of heretics that challenge this doctrine by arguing that God created the rest of the Trinity, and that each subsequent creation is inherently dissimilar. Furthermore, it is found that Stephen's second motif includes his Hamlet theory, which strives to demonstrate that Shakespeare characterized himself through the ghost father in Hamlet, but also - through his translation of his life into art - became the father of his own father, of his life, and "of all his race." This theory about Hamlet is posed by Stephen from the beginning of the novel (from first chapter), where he wishes to prove a point to Haines and Mulligan (his compulsory housemates) but he did not receive any reaction from them:

"father, Stephen said, battling against hopelessness, is a necessary evil. He wrote the play in the months that followed his father's death. If you hold that he, a greying man with two marriageable daughters, with thirty-five years of life, *nel mezzo del cammin di nostra vita*, with fifty of experience, is the beardless undergraduate from Wittenberg then you must hold that his seventy-year-old mother is the lustful queen. No. The corpse of Shakespeare does not walk the night. From hour to hour it rots and rots. He rests, disarmed of fatherhood, having devised that mystical estate upon his son. Boccaccio's Calandrino was the first and last man who felt himself with child. Fatherhood, in the sense of conscious begetting, is unknown to man. It is a mystical estate, an apostolic succession, from only begetter to only begotten. On that mystery and not on the Madonna, which the cunning Italian intellect flung to the mob of Europe, the church is founded and founded irremovably because it is founded, like the world, macro and microcosm, upon the void - upon uncertainty, upon unlikelihood. *Amor matris*, subjective and objective genitive, may be the only true thing in life. Paternity may be a legal fiction. Who is the father of any son that any son should love him or he any son? (298, 299).

The Holy Trinity and Hamlet motifs strengthen our wisdom of Stephen's and Bloom's parallel quests for fatherhood. These searches seem to end in Bloom's kitchen, with Bloom distinguishing "the future" in Stephen and Stephen distinguishing "the past" in Bloom (Chapter Sixteen). Though combined as father and son in this moment, the men will soon part ways, and their fatherhood searches will unquestionably carry on, for *Ulysses* demonstrates that the search for paternity or fatherhood is a quest for a lasting appearance of self. Therefore, they depart from each other to keep on their wanderings in their lives.

Bloom and Stephen depart; however, they are happy in their minds from this temporary association since this has been, somewhat, the first homosociality for them. Bloom gets positive energy from this bond and tries to think much more positively about the affair that his wife has had with Blazes Boylan and decides to replace his divorce idea with continuing his relationship with his wife. On the other hand, Stephen, after departing, comes to himself and strives to think and decide for himself unlike before, when others decided for him. He decides not to go home since he does not like to live with Mulligan and Haines anymore.

In concluding this part, we come to this result that one other reason for the lack of homosocial desire in both Stephen and Bloom can be traced back to their feelings for paternity and fatherhood. If both Stephen and Bloom fulfil this desire and become father, they will not occupy their own minds any more with the issue of fatherhood and kindness for each other; they might surely gain or regain the desire of homosociality. Besides, they may feel more positive and more energetic in their life, having removed an obsession that has played on their minds and affected their daily lives.

Triangle Love: Split-object triangle

The triangle is useful as a figure by which the "commonsense" of our intellectual tradition schematizes erotic relations, and because it allows us to condense in juxtaposition with that folk-perception several somewhat different streams of recent thought (Sedgwick, *Between Men: English Literature and Male Homosocial Desire*, 25).

A love triangle based on dictionary definition as its easiest definition "is usually a romantic relationship involving three people. While it can refer to two people independently romantically linked with a third, it usually implies that each of the three people has some kind of relationship to the other two. The relationships can be friendships, romantic, or familial (often siblings), and often trigger jealousy and hatred between the rivals involved

Two main forms of love triangle have been distinguished: "there is the rivalrous triangle, where the lover is competing with a rival for the love of the beloved, and the split-object triangle, where a lover has split their attention between two love objects". The latter one is very applicable to *Ulysses*, where Molly, Bloom's wife, shares her attention

and feelings between her husband Bloom and Blazes Boylan, her manager for her upcoming concert in Belfast. In a love triangle especially if it is the kind of split-object triangle the target is mainly female, as is the case with a rivalrous triangle.

In the rivalrous triangle, on the other hand, the director of this circle is Molly, a female who directs the mentioned relationships with her husband and her manager simultaneously. In this situation, the person who sees the most damage is her husband, Bloom. In a wife-husband relationship normally all feelings and attention, especially the sexual one should be for each other, but it does not happen in *Ulysses*. When this relationship deviates from the norm, abnormal outcomes can be expected. This lack of sharing in feeling causes Bloom as the main character of the novel to behave abnormally.

From the death of Bloom and Molly's first child eleven years ago, this couple had lost their sexual closeness, thus creating a void that they fill in other ways: Molly engages in a new sexual relationship with her manager, Blazes Boylan; Bloom's solution is in voyeurism and masturbation. This voyeurism happens several times in the novel, even from the early part when he goes to buy kidney for his breakfast and sees a lady at the butcher's, and tries to follow her to have a glimpse of her butt. For Molly, the sexual relationship with Boylan which is going to happen at 4:30 pm is obvious to Bloom from the early morning through the letter from Boylan to Molly.

The Molly-Boylan relationship has a negative effect on Bloom's mind and behaviour similar to the feeling from his lack of fatherhood. Bloom's lack of homosociality stems from the point that he knows his wife is going to have an affair with her manager. But he cannot defend his spousal rights and even when he sees Boylan several times in various settings, instead of confronting him, he tries to hide himself from Boylan because he does not have enough courage and social desire to stop him when he has these numerous opportunities to do so. One positive effect of Boylan on Bloom though, is how the man's relationship with his wife affects his future thoughts on Molly and their relationship and what follows.

It appears at the end of the novel when Bloom changes his idea about divorce by remembering the days that he has spent with Molly and the glimpses of love that he has for Molly. He kisses her butt and sleeps with the idea to change his behaviour and point of view regarding Molly and their life together. He calls Molly to prepare breakfast for him and bring it to his bed, which surprises Molly but she accept sit as well when she thinks of the past and concludes that nobody can love her more than Bloom. This shows that Boylan brings a kind of competitive feeling to Bloom. Boylan is very handsome and attractive to Molly, which disappoints Bloom at the beginning. However, by considering the past and their love, Bloom tries to be better than Boylan in a way not to let Molly think about Boylan. This rivalry makes Bloom regain his masculinity towards his wife at home and from then on, which is very promising and one of the positive results of this novel. On the other hand, Molly also reassesses her relationship with her husband and realizes that Bloom is better than any other man to love or be loved by:

I thought to myself afterwards it must be real love if a man gives up his life for her that way for nothing I suppose there are a few men like that left its hard to believe in it though unless it really happened to me the majority of them with not a particle of love in their natures to find two people like that nowadays full up of each other that would feel the same way as you do they're usually a bit foolish in the head his father must have been a bit queer to go and poison himself after her still poor old man (Molly, 1021).

Moreover, a general idea in homosociality is that the members of such circles intend others to focus on their target (like wife) and centre discussion on the target. An example is when we see that Bloom is very pleased that the others like his friends in the pub or in other settings ask about Molly's career, future acts and her health. When Bloom comes across Molly's girlfriend from the old days, who is now nearly old who speaks about Molly and wants Bloom to remember her to Molly, Bloom is very proud of his wife. He is very proud of Molly when others speak about her very passionately, which affects Bloom positively since his peers who might have been rivals for his wife – Molly is very beautiful and attractive even in her adult years – speak about her very positively. We can therefore conclude that if Bloom had enough homosociality he might have stopped Molly and Boylan's affair. However, on the other hand, not only Boylan but also other males around Bloom bring him hope about the future and make him change his perspective on his wife, his life and his masculinity. All of which are promising for the increase of his homosocial desire.

IV. CONCLUSION

To close this research, *Ulysses* is the story of Bloom and indirectly Stephen who are wandering one whole day from 8:00 Am till 3:00 AM for their lost desires; however, at the end nothing special happens for none of them except changing their minds perspectives to people in around. It is noteworthy that most of this novel occurs in the minds of these two people and this why the result of the story just occur mostly in their minds as well. Stephen and Bloom start their days separately from early morning by argument and discussion regarding different issues with housemates for Stephen and in mind for Bloom. Then they each other for the first time at the door of library accidentally that Bloom is attracted by Stephen very in minor. Then this attraction goes deep when they meet each other in the hospital where Bloom has attended to visit one of his old friends' who is on labor for three days. After that Bloom's fatherhood feeling raises and makes him to follow Stephen where ever he goes to protect him from social damages.

The above research was done based on male to male homosociality theory of Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick. I analyzed to most important characters of the novel 'Ulysses' young Stephen Dedalus and adult Leopold Bloom. In order to

accomplish this success different angles of these two characters were concentrated. For Stephen as the first person to analyze, first his relationships with his compulsory male housemates, then in the other social settings like library analyzed. On the other hand for Leopold Bloom, First his masculinity at home then his homosocial desire with his male friends in the carriage on the way cemetery for his friend's funeral went under analysis. Furthermore, fatherhood as the second step of this research discussed about Bloom's query for son and Stephen's query for a symbolic father.

At the end of this part we came to this conclusion that fatherhood issue is very important for them regarding regaining homosocial desire if they can get to this must. Finally the triangle love_ which has two branches: rivalrous Triangle and Spilt-Object Triangle_ analyzed to indicate that how lack how homosocial desire cause Bloom to stop defending him even about his own life and wife.

Finally, we comes to this conclusion from this article that lack of homosociality for men may cause them to be defeated in the society and this defeat makes them to create a virtual world in their mind and nominate some characters as their alter egos to speak. Moreover, lack of homosocial desire leads other males to be rivals for their wives as well according to Bloom's story, even though, this rivalry made Bloom to have some changes in his mind toward his own masculinity, wife and their mutual relationship in the future. On the other hand, the lack of this desire of homosociality causes a person to make a lot of problems in their sexual life as well.

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A Closer Look at Different Aspects of Private Speech in SLA

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Abstract—Private speech is defined as the self-talk which many children in particular engage in. It leads to the inner speech that more mature individuals use to control thought and behavior. The claim in private speech is that some learners who undergo silent period engage in private conversations with themselves, which prepares them for social speech later. Private speech eventually turns to inner speech with no external articulation. Accordingly, speech comes to reflect an advance on the earliest uses of language which are social and interpersonal. Cognitive development makes it necessary for the child to move from reliance on others to reliance on his inner speech, where the control over his mental functioning takes place. Since private speech is claimed to be a universal strategy for L1 learners, a scrutiny in its dimensions would probably be beneficial for second language studies. Therefore, the present paper briefly introduces and talks about different aspects of the private speech which might be found interesting in second language studies.

Index Terms—egocentric speech, inner speech, private speech, second language acquisition

I. HISTORY OF THE PRIVATE SPEECH

The term ‘private speech’ is coined by Flavell (1966) to replace Piaget’s ‘egocentric speech’, inability to view the world from another’s point of view (Mitchell & Myles, 2004) or a vocalized form of inner speech (Johnson, 2004; Lantolf, 2011). Private speech is defined by Saville-Troike (2006) as “the self-talk which many children (in particular) engage in that leads to the inner speech that more mature individuals use to control thought and behavior” (p. 114). However, Saville-Troike (2006) makes a distinction between inner speech, a use of language in order to regulate inner thought (Mitchell & Myles, 2004), and private talk by contending that while inner speech is not necessarily tied to surface forms of any specific language, private speech is verbalized in first or/and second language. Private speech can pave the way for a better observation of interpersonal interactions occurring in language and discovering its function in SLA, thereby drawing a great deal of attention in SLA research. Ohta (2001, cited in Ellis, 2005) defines private speech as audible speech which is not adapted to an addressee, taking some forms including “imitation, mental rehearsal, and vicarious response which is a response that a learner produces to question the teacher has addressed to another learner” (p. 49). Donato (1994, cited in De Almeida Mattos, 2000) also defines private speech as a means of self-guidance in performing an activity beyond one’s current level of competence. Besides, Regarding rehearsal, Broner and Tarone (2001) state that in private speech rehearsal has a lot in common with L2 learning strategies, they are conscious and unconscious things that L2 learners do to master the second language” (p. 366). Besides, according to Vygotsky (1978, cited in Woodward-Kron, 2002), children use private speech to clarify and repeat the instruction they have been given in completing a language task. A certain amount of, according to Woodward-Kron (2002), is to be expected of children and can be considered as a sign that they are engaged with the task.

As stated by Ellis (2008), the claim in private speech is that some learners go who undergo silent period engage in private conversations with themselves, which prepares them for social speech later. Besides, Mitchell and Myles (2004) state that private speech in sociocultural theory is considered as evidence of a child’s growing ability to regulate his or her own behavior. For Vygotsky, private speech eventually turns to inner speech with no external articulation (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Thus, as argued by Mitchell and Myles (2004), private speech comes to reflect an advance on the earliest uses of language, “which are social and interpersonal” (p. 198). The autonomous individual as Mitchell and Myles (2004) argue, has developed inner speech as a tool of thought and feels no further need to formulate external private speech, unless in tackling a new task, when they may accommodate and regulate their efforts with a private monologue.

According to Johnson (2004), the child can move from reliance on others to reliance on his inner speech through cognitive development, where the control over his mental functioning occurs. Private speech, as Johnson (2004) asserts, provides the child with metacognitive tools such as guiding, monitoring, and planning of activity that goes beyond the

child's current level of cognitive development. Johnson (2004) further maintains that private speech is applied within paradigm of Vygotsky as a discursive developmental mechanism enabling children to guide themselves in performing a problem-solving activity that is beyond their current level of development. Likewise, Zuengler and Miller (2006, p. 39) maintain that private speech mediates mental behavior and manifests the process in which external and social forms of interaction fit inner speech or mental development.

The spoken form of language serves two major functions: to communicate with others and to engage in the talk to oneself (Patrick & Abravanel, 2000; Ziglari, 2008). Private speech, speaking to and for oneself, has according to Patrick and Abravanel (2000), an internal aspect that we experience phenomenally as the basic vehicle for thinking privately. It also has an external aspect that we experience as overt speech aimed at the self than communicating with others (Patrick & Abravanel, 2000). As argued by Patrick and Abravanel (2000), Vygotsky postulated a developmental sequence in which external private speech precedes external private speech, and the latter presumably requires advances in cognitive, speech act, and dialog functioning so as to make it possible. They contend that the precise mechanisms which are responsible for the internalization "have eluded direct investigation, but differentiation of truly social speech from overt speech for the self is said to be prerequisite" (p. 45).

According to McCafferty (2004), the study of private speech in L2 learning has encompassed a number of other dimensions including: cross-cultural differences in the use of private speech, an exploration of the degree to which internalization of a second language can occur, the importance of applying L1 forms of private speech in collaborative problem-solving activities, the role of private speech in language play, the gestures that accompany private speech and what they convey, the forms and functions of private writing, and facilitating the use of private speech in language class (McCafferty, 2004). Because the essential function of language play is rehearsal for the mastery of new form of second language, the need for advanced learners to engage in language play dwindles or is eliminated (Broner & Tarone, 2001). Rehearsal, as a type of private speech, as stated by Broner and Tarone (2001), is not a performance for others but is addressed to oneself, even if it is considered as a preparation for more public performance. Rehearsal is focused on imperfectly mastered language forms and is aimed at mastery of language norms, not their violation (Broner & Tarone, 2001).

Private speech is social in genesis and may, hence, be social or communicative in its appearance, but it is nonetheless psychological in terms of function (Anton & McCamilla, 1999). According to Anton and McCamilla (1999), private speech is speech which is directed towards the self for the aim of organizing and directing one's or more specifically a language learner's mental activity. Berducci (2004), furthermore, states that private speech is the speech self, used to control the self, while making its attempt to perform the task alone. Private speech, according to Berducci (2004), originates in external speech 'as the voice of a teacher, caretaker, parent, and so on during some type of training' (p. 332). He further maintains that the speech form is more abbreviated than either written speech or external speech, because a speaker is cognizant of the fact that it is the self who is speaking. Private speech comprises both an internal form and an external form. "inner Speech follows" (Berducci, 2004, p. 333). It is, as explained by Berducci (2004), comprised of spoken thought and is more abbreviated and predicted the preceding forms. Abbreviation and prediction both increase as we move down the continuum to the final components, thought and motivation (Berducci, 2004). According to Berducci (2004), thought is assumed to be more abbreviated than inner speech while motivation is considered as the most abbreviated form of all speech forms on the continuum.

II. NONVERBAL LANGUAGE AND PRIVATE SPEECH

It is argued by McCafferty (2004) that gesture has obtained its own status as an interpersonal tool for learning language, regarding the fact that the interpersonal use of gesture is a very recent area of research in relation to second language learning. Furthermore, McCafferty (1998, cited in Lazaraton, 2004) investigated the role that nonverbal behavior plays in second language learners' speech. He was interested in how nonverbal forms of behavior, such as gazing, posture, and gesture, work as self-regulators in private speech defined by him as vocalized forms of speech for the self-functioning metacognitively to help language learner plan, monitor, and guide a set of activity. In his study, McCafferty (1998, cited in Lazaraton, 2004) found that both cultural and proficiency differences in the nonverbal behavior which are applied and gestures which are alongside private speech are integrated with language speakers' efforts made at self-expression.

According to Cohen (1994), while certain cognitive operations that students do in classroom are nonverbal, involving symbols and relations, many of them are verbalized, whether in the form of inner or private speech or in the form of social public speech. As Cohen (1994) maintains, inner speech is abrupt and is governed by predicate. It is often unintelligible since referents are unclear speech almost without words. "One word in inner speech is saturated with sense to such an extent that it would require many words in external speech to explain it" (Cohen, 1994, p. 173).

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF PRIVATE SPEECH

The fact that private speech is the internalization of social speech turns it into the most complicated form of speech (Lantolf & Frawley, 1984, cited in Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez Jimenez, 2004). The nature of private speech, contrary to what it seems, is dialogic rather than monologic (Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez Jimenez, 2004). In the private speech, as

argued by Centeno-Cortes and Jimenez Jimenez (2004), not all the information becomes explicit, and words do not need to be fully pronounced, because of the fact that they can be understood by the intention to utter them. However, as they contend, not only is phonology reduced, might also the morphosyntactic features may also undergo abbreviation. For example known information, such as the grammatical subject, are omitted and other information mentioned for the first time might be preceded by a definite article or expressed in the form of a pronoun (cited in Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez Jimenez, 2004). However, Frawley (1997, cited in Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez Jimenez, 2004) argues that it is not relevant to make a distinction between new and given information, because he believes the goal of private speech to be keeping the focus on the task.

This form reduction is compensated for by semantic richness (Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez Jimenez, 2004). Vygotsky (1986, cited in Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez Jimenez (2004) distinguishes between the sense of a word and its meaning. Meaning is decontextualized while sense is put in the context where the word is produced, "to the extent that the new senses are created every time the word is uttered" (p. 10). "In private speech, sense predominates over meaning, and the deeper underground private speech goes, the more predominance sense has" (Vygotsky, 1986, cited in Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez Jimenez, 2004, p. 10), thus allowing for concluding that in extreme cases, private speech becomes pure sense and, as a consequence, it is situated in a way that if it were to be heard by a person not conversant with that particular situation, it could be completely incomprehensible.

IV. FUNCTIONS OF PRIVATE SPEECH

Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory shows great progress in both first and second language acquisition studies, since unlike Chomsky who considers the role of environment solely as a trigger in language development, Vygotsky regards its role as of high significance in the development of child language. Vygotsky's theory is embraced by many SLA scholars in that many aspects of language learning are related to interactional and psychological issues rather than being purely linguistic factors!

DiCamilla and Anton (2004) state that sociocultural theory makes two important claims regarding the phenomenon of private speech. First, although private speech is often social and communicative in appearance, it is psychological in function, which means that private speech is directed by the self as the speaker to the self as a listener. In the early stages of child development, as argued by DiCamilla and Anton (2004), private speech functions more in naming and describing specific aspects of children's actions and their environment than with planning and directing actions, and as children mature, "private speech takes on planning, directive, and evaluative function, and tends to precede and follow actions rather than co-occur with them" (p. 39). Second, private speech is more abbreviated than social speech. According to Vygotsky (1986, cited in McCamilla and Anton, 2004), the major distinguishing feature of inner speech is dearth of psychological subject and existence of psychological predicates. It is explained by Wertsch (1979, cited in McCamilla & Anton, 2004) that the psychological subject has to deal with what an utterance is about and what is already in the mind of listener, "while psychological predicate is new, what is said about the (psychological) subject" (p.39).

It is argued by Lantolf (2006) that private speech is responsible for both regulating mental ability in complex tasks and facilitating internalization of mental ability. It is also claimed by Diaz (1992, cited in Winsler, Femyhough, & Way, 2005) that the function of private speech goes back to the possibility of the consequence of the utterance for the learner's ongoing behavior. Winsler et al (2005) further report the following nine functions of private speech identified by Furrow (1992):

- 1- Engaging/regulatory, consisting of a combination of the regulatory, attentional, and interactional categories
- 2- Self-regulatory, which includes utterances referring to an event that might be immediately carried out
- 3- Expressive, containing an evaluative expression or opinion of an internal state
- 4- referential, which refers to a present object of a present event that does not appear to involve the child
- 5- descriptive of activity, referring to ongoing event in which the child is involved
- 6- information seeking
- 7- imaginary, referring to utterances that are sung
- 8- informative, which includes utterances referring to non-present objects
- 9- incomprehensible, consisting of inaudible utterances that cannot be understood

V. TYPES OF PRIVATE SPEECH

Ohta (2001, cited in Mitchell & Myles, 2004) identifies three types of second language private speech. The most common type of private speech is repetition, in which language learners privately repeat the utterances of the language teacher or of another student. This type of practice is argued by Mitchell and Myles (2004) to be the most common practice with the newly lexical items being taught in the second language or with sentences that are the focus of class attention. The second type of private speech is vicarious responses, which is conducted when language learners respond privately to questions from teacher, or someone else's utterance which is repaired or completed. The third type of private speech is manipulation. Manipulation occurs when language learners privately construct their own language utterance, "manipulating sentence structure, building up and breaking down word, and engaging in sound play" (p. 205).

Centeno-Cortes and Jimenez Jimenez (2004) also introduce private verbal thinking (PVT) as a type of private speech. They define private verbal thinking as “a particular type of private speech that surfaces during the reasoning process as a tool used in resolution of problem-solving tasks” (p. 8).

VI. INTERNALIZATION AND PRIVATE SPEECH

One of the central concepts to sociocultural theory is referred to, according to Gass and Selinker (2008), as internalization. The process of internalization allows for moving the relationship between an individual and his or her environment to later performance (Gass & Selinker, 2008). It argued by Gass and Selinker (2008) that one way internalization occurs is through imitation, known as private speech, “which can be both immediate and intentional and delayed” (p. 284). Besides, Lantolf (2006, cited in Cardenas Carlos, 2008) states that based on the studies conducted in the realm of child development, internalization of L2 features is done through imitation, but that this imitation is a significant, intentional and potentially transformative process than a mere rote mimicking. Regardless of age second language learners turn to imitation in their private speech when exposed to new linguistic affordances (Cardenas Carlos, 20087).

Belz and Reinhardt (2004) define internalization as the process through which elements of child’s inter-mental sociocultural world becomes part of his or her intra-mental private world and the process whereby individuals talk to themselves into the knowledge. The learning of foreign language forms which language learners first encounter outside in the inter-psychological plane, shows one example of internalization (Belz & Reinhardt, 2004) “i.e. knowledge moving from “out there” to “in there” (p. 328). In relation to the role language play in the internalization of L2 forms, Lantolf (2000, cited in Belz & Reinhardt, 2004) believes that the play function of private speech has the role of facilitating L2 learning, and for Lantolf (2000) language play may take the forms of talking aloud to yourself in L2, repeating phrases to yourself silently, imitating to yourself sound in L2, making up sentences or words in L2, and having random snatches of L2 pop into your head.

Private speech continues to be accessible all through a human’s lifetime (Bowles, 2010). According to Bowles (2010), through verbalization, new knowledge may be obtained, and control over attending, planning, and remembering can be achieved. In other words, as she contends, the opportunity to talk about instructional materials comes to mediate the internalization of knowledge, and for this reason, conversation analysis and sociocultural theorists view learning as something emerging through verbalization. Recent research on private speech has revealed that verbal reports through collaborative dialogs can function as a tool for learning, since the act of verbalizing is assumed to change thought processes.

Lantolf (2007) also contends that imitation, as previously stated, is a key to internalization. Tomasello (1999, cited in Lantolf, 2007) argues that imitation is not about parroting and repetition, but it is human capacity relying on our ability to decipher the intentionality that is the incentive for others’ acting. In fact, according to Lantolf (2007), “imitation is potentially a transformative act, particularly in the case of children, who have not undergone the intense pressure that schools in particular impose on us to conform to culturally sanctioned knowledge and ways of doing things” (p. 696). As noted by Tomasello (1999, cited in Lantolf, 2007), imitation not only involves physical behavior, but it also encompasses symbolic forms of mediation, including language.

VII. MEDIATION BY MEANS OF PRIVATE SPEECH

While interaction is privileged in sociocultural theory, it does not appear to be the sole way through which language activity can mediate language learning (Ellis, 2008). Ellis (2008) asserts that mediation can also be conducted through private speech. Young children most often, as he states, resort to talking to themselves even when they are with others. This self-directed speech can take the questions children ask themselves, instructions regarding what to do and what not to do, and evaluation of their performance (Ellis, 2008). Ellis (2008) states that it resembles the language used by conversationalists who are conversant with one another. Such talk, as he argues, derives from social talk, which serves the purpose of enabling the child to gain control over the mental functioning necessary in conducting an activity.

Adults also employ private speech (Ellis, 2008). According to the principles of continuous access proposed by Frawley and Lantolf (1985, cited in Buckwalter, 2001; Ellis, 2008), “adults continue to have access to the knowing strategies they have used previously” (p. 529), and in difficult situations, they are able to reactivate earlier strategies as a way to achieving self-regulation; when adults face performing a new function, they are able to utilize private speech so as to achieve self-regulation. According to Foley (1991, cited in Ellis, 2008), when an individual faces a difficult task, he externalizes the inner order to regulate himself.

Owing to the fact that private speech is intended for the speaker, not the listener, it is not circumscribed by the same norms that impact on social speech, which is evident in L2 learners in two ways (Ellis, 2008). First, L2 learners may make a resort to the use of their first language in self-directed speech. Second, if they use the second language, they may not apply target language forms even if they have internalized these. Therefore, apparent errors may be private forms that language learners sue in their attempt to keep control over the task, suggesting that to evaluate the accuracy of language learners’ distinguishing whether the talk that arises in the performance of a task is social or private is of paramount importance.

One of the chief areas of inquiry in sociocultural theory concerns the question how language serves to mediate human activity both on the psychological plane and on the intra-psychological plane (Anton & McCamilla, 1999). As Anton and DiCamilla (1999) contend, inter-psychological mediation occurs in the form of social speech while intrapsychological mediation can take the form of private speech. In the domain of intra-psychological mediation, for instance, researchers have investigated the content, elliptical, syntactic structure, syntactic structure, and other formal linguistic properties of speech and writing directed to oneself aimed at guiding oneself through a variety of tasks (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999). Regarding the inter-psychological plane of mediation, that is the collaborative interaction of individuals, as explained by Anton and DiCamilla (1999), language researchers have studied how language of experts, or more competent interlocutors, serves the goal of moving the language learner through his or her Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) to the point at which the language learner becomes self-regulated in the performance of some task. However, it is argued by Buckwalter (2001) that self-regulation does not mean mastery. In effect, during self-regulation, the discourses that originated during guided learning on the social plane and that is later internalized by the language learner or by the child is likely to surface as private speech during times of difficulty.

VIII. FEEDBACK AND PRIVATE SPEECH

Ohta (2001, cited in Iwashita, 2003) investigated the role that private speech plays as a language learner response to recast in teacher-student interaction in a Japanese language classroom. She, in particular, examined the potential effectiveness and salience of recast, defined by Richards and Schmidt (1985) as a type of negative feedback in which a more proficient interlocutor rephrases an incorrect or an incomplete learner utterance by changing one or more sentence components while still referring to the central meaning of the utterance, through occurrence of private speech (Iwashita, 2003). Ohta (2001, cited in Iwashita, 2003) explains that private speech e better insight and sheds more light on the mental activities that language learners engage in regarding corrective feedback. In Ohta's (2001, cited in Iwashita, 2003) study, private speech also occurred after language learners' choral utterances were addressed by the teacher. Ohta (2001) argued that the fact that language learners' responses to teacher were addressed to other language learners through the private speech was evidence confirming the fact that recasts are useful and salient (Iwashita, 2003). Fine-tuned analysis, as stated by Iwashita (2003), revealed that language learners produced private speech when they responded to teacher recast which was not directly addressed to them. This type of response was, according to Iwashita (2003) named auditor response to recast. Ohta (2001, cited in Ellis, 2005) has shown that in Japanese as a second language classroom, learners use corrective feedback not just for uptake, and they frequently respond to correction through private speech rather than overt uptake.

IX. IMPLICIT/EXPLICIT KNOWLEDGE AND PRIVATE SPEECH

Bialystok (1982, cited in Ellis, 2005) provides evidence in support of the fact that the use of implicit and explicit knowledge varies according to the specific tasks that language learners are required to conduct. She distinguishes task demand in terms of analysis and control. From a different perspective, in accordance with sociocultural theory, explicit knowledge can be viewed as a tool that language learners apply so as to achieve control in demanding situations (Ellis, 2005). Explicit knowledge, according to Ellis (2005), manifests itself in the private speech that language learners use in order to grapple with a communicative or linguistic problem. When asked to conduct a think-aloud task, language learners typically access declarative information to help them (Ellis, 1991, cited in Ellis, 2005).

X. FINAL REMARKS

As Diaz (1992, cited in Ahmed, 1994) states, private speech is typically the speech addressed to the self (not others as in social speech) for the purpose of self-regulation (rather than communication). He maintains that social speech aimed to regulate other individuals develops into inner speech which is used to mental and physical behaviors. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) argue that by means of inner speech, individuals exercise control over elementary brain. They assert that the roots of current discussions running around private speech lie in the works of Piaget and Vygotsky, the developmental psychologists who were interested in the origins and process of cognitive development. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), it is argued by Vygotsky that inner speech is the final phase in the development of higher forms of human conscious activity. The first phase is egocentric in which the formal appearance of inner speech is social but it functions psychologically. Egocentric speech is reported to be the ontogenetic phase where children, or language learners, develop the ability to use social speech to regulate their own mental activity.

In addition to L1 learners, private speech is also utilized by L2 learners. De Guerrero (1999), on the basis of the results of a number of studies concluded that inner speech was a prevailing phenomenon among all L2 learners. She also claimed that inner speech, or mental rehearsal of L2, increased in conjunction with the increase in the learners' level of proficiency, which is compatible with what Vygotsky (1986) hypothesized about the developmental nature of inner speech.

In the same vein, Lantolf (2002) contends that private speech has been well attested among L2 speakers in its planning, attending, and thinking functions.

Vygotsky (1986) purports that that inner speech cannot be an interior aspect of external speech, but a function in itself and it still remains speech, i.e. thought connected to words. But, as stated by Vygotsky (1986), while in external speech thought is embodied in words, in inner speech words die as they call forth thought. In fact inner speech takes the form of thought through which mental and physical activity is controlled, and the flow of thought is not accompanied by simultaneous unfolding of speech in linguistic form (Vygotsky, 1986). It is also stated by Mitchell and Myles that when using private speech, children and adults talk for themselves, rather than for an external conversational partner.

Private speech can be a source of comprehensive study for researchers and practitioners in the field of English language teaching. By hearing the word language proficiency, one might think of mastering the speaking ability first. As to the development of speaking ability, private speech is therefore of crucial importance for those who want to investigate the possible effects of this self-talk on the process of L1 development and its relevance with foreign/ second language learning. Overall, private speech is what apparently used by all language learners. It can be considered as a technique or a strategy. Thus, any strategy or technique which is partly capable of improving the learners' language proficiency should be taken into account to be investigated. Hence, it is suggested that some studies be conducted to find out the effect or relationship of private speech on and with different language skills or sub-skills in Iranian contexts at English language institutes.

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An Evaluation of Prospect Book (Prospect 1)

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Abstract—ELT materials (textbooks) always play a very important role in language classrooms. In recent years, there has been an increasing debate throughout the ELT profession on the actual role of materials in teaching English as a second/foreign language. In the field of English teaching should both the potentials and the limitations of materials for helping the English learners through the learning process and curriculum as well as the teachers' needs is often recommended. In this study, the researchers tried to evaluate English school textbook namely Prospect 1 (2013). This research showed that the Prospect 1 has not completely met its objectives. The content of this book is beyond the students' English language knowledge. This problem affects negatively both the understandability of the tasks and the students' participation in the activities. There are other concerns regarding this book such as: separation of English culture from English language; the contents of the lessons are not interesting enough for students and illustrations do not relate to the subject of the tasks. On the other hand, the prospect 1 is designed based on the communicative approach, and it focuses mainly on meaning and learning English language through the learners' participation in pair/group activities.

Index Terms—ELT materials, English language, textbook evaluation, communicative approach

I. INTRODUCTION

The relationship between English language teaching and materials has always been a close one. Today, the role of English textbooks is used as one of important tools for pushing both teachers and learners towards teaching and learning English language over the world. Therefore, selecting a proper textbook for teaching language in classroom can be one of the most important tasks of language teachers. Ellis (2003) argued that a task should be used based the following criteria: 1. There is a primary focus on meaning; 2. The students choose the linguistic and nonlinguistic recourses needed to complete the task; 3. The task should lead to real –world processes of language use; 4. Successful performance of the task is determined by examining whether students have achieved the intended communicative outcome.

In the field of English as second language or foreign language, Crystal (2003) mentioned that material writers should also consider whose authentic English is to inform the curriculum. Today, both of native speakers of English language and nonnative speakers of English feel that they need more to speak English around the world. Harwood (2010) argued that in second language teacher- education programs, however, insufficient attention is often given to the role of materials in language teaching. However, the present study tried to carry out an investigation English textbook for schools namely prospect 1. Prospect 1 from the series English textbooks for schools is a part of six years program that is designed to help student in order to learn English for communicative purposes using all language skills (listening, speaking reading, writing). It also claims that the learner is required to do lots of pair/group works and to explain how cooperative learning will result in more effective learning. Communicative competence as main aim of communicative approach was coined by Hymes (1971), According to Hymes (1971) the theory of communicative competence is in terms of these four factors:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible – this corresponds to the familiar notion of grammatically.
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible – This refers to psycho-linguistic factors like memory limitation, embedding etc.
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate – this refers to the relation between language and context.
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is done. This refers to the actuality of occurrence of a linguistic utterance (cited in Khansir, 2012).

In discussion of the statement of problem, for many years, the process of English language learning had been a static which had very low and ineffective result in communicative language learning. In recent years, Iran like another foreign language countries tries to provide a series of English textbooks for schools that are based on the new approach for language learning /teaching called "communicative approach". Prospect 1 is one of the books that is designed based on this new approach which is taught to students in grade 7th in junior high school. It seems that in this book, there are some shortcomings that are not consistent with general aims and its principles. In order to promote this textbook as one of the most important materials of language learning, the researchers in this study tried to investigate some problematic areas of difficulty.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present study aims at exploring and evaluating the prospect 1 to show to what extent the real application of communicative and task based approach are applied in the activities of the aforementioned textbook. In this part of the study, the researchers hope that English teachers benefit from the results of the evaluation in junior high schools in that it might give them insight into the course books they use and how they can utilize them better.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study considered the following questions with reference to Prospect book 1as follows:

1. What are the pedagogic values of Prospect 1?
2. How is the prospect 1 in line with the objectives set for it?
3. What are strengths and weaknesses of Prospect 1?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

The participants of the study were four English teachers who were asked to complete the evaluation checklist. The English teachers have taught the textbook (Prospect 1). Although, they have more than 15 years teaching experiences. But, they have taught prospect 1 for one year, because this book is published recently.

B. *Instruments and Materials*

In this study, the instrument was used to analysis the data and then evaluated the textbook. For the purpose of the data analysis and evaluation of the book, Little John Checklist (2011) was used in this study. The Little John Checklist (2011) was completed by the four teachers. Each checklist consisted of two parts. The first part of the checklist included the task analysis sheet examined the activities and tasks in one typical unit of each textbook. This task analysis sheet included three sections. For each activity, a task analysis sheet was allocated. Here the teachers were asked to tick the items which are presented in the task in each subsection. The teachers may have ticked one or more items. For instance, in the case of subsection in 'turn take' a task may involve the learner both scripted response and oral response. In this study, the tasks of just one unit of the text book were examined for two reasons: the first was that all units included the same parts and tasks in a uniform sequence, i.e. all the units are in the same format; the second reason was about practical considerations. If the researchers wanted to provide a task analysis sheet for all activities in the textbook, the checklist would be too long and exhausting to be rated by the participants. Little John checklist (2011) mentions that evaluating 10-15 percent of the textbook is sufficient to be analyzed. It is also worth mentioning that in task analysis sheet for each task, we consider a numerical scale that ranges from 4 to 1. The scores in this scale showed the degree of incorporation of each item in a task. In the second part of the Little John Checklist (2011), a numerical scale of 0 to 4 points was provided. This part consists of nine sections according to Little Johns' (2011) framework, namely:

- I. Aims and objectives(including five evaluative questions)
- II. Principles of selection(including five evaluative questions)
- III. Principles of sequencing(including five evaluative questions)
- IV. Subject matter and focus of subject matter(including three evaluative questions)
- V. Types of teaching/learning activities(including five evaluative questions)
- VI. Participation :who does what with whom(including three evaluative questions)
- VII. Classroom roles of teachers and learners(including four evaluative questions)
- VIII. Role of materials as a whole(including three evaluative questions)
- IX. Learner's role in learning (including four evaluative questions).

C. *Textbook Description*

Prospect 1 is one of the series English textbooks for school children is designed to help the children in the first year of secondary school to learn English for communicative purposes. This text book written based on all language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). This book assigns different role of teacher and learner in contrast with traditional books. The role of teacher in this book is designed based on the communicative approaches and thus; the role of the teacher is considered as co-worker and assistant in language learning process and the role of learner changes from implementation of teacher's instruction to an active role in every aspect of language learning process. The aims and objectives of this book include:

1. Provide a situation in which a learner has an active role in class
2. Using a variety of activities to promote problem solving and self-confidence in learner
3. Promote cooperation among learners and create communicative competence based on the learners' personal and social life needs.
4. Paying attention to mental aspects and their role in language learning process
5. Provide suitable error feedback to learners
6. Use of authentic, meaningful and understandable content
7. Emphasize on language learning through language experience

8. Focus primary attention on meaning rather than form
9. Teacher error correction should be done in a way that does not interrupt learner's interaction.
10. Use of the classroom conversation

This book consists of 8 main units and 4 reviewing units. Each main unit divided into three parts: the first part is listening and speaking that starts with a dialogue and continues with pair/group practices; the second part is writing skill. In this part alphabet letters and the relationship between the sounds of the letters and their forms and different allophones of one sound is taught to the learners; the third part is a role play/your conversation. This part is considered for reviewing the previous parts and gives enough chance to learner to practice what he/she has learned. In addition, this text book also has a workbook and compact disk that is used to practice book contents.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results are presented in tables. In each of the tables, the results for the Prospect 1 were reported for individual features which were listed in the task analysis sheet. In each section of the evaluation, the interpretation of the results is followed by some discussions. The main focus of these discussions is to evaluate the textbook according to scores given by the four teachers. In each section, the researchers state their own interpretation of the results regarding to the Strengths and weakness of the textbook. Thus, the results of evaluation are presented in two parts: the task analysis sheet part and the design part.

Results of the Task Analysis Sheet

In this section, we analyzed tasks of first unit in order to find out the overall value of the materials. As, we mentioned earlier, the task consisted of three sections and each section answers to one question about major aspect of the tasks. In this section, the results of each of these questions are presented together with their interpretations.

1. What is the Learner expected to do?

This question analyzes the demands which the tasks have used on the Learners. In other words, how the learner is supposed to accomplish the task. This question examines three specific aspects of a task as follows:

1.1. Turn take

Turn take as task related to classroom discourse that the learners are expected to take it. It consists of four subcategories: initiation, scripted response, oral response and not required any participation are presented in table 1.

TABLE1.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF TURN TAKE (AVERAGE SCORES)

	Frequency	percentage
Initiate	28	29 %
Scripted response	24	25%
Oral response	40	42%
Not required	4	4%
Total	96	100 %

First table showed that the tasks of Prospect1 mostly based on the response of the learners. The first learners' response was orally (42%). Initiation received the next greatest percentage in Prospect1, with 29 percent .The next greatest item after initiation is scripted responses with 25%. Not required was the least item with 4%.

The results showed that Prospect1 tasks more often encourage students to use the language and more importantly require learners to express themselves than to be a listener .Also the research showed that when learners have more opportunities to express themselves and take part in tasks and activities, they can promote their self-confidence and also they overcome on their anxiety so, the Learning process is facilitated. As the Table 1 showed that the tasks and activities of this book are arranged in a way that involve learners as possible as in tasks, activities and have an active role but because the learners have no English background, their role was limited to oral responses and even when they have initiation, their speaking range was limited.

1.2. FOCUS

The second element refers to whether the learners are asked to attend to the meaning of language and its form or the relationship between form and meaning. The attention of the learner in the task is concentrated on one or some aspects of the task according the nature of the task.

The results of task analysis in this part are presented in table 2. As the results in table 2 showed that in most of the tasks in prospect 1, learner's focus is concentrated on meaning was 66.6%. Activities which in need of learners' focus on the relationship between form and meaning have the next percentage 20 %, and the activities which concentrated only on the form was 13.4% and thus, allocated to themselves.

The results showed that in prospect1, tasks which require learners to concentrate on meaning. It means that authors of Prospect one believe that in order to promote communicative performance and competence of the learners, task should be meaning oriented rather than form. Most of the tasks in prospect one, even when the aim of task is to teach the form, the form is taught through inductive process rather than merely focusing on it. It showed that in prospect one tasks, the authors try to increase learners' comprehensibility in order to better understanding.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF FOCUS

	Frequency	Percentage
Language system (rule or form)	8	13.4 %
Meaning	40	66.6 %
System , form and meaning relationship	12	20 %
Total	60	100 %

1.3. Mental operation

When the learner participates in language learning tasks he/she may have different mental operation either to comprehend the language or to produce it. When a learner participates in a special task, a wide range of mental operation is probable.

In this part of task analysis, six items of mental operation are included according to the nature of the tasks in prospect 1. As mentioned in the textbook description, some mental operation which Little John brings in its TAS is omitted in our task because the learners are at elementary level and have no English language background. The list of mental operations that are included in our task is presented in table3.

TABLE3.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF MENTAL OPERATION

Mental operation	Frequency	Percentage
Decode semantic meaning	40	27 %
Retrieve form long term memory	32	21 %
Repeat identically	8	6 %
Relate Sound to form of word	24	16.2 %
Express own ideas/information	28	19 %
Deduce language rule	16	10.8 %
TOTAL	148	100 %

The table 3 showed that the mental operation “Decode semantic meaning” has the most percentage in other mental operation and allocated 27 percent of mental operation to itself in compare to other mental operations. It showed that in prospect 1, in order to be able to accomplish tasks properly, learner should know the message and the meaning of them. The mental operation “Retrieve from long term memory” received 21 percent. This mental operation was not so much because learner did not have any previous information about English language. It is worth mentioning that as the learner acquires more linguistic knowledge, this mental operation will increase steadily. The proportion of the task requiring learner to repeat identically is (6%). It showed that prospect1 did not give learner any fix framework to produce Language according to that fix framework. It means that tasks in prospect1 are designed in a way that help learner to be flexible in language use and also promote his/her strategic competence. The mental operation 'relate sound to form of the word or the Letter' compose of 16.2 Percentage. It showed that in Prospect one there are some special tasks that are allocated to this mental operation. As the learners of prospect1 are in primary Level of English language learning, there are some tasks in the units of this book that is allocated to the training of alphabetic letters to help learners to learn English alphabetic letter, their sounds and different allophones of each sound. Tasks which involve learners in (Express own ideas/ information) composed of 19 percent of mental operation. It has the second most percentage to itself between other mental operations. Because Prospect1 is based on communicative approach, the tasks of this book are designed in a way that learners move toward free talking and expressing their ideas. Again we should mention that learners who study according to this textbook do not have English background, so they are unable to express themselves. The mental operation 'deduce Language rule' has 10.8 percentages. This mental operation is low in the tasks of prospect1, because of two reasons: First reason is that in this book, the primary attention is on the meaning rather than form, so it is obvious that the tasks that allocated to the meaning are more than those that are designed to teach forms and rules. Second reason is that since learner has no English knowledge, he cannot deduce Language rules so much.

2. Who with?

This question examined another aspect of a task and the kind of interaction which learners and teacher have when participating in the learning task. Options in this regard are (a) learner to class in which one specified learner is supposed to give his/her reports to other in class, (b) learners individually and simultaneously, in which each individual learner perform the required task and (c) learners in pairs / groups in which learners are required to interact with each other in pairs or groups in order to do the task.

TABLE4.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF WHO WITH?

	Frequency	Percentage
Learner individual	24	35.3 %
Learner pairs / group	0	0 %
Learner to whole class	44	64.7 %
Total	68	100 %

Table (4) showed that the most frequent interaction which the learners participated in the learning task is learners with pairs/groups with 64.7 percentages. The next high frequency in interaction belonged to learner individual item with 35.3 percentages. In classroom situation, the learners do not work with whole class. The above percentages of interactions showed that the tasks of Prospect1 are designed in such a way that needs the learner to interact through pairs / groups in order to do the tasks. This kind of interaction is parallel with the principles of communicative approach in this book. It is necessary to mention that the relatively high percentage of individual Learner item shows that it is crucial for authors of this book to provide a task that put more demand on the learner to work cooperatively with other classmates and reduce the number of tasks in which the learners work individually.

3. With what content?

This question refers to another important aspect of a task in a textbook, namely the type of input given to the learners as the departure point for them to do the task. The kind of output which is expected from them by the task is the given source of input to them, and the function of the nature of contents used as the building blocks of the task. It is worth mention that, selection in these aspects of the tasks is a favorable factor, since it prevents monotony and lets learner do with different learner's style and preferences to be active in class.

3.1. Input to the Learners

The inputs offered to the learner in the textbook tasks are

- Graphic (picture, illustrations)
- Aural words / phrases/ sentences
- written words and letters

TABLE5.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF INPUT TO LEARNERS

	Frequency	percentage
Graphic(pictures, illustrations)	4	5.5 %
Aural words/phrases/sentences	60	83.3 %
Written words and letters	8	11.2 %
Total	72	100 %

Table 5 showed that aural words/ phrases and sentences with 83.3 percentages as the greatest input to the learners in Prospect one. It is parallel with the principle of communicative approach that is used in providing prospect 1 task. But there is important one concern that is mentioned in pervious sections, and this concern is that English knowledge of the learners is very low or even without any English language knowledge, Aural word/ phrases/ sentences that presented is beyond the English knowledge of learner, so they don't have suitable performance in these tasks in other words, (i plus one) principle is not observed in presenting the tasks of prospect 1. The next input to the learner in prospect1 is Graphic (pictures, illustrations) with 5.5 percentage. As the Graphic materials are considered as a very important material in language learning specially at elementary levels, according to table 5, it Seems that prospect1 should use more attractive and be related to subject of the task illustrations to help learner in learning English and increase understandability of the tasks. The next input to learners in Prospect 1 is written words with 11.2 percentages. It showed that what should be expected in Prospect 1 is that learners should focus more on aural and spoken forms rather than written words.

3.2. Expected output from learners

The output which is expected from learners in tasks can be either written or spoken. On the other hand, it could be short in the form of words or extended in the form of phrases or sentences.

TABLE 6.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF EXPECTED OUTPUT FROM LEARNERS.

	Frequency	percentage
Oral words/phrases/sentences	40	58.8 %
Written words/ phrases/sentences	28	41.2 %
Total	68	100 %

Table 6 showed that oral words, phrases or sentences with 58.8 percentages as the most frequent type of output expected from learners in Prospect 1 .This relatively high percentage in compare with written form of output shows that the Prospect 1 tasks emphasis on communicative skills which urge students to produce oral words or phrases. The expected written words, phrases and sentences in Prospect 1 constitute 41.2 percentages of expected output from the learners. It is worth mentioning that the written output of learners in the tasks of Prospect1 is mostly words not phrases and sentences because they have not learned alphabetic letters yet. So the alphabetic letters are taught to them through graphics and in combination with words.

3.3. Source

The issue of source of the contents of the lessons and their activities are very important.

This issue of the source is related to such questions as who is to specify the topic and what is the content of the written or spoken texts used in the class activities, thus; the teacher, the learners or the materials are discussed as the issue of the source of the contents of the lessons in table 7 as follows:

TABLE 7.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF SOURCE

	Frequency	Percentage
Material	76	67.8 %
Learner	24	21.4 %
Teacher	12	10.8 %
Total	112	100 %

Table 7 showed that the material (textbook) itself demonstrates very high percentage of tasks and activities in the textbook, and is equal to 67.8 percentages. The learner has not so much share in selection of the content and his share equals to 21.4 percentages and the teacher also has a little share in textbook content selection (10.8 percentages). According to the percentages in table 7 in Prospect 1, the textbook is the main source of content selection and the teachers and the learners has very little share in content selection. It showed that in this part, the authors of prospect 1 should design textbook contents in such a way that allow learner and teacher to be more creative and active in class and can manipulate tasks and activities more freely and allow them select what they prefer to do among present choices.

3.4. Nature

This aspect of tasks and activities is related to the type of content which is used in providing learning activities. The contents of textbook which the teacher and the learners are required to work with following categories:

- Socio-cultural information
- Personal information
- Communicative skills
- Language information

They are mentioned in table8 as follows:

TABLE 8.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF NATURE

	Frequency	Percentage
Socio- cultural information	36	29 %
Personal information	40	32.2 %
Communicative skills	28	22.6 %
Language information	20	16.2 %
total	124	100 %

Table 8 showed that the extent of the nature types of the contents of the tasks and activities. As , based on the frequencies and percentages presented in table 8, most of the contents of tasks and activities in Prospect 1 are provided based on the socio cultural, personal information and communicative skills. The percentages of these nature categories are respectively 29, 32.2 and 22.6 percentages. We can conclude that prospect 1 tries to motivate students by encouraging them to add information of their own to them presented in textbook. In communicative skills and socio-cultural information items the high percentages of this item showed that in Prospect1, the author's tries to teach the learner real life activities and their needs in real situation and also the socio-cultural rules of Iranian society. In other words, in prospect 1, the authors try to separate English culture from the language and contextualize socio-cultural rules of Iranian context in English textbook. The percentage of language information item is equal to 16.2 percentages. It showed that in Prospect1 there is a shift toward meaning rather than form and structure of language. In other words, in prospect one, the emphasis is on promoting communicative competence more than linguistic competence.

4. Results of the Design

The text book design in little John's material evaluation framework refers to the "thinking on material". So, when we evaluate the design of a course book , we want to know to what degree the material developers are succeed in achieving instructional goals ,so the goals should be shown in selecting and sequencing the contents appropriately , selecting appropriate themes(e.g. subject matter), devising useful teaching /learning activities, providing for active class participation , defining appropriate roles for the teachers/learners and material themselves. By doing so the results of the evaluations were done by the teachers or evaluators on "design "matters are presented. The results of design for Prospect 1 are presented in table 9. Table 9 provided scores and percentage given by the teachers to the questions about each subsection of the design. These subsections include as follows:

- I) Aims and objectives.
- II) Principle of selection.
- III) Principle of sequencing.
- IV) Subject matter and focus of subject matter.
- V) Types of teaching/ learning activities.
- VI) Participation: who does what with whom?
- VII) Roles of teachers and learners in the classroom.
- VIII) Learners role in learning.
- IX) Roles of material as a whole.

TABLE 9.
THE RESULTS OF DESIGN OF PROSPECT ONE

Items		Scores	Percentage
1	Aims and objectives	38	47.5
2	Principle of selection	44	55
3	Principle of sequencing	51	63.7
4	Subject matter and focus of subject matter	18	37.5
5	Types of teaching/Learning activities	49	61.25
6	Participation: Who does what with whom	30	62.5
7	Classroom roles of teachers and learners	39	60.9
8	Learners role in learning	28	43.75
9	Roles of materials as a whole	24	50

In this table, the scores of aims and objectives were 38, and percentages of them were 47.5. According to this estimate, Prospect 1 was not much successful in preparing students in order to become communicatively competent. The scores and percentages of principle of selection were 44 and 55. This estimate showed that the researchers believe that the authors of Prospect one have not considered students' proficiency level in preparing the content of Prospect 1. Therefore, the students have difficulty with the content of this book, because of two reasons; first, the content does not match with students English language background; second, the length of the content is too long for students at elementary level. The scores and percentages of principle of sequencing were 51 and 63.7. This part showed that the authors of the book should pay more attention to sequencing of the teaching points on the basis of difficulty. The tasks in this book do not start from easy level and they are beyond student's ability. The scores and percentages of subject matter and the focus of the subject matter were 18 and 37.5. Thus, this part showed that the subject of this book is not enough interesting and attractive for learners. The authors of this book should focus on the subjects that confirm with the age of students and are interesting for them. The scores and percentages of types of teaching/learning activities were 49 and 61.25. The researchers believe that the developers of this book should consider types of activities in which contain more optional oral activities for students and also these activities should be varied enough to attract all students moreover, lead to promote communicative competence. The scores and percentages of Participation: Who does what with whom were 30 and 62.5. It suggested that Prospect 1 needs further attention to the mode of participation in class. The scores and percentages of classroom roles of teachers and learners were 39 and 60.9. This part showed that in Prospect 1, learner has more active role in class in compare with teacher, but, Prospect 1 consider the teachers' role as a cooperative /coworker and assistant of the learner ,so the teacher role is not clear as the learner role in class. It is worth mentioning that the teachers believe that in this book, the teacher has not so many choices in selecting teaching style in class. The scores and percentages of learners role in learning were 28 and 43.75. Therefore, this item showed that although, communicative principles used in providing different section of Prospect 1; the learner should have an active role in class; the learners do not have so much active productive role and they only recite some English expressions and used them in controlling of class settings. The teachers believe that the authors of Prospect 1 should provide the materials and content of the units based on students' proficiency level and also provide more attractive graphics-illustrations, themes in order to be interesting and activate learners. The scores and percentages of roles of materials as a whole were 24 and 50. This item showed that the developers of Prospect 1 should use a variety of interesting materials in this book in order to attract learner to the language learning process. In Prospect 1, it seems that the graphics and illustrations do not have any relevance with the contents.

VI. CONCLUSION

In the conclusion, the three questions of the study are discussed as follows:

Question one: What are the pedagogic values of Prospect 1?

The present study showed that Prospect 1 created a great change in the process of English language learning in Iran schools. The main aim of this book is to prepare the learners to learn English language for communicative purpose, so in designing the tasks and activities of this book, the role of learner considered as an active or centre role for each task and activity. In this book, in contrast to previous English books, the primary attention is on meaning rather than form or structural rules. It means that the learner should understand the task and activities if they want to do them. It is an important progress in promoting learners communicative competence, through providing meaningful and understandable tasks and activities. Prospect 1 tries to provide tasks and activities in such a way that relate to the needs of learners both in personal life and social interaction. In this book, in contrast to previous English text books, the role of teacher is considered as co-operator, co-worker and assistant of learner .The teacher is not considered as supreme person in class that he is the only source of knowledge and impose stress to the learner, instead the class is both teacher and student centred. The results of this study showed that the emphasis of Prospect 1 is on promoting communicative skills through providing learners with variety of socio- cultural information. It also showed that, in tasks and activities of this book, the expected output of learners are oral words, phrase and sentences, that showed that the importance of promoting communicative competence in this book. In previous English book, the textbook is considered as the only source of training but in new perspective which Prospect 1 is designed, the textbook is considered as starting point of teaching and learning. It is expected that the teacher provides a situation in which the learner interact with each other's

and their teacher. In series of prospect, the interaction domains are selected from different domains such as personal, social, educational and career domain. The training process is started from more closely domains such as personal domain and proceeds toward farther domains. In Prospect 1, the contents are selected from personal domain that is understandable for learners.

Question two: How is the prospect 1 in line with objectives set for it?

As we discussed about this subject in the “design” part of little Johan’s checklist, Prospect 1 is not successful in promoting learners communicative competence. The most important reason is the learner’s deficient English language knowledge; the content of this book does not match with student’s proficiency level, so it is relatively hard tasks for learners to learn content of the lessons. There are other nonlinguistic factors causes this problem .The two important factors which negatively effect on the success of this book are as follow:

1-Thre is not enough time allocated to the teaching of this book, there is only one session in a week for teaching of Prospect 1 and this time is very limit to learn foreign language fluency.

2-The number of students that participate in each English class is so many that the teacher cannot work with them and have enough supervision on their work.

Question three: what are the strengths and weaknesses of Prospect 1?

The first of all, the researchers considered the weaknesses of prospect 1. The most problematic area in prospect 1 is related to its content. As we mentioned in previous parts repeatedly , the content of this book is more over than the students ’ English language knowledge, so the researchers believe that the authors of this book should consider the students previous English knowledge in providing text book contents. In some tasks and activities of Prospect 1(for example activities number 4 and 6 in task analysis sheet) learners should do works have not been taught them. The authors of this book tried to teach socio-cultural and communicative rules of Iranian context in the frame of English language and remove English language culture from English language. The researchers believe that we cannot separate language from its culture, in other words, the language is a way of transmitting the culture of its people. If the learner knows the linguistic rules of language but does not familiar with socio-culture rules of the society in which that language speaks, he/she cannot communicate with people of that society appropriately. The results of research showed that the topics of the texts and its related activities are not interesting, motivating and intellectually engaging. The results proportions also suggested that the text book does not provide opportunities for the learners to decide on the contents of the tasks. The second aspect of the third question is the strengths of prospect 1.

The tasks and activities in this book encourage students to participate in tasks as much as possible. Well-nigh, in most of the tasks of this book, the students are required to response orally or initiate the conversation .It is in line with the principle of communicative approach. In Prospect 1 tasks and activities there are emphasis on the meaning as the basis for learning, since the learners can understand the task through meaning; it is very important criteria in implementing any activity to notice on the meaning of the task. Among tasks and activities of this book, most of the tasks require the learner to participate in the task through pair/group working, this cooperation in doing tasks train the students to cooperate with other person in real life situation.

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From Dual-nature View of Language to Audiolingualism: A Reappraisal of Memory Aspect of Language

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Abstract—The purpose of the paper is to re-evaluate the memory aspect of language from the perspective of dual-nature view of language and Audiolingualism, a teaching approach once popular in the western world. I will begin by reviewing the conceptual evidence of dual-nature view of language that has accumulated in this area. After that, I expound the relationship between mimicry-memorisation and Audiolingualism through examining *Audiolingualism* from a historical perspective and discussing how memorisation is reflected in Audiolingualism. Finally, I conclude that more research are called to investigate as to how the memory aspect of language can be reflected and pragmatically applied in language teaching program.

Index Terms—dual-nature view of language, audiolingualism, mimicry-memorisation

I. INTRODUCTION

A typical linguistic model usually attaches primary importance to rules in the assumption that language is produced by ‘filling out’ these rules with lexical exponents. In this analytic approach to language description, the priority is to construct sentences which conform to the grammar (rule system) of the language in question (Skehan, 1998, p.371). Language is thus viewed as highly systematic and rule-governed behaviour which is responsible for the generation and comprehension of novel sentences. Emphasis on creativity and on novel construction of sentences are said to be heavily influenced by Chomsky and his rejection of behaviourist accounts of language use (see, e.g., Chomsky, 1957, 1965) (see, e.g., Chomsky, 1957, 1965). This paper, however, provides a conceptual framework for interpreting various manifestations of the importance of memory aspect of language from both dual-nature view of language and Audiolingualism, a teaching approach once popular in the western world.

II. DUAL-NATURE VIEW OF LANGUAGE

A. Critique the Rule-based Approach

Powerful potential for generation and flexibility as it may have, the rule-based approach is not without its drawbacks as far as actual use is concerned. The major vulnerability exists in the considerable degree of on-line computation (i.e. operating the rule system) it requires during language production. The computation, according to Skehan (1998), involves at least the following: 1) structures have to be constructed for the meanings which are to be expressed; 2) planning has to take place some distance in advance; 3) appropriate ‘slotting in’ of open-class elements has to be accomplished. The forgoing arguments all seem to be pointing to the fact that rule-based system lacks of necessary efficiency demanded by real-time language processing. The operation of a computationally driven model, therefore, becomes a key issue yet to be resolved. Attempts have been made to explore alternatives to such a neatly generative viewpoint since it fails to adequately address the scale of the problem.

Bolinger perhaps was among the first to direct our attention to the memory aspect of language. He (1975) suggested that language itself is much more memory-based than has been generally considered and that the rule-governed basis of language may have been over emphasized. The most uncompromising argument proposed by Bolinger (1975) is that he questioned whether the rule-based portrayal of language use is characteristic of what language users do most of the time. He (1961, p. 371) argued that language users ‘do at least as much remembering as they do putting together’ for, much of language use is, in fact, repetitive, and not particularly creative. As he (1976) puts it, our language does not expect us to build everything starting with lumber, nails, and blueprint, but provides us with an incredibly large number of prefabs, which have the magical property of persisting even when we knock some of them apart and put them together in unpredictable ways.

Following a similar line of argument, Fillmore speculated that the vast repertory of idioms, fixed phrases, clichés, and speech formulas are ‘memorised’ rather than ‘generated’ in the sense that they are fixed expressions whose interpretations and functions could not be predicted by somebody who merely knew the grammar and the vocabulary of the language. (Fillmore, 1979, p. 91-92)

This position was also taken by Pawley and Syder (1983) who pointed out:

Native speakers do not exercise the creative potential of syntactic rules to anything like their full extent, and ... indeed if they did so they would not be accepted as exhibiting nativelike control of the language. (Pawley and Syder, 1983, p. 193)

According to Pawley and Syder (1983), native speakers produce utterances by starting with memorised sentences and phrases. The use of 'formulas' like 'I'm sorry to have kept you waiting' frees up processing time so that native speakers can better plan their speech. Therefore, formulas become 'the normal building blocks of fluent spoken discourse' and 'provide models for the creation of many (partly) new sequences' (p. 208). Pawley and Syder (1983) thus concluded:

Fluent and idiomatic control of a language rests to a considerable extent on knowledge of a body of 'sentence stems' which are 'institutionalised' or 'lexicalised.' A lexicalised sentence stem is a unit of clause length or longer whose grammatical form and lexical content is wholly or largely fixed; its fixed elements form a standard label for culturally recognised concept, a term in the language. (1983, p. 191-192)

In effect, following the mounting questioning of the rule-based interpretation of language use, memory base of language has been increasingly recognised in the last several decades. As Gleason noted,

We have in recent years become so enthralled with the admitted power of generative systems, that **memory as an important process**, and the possibly **vast store of memorised units** we each call upon every day, have somehow fallen into disrepute. ... It is probably safe to say that we are not as endlessly creative as we are wont to think. (Gleason, 1982, p.355; emphasis added)

B. The Dual-nature Viewpoint

The idea that language may not be entirely rule-governed and produced afresh each time it is used is not new. Idioms, as exceptions for rules, are considered a problem for Chomskyan grammar (Chafe 1968 cited in Weinert, 1995). Knowledge of these, like so much lexical knowledge, is a matter of memory (Widdowson, 1989). Viewing a wide range of word combinations being placed on 'a scale of variability', Widdowson (1989, p. 133) postulated that at one end of the spectrum is 'fixed phrases that cannot be dismantled' and 'compound lexical items in suspended syntactic animation', while 'collocational clusters which can be freely adjusted as sentence constituents' are placed at the other end of the spectrum. He proposed 'the variable application of grammatical rules' along the spectrum in understanding competence of language use while reminding us of 'the limits of analysability' (ibid). Rules are variably applied because these units (along the spectrum) 'call for different degree of adaptation to meet syntactic constraints and the requirements of context' (Widdowson, 1989, p.135). Based on this line of argumentation, Widdowson (1989, P. 135) asserted that 'rules are not generative but regulative and subservient'.

In explaining the way in which meaning arises from language text, Sinclair (1991) presented 'open-choice principle' and the 'idiom principle' as two simultaneously available speaker strategies. The 'idiom principle' is that 'a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments' while the 'open-choice principle' being defined as 'the normal way of seeing and describing language', based on which 'virtually all grammars are constructed' (Sinclair, 1991, p. 110). To put it simpler, the two principles refer respectively to the use of formulaic sequences (i.e. idioms, proverbs, jargon expressions, phrasal verbs and collocations) and the use of individual words and grammar rules. Sinclair argues that 'language users primarily apply the idiom principle since it interprets most of the text' and that 'even if the interpretive process switches to the open-choice principle, it quickly switches back'. He sees the choices which are grammatically interpreted as 'unusual', and serving as 'an affirmation of the operation of the idiom principle' (Sinclair, 1991, p. 114). In simplified terms, native speakers primarily turn to those ready-made formulaic sequences rather than creating utterances from or analyzing them into single words in preparing our utterances or comprehending others. From this view, it necessarily follows that the 'open-choice principle' is secondary to the 'idiom principle'. That is to say, native speakers primarily apply the idiom principle since it interprets most of the text and that, even if the interpretive process switches to the open-choice principle, it quickly switches back again. The predominance of the idiom principle, according to Sinclair (1991, p. 110), can be explained by the following three: the pressures of real-time conversation, the similarity of human experience, and what he calls 'the economy of effect'. Although the memory system may be redundantly structured due to the fact that 'the same words may be stored in different locations' and 'will form parts of numerous different idiomatic structures' (Skehan, 1992, p. 186), it is this redundancy that contributes for 'the economy of effect', the efficiency in the speakers' retrieval and hearers' processing.

Garnering insights from the existing literature, Skehan (1998) suggested a dual representation system of language, viz. two systems coexist, the rule-based analytic, on the one hand, and the memory-based, on the other. He stated:

In the former case, compact storage and powerful generative rules operate together to 'compute' well-formed sentences. In the latter, the central role is occupied by the a very large, redundantly structured memory system, ... (Skehan, 1998, p. 54)

It is argued that, rather than always following a generative, rule-governed system, language users are adept at shifting in and out of an analytical mode (see, e.g., Sinclair, 1991; Widdowson, 1989). In other words, language users can move between the two systems, and do so quite naturally (Skehan, 1998). Thus viewed, the dual-nature viewpoint of language seems to be a no-lose proposition.

III. MIMICRY-MEMORISATION AND AUDIOLINGUALISM

In foreign language education, repetition and memorisation has long been imprinted with the mark of language learning with Chinese characteristics. Consequently, these features are being indiscriminately interpreted as primitive and obsolete according to current Western notions of English language teaching. Learning or teaching methods adopted by ‘cultural Others’ (Pennycook, 1996, p. 218) are seen as deficient rather than different. Memorisation has long been derided as outmoded or inferior pedagogical practice along with its assumed Chinese birthmark. It could be argued that this is a kind of cultural imperialism (Phillipson, 1992) as ‘there is no reason to suppose that one culture of learning is superior to another’ (Kennedy, 2002, p. 442). As a matter of fact, Imitation and memorisation is by no means unique to so-called Chinese way of learning. In other words, heavy use of memorisation is not non-existent in pedagogies of Western origin. A pertinent example is Audiolingual Method (ALM) (Lado, 1948, 1964) which flourished in the mid-20th century in the West.

A. *A Historical Review of Audiolingualism*

An early version of ALM came to be known as the ‘Army method’ because of its birth in a military context. Methodologically, the audiolingual method was also seen to have grown partly out of a reaction against the limitations of the grammar-translation method (e.g. relying heavily on teaching grammar and practising translation), and partly out of urgent war-time demands for fluent speakers of other languages (cf. Griffiths & Parr, 2001). During World War II, in order to provide American soldiers with at least basic verbal communication skills in foreign languages, the method was created in the Army Specialised Training Program in which soldier students had to memorize useful dialogues as perfectly as possible, from the materials prepared by linguists. Linguists insisted on the imitation and memorization of basic conversational sentences as spoken by native speakers and the students were drilled until they could rattle off the dialogues with ease (Lado, 1964).

The apparent paradox needs to be addressed, as to why, against a backdrop in Western 20th education where memorisation was falling out of favour, ALM, a language teaching methodology heavily based in memorisation, was introduced in the 1950s. Two principal factors were thought to be relevant: first, as a result of the emergence of linguistics as the controlling discipline for language teaching, a particular brand of linguistics happened to be in its prime time – e.g. preoccupation with linguistic forms, the view of fluency as automatic manipulation of those forms as responses to verbal or nonverbal stimuli; second, there was a shift from focus on the written mode to focus on the spoken mode¹ (see Scott, 1983 for more discussion).

Historically reviewed, the language teaching revolution of the 1950s was seen to be represented by a methodology (ALM) that was constructed by merging the concepts of a particular version of descriptive linguistics (structuralism) with the concepts of a particular version of a theory of human learning (behaviourism) with a confused notion of the nature of a language system (speech) (cf. Scott, 1983).

It cannot be denied that the era of Audio-Lingual supremacy in foreign language instruction was relatively short-lived and Lado’s (1957, 1964) work is of little current influence. ALM fell from favour in FLT in the 1970s following eventual reaction against Lado’s implementation of his theory in the ALM, although it is too early to conclude that this teaching method has died out in the Western language classrooms. In an attempt to explain why ALM became unfashionable, N. Ellis (2002, p.177) concludes among other things²:

Despite his [Lado’s] premise of language learning as the learning of patterns of expression, content, and their association, the ALM involved ‘mimicry-memorisation’ in pattern drills in which the role of understanding was minimised as much as possible.

Given this explication, it would seem that memorisation was extensively utilised at the expense of meaning in ALM as ‘the major emphasis was on the mechanical production of the utterance as a language form’ (Ellis, 2002, p.177). One caveat made for ALM is that this method, at its worst, may involve ‘mindless repetition and meaningless drills’ (ibid). In a word, the fact that ALM failed to have continuing influence in language teaching might be attributable to Lado’s operationalization of behaviourist principles (cf. Skinner, 1957) of learning ‘at the expense of language and the learner’ (Ellis, 2002, p 177). It was criticised for being ‘formulated by linguists to satisfy the interests and beliefs of linguists, with little regard for the intellectual and psychological motivations of teachers and learners’ (Scott, 1983, p.15) and the excessive dependence on manipulation drills of this method ‘most certainly resulted in de-humanising the teaching and learning of foreign languages’ (Scott, 1983, p. 17). Thus, a more humanistic way of learning, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), came into being partly as a reaction to the deficiency of ALM.

B. *Memorisation in Audiolingualism*

ALM heavily depended on drills, repetition and substitution exercises, which were justified according to behaviourist theory (Skinner, 1957). The behaviourist epistemology takes the view that language is a system of habits which can be

¹ What Scott (1983) thought remarkable, and therefore revolutionary about this shift in focus in the 1950s, was the claim that the only proper approach to the learning of a foreign language was one that required the student to achieve first an oral mastery of the basic sound and sentence patterns of the language, and this shift occurred ‘even in the absence of compelling social, cultural, and political needs for learners to become speakers of foreign languages’ (Scott, 1983, p. 15). This shift may legitimise or be legitimised by the one of the favourite linguistic aphorisms of the day, i.e. ‘Language is speech, not writing’ (Moulton, 1963).

² Another popular explanation is that progress in behaviourist theories of language learning floundered following Chomsky’s highly influential critique of Skinner’s *Verbal Behaviour* (Ellis, 2002).

taught and learned on a stimulus-response-reinforcement basis. Thus, imitation, repetition and memorization naturally become the core ingredients of ALM as are indicated by the term ‘mimicry-memorization’, a primary teaching technique adopted in this method. The students are expected to ‘*mimic* the dialogue and eventually *memorize* it’ (Krashen, 1987, p. 129-130; emphasis original). The laws of language learning³ underpinning ALM state that the more frequently and intensely a response is practiced, the longer it is remembered. Taking foreign language learning as basically a mechanical process of the formation and performance of habits (Brooks, 1964; Rivers, 1964), audiolingualists emphasized the importance of reinforcing the ‘habit’ through imitation, repetition and practice. This said, holding certain materials (e.g. sentence patterns) in memory seems to be a tacit goal in the audiolingualist views of language learning. The necessity of memorising certain language instances seems fundamental to the underlying principles of ALM. For its proponents, the only issues under discussion are: what utterances are to be chosen for memorization (e.g. poetry, reading selections or conversational material; isolated sentences or connected dialogue) and how much has to be memorized (cf. Lado, 1964).

The practice of memorising useful dialogues, according to Lado (1964, p. 62), gives the students ‘the power to hear, recall, understand, and speak the material’ and thus helps them establish a ‘linguistic beachhead’. This is to say, the memorised conversational basics can enable the students to master the necessary bits of language in order to move towards a higher grade of dialogues. The incremental memorisation of dialogues or other materials produces a ‘snowball effect’, referring to the process that starts from an initial state of small magnitude or significance and gradually builds upon itself, becoming larger in space or deeper in degree. Utterances previously memorized by the students are supposed to contribute to the understanding or mastery of later introduced ones, thus adding to their ‘beachhead’ in the target language. It is hoped that ‘[A]fter the first few dialogues, the student may know enough of the language to understand new dialogues with the explanation of a few new words in the target language itself’ (Lado, 1964, p. 68). Clearly, memorisation is meant to be functioning as a strategic tool through which learning reinforces itself in a virtuous circle.

The chief value in memorisation, from an audiolingualist viewpoint, lies in being able to provide the student with ‘authentic sentences that he can vary and expand and eventually use in many situations’ (Lado, 1964, p. 62). On this view, it is not the audiolingualists’ intention to render the students parrot learners who are merely able to imitate and repeat what is memorised. Instead, the ultimate goal of memorisation is to enable the students to use the sentence patterns contained in the dialogues they commit to memory in a creative manner. Taking this logic step further, Lado speculates,

If our students could memorise large amount of the language, say ten plays or a full-length novel, they might be pretty advanced in the language. (Lado, 1964, p. 62)

A corollary of this is that the quantity of memorisation also counts, namely, how much is memorised. Following this reasoning, the ALM perspective implies that a considerable amount of language instances learned by heart may significantly increase the possibility of being highly proficient in the target language.

Quite obviously, memorisation was so central to a popular methodology half a century ago in the Anglophone West that it was viewed as a necessity rather than a choice. Although since the late 1960s there had been adverse criticism levelled at ALM as well as its proponents, there has been a dearth of informed and unprejudiced discussions of ‘why it was that, for about fifteen years, this Method did in fact gain such recognition and acceptance as to merit the opinion that the era of Audio-Lingual supremacy was indeed the era of a revolutionized approach to foreign language teaching’ (Scott, 1983, p. 15).

IV. AN ENDNOTE

Recent development in applied linguistics, psycholinguistics and corpus linguistics (see, e.g. Bolinger, 1975; Ellis, 1993, 2001, 2002, 2003; Fillmore, 1979; Gleason, 1982; Myles, Hooper, & Mitchell, 1998; Myles, Mitchell, & Hooper, 1999; Sinclair, 1991; Skehan, 1998) has led to increasing recognition of the memory-based aspect of language. Consequently, theory in ALM as well as its pedagogical practice or implications in foreign language learning was recently reappraised from an applied psycholinguistic perspective after 50 years of exile (see Ding & Qi, 2001; Y.-R. Ding, 2004, 2007; Ellis, 2002; Yu, 2009, 2010). For instance, both Ding’s (2007) qualitative study and Yu’s (2009) experimental study produced the result that memorisation facilitates ‘noticing’ and learning chunks and consequently improve the quality of their language production. It is argued here that ‘mimicry-memorisation’ as is involved in ALM might be re-examined and more research are needed to address the problem as to how the memory aspect of language can be reflected and pragmatically applied in language teaching program.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research is funded by the Scientific Research Foundation for the Returned Overseas Chinese Scholars, State Education Ministry, P. R. China (Approval No: 教外司留【2013】693 号).

³ The two laws are ‘law of exercise’ and ‘law of intensity’ (cf. Lado, 1964, p. 37).

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A Comparative Study of Output Task Types on EFL Learners' Comprehension of Target Forms

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Abstract—This study aims at investigating the role of output and the relative efficacy of two different kinds of output tasks (reconstruction task and picture-cued writing task) in comprehending of two English target forms namely called past counterfactual conditional and English passive form. One hundred Iranian EFL learners participated in the experiment. In terms of target forms comprehension, the results showed that the participants who received output opportunities during the treatment performed significantly on the immediate post test and delayed post test. In terms of the individual effect of each type of output task type, the results also revealed that both groups improved significantly after the instructional treatment in the comprehension of the target grammatical features and the effects lasted one month.

Index Terms—output, text reconstruction, picture cued writing task, English past counterfactual conditional

I. INTRODUCTION

Swain (1995) proposed the output hypothesis from the observation that learners in Canadian immersion classroom failed to achieve native like proficiency despite of being exposed to considerable comprehensible input. As Swain argued one plausible reason for this failure was the fact that the comprehensible input which is provided to immersion students might not be enough to make sure that we will have native like productions. Besides other things, she believed that learners could not reach at grammatically native like competence due to lack of opportunities to use the target language.

Swain (1995) later argued that a significant part of output hypothesis is called pushed output. She more specifically stated that productions in the forms of speaking or writing alone may not be adequate to ease some parts of second language learning because second language learners may successfully express meaning despite the use of grammatically or pragmatically incorrect structures. Swain proposed that learners should be pushed to use their available resources. They should practice their output. Learners may be pushed to imply their linguistic capacities in various situations, such as collaborative language tasks (Storch, 2001; Swain, 1998) that include planning time (ss and Skehan, 1996) or post task activities (Skehan and Foster, 1997). Moreover, Swain and Lapkin (1995) held the opinion that the act of target language production is a mean that makes learners able to realize the lack of knowledge in their existing IL resources. This noticing causes them to knowingly modify their production in order to have modified output.

"In general terms, the importance of output in learning may be constructed in terms of learners' active deployment of their cognitive resources" (Izumi, 2003, p. 170). Within this process, output is hypothesized to encourage language acquisition by making learners aware of their ill-formed in their IL and helping learners to compensate for those problems through finding out relevant sources of input or testing and modifying their hypothesis through feedback, etc (Izumi and Bigelow, 2000).

Regarding the relationship between input and output, Richard and Rodgers (2003) claim that language learning not only includes students' attention to comprehensible input but also in tasks which provide them with opportunities to participate in real context of communication and negotiation of meaning. Shehadeh (2002) also declared that Swain did not reject the comprehensible input, but she claimed that comprehensible output will also be essential and it will help learners in various ways. Izumi and Bigelow (2000) also suggested that output hypothesis does not ignore the importance of input and they added that the goal beyond output and input activities involves the complementary and supportive ones, to strength language acquisition by pushing learners beyond what is simply necessary for understanding of meaning. Ellis (2008) states that if learners are not exposed with input in SLA, they can't acquire language. He also adds that in order to have effective communicators in second language, many researchers believed that the role of input is important too. Ellis (2008) states that many of the second language learners try to experience language outside of the classroom. If students are only provided with limited classroom input, they can't expect to achieve high language proficiency. Toth (2006) in his study which examined the impact of output in the process of the acquisition of second language morphosyntax through making a comparison between output-free PI to the instruction where input and output happen in meaningful, teacher-led classroom based reciprocal action, states that when sufficient knowledge is obtained from input analysis, production of target forms might rearrange learners organization knowledge

by pushing a more complicated examination of its different divisions. He also adds that if fruitful results appears, then a treatment which includes a mixture of both input and output opportunities within communicative context may not “put the cart before the horse but provide benefits to learners’ linguistic knowledge”(Toth , 2006, p.328). Finally, Kaplan (2002) states that output forces learners to give their attention to the syntax of an utterance and to form a hypothesis based on it. But this is different from receiving input which only is related to comprehension.

Given that output can help students in second language acquisition, the design and effect of different appropriate task types on noticing and acquisition are really interesting and significant for lots of SLA researchers and classroom teachers. Storch (1998) showed that editing and text reconstruction tasks were successful in increasing learners’ awareness of some target forms and the learners had the resource to different sources of knowledge when trying to make grammatical judgments in groups while accomplishing those tasks. In order to see whether a number of collaborative writing activities will more efficient than others, Storch (2001) conducted a study on this topic. He chose three kinds of tasks, which were called editing tasks, text reconstruction, and short composition. Within these tasks students discussed with each other about their grammar choices in a meaningful context or meaningful tasks. The results clarified that all three output tasks drew learners’ attention successfully, but the text reconstruction was the most successful in achieving the goal as it motivated the students to use their knowledge within their choices of grammatical items. Storch went on to say that, editing task and text reconstruction resulted in attending to form better than others, and this greater attention to grammar in editing and TR can be due to nature of them which are more grammar focused.

Izumi and Bigelow (2000) tried to find out the impacts of various output task types, (Izumi et al., 1999) and (Izumi and Bigelow, 2000) did not consider the impact of the reconstruction and essay-writing tasks independently through having different experimental groups, and thus, it is difficult to determine the comparative effectiveness of two tasks, and also to discuss about the fact that which of these two activities promote better language acquisition and noticing.

Although Izumi and Bigelow (2000) did not report any significant role for output, extended opportunities for output activity and also receiving relevant input were considered as important factors for increasing students’ ability in using of target forms accurately. In an attempt to explore the effect of the reconstruction task and the picture cued writing task as an independent variable through employment of two different experimental groups, Song and Suh (2008) conducted the same study on this topic and declared that in terms of acquisition, the results showed that the participants who had the opportunity to be exposed with output activities treatments, outperformed those in none output condition on the production of post test, but concerning the relative efficacy, no significant differences was found. Regarding the noticing function of output, the output groups were successful, but no relative efficacy of two tasks was found again. Based on these results and students scores on recognition and production test, they suggested these results may indicate that the significant effect of output activities on second language learning development is to assist ways to achieve productions which follow the target language patterns.

Statement of the problem

Although Izumi and Bigelow (2000) tried to probe the effects of different output tasks, but Izumi et al. (1999) and Izumi and Bigelow (2000) did not consider the impact of the reconstruction task and the essay-writing task as an independent variable through having different experimental groups, and thus, it is difficult to judge that the comparative effectiveness of one output task type over the other one. Due to this limitation, Song and Suh (2008) investigated the unique effect of each different output task by designing two different experimental groups. However, they only took into consideration a specific type of target form called past hypothetical conditional, limited number of treatment sessions, and inadequate tests instruments which could limit the generalizability of results. Having administrated 3 parallel forms of comprehension tests we sought to investigate the effects of text reconstruction and picture-cued writing tasks in helping intermediate EFL- learners acquire English target forms in terms of comprehending them. It should be mentioned that in fact very little is known about the effectiveness of these kinds of output task types , and the effect of output task types such as editing task, text reconstruction task, picture cued writing task, and dictogloss task, has not been clearly explored.

Three research questions are raised as follows:

1. What are the effects of output task types in helping intermediate-EFL learners comprehend English target features?
2. If there are any advantages of one type of output task type over the other in helping learners comprehend English target features, does the advantage hold over time?
3. What is the individual effect of each type of output task type on the participants’ comprehension of English target features?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the present study were two classes of the first- grade intermediate EFL learners (n= 100), ages 18 to 29. This study was conducted in a language institute in Iranshahar, Sistan and Baluchistan province, Iran. All participants were male and shared Baluchi as their first language. The participants were seldom exposed to English and had very little opportunity to use English outside classrooms.

Target grammatical forms

The English conditional sentences, passive voice are chosen as the target grammatical forms for this study. First of all, we include English conditional sentences since many of students will face problems while using of this structure. Song and Sue (2008) in their study represented the following reasons for its selection. The first reason refers to the syntactic complexity which includes two clauses, subordinate and main clause, and the second one is related to semantic difficulty regarding meaning distinction between different kinds of conditional sentences. We also select English passive voices due to VanPatten's input processing model (1996, 2004), the first noun principle. It was claimed that it is difficult for EFL learners to process the English passive voice effectively when they face noun or pronoun which must be inferred as the patient not the agent.

Testing materials

Three parallel tests, Test A, B, C were used, with Test A served as the pretest, Test B as the posttest, and Test C as the delayed posttest. These tests were constructed to assess the participants' ability to comprehend English hypothetical /counterfactual conditional sentence and English passive voice (simple present and past tense). The comprehension tests were adopted from Izumi and Bigelow (2000) and Song and Suh (2008) studies and also were based on *Understanding and Using English Grammar*, and *Grammar in Use, Intermediate Course Book*. Each version consisted of 30 items, of which 24 served for target items and 6 used as detractors. Of the 24 sentences which included the target structure, 7 of them were correct and 17 incorrect.

The comprehension test asked students to do several actions while doing the test. The participants were required to read each of the test items and (a) to determine whether it is correct or incorrect and, if incorrect, (b) to underline the incorrect part and (c) produce the correct form.

The reliability for all tests was calculated through KR-21 formula. The correlation coefficients for comprehension pre, post and delayed post tests turned to be 0.75, 0.78 and 0.71. Regarding the validity, it was also estimated for all tests. We calculated the amount of correlation coefficient between our newly- developed tests and the subtest (looking at grammar part) of a valid test. This showed that the correlation coefficient for comprehension pre, post and delayed post tests were 0.70, 0.74 and 0.71. Furthermore, we also calculated the amount of correlation coefficient of the newly-developed tests and the other subtests part (vocabulary, pronunciation, reading, and writing) of a valid test. As expected, the result showed that since each two subtests were indeed testing different traits or skills, the correlation between our newly-developed tests and other subtests was low.

Procedure

This study uses a quasi-experimental comparison group design with pre-, post- and delayed tests. The experimental sequence of the study will be done over a period of approximately 1 month. Two classes will be randomly assigned to two groups which include reconstruction (EG 1) and picture-cued writing (EG 2). One week prior to the first treatment session all the participants took the pre-test, Test A. Then, the two groups went through the different treatments. The experimental treatment consisted of ten sessions. The second treatment session happened a full week after the first treatment session and the tenth treatment session was followed by the post-test, Test B. Two weeks later, the two groups took the delayed post test, Test C.

Treatment procedure

At the outset of each treatment session, all of the students were aware of the task that they were going to do. They were provided with a text and were asked to read the text. When they finished reading the given text, the reconstruction group was informed to reconstruct the input passage which they read as accurately as possible on a sheet of paper. Storch (1998) states that within text reconstruction task:

"Students are presented with the content words and instructed to reconstruct the text by inserting appropriate function words (e.g. articles, prepositions), linking words, inflectional morphemes (e.g. tense and aspect markers, singular/plural markers), and/or changing word order in order to produce an accurate, meaningful, and appropriate text" (Storch, 1998, p.292).

Sample reconstruction task treatment

For example: The following sentences are all related to the past hypothetical /counterfactual conditional. Put the verbs into the correct form.

Did you hear about that guy who won 180 million dollars in the lottery last year? Unfortunately, I did not win the California lottery. I quit my job the next day if I win that much money. If I travel around the world, I stay in the most luxurious hotels. If I see a beautiful Mercedenz, I buy it. If I win that much money, I do not keep it all for myself. If anybody needs help, I give them some money to help them out.

The EG 2 participants were provided with pictures and vocabulary prompts intended to elicit the targeted contexts, and do a short guided writing based on them. The participants in all two groups were exposed to the same text for the second time. The EG 1 and the EG 2 received a second reconstruction opportunity and a second picture-cued writing opportunity respectively.

Sample for the picture-cued writing treatment

John applied for a job in a Japanese company, but he failed in the Japanese interview. He regrets the following things:



do voice chat in Japanese



answer better

If John-----.

III. RESULTS

The two groups' scores in the three comprehension tests are presented in Table 1. The two groups' scores in the pretest were subject to an independent-samples t-test. The result showed that there were no significant differences between the two groups, $t(100) = 1.19$, $p > 0.05$. This means that the two groups were equivalent in terms of their ability to comprehend the target grammatical features before instruction; any differences in the posttest results could only be attributed to the differences in type of instruction. As shown in Table 1, the means of the two groups' performance in the comprehension section of the pretest were: E1= 9.23 and E2=9.31 and the means increased to E1=18.42 and E2 =15.58 respectively on the immediate posttest and to E1=18.39 and E2=14.22 respectively on the delayed posttest.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR COMPREHENSION TEST SCORES

Group	n	Pretest		Posttest		Delayed Posttest	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
E1	50	9.23	1.60	18.42	5.10	18.39	4.99
E2	50	9.31	1.64	15.58	4.15	14.22	3.87

The first research question asked about the relative effectiveness of text reconstruction task and picture cued writing task on the participants' comprehension of the English target features. An independent-samples t-test was conducted on the two groups' scores in the immediate posttest. The result showed that there was a significant difference in the two group's performances, $t(100) = 4.44$, $p < 0.05$. Specifically, the E1 group performed significantly better than the E2 group in comprehension.

The second research question was to investigate whether the possible advantage of one type of instruction over the other in helping comprehension of English passive voice held over time. An independent-samples t-test was conducted on the two groups' scores on the delayed posttest, and a significant difference was found, $t(100) = 3.97$, $p < 0.05$. This meant that the superior performance of the E1 group over the E2 group in comprehension remained one month later.

The effect of each type of instruction on the participants' comprehension of English target features is also one of the main concerns of the study, so it is pedagogically useful to examine their individual instructional effect. Two paired-samples t-tests conducted on the two groups' scores in the pretest and the immediate posttest indicated that both groups improved significantly from the pretest to the immediate posttest: $t(50) = 8.71$, $p < 0.05$ for the E1 group, and $t(50) = 7.69$, $p < 0.05$ for the E2 group. Another two paired-samples t-tests conducted on the two groups' pretest scores and delayed posttest scores in the comprehension section, and it revealed that both groups' delayed posttest scores were significantly higher than pretest scores, $t(50) = 7.16$, $p < 0.05$ for the E1 group, and $t(50) = 5.49$, $p < 0.05$ for the E2 group. This indicated that the effect of both types of instruction on learners' comprehension of the target grammatical features was durable over one month.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the study indicated that there was a significant difference in the two group's performances in the immediate post test and delayed post test. Furthermore, the E1 group performed significantly better than the E2 group in the comprehension section of the immediate posttest and delayed posttest. The results also revealed that both the E1 group and the E2 group improved significantly after the instructional treatments in the comprehension of the target grammatical feature, and the effects lasted one month. In fact the result showed that having output opportunities were effective in developing learner's ability to comprehend the target forms.

In general terms, the findings of this study are consistent with those ideas of Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), Izumi and Bigelow (2000), Campillo (2006) who emphasized on the helpful role of output task types. In fact the result of this study showed that we should probe deeply the advantages of using different types of output task types specially the kind of output tasks which help us to draw learner's attention to form in a meaningful context. For example in terms of text reconstruction task, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) state that "the assumption underlying this task is that in processing a

text for meaning learners store the propositional content but not the linguistic forms used to encode the content” (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005, p.33). On the other hand, Izumi and Bigelow (2000) also suggest that reconstruction tasks which mark a specific kind of target form can stimulate understanding the gap in learners' partial knowledge of target language forms. It can be due to the fact that these tasks increase the resemblance among learners' production and models of target language. Campillo (2006) also states that these kinds of tasks will provide a context for learners to use preselected target forms which will be used during the tasks many times. She also continues that if we provide learners with a context that help them to compare between their current interlanguage and the target language form, acquisition can take place. Concerning picture cued writing task, Song and Suh (2008) state that “although not a purely creative activity, the picture-cued writing task employed in this study could be used in a grammar or writing class as an additional activity which can control the learners’ focus of attentional resources without ruling out the meaning. It would, therefore, be useful in a classroom to devise and use this type of task so that learners can notice, take in, acquire and/or produce a syntactic form in a meaningful context, rather than having learners to acquire only receptive knowledge through input flooding” (Song and Suh, 2008, p. 308).

The result of this study contradicts with Song and Suh (2008) findings indicating that the participants who received output opportunities (text reconstruction and picture cued writing task) within the treatment sessions did not perform significantly better than those in the non-output condition on the recognition post-test.

The result of this study is also in line with Qin s’ (2008) finding suggesting that through using the dictogloss task as a kind of output task, the DG group participants preformed considerably in their comprehension tasks, although they were not specifically instructed in understanding of the target feature in the DG treatment.

Lee and VanPatten (2003) highlighted the effect of output opportunity only in the mode of assisting students to show some degrees of fluency and accuracy in performance, and they claimed that we cannot expect output to transfer the grammar into the minds of learners. Nevertheless, the result that the E1 and E2 group performed considerably in comprehension appears to disagree with their ideas.

Concerning the important role of output, VanPatten (2002) states that “output may play a role as a focusing device that draws learners attention to something in the input as mismatch are noticed” (p.762). Concerning focusing on the form, Sheen (2002) states that focus on form represents the amount of similarity between first and second language acquisition which takes place through learner's exposure to comprehensible input. He further continues that it is important to know that only exposure cannot be responsible for acquisition of second language grammar, and we should try to focus learner's attention on grammatical features. In other words, we can prepare some activities which catch learner's attention to desired forms.

In terms of output task types, the present study may have implication for the design of output tasks opportunities in educational contexts and it would be important to provide learners with extended opportunities to produce output and to benefit from this type of treatment. It is important for teachers to choose output task types which do not ignore the acquisition and practice of target form in a meaningful context in contrast to traditional focus on forms tasks. For example, text reconstruction can be applied in grammar classroom which can draw learners' attention to the target form without deemphasizing the importance of focus on meaning. Output plus feedback opportunities can also be used in some cases when output treatment alone cannot bring fruitful result regarding attention or acquisition. So it will be fruitful to provide learners with different kinds of output – feedback opportunity in order to change their shaped hypothesis and make the role of output practice more useful.

Some of the issues remaining to be studied include the following. First, long term effects of the output task treatment need to be examined. Second, subsequent studies can examine other target form to investigate the relationship between output task treatment and the specific types of target form. It is also important to consider the cognitive processing vital for learners based on the formal complexity and functional importance related to a given form (Izumi, 2002). It is also interesting to use output combination in order to assess learners noticing and attention related to target forms through think- aloud or stimulated recalls techniques. Because this study only investigated about two kinds of output task types, it is suggested that other studies can be done through the employment of other techniques of focus on form. This study have only examined two English target forms, so comparable studies could consider the accuracy achievements of other English structures.

The findings of this study corroborate a body of research that has recently shown that output task opportunity will help learners improve their accuracy. In other words, this study represented that in order to achieve accuracy in second language learning we should encourage students to produce output in order to test and modify or confirm their hypothesis.

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Critical Discourse Analysis and Its Implication in English Language Teaching: A Case Study of Political Text

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Abstract—This study was planned prudently to probe the impact of critical discourse analysis on male and female students. In so doing, the study utilized an experimental design with 62 participants including 32 males & 32 females majoring in English language. To this end, Obama's political speech as a text was delivered to students to analyze it. Before teaching CDA techniques, students were asked to analyze this political text in accord with their interests. After teaching these principles, they analyzed the same text for the second time critically. Then they responded to a questionnaire that divulged the consequences of CDA on males and females. The findings suggest that females were more influenced than males, but in every way the difference was not to a great degree impressive. Another purpose of this article pays heed to students' critical thinking. After inspection of students' analyses and evaluation of their answers given to the questionnaire, it was specified that critical discourse analysis facilitate nurturing critical thinking ability in students. Furthermore, students' motivation enhanced after learning these principles as well as their ability to decode the textual meaning of the text increased.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, English language teaching, critical thinking

I. INTRODUCTION

Basically one of the rudimentary models of discourse analysis (DA) which has now become prevalent in research studies is critical discourse analysis (CDA). The prime target of critical discourse analysis is to disclose the hidden ideological and power relations which are embedded in text.

In educational settings, the principal meditational tool through which learning occur is language. Neither sociocultural learning theorists employ the matters of inequity and privilege as focal points, nor the critical discourse theorists consider to the matters of learning (Rogers, 2004). She stated that CDA is related to the understanding of learning based on two ways. First, analyzing discourse based on a critical domain and let one to perceive the learning process in more complicate ways. Second, the researchers and participants learning are developed by the process of performing CDA.

Wallace (1992) has been the first one who found a kind of gap in EFL context. She claimed that "EFL students are often marginalized as readers; their goals in interacting with written texts are perceived to be primarily those of language learners" (p. 26). According to Wallace (ibid), most of practices in reading classes is traditional. In other words, traditional reading classes are not supported regarding three principal ways: 1) using a method for finding the meaning of text; 2) using the texts which are more stimulating; 3) connection of texts and reading activities to social contexts (Wallace, 1992).

In order to entice learners to approach the text critically and uncover the ideological assumption of text, teacher can support learners with some skills and scaffolding of activity. In addition, an EFL teacher can employ critical discourse analysis techniques and asks students to analyze discourse and find the hidden meaning and explore the association between discourse, ideology, and power. Due to this activity, teacher can encourage learners toward a lifelong ability in critical thinking. The aim of this monograph is to introduce the field of critical discourse analysis in educational system in relation with two overriding questions:

RQ1. Does critical discourse analysis facilitate nurturing critical thinking in students?

RQ2. Does impact of CDA would be the same for the male and female students?

A. Critical discourse analysis in educational setting

The connections of factors such as social, cultural, economic, and epistemological have caused the current state of educational affairs. As Young (1990) wrote,

The modern educational crisis is a product of the one sided development of our capacity for national management of human affairs and rational problem solving. The institution of mass schooling can be either a source the problem or a possible vehicle for the changes in learns level we require (p. 23).

The term education has been defined as "informal and formal learning opportunities for perspective and in-service teachers for elementary and adult students" (Rogers, 2004, p. 11), according to her, learning opportunities can take place in the school building (e.g., in classrooms and also meeting rooms), which are supported by national policies. One of the assumptions of critical discourse analysis is based on this fact that unevenness of power between speakers and listeners, readers and writer is related to their different accesses to processes of linguistic and social situations. Therefore, the presumption of critical discourse analysis is that institutions such as school can promote the mastery of discursive practices: the discourse, texts, genres, lexical and grammatical structure of everyday language. This idea can be construed as a reframing of questions about educational equality according to how systematically deformed and ideological communication provides situations for differential institutional access to discursive resources, the very educational competence needed for social and economic relations in information-based economics (Luke, 2003).

Luke (2003), argued that studies of UK, US, and Australian classrooms have emphasized on how classroom talk and form reforms the factors such as textual practices, knowledge, legitimate social relation, subjectivity, subjectivity. Classroom talk is fundamental medium through which teachers and students construct "reading" of textbooks and reshape structures of text, trait and knowledge into trustworthy interpretation. The reading of a textbook or listening to discourses can be analyzed for their underlying meaning and topic (Luke, 1995).

One of the basic units of analysis for critical discourse analysis is text. Texts construed as the meaningful example of written and spoken language use and also social actions in a society. Particular text types or "genres" fulfill conventional social uses and functions. It means that specific kinds of text based on predictable ideational and material effect can 'do things' in social institutions. These include functional written text (e.g., clinical exchanges, service exchange, classroom lessons), and multimodal visual, electronic and gestural texts (e.g., internet home pages). According to Van Dijk (1995) as student-revolution of 1986 has revealed, noble aims do not necessarily lead to good scholarship. This is also true for CDA. Therefore, it has been critical to investigate how to do critical studies of text and talk. At a practical level, for example, students are to know "how to do CDA" to do successful research strategies. Theoretically and descriptively, it is necessary to explore which structures and strategies of text and talk are crucial in order to discover patterns of dominance or manipulation in texts. Or conversely, when, the major focus is on social and political problems and subjects such as sexism and racism, it is essential to know how such forms of inequality are declared, enacted, legitimated and reproduced by text and talk.

In summary, sufficient CDA needs good theories of the role of discourse in the enactment and reproduction of social dominance and resistance. More than theories that merely claim descriptive or explanatory adequacy, however, successful CDA must be imposing: its conclusions, recommendations and other practical interventions also must act. So CDA is not only a scholarly practice, but also a scholarly program of research (Van Dijk, 1995).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND CRITICAL THINKING

According to Fairclough (1992), critical discourse analysis emerged as an approach in the 1980s to find the mixture of social theory and language studies. Fairclough (1995) as a pathfinder of CDA explained it as follows:

The kind of discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationship causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes, to investigate how such practices, events and text, arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggle over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony (132-3).

Regarding the above definition, Fairclough (1995), stated that factors such as 1) text, 2) interaction, and 3) social context can embrace his proposal framework for analyzing text. The first dimension of discourse as text refers to linguistic features (vocabulary and grammar). The second dimension regards to discursive practice which emphasizes norms, rules, and mental models of socially accepted behavior which mirrored in production and interpretation of text. The third dimension which is introduced as social practice is conducted through two former dimensions and it is introduced as an integral part of larger social context. Fairclough (1992) believed that ideology is presented in the structure of discourse practice.

According to above discussion, it can be concluded that CDA attempts to connect the text (microlevel) via discursive practice (mesolevel). In other words, the chief purpose of CDA regards to "unmask hidden ideologies and also unclear power structure, dominance, and political control in language in use" (Wodak, 1992, p.8). The relations between discourse, dominance, marginalization, social, inequality, ideology and hegemony have been searched by CDA. Due to factors such as social practice and also its interdisciplinary nature, CDA has dealt with or has combined different branches of learning such as law, politics, business, education. In the field of education, a set of research has been done to find the relationship between language and society. Rogers et al. (2005) studied 40 articles published between 1980 and 2003 that investigated the CDA field in educational context. They founded that different aspects of education such as spoken and written interpretations in the class have been used for analyzing the societal and institutional context of learning and teaching, and for examining the construction of knowledge in various classes. They concluded that most research in CDA pertained to education that shows how power is reproduced in educational settings; therefore, they remarked that most of the studies regarding CDA have excluded this idea that how power is altered, resisted and

changed toward liberatory aims. In other words, these studies have supported educators via empowering practice instead of criticizing educational schedule.

Because EFL learners always confront with new culture and foreign beliefs and thought, they transfer these ideas to their own society. They have to know the meaning embedded in text or discourses around them because in this way dominant group cannot misuse students' oblivious and impose their power on them. But through increasing students' critical thinking, no one can control their thought. In this research, students were instructed critical thinking through critical discourse analysis to enhance learners' capability to think critically. In an educational setting when CDA techniques are applied, the purpose is to develop learners' critical thinking to judge about the world around them and also change it. As it is obvious, this aim is not supported by our educational system. Pennycook and Van Dijk (cited in Cots, 2006) believed that as CDA principles are introduced in EFL context, it does not mean to influence on teaching methods and techniques or to change them.

Paul (1988) defined critical thinking as "the ability to reach second conclusions based on observations and information" (p. 50). In other words, students learn how to ask and answer questions such as evaluation, synthesis, and analysis. A review of the literature on critical thinking reveals that critical thinking explanations include different facets in order to suggest a constant explanation for critical thinking, a project was accomplished by the American Philosophical Association which is called Delphi and conceived CT as purposeful, self regulatory, judgment leading to interpretation, analysis, evaluation and difference (cited in Giancarlo and Facione, 2001). One of the fundamental roles of this project was its impression on tendency toward CT. Supporter of critical thinking skills believes that one of the teachers' priorities in education should concern to developing thinking skills. Most of the higher-order thinking skills which are mirrored in ongoing approach to education are emerged from the writing of John Dewey (1933) who claimed that developing the thinking skills must be of the paramount importance in the education.

Based on Brookfield (1987), it is duty of educational systems to make any attempts to "awaken, prompt, nurture and encourage the process of thinking critically and reflectively" (p.11). In similar vein, teachers can set a series of tasks, activities and the feedbacks for students to grow CT abilities in them.

Language development and thinking have lose relationship with each other and the teaching of higher order thinking skills in L2 curriculum should be of higher importance. The importance of enhancing higher order thinking skills in foreign language classroom have emphasized by educators (Chamot, 1995; Tarvin & Al-Arishi 1991) and empirical evidence can be supported by the effectiveness of teaching critical thinking skills in education with the foreign language (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Davidson, 1994, 1895).

According to Mahyuddin et al (2004), the language learners with critical thinking ability are able to think ritually and creatively to obtain the aims of education able to solve problems and make decisions; able to use their thinking skills; able to treat thinking skill as constant learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

In this study, the researcher considers findings from the first and second research questions (students' critical thinking) to demonstrate how critical discourse analysis can facilitate nurturing critical thinking as well as to determine whether the impact of critical discourse analysis would be the same for male and female students. In so doing, 62 subjects including 32 males & 32 females majoring in English language were participated in this study. Our examination considers the analysis and response of all students (levels, languages) together.

B. *Instruments*

Using the survey data, the researcher first investigates whether students' critical thinking has risen after acquiring the critical principles and to find their reactions toward these principles. To accomplish this purpose, we employed a political text and deliver it to students to analyze it. As the researcher presents, she discusses how critical principles increase students' critical thinking as well as she refers to this idea that teaching CDA is the opposite of parrot learning, blind memorization and superficial comprehension to scrutinize the result of the survey, researcher then turn to individual student responses from the questionnaire. Their responses to questionnaire prove our findings toward research questions. These responses provide insight on how the students' critical thinking has risen as well as demonstrate the impact of teaching critical techniques on males and females. In addition, the questionnaire provides useful information regarding students' motivation toward the phenomenon of English language.

C. *Procedure*

The present study was conducted over 6 sessions between April and May 2015. The following steps: 1) pretest (first version of political text), 2) teaching of critical principles, 3) posttest (second version of political text, 4) ask students to answer the questionnaire.

An ideal place that different topics are suggested and discussed is a language class. In EFL classes the purpose should not restricted to linguistic factors, but also it involves improving learners' critical capabilities and encourages them to use CDA principles in analyzing texts. Students were asked to analyze Obama speeches before becoming familiar with critical field. Obama's political speeches as a political text were distributed among 32 males and females.

They were MA students majoring in translation and English language teaching in different terms at Kerman Institute of Higher Education. They possessed a level of language proficiency to read English texts by themselves. At first version, researcher asked them to analyze this political text for next session. They wrote a brief summary and paraphrase it in two or three paragraphs and researcher asked them to read it and they discussed about their analyses. After analyzing the first version of the text, in the following session the researcher made them familiar with the field of CDA and taught them a number of Van Dijk's CDA techniques that introduced by Shams (2005). As the result of study showed, students learned that reading a text critically requires ignoring the surface level of text to search and decipher the underlying meaning included in text. Shams' (2005) principles were derived from Van Dijk's (1998) framework.

After teaching these principles, teacher delivered the same text to students and asked them to analyze it according to CDA principles by comparing two versions of analyses, it was evident that students' CT developed after learning these principles and they showed a kind of positive attitude toward language and learning English language.

The first analysis showed that students' critical thinking was low but after learning these techniques, students' analyses, the second version, were in more detail because before learning these tactics, they only wrote summary or paraphrased sentences. So their analyses weren't in detail. However, in the second analyses they used those linguistic elements and determine words that carry positive and negative sense or verbs with active and passive functions and at the same time correlate these linguistic elements to writers' own beliefs and ideologies. In actuality, after teaching these techniques, the CT of about 85% percent of learners increased and At the end, they responded to a questionnaire. The questionnaire had different aims. The first aim was to investigate if students' responses to questionnaire acknowledged the researcher's assessment regarding the first research question that asks whether CDA facilitate nurturing CT or not. The second purpose of this questionnaire was to investigate that whether the impact of CDA would be the same for on males and females regarding their attitude toward critical principles or not. Another aim of questionnaire was to measure the students' motivation toward English language after learning these principles. It was observed that almost all of them confirmed the researcher's findings. The students believed that their abilities to analyze texts critically increased. Most of the students particularly female students provided positive answers to all questions. Some of students had negative attitude that can be related to the dull nature of political issues.

Some students believed that it is fundamental in their lifelong to have a critical mind to examine the world carefully and judge about it. Koupaee Dar (2010) believed that language does not have a superficial nature, but it is a complex process and entice language users to go beyond surface level of text and lead them into a deep level of meaning and communication to challenge their mind.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In this section the research questions of the study are answered. As it was mentioned earlier, this research benefits from "survey" research design and also based on the discussions mentioned earlier, in this form of the research two instruments; a text for analyzing and a questionnaire were used. Therefore, it can be highlighted that in order to answer the research questions of the study the data collected through the questionnaire and analyzing political text. Data collection occurred during 1month about 5weeks.

A. Increasing Critical Thinking through Critical Discourse Analysis

In this section, the first research question has been inquired into and the findings explain the consequences of CDA on students' critical thinking. In so doing, students were enquired to analyze Obama's political speeches. In point of fact, students did not have any background knowledge about how to analyze the texts in a systematize way. Moreover, in order to entice learners to work sternly and also to obtain a reliable outcome, the researcher did not allow students to inform that they were the participants of this study. This project was introduced as a kind of class activity or class assignment. In first version of analysis by students, some students merely reworded the entire text and wrote a synopsis about Obama's speeches in two or three paragraphs. Hence, prior to give them straightforward training on CDA principles, they were impotent to allude to those distinct critical elements that delineated the writer's ideological stance. The function of rhetorical elements such as metaphor or simile in explaining writer's notions were not revealed for students. In fact, students have memorized the linguistic elements just as tools for communication in the first analyses.

In the following session, the teacher introduced the domain of CDA to the students and elucidated some of the CDA principles to be applied for text analysis and different analysts pick out various tools for their purpose of study. Huckin (1997) had an idea that not every CDA concept is in an equal manner functional when texts are anal those concepts that instigate them critically and help them expose writer's or speaker's goals. A well established framework for analyzing the text is Van Dijk's (1998) model.

When learners acquired with these principles and they achieved potentiality to analyze to analyze the text and refer to some unique critical components that depict speaker's own ideologies. Subsequent to comparison of first and second analyses, it was proved that about 85% percent of student's critical thinking enlarged. Students' concentration was brought into focus on the linguistic elements and their functions in illustrating the writer's thought and convictions.

Concerning students' analysis and their responses to questionnaire, presumably their proficiency of the text heightened but their ability to analyze critically did not developed. As a matter of fact, all students need further training

in these principles to analyze the texts and discourses around them in an organized way. Two students' analyses regarding first and second versions are as follow:

Student 1, first version:

In the second paragraph: He is indicating the usefulness of UN that could allow resolving conflicts, enforcing rules of behavior and demands for cooperation that grow its usefulness stronger over time.

Student 1, second version:

In the second paragraph line one, the adjective "awful" is used for the word "carnage", which emphasizes on the brutality of action. In line five, by using the modal verb "could" Obama indicated possibility of resolving conflicts & enforcing rules of behavior.

Student 2, first version:

In third paragraph: He points to the challenges United Nations has passed and the challenges that confronted in this time.

Student 2, second version:

In the third paragraph: Obama used "in fact" to emphasize the certainty of UN's shift in the activities from eradicating disease to brokering peace. In the line two, he used the rhetorical device such as simile, "like" to compare his time as a president with the every generation of leaders to face new & profound challenges.

Through contrasting the first and second version of both students' analysis, it is noticeable that in the first version, they analyzed the text by rewriting or rewording the sentences, but in the second version they analyzed according to Van Dijk's model. In this vein, their understanding of the text enhanced and the underlying concepts are exposed for them in a more explicit way. As data divulged, CDA fosters students' critical thinking. Critical thinking comprises different skills. Supporter of CT skills believes that one of the teachers' priorities in education should concern to developing thinking skills. One of these skills that play a crucial role in this study is information-processing skill which is based on the following factors:

A. Collecting related information: finding information in the library or internet; gathering the data meaningfully and deciding how to use it for a special purpose.

B. Text analysis: a text is considered as the form of language input that students analyze the input which is consist of classifying, comparing, contrasting, prioritizing, and sequencing.

C. Text interpretation: transferring connotation to a text like a story, a statement, an article and an advertisement.

D. Paraphrasing and summarizing: rewriting the sentences or statements of a text and change them according to readers' own sense.

According to Brown (2004), there is nothing new in these skills; the consequential issue is to teach them with great detail to students and by making them tangible activity objectives. The concern of this study is on analyzing the text which is one of the sub-skills of critical thinking that a teacher can nurture this capacity by meant of teaching CDA techniques.

B. The Impact of Critical Discourse Analysis on Male and Female Students

The second research question included male and female students as the fundamental participants in this academic work. After the examination of pre-test (first version) and post-test (second version) a questionnaire were delivered to students to scrutinize the influence of CDA on males and females.

C. Student Feedback Questionnaire

In order to gauge student responses, a researcher-designed survey was administered, including six open ended question targeting measuring students' critical thinking, the effect of CDA on males and females and finally refers to learners' satisfaction toward CDA principles. Open-ended items include six questions which each question is analyzed by researcher (see appendix A for full questionnaire).

Quantitative data were analyzed using frequency and percentage to identify any differences between the males and females regarding the effect of CDA on them.

Table 1 points out the result of second research question.

TABLE 1

	Male, No=32				Female, No=32			
	Positive response		Negative response		Positive response		Negative response	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Q1	16	50%	16	50%	22	68.75%	10	31.25%
Q2	20	62.50%	12	37.05%	30	93.75%	1	6.25%
Q3	20	62.50%	12	37.05%	28	87.05%	4	12.05%
Q4	28	87.50%	4	12.05%	26	81.25%	6	18.75%
Q5	16	50%	8	50%	28	87.05%	4	12.05%

According to question 1 in questionnaire "By learning these critical principles do you think your opinion has changed toward English language?" in table 1, where the positive and negative responses are provided, we can see a consistently low percentage of responses are negative, both male and female students showed fairly equally distributed interest in this question. To state the matter differently, it means that 50% percent of males provided positive responses to this

question and 68.75% percent of females were in agreement to this question. It suggests that the impact of CDA regarding first question does not include a significant difference between them; although, females are more influenced than males but the difference is not impressive.

On the basis of the second question "By learning these critical principles do you think language is a more interesting phenomenon", this question prudently involves student's motivation. Previous researches proved this fact that female students have more motivation toward learning English language rather than males. With respect to critical principles, it appears that only 62.50% percent of male agreed to this question while 93.75% percent of females overwhelmingly provided their satisfactions toward critical principles. It is worthwhile to mention that both of them give priority to become competent in these principles and are motivated toward the phenomenon of language more than before after becoming familiar with these principles. Both question number 2 and number 6 relate to student's motivation. Accordingly, the impact of CDA demonstrates students' motivation toward language.

The third question of questionnaire asks the subjects "By learning these critical principles do you think you have reached an ability to criticize texts not only English but your own language, Farsi?", this question assesses students' ability to analyze text critically and refers to students' critical thinking. As two previous questions, in this question females' frequency (28) and percentage (87.05%) is more than males' frequency (20) and percentage (62.50%). As data proved, the difference is not great and this ascribe to this supposition that CDA affects on both males and females in a way that their power in uncovering the lying beneath of meaning of a text has enhanced. It can be deduced that one of the profits of CDA tactics for both males and females is to foster this capability to deliberate critically and analyze a text critically.

The fourth question, "By learning these principles have you become more interested in analyzing text?" the analyzed data in accord with this question typified that 87.05% percent of the whole population of the male students presumed that their curiosity became more after learning these principles at the same time 81.25% percent of female were in accord with this question. It appears to be that the distinction between both genders is not noteworthy. To state the matter differently, it means that they had nearly same idea. In point of fact, all of the students are curious to analyze the text under CDA tactics.

Question number 5 which inquired participants about "Do you think learning the critical principles are essential in your life?", table 1 depicts that 50% percent of males gave positive replies and 87.05% percent of females assumed that learning the critical doctrines are indispensable in their life. Some students' reasons are as follow:

Male students

Question 5: Do you think learning the critical principles are essential in your life? Why do you think so?

First male student response: No, why should be? It is more related to logic and commonsense.

Second male response: No, it up to every individuals' interest.

Third male response: Yes, because it makes me to think about what is the intention behind speech or what his ideology is?

Female students

First female response: Yes, because it helps me to analyze other texts better.

Second female response: Yes, by learning these principles analyzing texts such as newspaper became easier than before.

Third female response: Yes, by knowing about these principles and the way for analyzing text, I think it is easier for us in understanding of different texts.

To such an extent, it is obvious that the bulk of female students conjectured that through becoming proficient in these techniques, the analysis of other text become more unchallenging and come upon speaker/writer's ideology or hidden meaning in a more convenient way but 50% percent of males presumed that these principles are not vital and other 50% percent believed that these principles have a fundamental roles in their life. It can be assumed that CDA affected on both genders, in spite of the fact that females were more impacted than males. Maybe, it is due to the nature of political text that males were not affected by critical principles as females. It is teachers' mission to furnish texts that prompt trainees to these critical techniques and analyzing texts.

V. CONCLUSION

According to Brown (2004), teachers are at the helm of giving students' favorable time to learn regarding consequential issues of moral and social to analyze different aspects of an issue. An exemplary place for tendering insight on assorted subject is language class. The syllabus purpose should not functioned as a border to linguistic factors alone, but also embrace developing the art of critical discipline and hearten them to apply CDA principles in analyzing texts. Utilizing CDA as an applicable tool for language comprehension turns passive trainees to critical and creative ones. The process of acquiring knowledge of CDA is fundamental for EFL students because in this way they prevent to be in control of writers' and publishers' ideologies. Grasping these skills lead to maturation of not only linguistics but also intellectual potentialities. The field of critic provides nourishment about awareness of students regarding the cultural, social, and political situation of a country which is the main source of the text. In a scholastic setting, critical thinking is ignored by our educational systems. In this scholastic setting, every attempt is done to alter this situation. has undergone little attention. In this scholarship, there was an attempt to alter this situation.

This dissertation commanded both teaching CDA to students and surveying their attitudes. One more notable consideration of this research regards to teacher. As the study demonstrated, teacher did not create boundaries for learners to answer uncommon critical questions in their analyses because questions in some manner restrict mentalities of students. Teacher did not restrict students for analyzing the text. She asked them to analyze it in whatever way they prefer. She herself did not put into words her opinion to affect students' mentalities. The effort was to discern the pure impact of instructing CDA principles on the students' power of analysis. This study can be beneficial because it accentuates on the instruction of the language complexity to students. The result revealed this reality that teaching of these principles had to results: first, these techniques made students attentive of the language flexibility including conviction, thought, and people's ideologies. Second, as the questionnaire findings demonstrated learners' motivation to learn English increased and their attitude toward language and language learning changed. Language should not be regarded as a superficial fact or not appreciated phenomenon the principal tool which has a dynamic role in human communities is language; as a result, acquaintance with its complexity assists language users to be more successful in their communities.

VI. DISCUSSION & IMPLICATION

Students' analyses before and after learning CDA techniques were compared and result revealed that in the second version of analyses changes were noticed. In the first analyses, learners just procreated the sentences of Obama's speeches word- by- word or restated the text in two or three paragraphs. Actually, they could not analyze the text in an established way due to their low level of thinking but when CDA tactics were instructed to students; their ability to develop argument increased; In addition, their capability to guess the underlying assumption embedded in text and finding about writer's implied message was developed. As specified by the collected data from questionnaire, it was disclosed that the female students were persuaded by CDA principles more than male students. But generally it can be deduced that both males and females were affected by CDA principles and they had positive attitude toward these techniques because they agreed upon that their power for analyzing the texts have enlarged.

Most of the students were very motivated after the CDA field of study and its techniques were brought in notice of them. Nearly most of students fascinated in reading the texts subsequent to teaching these principles. The nature of text was political and it was dull for students and they asked teacher to provide some other texts in accord with their area of curiosity. Regarding the level of students, it can be concluded that in the first version (pre-test) their ability to analyze text critically was disappointing and it was due to their limited thinking to criticize text in more detail. Their analyses showed that their abilities of critical thinking were very limited. It can be contributed to this issue that they are passive learner or used up to do passive activities and also they were a part of the educational system that developing critical thinking is ignored. Teaching CDA is incompatible with the blind memorization, parrot learning or superficial comprehension. One of the useful applications of CDA principles in the educational setting is to invoke the ability of creativity in passive and uninvolved students. it is critical that the second language learners acquire with these techniques to avoid being manipulated by power hungry men. Learning CDA directs the evolvement of both linguistic and intellectual abilities.

The augment of peoples' critical thinking through learning CDA techniques and acquiring the role of language in life help people to have a critical mind. Accordingly, their capability to analyze the discourses around them not only increase but also their argumentation ability to defend their own ideas and beliefs enhance. Those who have a critical mind can make a world where the poor and the oppressed are not subject to discrimination and exploitation anymore.

One of the implication of this study concerns to teaching critical ways of thinking to make students as an independent learners. Independent students learn to rely on their own intellectual ability and they come to be self assured and assertive learners. According to Van Lier (as cited in Soons, 2008), "the independent students should have this ability to make vital resolution regarding the elements which are necessary for learning and also learn in what way to do them". Teacher help learners to go beyond the surface level of meaning. The text chosen for analysis should have this potentiality to attract the reader's consideration both from superficial level and their profundities.

Another implication of this dissertation is that the texts picked out for teaching or publication should not be just informational, they also should have the flexibility of analysis because teacher can use them to educate layers of language. In teaching language, there should be not only questions which are based on fact but also inferential ones. The texts should have the potentiality to attract the students' consideration not only to their superficial level but also to their profundities.

One of the important implications of this research is for teachers. Teachers can apply critical activities in EFL classes and in this way increase students' critical thinking. In other words, teacher helps students toward a lifelong ability in critical thinking.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions extensively:

- 1) By learning these critical principles do you think your opinion has changed toward English language?
- 2) By learning these critical principles do you think language is a more interesting phenomenon?

- 3) By learning these critical principles do you think you have reached an ability to criticize texts not only English but your own language, Farsi?
 - 4) By learning these critical principles have you become more interested in analyzing texts?
 - 5) Do you think learning the critical principles are essential in your life? Why do you think so?
 - 6) After learning these principles are you motivated more than before to learn English language?
- Please add any extra point you like to write about it.

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Application of P & RBL Model to English Literature Course: Using Teaching Framework Based on Three Key Concepts

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Abstract—This course reform is designed to construct a P&RBL teaching framework by adopting three key concepts, namely “parallel narrative” centering on the literary masterpieces, “authors’ bio-fictional narrative” focusing on the bio-information of writers, as well as “mash-up narrative” riveting in the literary genre, into literary teaching, aiming at establishing interconnectedness between literary history and present, stimulating students’ interest in reading literary classics, enhancing their understanding of theoretical development all way to postmodernism and promoting research consciousness and capability.

Index Terms—course of English literature, parallel narrative, authors’ bio-fiction narrative, mash-up narrative, P&RBL model

I. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

In his highly-regarded monograph *The Western Canon* (1994), American literary critic Harold Bloom says that man should never stop reading classics, otherwise, man will stop thinking as wisdom can be sought exclusively through classic literature. And in his publishing phenomenon *The Closing of the American Mind* (1987), Allan Bloom makes such a compelling case for reading, or rereading, classic works, with his criticism revolving around the belief that the “great books” of Western thought should never be devalued. In China, western literature is taught both as a required course for English majors and as a general-education course for non-English majors. The designed aim of this course is to foster critical reading, build valuable skills, and expand students’ worldviews by reading and appreciating literary texts. Few other courses can give students’ critical abilities such a workout as the close reading of a work of literature. The students could learn to think critically about the characterization in a literary narrative and how themes present, what’s the author’s rhetorical purposes in writing it by adopting any specific narrative skills, and how the texts are interrelated with social context and so on if their lessons would be conducted in a systematic and stimulating way. However, in China nowadays most of the English majored students even lose their interest in and lack the impetus for reading literary masterpieces. The causes of this situation lie in several aspects. Among them, the teaching methods and curriculum design are the most accusable (Lü, 2006). How to attain effectively the teaching objectives of the English literature course has become a pressing question.

This question has been seriously meditated during the recent years by our teaching group at Southern Medical University and Shanghai Second Polytechnic University, which have achieved fairly significant success in transforming our research into teaching practice, which can serve as a kind of experience for the English literature Course Reform at larger scale, hopefully at the international scale for English-as-foreign-language countries. As we know, students’ cognitive engagement is more or less dependent on the guidance of the teacher, so the design of the teaching framework is very important. After carefully considering the characteristics of Literary teaching, a three-key-concepts framework is supposed to be an optimized method as the three designed key concepts covers the three important aspects of literature learning, namely, works, authors and genres. Basing on three key teaching concepts, namely **Parallel Narrative**, **authors’ bio-fictional Narrative** and **Mash-up Narrative**, our reformed curriculum is supposed to overcome the defects in the traditional teaching, such as boringly diachronic and unsystematically teaching organization, teacher-centered un-illuminating teaching method and so on. Here, P&RBL means problem-and-research-based-learning. That is to say, by guiding the students to ask and think through the three key concepts, their interest in reading literary texts and academic consciousness in researching literary problems can be enormously enhanced. Among them, Parallel Narrative riveting in works, and the Authors’ Bio-fictional narrative focusing on writers, and Mash-up Narrative centered on literary genre, each of them focusing on one dimension of literature learning, forming a complementary and three -dimensional teaching system. In the process of this teaching reform, this model has been proved as successful in making students realize naturally the values of reading classical works and stimulating students to think creatively, actively and critically those questions related to literature learning.

II. RESEARCH METHODS

Altogether 160 Year-3 Junior college students majored in two different orientations-Business English and English Translation participated in the teaching experiment, with the 83 students in English Translation in the control group and the 77 in Medical English in the experimental group. Before the experiment, the English proficiency level of the students from these two orientations were basically similar, but with their average TEM4 scores being 73.3 and 68.1 respectively. That is to say, the control group did better in TEM-4 test than the experiment group did. The researcher is the teacher to and the co-performer with the students, conducting traditional teaching to the control group and the P&BL model with three-key teaching framework to the experiment group. Finally, the other two experienced professors in the field of English Literature Studies served as assessors to analyze the data obtained from the two different ways of teaching through course papers, examination and questionnaire by using the SPSS.

In the process of experiment teaching, the three key concepts need be introduced to the students so that they could take their advantages when they are required to do pre-reading and think about the answers to the questions and search the related information before each lesson. After research, this experiment P&RBL system of teaching framework based on three keywords, namely **Parallel Narrative**, **Literary Authors' bio-fictional narrative** and **Mash-up Narrative** shows its advantages over the traditional teaching in many ways. This teaching model starts by posing questions and scenarios rather than simply presenting established facts or portraying a smooth path to knowledge. The students are provided with the concepts and questions related to the concepts, that is to say, they are distributed in a structured inquiry (Banchi and Bell, 2008). However, the examples and explanation have to be generated in the process of their active searching, reading, comparing and repeated discussion.

The teaching framework of the experimental group is presented as follows:

A. *Parallel Narrative to the Classical Works*

Parallel Narrative refers to a piece of new fictional works derived by a contemporary writer from the literary masterpiece by a canonized author through maintaining the social context, basic story-line and the cast of characters while changing the narrative perspective or voice or extending its story-line by writing a prequel or sequel. Parallel Narrative in the narrow sense, the derived text should coincide its time and space, its story-line and every important event with the source text. However, broadly speaking, it also refers to any fictional derived narrative "parallel" any aspect with the source work, for example, with paralleled characters (the frame of the story time or the story-line is not necessarily paralleled), or the paralleled event leading to the different end, or the characters from different classical works appear in the same text, or the time travel of the canonized characters to the contemporary world, or the creation of a new character to lead the narrative progress, or the change of a flat character into a round one, or the elaboration of a brief line in the source work into a full narrative and so on. Therefore, generally parallel narrative can be categorized into several types - type of minor-character-as-narrator, type of prequel or sequel to the classic works, and the parody or burlesque of the classics, etc. From the ancient epic *Beowulf* (about 750 a.d) to *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1885) and from Shakespeare's *Hamlet* (1601) to Margaret Mitchell's *Gone with the Wind* (1936), parallel narratives can be found everywhere in contemporary literary works. And some twentieth-century authors who have written novels that comment upon and challenge Victorian classics by creating parallel narrative, like Jean Rhys and Peter Carey, by shifting the point of view or by rewriting one of the characters. Thus, Rhys makes Brontë's Bertha the heroine of her novel while Carey makes the escaped convict Magwitch the focus of his. Peter Carey not only recreates Dickens's characters into his novel but also inserts the novelist himself - alas Tobias Oates, who stands in for him - in the action.

Firstly, in the process of introducing the very concept of Parallel Narrative, the students are required to compare the similarities and difference between the pairs of paralleled works. For instance, when studying Shakespeare in the Renaissance literature, the well-known representative play *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead* (1968) by Absurd Theatre playwright Tom Stoppard and *Gertrude and Claudius: A Novel* (2000) by John Updike can be timely introduced to the students and ask them which canonized plays they are paralleled to, how they are paralleled and what's the effect of this narrative technique. After discussion, the majority of the students in the experiment group realize that both of the two contemporary works reconstruct *Hamlet* through subverting the relationship of the narrator and the narratee and deconstructing the hero and the marginalized or silenced characters. By paralleling and intertextualizing the Shakespeare classic, a sense of post-modernistic in the niche of contemporary context and a new understanding of feminism and ethics can be achieved.

Secondly, after a good acquaintance with the concept of Parallel Narrative is acquired by the students, they were assigned the pre-class task of searching the other parallel narratives related to different classic texts. In this process, students are actively involved in the reading and searching before they can put forward their ideas in class discussion and comparative analysis. They can write critical essays about the works they like and value. At the end of the experiment, students essays in experiment group vary in different classical and derived works such as John Gardner's *Grendel* (1971) to *Beowulf*, and Sena Jeter Naslund's *Ahab's Wife* (1999) to Herman Melville's *Moby-Dick* (1851), Jean Rhys' *Wide Sargasso Sea* (1966) as a prequel of *Jane Eyre* (1847), and Margaret Atwood's "Gertrude Talks Back" (1994) as an elaboration of one passage in *Hamlet* (1603), Zadie Smith's *On Beauty* (2005) as the parodied parallel narrative to E.M. Forster's *Howard Ends* (1910), and *March* (2005) as a minor-character-changed-narrator from Louisa May Alcott's *Little Women* (1868), etc. Interestingly, one of the students has found Jo Baker's *Longbourn* (2013) as a

reimagining Parallel Narrative to *Pride And Prejudice*, with the focus shifting from Jane Austen's principals to the servants below stairs who cooked their food and washed their laundry.

B. Bio-fictional Narrative about Literary Authors

As mentioned above, Author's Bio-fictional Narrative centers on the dimension of the canonized authors. It is actually a subtle combination of biography, fiction, essay and literary analysis, which takes historical authors and their real history as the subject matter for imaginative exploration, using the fictional narrative techniques for representing subjectivity rather than the objective, evidence-based discourse of biography (Lodge, 2006).

During the recent 25 years, such fictional narratives regarding the life of the poets, playwrights and novelists as narrative imperative and launch-pad have been published at an acceleratory pace, forming a unique subgenre to historical or biographical fiction. These contemporary works mainly parallel to the previously published scholarly biography. However, due to its imaginative exploration and fictional techniques, such narratives are far more interesting and easier to be digested than the formal biography. General narrative strategies used here include adopting the biographee as the narrator, the changing of the perspective from the biographer to the real life people around the author or even the fictional character the author created, the elaboration of the author's often mysterious period of life. The difference between the first and the second key concept lies in that the formal focus of parallel rivets around the works while the latter around the authors.

First of all, we can deepen the students' understanding of this concept by introducing some examples. For example, Paula McLain's *The Paris Wife* (2011) is introduced when talking about the biographical information about Ernest Hemingway, Anthony Burgess' *A Dead Man in Deptford* (1993) when discussing the life of Christopher Marlowe, and Peter Ackroyd's *The Last Testament of Oscar Wilde* (1983) is referred when studying Oscar Wilde, and Geoff Dyer's *Out of Sheer Rage: In the Shadow of D. H. Lawrence* (1997) when David Herbert Lawrence is mentioned, and *The Master* (2004) by Colm Tóibín when referring to Henry James, and Matthew Pearl's *Dante Club* (2004) is inserted into the introduction of fireside poets like Longfellow, Holmes, Lowell, Bryant, Whittier to strengthen their memories of these poets, and meanwhile acquire the knowledge of connection between the poets and the translation of *La Divina Commedia* by Dante Alighieri. Actually, just like *Dante Club*, some bio-fictional narratives are not related to one specific author but a group or generation of authors. Further such examples include Jude Morgan's *Passion: A Novel of the Romantic Poets* (2006) and Lucasta Miller's *The Brontë Myth* (2002), etc. And the Lost Generation is interpenetrated in *The Paris Wife* (2012) with the secret anecdotes about these writers such as Gertrude Stein, Sherwood Anderson, Scott Fitzgerald, Ezra Pound and so on. From another perspective, this bio-fictional narrative could be analyzed as a parallel narrative of Hemingway's posthumous works *A Moveable Feast* (1964).

Through the acquisition of this concept, students find more interest in reading the life stories concerning the historical authors. What's more, students are stimulated to trace the different details appearing in scholarly biography and their bio-fictional narrative and discuss interactively about this topic on the E-learning website we established for the course. Comparatively speaking, the students in the experiment group are far more actively involved in the web-discussion than the control group. Through the second concept, the students not only get more familiar with the authors and their times, but also get more knowledge about the process of their literary creation as some bio-fictional narrative are concerning life and works of a historical author from perspective of their muses, such as Victoria Lamb's *His Dark Lady* (2013). This bio-fictional narrative is told from four perspectives: Lucy, Elizabeth, Good luck, and Shakespeare and makes the mysterious dark lady image in Shakespeare's sonnet vividly created. This narrative strategy also makes the students understand how to present a subject from different angles, especially in the context of post-modernism, how to present a feminist, racist, post-colonialist viewpoint towards the historical subject.

C. Mash-up Narrative

In this teaching program, mash-up narrative refers to a work of fiction which combines a pre-existing literature text, often a classic work of fiction, with another genre, such as horror genre with the suspenseful thriller, the detective mystery and the zombie and vampires mingled. Comparatively speaking, this last one of the three concepts is the most minor but brings the new cultural and supernatural elements. The concept appears to have first been coined in a review of Seth Grahame-Smith's 2009 novel, *Pride and Prejudice and Zombies* (Kellogg, 2009). Mash-up narrative can be also a kind of Parallel Narrative in the light of novels such as *Sense and Sensibility and sea Monsters*, *Death Comes to Pemberley* as well as *Pride and Prejudice and Zombies*. As such narrative is basically in coincidence with the source works in terms of characters, plots and settings, the students can be stimulated to learn more about its classic source. This is a type of mash-up narrative connected to the textual parallel. And the other is associated itself with the author's life with the most salient example being *Zombie Island: A Shakespeare Undead Novel* (2012), *The Poe Shadow* (2007) and *The Last Dickens* (2009).

Here when the third concept is introduced to the experiment group, discussing topics like what's the difference between Genre Fiction and Literary fiction and why there seems a tendency of merging of the two in contemporary literary creation can be assigned to the students in class. The era of Postmodernism provided a perfect background for these kinds of works. Therefore, these key concepts help students understand post-modernity in a deeper level.

Now with all the three key concepts clearly presented we can safely conclude that all of them in the teaching framework are a type of rewriting in this way or another. Often, their aim is to fill in the blanks so as to give a voice to

the oppressed, marginalized characters whose stories, experiences, voice remain silenced in the original work. In other cases the author invents alternative turns of the story-line or changes the outcome of the events. Also, prequels and sequels inspired by the classics are popular with readers who want to know what happened to their beloved heroes and heroines before, or after the existing narration. Most of writers of the rewritings pay their homage and tribute to their literary precursors by recognizing and readopting their wordings and ways of narration while some of them ironize through parodizing. Anyway, while challenging the original text and engaging with it, rewritings integrate information about our present cultures and thinkings and ideologies into the historical pre-texts, serving as a bridge between the literary classic and the contemporary works.

Finally, with these three key concepts in mind, some of the students even have begun to create and upload their own Parallel Narrative, Author bio-fiction or Mash-up stories based on their favorite classical works on the E-learning website.

III. FINDINGS AFTER USING THE PROBLEM-BASED THREE KEY CONCEPTS FRAMEWORK

After twenty weeks' experiment in the course, findings show that the experimental group performs significantly better than the control group on several aspects. Firstly, in terms of basic knowledge absorption, the GPA of the literary knowledge test of the experiment group is 82.58 whereas the control group 72.05 and all the SPSS data in the following form shows significance of the teaching method. According to the Cognitive Load Theory, a learner should be encouraged to use his or her limited working memory efficiently, especially when learning a difficult task (Van Gerven et. al., 2003). And this teaching framework benefits the students from the experiment group by efficiently limiting the amount of extraneous load and building instructional presentations and activities that encourage germane load or schema formation to take place (Chipperfield, 2006). That is to say, the consistent key-words teaching model help the students construct efficient cognitive schema to learn the literary knowledge and form the critical thinking ability. The data from the teaching experiment have been processed through testing the independent sample t of SPSS system and matched sample t. The results are shown below:

	GPA of the literary knowledge	t-value	P-value	Standard deviation	Pieces of critical discussion essays more than 400 words presented on the E-learning website
The control group n=83	72.05	-10.732	0.00	6.91	121 (person-time)
The experimental group n=77	82.58			5.35	329 (person-time)

The results of the course paper assessed by the two professors in the field of English Literature are as follows (both of them give a score to every piece of essay from both experiment group and control group and we calculate the average score for every students, and then get the average scores for both groups):

	GPA of the British and American course paper (full score is 100)	t-value	P-value	Standard deviation
The control group n=83	71.81	-17.027	0.00	7.08
The experimental group n=77	87.72			4.27

The data analysis shows that:

1. The test scores of literary knowledge on the experimental group get higher than in the control group, and there is a significant difference indicating that the related cognitive load of the experimental group over than the latter.

2. The results of assessment for their literary criticism writing of the experimental group exceed the control group by 15.91.

3. In the survey, we have found that the degree of participation in the discussion through the non-class E-learning website is absolutely higher than that of the control group. The experiment group share 396 person times their reading experience on the E-learning platform (we only calculate those talkings with more than 400 words per time), which is almost three times more than the control group. In other words, the students in the experiment group read more and produce more output due to the key-words teaching framework. That is to say, at the later stage of the course, the cognitive skill is acquired and the students can create more autonomously than before.

Let us go back to the beginning of the experiment. As we mentioned above, actually, the English proficiency level of the experiment group were overall lower than that of the control group. However, after experiments, it seems that the experiment group exceeds the control group in many aspects of language performance. What's more, we find out that students of the experimental group can easily enter the stage of structured inquiry from the stage of confirmation inquiry and then possibly into the stage of guided inquiry.

THE FOUR-LEVEL MODEL OF INQUIRY ACTIVITY (QUOTED FROM BELL ET AL., 2005, P.32)

Four levels of inquiry activity	promoting	question	offering solutions	sending right answers
level 0 confirmation inquiry	v	v	v	
level 1 structured inquiry	v	v		
level 2 guided inquiry	v			
level 3 open inquiry				

Meanwhile, the framework is proved to be a good model to foster students' germane load (Renkl & Atkinson, 2005: 17). With their increasing of knowledge, the reduction of teacher's guidance can help release more memory capacity to improve their ability of solving problems, thus for some of the students such as the students who create their own rewritings of literary classic, even the guidance effect of the teacher have been gradually reduced so that they reach the best state of the open inquiry finally. In other words, this teaching mode not only helps the students increase the amount of English literature input by reading, but also helps improve their writing skills of literary criticism. Most of students could search autonomously with the teaching framework as a guidance by themselves and read actively in order to find the answers to the inquired questions. And some of them have even searched theoretical works concerning to our teaching framework, for example, 43% students from the experiment group have found *The Author as Character: Representing Historical Writers in Western literature* (1999) written by Paul Fransse and A. J. Hoenselaars, *Literary Afterlife: The Posthumous Continuations of 325 Authors' Fictional Characters* (2010) by Bernard A. Drew, *Reinventing a Past: Historical Author Figures in Recent Postmodern Fiction* (2010) by Marcel Cornis-Pope etc.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The objective of the present study was to examine the underlying assumption that the three-key-concepts teaching framework has a large degree of autonomy (i.e. when students engage in individual reading and thinking), which is expected to result in cognitive engagement with the literary study. From the experiment, we can conclude that the experimental group are more cognitively engaged and the model has shown its advantages as it is a consistent framework throughout all the course teaching, making the students know their clues beforehand so that they can make self-help searching and learning before every lesson, assigning more concrete tasks of reading and comparing after class to the students and leading their cues and core of thinking and discussion in the whole term. As the three key concepts are carefully and complementarily designed to cover all the three important aspects of literary learning, with Parallel Narrative centering on works, Bio-fictional Narrative on authors and Mash-up Narrative on genre, it successfully and efficiently integrate the scattered knowledge in the process of literature teaching into an interconnected web, serving as a memory cues and thinking clues. Instead of the traditional method, the newly designed course can achieve systematicness between classic and contemporary literature, interactiveness between students. Above all, it serves as a good solution of serious problem of deficient literary reading among the college students by greatly stimulating the students' interest in reading both classic and contemporary literary works.

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Guided Task-based Planning and Writing Accuracy: The Case of Iranian Lower-intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study examined the effects of applying one type of guided task-based planning on pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy. The guided pre-task planning used in this study was of three types: meaning-based, form-based and meaning and form based. To fulfill the purpose of the present study, forty eight low-intermediate female EFL learners' studying at Rahamooz Shokooh English language institute in Ghaemshahr, Mazandaran, Iran, were selected from among a total number of 100 students through their performance on the Nelson test of proficiency. The selected forty eight low-intermediate learners were randomly assigned to three experimental groups of sixteen students. In the form-based pre-task planning group, the learners were first taught how to plan the form of their written production in five minutes for eight consecutive sessions. In meaning-based pre-task planning condition, the learners were given instructions about planning the content of their argumentative writings in five minutes for eight sessions. In the third group, however, the learners were helped to focus both on form and content in five minutes for eight consecutive sessions. Then, they engaged in planning. The three groups received the same pre-test as post-test and the same topic in each of the eight sessions with the same examples. After collecting and analyzing the pretest and posttest data, the results showed the significantly superior effects of form- and meaning-based pre-task planning on the accuracy of the production the learners' writing.

Index Terms—guided pre-task planning, writing accuracy, meaning-based, form-based, meaning and form-based

I. INTRODUCTION

Among the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), writing is still the one that requires the constant attention of the foreign language educators as it has not received its due attention so far. Unlike listening and speaking, writing has to be taught to the learners; therefore, various strategies and techniques have been proposed to improve this skill (Hamidi & Montazeri, 2014). A favorable approach to the development of language skills including the writing skill has been the application of task-based language instruction (e.g. Skehan, 1998; Ellis, 2005) and there have been a number of researches on different aspects of L2 learners' performance of tasks (Ellis, 2003). A number of task planning designs and their influences on the language produced by learners in terms of accuracy, complexity and fluency have been studied by many researchers (Ellis, 2009; Foster & Skehan, 1999; Housen & Vedder, 2009). To highlight the significance of planning in the field of SLA, Ellis (2005) says "all spoken and written language use, even that appears effortless and automatic, involves planning". So speakers and writers must decide what they want to say and write and how to perform that. On account of importance of task-based planning in learners' task execution, manyexamines have centered on the performance of language learners and interaction of planning (Ellis, 1987; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Ortega, 1999; Robinson, 1995; Skehan & Foster, 1997, 1999; Yuan & Ellis, 2003).

Kellog's (1996) model of writing seems to be an effective theory in writing and planning studies. This model consists of three systems of formulation, execution and monitoring. Each system consists of two main processes. Formulation, as the first step in writing, and the one which is relevant to the purpose of the present study, has two processes: planning and translating. Planning that involves finding goals organizes some ideas associated with these goals. Translating implies determining the vocabulary and syntactic structures and representing these phonologically.

According to Rezapanah and Hamidi (2013), writing is a complex skill in nature, so writing as one of the four main language skills needs to be practiced regularly to be mastered. Richards and Renandya (2002) also believe that writing is the most difficult skill for second language learners to overcome. The difficulty lies not only in creating and forming ideas but also in translating those ideas into meaningful texts. So tasks are central in learning to write and present a fundamental aspect of the teacher's planning and bringing of a writing course. The tasks teachers assign will aid learners to learn from their experience, to arise an understanding of the text and to control their writing skill.

Generally speaking, a lot of EFL students have problems with writing and do not find writing a very pleasant and easy experience. According to Montazeri, Hamidi, and Hamidi (2015), any strategy or technique which is partly capable of improving the learners' language proficiency should be taken into account to be investigated. One way to help the

learners overcome the problems they face in writing is to provide them with assistance in pre-task planning which involves writing about different topics after planning the form, meaning or both. We still need to do some more studies to be able to examine the possible effects of directing learners' attention to accuracy of production during writing task performance.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *Planning and Pre-task Planning*

In SLA planning has been regarded a significant process among several process which demanded in written performance, so in relation to the other processes of writing like monitoring, revising and evaluating, the role of planning which is important in writing should be taken into account. In the field of SLA for significance of planning Ellis says even the effortless language which is naturally occurring should be involved with planning. And also among all written and spoken language use, planning which is closely connected, can not be considered separately. Therefore according to Ellis all writers and all speakers require to determine what they write and what they say and also it is better to say how they do it (2005).

Ellis recognized two principal types of task planning; pre-task planning that takes place before performing the task, and within planning that relates to planning that takes place while performing the task (2005). Pre-task planning is one of the time types of task planning which takes place before the task performance. In fact, in pre-task planning, learners are provided with time and the actual task material to plan before the task performance (Ellis, 2005). Empirically, previous studies on the effects of both pre-task and within-task planning on writing have suggested that planning is effective on language performance in terms of fluency, complexity, and accuracy in general (Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Sangarun, 2001; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Skehan, 1996; Wendel, 1997; Yuan & Ellis, 2003; Yuan, 2001). Various works have shown that planning contributes to gains in fluency (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999). Crookes' (1989) examine, in which the participants were guided to plan both the meaning and the form of their speech, reported just higher complexity was achieved through both "meaning/form-based pre-task planning" than the "minimal pre-task planning" term.

The types of pre-task planning have been pointed to have an effect on all three aspects of performance, namely accuracy, fluency and complexity approximately. Some of studies expressed the Pre-task planning increase accuracy while others do not show any effect for it. Studying the effect of planning on the use of regular past tense, Ellis described that when learners had the opportunity for both pre-task and on-line planning, they produced more accurate language (1987). Mehnert's study showed that 1-minute planners produced a clearly more accurate language than non-planners (1998). However, there was no significant difference between the 1-minute planners and the 5-minute and 10-minute planners in terms of accuracy. In another studies pre-task planning did not contribute to greater accuracy (e.g., Crookes 1989, Wendel 1997). Ortega determined that pre-task planning was more accurate in the case of Spanish noun-modifier agreement, but no result was reported for articles (1999). Foster and Skehan detected that both detailed and undetailed pre-task planners were more accurate than the non-planners on a decision-making task, whereas only the undetailed pre-task planners made language with greater accuracy on a decision-making task than non-planners (1996). Some numbers of the studies have described positive effects on accuracy (e.g. Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998).

B. *Guided Planning*

Guided planning is utilized in this research which is one category of pre-task planning and also students can be predisposed to attend to linguistic form, meaning, or both form and meaning at the same time through guided planning then learners during writing use teacher-guided in which they plan the content and how to express the content in order to prepare the task performance. "Guided planning" is one option for pre-task planning which provides learners with specific instructions about what and how to plan. In fact, through guided planning learners can be predisposed to attend to linguistic form, to meaning or both meaning and form. In this way, learners' subsequent performance can be affected by their focus on some specific aspects of language (Ellis, 2005). Mehnert's examine depicted the difference in accuracy of the students with 1-minute planning and the students without planning (1998). It was also found that the guided planning group produces more and more accurate relative clauses in Kawauchi, (2005).

C. *Task*

Prabhu was the first person who has applied task-based language instruction so as to teach plans and practice (1987). In Bangalore of southern Indian in 1979 it was Prabha who began his great experiments of task in order to put his principles in to action that appeared in his time. According to Prabhu (1987) students will get the point more effectively while their brains are concentrated on the work, instead of the language they are utilizing.

D. *Form-based, Meaning-based and Meaning-form Based Instruction*

On the basis of grammatical parts, the proponents of grammar-focused and form-focused instruction keep that foreign language could be taught and students through deductive learning have to put every part together in the first step, in next step they attempt to use the rules of oral performance (Nishimura, 2000). Two particular examples are grammatical

translation and audio-lingual ways. According to Larsen-Freeman (2001), students should be memorized grammatical principles and practice the teacher's model by substitution and translation drills as accurately as possible.

Meaning-based instruction as next scheme of teaching, in this approach all children should naturally learn first language successfully, and even adults in this theory if they use and follow the natural principles of their first language learning, they could be mastered their foreign or second language (Long & Robinson, 1998). There are two particular examples like natural approach and direct approach that the characteristics of these approaches insist on meaning rather than on forms.

Based on Van Lier, giving grammatical forms separately does not reach to successful speltproduct and traditional grammatical teaching is out of date (1988). He said "The midst term, relating to meaning and form, fluency and accuracy, would appear to be the most sensible style to continue, and surely there presently looks to be a general consensus that it is unwise to neglect either area" (Van Lier, 1988 p. 276).

Based on Lightbown and Spada (1990) also depeacted that in oral production a higher degree of grammatical accuracy is expected in compounding of meaning-based and form-based.

E. Form-based Planning and Meaning-based Planning

Form-based planning is one of the classes of guided planning in which learners are influenced to attend to linguistic form. Actually in form-based planning learners are supplied with teachings and time before task performance to determine how to stay or write what they are going to say or write (Ellis, 2005).

Meaning-based planning is one of classes of guided planning in which learners are influenced to attend to meaning. Actually in meaning-based planning learners are supplied with teachings and time before task performance to determine what they are going to say or write (Ellis, 2005).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were female L2 learners, whose ages ranged from 12 to 23, chosen from a pool of learners who were from Persian language background, studying at the RahamoozShokooh institute in Ghaemshahr, Mazandaran. The number of participants at the beginning was 100 participants. Then a NELSON test of proficiency was administered for the sake of homogeneity and 48 learners who were of lower intermediate proficiency level were selected. The researcher selected the scores with the range of 34-52 which were one standard deviation below and above the mean (Mean=43.8 and standard deviation=9.07). Later, they were randomly assigned into three groups (16 participants for each group).

B. Material

A version of Nelson test was used in order to select three homogeneous groups of participants. The numbers of test items were 50. The test included three skills of structure, vocabulary and pronunciation. The other material for this study was six argumentative tasks involving learners in argumentative writing for all the three groups. In theses argumentative tasks six topics were selected from the book 'For And Against' by L.G. Alexander to be written about by the learners. The main instrument was argumentative task in which one topic was selected as pre-test and post test. Before the treatment phase, the topic was given to students and for the second time it was given after the treatment phase. The topic "It is foolish to give money to the baggers" was given for pre-test and post-test and students writing. Eighteen students were selected randomly from another institute to take the pre-test and wrote about this topic for the purpose of piloting the instrument. The reliability of this topic was 0.90. And also this topic was shown to nine experts in the field to make sure they are suitable for the purpose of this study.

C. Measure of Accuracy

One measure of accuracy, Error-Free, didn't hold any errors (in lexical choice, syntax and morphology were regarded. Mistakes in lexical were determined equally errors in collection or lexical form). The same measurement used by Larsen-freeman, (2006), Rahimpour, (2008), Errasti, (2003) and Storch, (2009).

T-Unit

The other name of T-Unit is "Terminable Unit". "It is a measurement of the linguistic complexity of sentences, defined as the shortest unit (The Terminable Unit, Minimal Terminable Unit, or T-Unit) which a sentence can be subtract to, and consists of one independent clause together with whatever dependent clauses are attached to it" (Richards & Schmidt, 2000 p. 566). For example the sentence *After she had eaten, Merry went to bed* would bedescribed as containing one T-Unit. Compound sentences contain two or more T-Units.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The present study proposed to look into the effects of pre-task (guided) planning on lower-intermediate EFL learner's written production. The following study questions treated here were:

A. Research Questions

In order to achieve the purpose of the present research, the following three research questions were posed:

1. Do lower-intermediate L2 learners produce more accurate writings when they engage in meaning-based pre-task (guided) planning than form-based pre-task (guided) planning?
2. Do lower-intermediate L2 learners produce more accurate writings when they engage in meaning-based pre-task (guided) planning than meaning and form based pre-task (guided) planning?
3. Do lower-intermediate L2 learners produce more accurate writings when they engage in form-based pre-task (guided) planning than meaning and form based pre-task (guided) planning?

B. Research Hypotheses

According to the three research questions of the present study, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

H1: Meaning-based pre-task (guided) planning and form-based pre-task (guided) planning do not differ in their effects on Iranian lower Intermediate L2 learners' writing accuracy.

H2: Meaning-based pre-task (guided) planning and meaning and form based pre-task (guided) planning do not differ in their effects on Iranian lower intermediate L2 learners' writing accuracy.

H3: Form-based pre-task (guided) planning and meaning and form based pre-task (guided) planning do not differ in their effects on Iranian lower intermediate L2 learners' writing accuracy.

C. Data Analysis Procedure

Analysis of students' performance was conducted by using the SPSS software. To answer questions one, two, three, the researcher investigates gain-score of pre-test and post-test phase in writing scores performance (gain score = post-test score – pre-test score). Then mean, standard deviation and significance of the students from the gain-score of pre-test and post-test were considered.

The result of the tests of normality of the gain-scores for meaning, form, and meaning-form based accuracy groups and also their histogram show that the researcher would be allowed to use the parametric tests to compare the performance of the three groups. In all three cases, the sig values are larger than the cut-off value of .05 (Group one = .89; Group two, .19; Group 3, .29). Therefore, the data collected from the three groups did not violate the assumption of normality and the researcher would be allowed to use parametric tests.

TABLE 1.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULT FOR ACCURACY MEASURES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.773	2	.386	12.576	.000
Within Groups	1.383	45	.031		
Total	2.156	47			

According to the results shown in One Way ANOVA the sig value of .000 is much smaller than the cut-off value of .05 which means the performances of the three groups were statistically different from each other and a Tukey Post hoc test was run and the results are displayed.

TABLE 2.
THE RESULT OF POST HOC TEST MULTIPLE COMPARISONS
TUKEY HSD

(I) VAR00002	(J)VAR00002	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	.01750	.06198	.957	-.1327	.1677
	3.00	-.26000*	.06198	.000	-.1402	-.1098
2.00	1.00	.01750	.06198	.957	-.1677	.1327
	3.00	-.27750*	.06198	.000	-.4277	-.1273
3.00	1.00	.26000*	.06198	.000	.1098	.4102
	2.00	.27750*	.06198	.000	.1273	.4277

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Therefore, form-based pre-task (guided) planning and meaning-based pre-task (guided) planning did not differ in their effects on the writing accuracy of Iranian Low-intermediate EFL learners. (Mean difference = .017 Sig Value = .957). Accordingly, the first hypothesis is confirmed.

However, on account of the size of Mean difference = .26 Sig Value = .000 between group one (meaning-based pre-task planning) and group three (meaning and form based pre-task planning) the difference was statistically significant in the case of writing accuracy. Accordingly the second hypothesis is rejected.

Moreover, considering the mean difference (.277) and sig value (.000) between group two (form-based pre-task planning) and group three (meaning and form based pre-task planning), it shows that the difference was statistically significant on writing accuracy. Therefore the third null-hypothesis is also rejected.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Some of studies expressed the pre-task planning increase accuracy while others do not show any effect for it. Skehan and Foster (1997) described that undetailed pre-task planning improved accuracy on the personal and narrative tasks, but no consequence was encountered for the decision-making task. Foster and Skehan described that while teacher-led pre-task planning resulted in greater accuracy, no consequence for learners' focusing on form or meaning during planning was found (1999). Some number of research, on accuracy described great results like Kawauchi (2005) and Menhert (1998) but it was not confirmed in examines by Ellis and Yuan (2004) and Yuan and Ellis (2003). According to Lightbown and Spada a prominent level of accuracy in oral product is anticipated in compounding teaching of form and meaning (1990).

Foster and Skehan (1996) established that the type of task influenced the effect of planning on accuracy. They showed that both detailed and un-detailed pre-task planning were more accurate than the non-planners on a decision-making task, whereas only the un-detailed pre-task planners made language with greater accuracy on a decision-making task than non-planners. Based on Menhert in oral production the effects of planning on accuracy, fluency and complexity (three aspects of language) could be measured when 10 minute for planning time was given (1998).

Sangarun (2005) in Thailand, among different kinds of planning (like minimal, form focused, meaning-based and meaning-form based planning), he engaged 40 high school students in order to perform under one planning condition. Students' attention was drawn to up to four specific structures in each task in the form-focused planning condition. Sangaran (2005) found that form-focused planning along with two other planning conditions had positive effects on students' oral production, including accuracy. However, no significant difference among the three pre-planning conditions was described. She contended that former research may have not been successful in drawing the learners' attention to form and accuracy properly.

In addition, some studies proposed that accuracy is raised when pre-task planning is allowed (Ellis, 1987; Kawauchi, 2005; Menhart, 1998). Sangarun (2005) discovered that focusing on form, meaning, and form and meaning influenced accuracy significantly. In the aspect of Spanish noun-modifier agreement Ortega supplied a mixed obtaining which was that planning raised accuracy (1999). Based on the results of this study, it is inferred that planning is effective. Different planning bases and learners' production: Focusing on only the meaning was like the form only in pre-task (guided) planning in which learners would not be able to increase writing accurately. The present work confirms the hypothesis which guiding lower-intermediate learners' attention to both meaning and form of language improves their production. Meaning and form based pre-task (guided) planning improves low-intermediate learners' performance more than two other groups.

Pre-task (guided) planning is a necessary methodological issue in language teaching and learning. Students need guidance as to how to use the planning time to make best use of their planning time. Therefore, our students may not know how exactly to do in pre-task planning if they are not guided. Teachers may have the responsibility to inform students to meaning and form focused (guided) planning, based on Lightbown and Spada in compounding of meaning-based and form-focused teaching, a higher level of grammatical accuracy in oral production is expected (1990). And also in this study both higher level of accuracy in writing performance in meaning and form based pre-task (guided) planning is reported.

This study has important pedagogic implications for L2 writing by showing that meaning and form based pre-task guided planning significantly influences accuracy of written production. In fact, language teachers can readily boost learners' accuracy of writing by first supplying them with instructions to make them focus on meaning and form for their subsequent production and then allowing them to plan their writings prior to their actual writing activity.

APPENDICES

Test of Normality for Group One (Meaning-Based Accuracy)

TEST OF NORMALITY						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
VAR00001	.109	16	.200*	.974	16	.896

*.This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Test of Normality for Group Two (Form-Focused Accuracy)

TEST OF NORMALITY						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
VAR00001	.167	16	.200*	.924	16	.195

*.This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Test of Normality for Group Three (Meaning and Form Focused Accuracy)

TEST OF NORMALITY

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
VAR00001	.118	16	.200*	.935	16	.293

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

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The Impact of Teachers' Reflectivity and Gender on Their Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Teaching Style

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of teachers' reflectivity and gender on their use of intellectual excitement and interpersonal rapport teaching styles. Fifty EFL teachers (25 male and 25 female) in various English Language Institutes in Shiraz, Fars province, Iran were selected through availability sampling. The participants were all from the 23-42 age group. Their degree level ranged from BA to MA in TEFL (30 teachers), English Literature (10 teachers) and Linguistics (10 teachers). The teachers' teaching experience ranged between 5 and 10 years. They were given the teacher reflectivity questionnaire introduced by Akbari, Behzadpour and Dadvand (2010) and Lowman's (1995) Two Dimensional Teaching style scale. To analyze the data, use was made of inferential statistics including correlation, independent sample T-test and Two-way ANOVA. The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between teachers' reflectivity and teaching style. Gender was shown to have no effect on teacher's reflectivity. Gender was of course observed to be a contributing factor in teaching style, and finally teachers' reflectivity and gender did not reveal any impact on teaching style.

Index Terms—language teaching, reflection, teaching style, teacher's gender, interpersonal rapport, intellectual excitement

I. INTRODUCTION

Due to its role in problem solving and decision making process, reflective teaching has received a lot of attention by teachers and researchers in the realm of language teaching. According to Ken Zeichner and Liston (1996, p. 207), "There is no such thing as an unreflective teacher." Milrood (1999, p. 10) defines reflection as "the process of mirroring the environment non-judgmentally or critically for the purpose of decision-making." Schon (1987) describes reflection as a way of presenting and dealing with the problems of practice, of allowing the self to be more open to different possibilities during the process of presenting teaching problems and then putting those problems in context in order to discover actions to improve the situation. Schon names two types of reflection including "reflection on action", which takes place after a teaching episode to allow mental reconstruction and analysis of the actions and events, and "reflection in action" which happens during the act of teaching and entails interpreting, analyzing, and providing solutions to the complex situations in the classroom. Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985, p. 19) view reflection as "intellectual and affective abilities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to achieve new understandings and appreciations". Teachers generally reflect on their teaching and students' learning, how effective their instructional decisions are, approaches to teaching, improving practice and cognitive awareness of their reflective processes (McAlpine, Weston, Berthiaume & Fairbank-Roch, 2004).

Reflection can exert impacts on teachers' teaching style as well. Teaching style refers to a teacher's pervasive qualities that persist even though situational conditions may change (Conti & Welborn, 1996, cited in Akbari, Kiany, Imami Naeeni, Karimi Allvar, 2008). In other words, teaching style is the expression of the totality of one's philosophy, beliefs, values, and behaviors (Jarvis, 2004, cited in Akbari, 2008).

Many researchers have already undertaken research on learning and teaching style. Peacock (2001), for example, studied the correlation between learning and teaching styles based on Reid's hypotheses. He found out that a mismatch between teaching and learning styles could lead to learning failure, frustration and demotivation. He further found that learners favored kinesthetic and auditory styles while teachers favored kinesthetic, group and auditory styles. Zhenhui (2001) analyzed matching teaching styles with learning styles in East Asian contexts. He concluded that an effective matching between teaching and learning styles could only be achieved when teachers were aware of their learners' needs, capacities, potentials, and learning style preferences. He also stated that a wise and careful change in the style could create a teacher-student style matching. Dunn and Dunn (1993) studied how people learn and they noticed that some

students achieved knowledge only through selective methods. They mentioned an array of elements affecting the learning style: environmental, emotional, sociological and physical elements. Reid (1995) said:

Learning styles are internally based on characteristics of individuals for intake of understanding of new information. All learners have individual attributes related to the learning processes. Some people may rely on visual presentations, others prefer spoken language; still others may respond better to hand-on activities. It is evident that people learn differently and these differences in learning abound ESL/EFL settings. (p. 13)

Purpose of the Study

Although this field of research has attracted abundant attention on the part of researchers all over the globe, the present study intends to investigate the impact of teachers' reflectivity and gender on their use of intellectual excitement and interpersonal rapport teaching styles in an EFL context. Based on this broad objective, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group)?
 - 1.1: Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement?
 - 1.2: Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport?
2. Is there a significant difference between males and females in Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group)?
 - 2.1 Is there a significant difference between males and females in Intellectual Excitement?
 - 2.2. Is there a significant difference between males and females in Interpersonal Rapport?
3. Is the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender effective on the Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group)?
 - 3.1. Is the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender effective on Intellectual Excitement?
 - 3.2. Is the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender effective on Interpersonal Rapport?

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were also introduced:

- H1. There is a relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group).
 - H1.1. There is a relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement.
 - H1.2. There is a relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport.
- H2. There is a significant difference between males and females in Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group).
 - H2.1. There is a significant difference between males and females in Intellectual Excitement.
 - H2.2. There is a significant difference between males and females in Interpersonal Rapport.
- H3. The interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender is effective on the Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group).
 - H3.1. The interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender is effective on Intellectual Excitement.
 - H3.2. The interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender is effective on Interpersonal Rapport.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants of the Study

The participants of the study included 25 male and 25 female English teachers selected from 7 English language institutes namely Sa'i Institute, Modarres Boys Institute, Aburayhan Institute, Modarres Girls Institute, Setareh Institute, Borna Institute and Shokouh Institute using availability sampling. In all, there were 32 English language institutes in Shiraz. The participants were all within the 23-42 age group and they held a B.A. or M.A. degree in one of the following majors: *TEFL*, *English Literature* or *Linguistics*. Further, their teaching experience ranged between 5 and 10 years.

Instruments of the Study

Teacher reflectivity questionnaire. The teacher reflectivity questionnaire used in this study was that proposed by Akbari, Behzadpour and Dadvand (2010). The questionnaire included 29 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=never to 5=always (Appendix I). Different dimensions of reflectivity including affective, cognitive, metacognitive, practical and critical were considered. This questionnaire was used here for a number of reasons: First, it fit the objectives of the present study. Second, it had been used highly frequently by researchers from different parts of the world. Third, its validity and reliability had been checked several times with different datasets. Finally, it covered Akbari, Behzadpour and Dadvand's (2010) five reflectivities namely affective, cognitive, metacognitive, practical and critical.

Lowman's two-dimensional teaching style scale. Being a dependable measure developed by Lowman (1995), this scale was used to assess teachers' teaching style by investigating their perceptions and preferences with respect to concepts of Intellectual Excitement (IE) and Interpersonal Rapport (IR). The scoring system in this instrument is based on a 5-point Likert scale beginning with 1 representing that 0% to 10% of the time the item applied to the respondents and ending with 5 showing that 95% to 100% of the time the item was true about them. It included 22 items (Appendix II), eleven of which measured teachers' IE and the rest measured teachers' IR.

Analysis of Reliability

In this study, Cronbach's Alpha was used to compute a reliability score for each of the following scales: Teacher Reflectivity, Teaching Style and its components, Intellectual Excitement and finally Interpersonal Rapport. Based on the findings (c.f. Table 1), all the reliabilities computed were above 0.7 (note that a reliability score of 0.7 or above is considered convenient or highly reliable.). This entailed that the questionnaires drawn on in this study were all reliable and accordingly suitable to be used as instruments in this study.

TABLE 1.
CRONBACH'S ALPHA COMPUTED FOR THE FOUR SCALES.

Statistics \ scale	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items	No. of Participants
Teacher Reflectivity	0.838	29	50
Teaching Style	0.887	22	50
Intellectual Excitement	0.795	11	50
Interpersonal Rapport	0.821	11	50

Purpose of the Study

In all, 50 teachers – 25 males and 25 females – from 7 language institutes in Shiraz completed two questionnaires namely teacher's reflectivity questionnaire proposed by Akbari, Behzadpour and Dadvand (2010) and Lowman's two-dimensional teaching style scale proposed by Lowman (1995). The questionnaires had been set based on a 5-point Likert scale. "The Likert scale is usually used in questionnaires where a special kind of survey question uses a set of ordered responses. Usually, the responses are arranged on a scale of 1 to 5" (Yamini & Rahimi, 2007, pp. 13-14). It took about 30 minutes for the teachers to answer the items on the questionnaires. A brief instruction was, of course, given to participants before questionnaire administration. Moreover, they were informed, in advance, of the purpose of the survey. Participants were requested to answer each statement carefully.

Data Analysis Procedure

To analyze the data, both descriptive and inferential statistics were drawn on. First, for each of the variables of the study namely Teacher Reflectivity, Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport) descriptive statistics including mean, median, standard deviation, minimum and maximum were presented. Then, for each variable a histogram including a normal curve was provided. Later, to test the hypotheses of the study use was also made of inferential statistics including Pearson correlation, t-independent and two-way ANOVA. In order to use these tests, the data needed to be normally distributed. Hence, prior to dealing with the hypotheses of the study, normality of the variables' distribution was checked using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

III. RESULTS

In Table 2, descriptive statistics for variables, Teacher Reflectivity, Teaching Style and its components: Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport have been summarized. The results, in this table, indicated that the mean score for Teacher Reflectivity was 3.45 (SD=0.467), with a range of 2.07 to 4.83. Half of the participants were above 3.43 (median). As regards the Teaching Style, the mean score obtained was 4.13 (SD=0.515) and the scores ranged between 2.18 and 5. In this scale, most of the participants were above 4.20 (median).

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON TEACHER REFLECTIVITY, TEACHING STYLE, INTELLECTUAL EXCITEMENT AND INTERPERSONAL RAPPORT.

Variable	Gender	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Teacher Reflectivity	Male	3.35	3.38	0.530	2.07	4.83
	Female	3.56	3.66	0.373	2.83	4.10
	Total	3.45	3.43	0.467	2.07	4.83
Teaching Style	Male	3.99	4.09	0.624	2.18	5.00
	Female	4.28	4.41	0.327	3.41	4.86
	Total	4.13	4.20	0.515	2.18	5.00
Intellectual Excitement	Male	3.93	4.00	0.653	2.18	5.00
	Female	4.24	4.27	0.329	3.55	4.91
	Total	4.08	4.18	0.535	2.18	5.00
Interpersonal Rapport	Male	4.04	4.27	0.640	2.18	5.00
	Female	4.33	4.45	0.468	3.27	4.91
	Total	4.19	4.32	0.573	2.18	5.00

Similarly, in Intellectual Excitement, the mean score obtained was 4.0813 (SD=0.535). Further, the scores ranged between 2.18 and 5. In this scale, most of the participants were above 4.18 (median). Finally, the mean score computed for Interpersonal Rapport was 4.19 (SD=0.573) and the scores ranged between 2.18 and 5. In this scale, most of the participants were above 4.32 (median).

To test the hypotheses, use was made of Pearson correlation, t-independent and two-way ANOVA. The precondition for the application of such tests is that the data should be normally distributed. Thus, before getting to the hypotheses of the study, normality of the variables distribution was checked by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (Table 3).

TABLE 3.
KOLMOGOROV TEST OF NORMAL DISTRIBUTION OF VARIABLES.

Variable	Z	Sig.
Teacher Reflectivity	0.470	0.980
Teaching Style	1.217	0.104
Intellectual Excitement	1.231	0.096
Interpersonal Rapport	1.276	0.077

The above table shows the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Since the p-values obtained were all greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) for all the variables (Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (and its two subparts Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport)), the statistics were not significant which means that all the distributions were normal. In what follows, each research question will be analyzed separately.

Analysis of Research Question 1

Q1: Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group)?

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group).

TABLE 4.
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHER REFLECTIVITY AND TEACHING STYLE (INTELLECTUAL EXCITEMENT AND INTERPERSONAL RAPPORT AS A SINGLE GROUP)

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style	0.299	0.035	50

As presented in Table 4, the correlation between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport as a single group) was significant at the level of 0.05 ($P = 0.035 < 0.05$). Thus, there was a significant relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style as a whole. The Pearson correlation was 0.299 which is an average correlation. Based on the results, the two variables are directly correlated, since the correlation is positive. Hence, hypothesis 1 is accepted.

Analysis of Research Question 1.1

Q 1.1: Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement?

Hypothesis 1.1: There is a relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement.

TABLE 5.
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHER REFLECTIVITY AND INTELLECTUAL EXCITEMENT.

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement	0.284	0.046	50

As presented in Table 5, the correlation between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement was significant at the level of 0.05 ($P = 0.035 < 0.05$). Thus, there was a significant relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement. The Pearson correlation was 0.299 which is an average correlation. The two variables are directly correlated, since the correlation is positive. It means that Teacher Reflectivity increases with an increase in the other variable, say, Intellectual Excitement. Thus, hypothesis 1.1 is accepted.

Analysis of Research Question 1.2

Q 1.2: Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport?

Hypothesis 1.2: There is a relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport.

TABLE 6.
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHER REFLECTIVITY AND INTERPERSONAL RAPPORT.

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
Teachers' Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport	0.272	0.056	50

As indicated in Table 6, the correlation between Teacher Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport was not significant at the level of 0.05 ($P = 0.056 > 0.05$). Thus, there was no significant relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport. Hence, hypothesis 1.2 is rejected.

Analysis of research Question 2

Q 2: Is there any significant difference between males and females in Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group)?

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between males and females in Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group).

TABLE 7.
THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF TEACHING STYLE (INTELLECTUAL EXCITEMENT AND INTERPERSONAL RAPPORT CONSIDERED AS A SINGLE GROUP) IN MALES AND FEMALES.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male	25	3.99	0.624	0.125	-0.29	-2.10	48	0.041
Female	25	4.28	0.327	0.065				

As illustrated in Table 7, the independent sample t-test revealed that there was a significant difference between the two genders (male and female teachers) in terms of their Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group) ($p=0.041<0.05$). Comparison of the mean scores obtained by the two groups, males and females, revealed that Teaching Style in the female group was significantly higher than that in the male group. Based on this finding, hypothesis 2 is accepted.

Analysis of Research Question 2.1

Q 2.1: Is there any significant difference between males and females in Intellectual Excitement?

Hypothesis 2.1: There is a significant difference between males and females in Intellectual Excitement.

TABLE 8.
THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF INTELLECTUAL EXCITEMENT IN MALES AND FEMALES.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male	25	3.93	0.653	0.131	-0.31	-2.11	48	0.040
Female	25	4.24	0.329	0.066				

The result of the independent sample t-test as presented in Table 8 showed that there was a significant difference between male and female teachers in Intellectual Excitement ($p=0.040<0.05$). Comparison of the mean scores obtained in the two groups revealed that Intellectual Excitement in the female group was significantly higher than that in the male group. Accordingly, hypothesis 2.1 is accepted.

Analysis of Research Question 2.2

Q 2.2: Is there any significant difference between males and females in Interpersonal Rapport?

Hypothesis 2.2: There is a significant difference between males and females in Interpersonal Rapport.

TABLE 9.
THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF INTERPERSONAL RAPPORT IN MALES AND FEMALES.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male	25	4.04	0.640	0.128	-0.28	-1.79	48	0.080
Female	25	4.33	0.468	0.094				

The result of the independent sample t-test as presented in Table 9 showed that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers in Interpersonal Rapport ($p=0.080>0.05$). Intellectual Excitement mean in females was slightly greater than that in the males group, but this difference was not statistically significant. Thus, hypothesis 2.2 is rejected.

Analysis of Research Question 3

Q 3: Is the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender effective on the Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group)?

Hypothesis 3: The interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender is effective on the Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group).

To analyze this hypothesis, Teacher Reflectivity was categorized into three groups namely low, medium and high. The cut points were considered mean plus/minus half of standard variation (3.45 ± 0.23). So, those with a Teacher Reflectivity of lower than 3.22 were considered as low group, and those with a Teacher Reflectivity of 3.22 to 3.68 and above 3.68 were considered as medium and high groups respectively.

Then, the effect of gender and Teacher Reflectivity on Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group) was tested using two-way analysis of variance (two-way ANOVA) as reported in Table 10 below.

TABLE 10.
THE TWO-WAY ANOVA FOR THE EFFECT OF GENDER AND TEACHER REFLECTIVITY ON TEACHING STYLE (INTERPERSONAL RAPPORT AND INTELLECTUAL EXCITEMENT CONSIDERED AS A SINGLE GROUP).

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	0.534	1	0.534	2.147	0.150
Teacher Reflectivity Level	0.771	2	0.386	1.551	0.223
Gender * Teacher Reflectivity Level	0.387	2	0.194	0.779	0.465
Error	10.935	44	0.249		
Total	867.357	50			

In Table 10, the interaction effect of Teacher Reflectivity Level and gender on Teaching Style was analyzed based on two-way ANOVA. The results showed that the effect was not significant ($p=0.465>0.05$). This means that the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender was not significantly effective on Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group). Thus, hypothesis 3 is rejected.

Analysis of Research Question 3.1

Q 3.1: Is the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender effective on Intellectual Excitement?

Hypothesis 3.1: The interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender is effective on Intellectual Excitement.

The effect of gender and Teacher Reflectivity on Intellectual Excitement was tested by two-way analysis of variance (two-way ANOVA) as reported in Table 11.

TABLE 11.
THE TWO-WAY ANOVA FOR THE EFFECT OF GENDER AND TEACHER REFLECTIVITY ON INTELLECTUAL EXCITEMENT.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	0.668	1	0.668	2.437	0.126
Teacher Reflectivity Level	0.737	2	0.369	1.345	0.271
Gender * Teacher Reflectivity Level	0.096	2	0.048	0.176	0.839
Error	12.064	44	0.274		
Total	847.099	50			

In Table 11, the interaction effect of Teacher Reflectivity Level and gender on Intellectual Excitement was analyzed using two-way ANOVA. The results indicated that the effect was not significant ($p=0.839>0.05$). This means that the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender is not significantly effective on Intellectual Excitement. Thus, hypothesis 3.1 is rejected.

Analysis of Research Question 3.2

Q 3.2: Is the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender effective on Interpersonal Rapport?

Hypothesis 3.2: The interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender is effective on Interpersonal Rapport.

The effect of gender and Teacher Reflectivity on Interpersonal Rapport was tested by two-way analysis of variance (two-way ANOVA) as reported in Table 12.

TABLE 12.
THE TWO-WAY ANOVA FOR THE EFFECT OF GENDER AND TEACHER REFLECTIVITY ON INTERPERSONAL RAPPORT.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	0.414	1	0.414	1.334	0.254
Teacher Reflectivity Level	0.806	2	0.403	1.299	0.283
Gender * Teacher Reflectivity Level	0.934	2	0.467	1.504	0.233
Error	13.655	44	0.310		
Total	892.000	50			

In Table 12, the interaction effect of Teacher Reflectivity Level and gender on Interpersonal Rapport was analyzed based on two-way ANOVA. The results indicated that the effect was not significant ($p=0.233>0.05$). This means that the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender was not significantly effective on Interpersonal Rapport. Thus, hypothesis 3.2 is rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION

In this section, each research question will be restated and all the relevant discussions pertaining to that research question will be provided under it. For ease of discussion, each research question will be discussed separately:

For the first research question, "Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group)?" a significant and positive relationship was observed between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style as a whole. Milrod (1999) and Zeincher and Liston (1966) also found a positive relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style (as a whole). This asserts that Teacher reflectivity and Teaching Style are interrelated and should not be seen or considered separately, each can reinforce the other. For the question, "Is there any relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement?" a significant relationship was observed between Teacher Reflectivity and Intellectual Excitement. This

finding is in line with the finding of McAlpine, et al. (2004). This shows that these two variables are interwoven and should be seen with regard to each other. With regard to the question no significant relationship was found between Teacher Reflectivity and Interpersonal Rapport. This finding was in line with the finding of Louden (1992, cited in Sarsar, 2008).

Regarding the second research question of the study, “Is there any significant difference between males and females in Teaching Style (Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport considered as a single group)?” Teaching Style in the female group was observed to be significantly higher than that in the male group. Dewey (1933) also reported such differences between males and females. With regard to the question, “Is there any significant difference between males and females in Intellectual Excitement?” a significant difference was reported between males and females in Intellectual Excitement in favor of the female group. This finding is in line with the finding reported by Zeichner and Liston (1966). In contrast, in the research question, “Is there any significant difference between males and females in Interpersonal Rapport?” the Intellectual Excitement mean in females was slightly greater than that in the males group, but this difference was not statistically significant. This finding is in line with the finding reported by Valli (1993).

Regarding the third research question, “Is the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender effective on the Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group)?” the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender was not found to be significantly effective on Teaching Style (Interpersonal Rapport and Intellectual Excitement considered as a single group) a finding which is similar to that reported by McCombs and Miller (2007). Further, the interaction effect of Teacher Reflectivity Level and gender on Intellectual Excitement was observed to be insignificant, that is, the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender was not significantly effective on Intellectual Excitement. This finding is in line with the finding reported by Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985). Similarly, the interaction effect of Teacher Reflectivity Level and gender on Interpersonal Rapport was found to be insignificant. This finding is in line with the findings reported by Louden (1992, cited in Sarsar, 2008).

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings reported in this paper are of theoretical and pedagogical implications. The findings support theories, techniques and models dealing with Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style. The findings here assert the importance of such variables in academic settings. The findings enjoy pedagogical implications as well. They can be used by teachers, curriculum planners, syllabi designers, authors of academic books and all those involved in education. The findings also show that the two instruments developed could also be used in Iranian context to collect data from teachers.

VI. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

No piece of research could be deemed as perfect and complete. Accordingly, the following limitations were imposed on the present research:

- Due to time limitation, only 50 participants (equal males and females groups) were included in this research.
- All the teachers were from English language institutes in Shiraz. Had the researcher had more time, teachers from other cities or from other academic levels (i.e. university level) could have been added to the research.
- To select the participants, availability sampling was used. Had the researcher selected other, more objective, sampling techniques, the results could have more generalizability.
- Two tools were used in this research – one for Teacher Reflectivity and one for Teaching Style. Other tools available for the same topics could have been used had the researcher formulated other objectives as well.
- In all, three variables were considered in this research. Had the researcher had more time, more variables could have been included.

VII. PROSPECTS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the results reported in this research, a series of other research works could be undertaken a few examples of which have been mentioned below:

- In this thesis, the relationship between Teacher Reflectivity and Teaching Style was studied. Other researchers can add other variables as well.
- In this thesis, gender differences were studied in Teacher Reflectivity, but the age of the participants were not taken into consideration. Other researchers can work on such issues but using a larger sample size.
- In this thesis, the effect of the interaction of Teacher Reflectivity and gender on the Teaching Style was studied. Others could incorporate student variables as well in their studies.
- Other researchers could add other instruments as well in their studies.

APPENDIX I

Questionnaire A:

The teacher reflectivity questionnaire

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is devised with the aim of looking into your actual teaching practices as a professional teacher. To that end, your careful completion of the questionnaire will definitely contribute to obtaining real data which is crucial for more accurate findings. Therefore, please check the box which best describes your actual teaching practices. The information will be kept confidential and will be used just for research purposes. Thank you very much in advance for your time and cooperation.

Name: **Gender:** Male ☐ Female ☐

Level: No Degree ☐ BA in English ☐ MA in English ☐ PhD in English ☐

Degree in other Fields of Study (please specify): ☐

Teaching Experience (years):

	1: Never	2: Rarely	3: Sometimes	4: Often	5: Always
Items	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. I have a file where I keep my teaching for reviewing purposes.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I talk about my classroom experience with my colleagues and seek their advice/feedback.	1	2	3	4	5
3. After each lesson, I write about the accomplishments/failures of that lesson or I talk about the lesson to a colleague.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I discuss practical/theoretical issues with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I observe other teachers' classrooms to learn about their efficient practices.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I ask my peers to observe my teaching and comment on my teaching performance	1	2	3	4	5
7. I read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve my classroom performance.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I think of writing articles based on my classroom experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
Items	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
10. I look at journal articles or search the internet to see what the recent developments in my profession are.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I carry out small scale research activities in my classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I talk to my students to learn about their learning styles and preferences.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I talk to my students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I ask my students whether they like a teaching task or not.	1	2	3	4	5
16. As a teacher, I think about my teaching philosophy and the way it is affecting my teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I think of the ways my biography or my background affects the way I define myself as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I think of the meaning or significance of my job as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I try to find out which aspects of my teaching provide me with a sense of satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I think about my strengths and weaknesses as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I think of the positive/negative role models I have had as a student and the way they have affected me in my practice.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I think of inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in my classroom practice.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I think about instances of social injustice in my own surroundings and try to discuss them in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I think of ways to enable my students to change their social lives in fighting poverty, discrimination, and gender bias.	1	2	3	4	5
25. In my teaching, I include less-discussed topics, such as old age, AIDS, discrimination against women and minorities, and poverty.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I think about the political aspects of my teaching and the way I may affect my students' political views.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I think of ways through which I can promote tolerance and democracy in my classes and in the society in general.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I think about the ways gender, social class, and race influence my students' achievements.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I think of outside social events that can influence my teaching inside the class.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX II

Questionnaire B:

Dear respondent,

The following questions form a self-assessment of your two-dimensional teaching style. It is matched to a student version; allowing you to easily compare your results with your students' assessment of your style. Read each item carefully. Think about how you usually behave when teaching. Then circle the letter that most closely describes your style. Circle only one choice for each question. Use the following key for your answers:

A = Always ≈ 90 to 100% of the time

N = Never ≈ 0 to 10% of the time

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The Temporal Art of the Short Story *The Bear Came Over the Mountain*

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Abstract—Alice Munro is a Canadian author writing in English. Her stories explore human complexities in an uncomplicated prose style. Munro's work has been described as having revolutionized the architecture of short stories for its tendency of moving forward and backward in time is in particular. This paper attempted to give a deep analysis on the times order in the short story "The Bear Came Over the Mountain" to explore the temporal art of the story.

Index Terms—Alice Munro, temporal order, narrative time, story time, inter weaved.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Alice Munro and the Purpose of This Paper

Alice Ann Munro (1931—), a Canadian writer, who set much of her canon in her native southwestern Ontario, has long been considered one of the most important writers of psychological fiction. She always insisted on the particular importance of women's lives and her stories embed more than announce, reveal more than parade. During her sixty-year career, Munro has not only published thirteen collections of stories and a novel but also received lots of awards, including the Man Booker International Prize, the National Book Critics Circle Award and the 2013 Nobel Prize in Literature for her work as "master of the contemporary short story".

Alice Munro has always been a writer's writer for her works like a diamond. That's the way memory works and storytelling goes even which seems not logical. It's remembering and recounting through memory what happened just like the way dreams work. It is often said that a good fiction corresponds closely to the structure of dreams if it is aesthetically and morally purposeful. It's dazzling when you read Munro's story because it is cubic, not exactly linear. So if you outline one of her story in cause and result chronologically, you would find that it hold big gaps in time, sometimes of whole decades. The story *the bear came over the mountain* is one of the examples.

This paper makes an analysis on the narrative time of the short story from the points of view of the temporal order and duration so as to get a better understanding and appreciation of Alice Munro's narrative techniques in the story *the bear came over the mountain*.

B. Summary of Story *The Bear Came Over the Mountain*

Alice Munro's story, *the bear came over the mountain*, first published in *The New Yorker* in 1999, then collected in Munro's 2001 book *Hateship, Friendship, Courtship, Loveship, Marriage*. The story follows a married couple, Fiona and Grant, living their elderly life in Ontarian, regularly and peacefully. They usually prepare the meal together and often chat or read to each other. They talk the mutually remembered but seldom discussed matter of Grant's past adulteries. With Fiona's development of what appears to be Alzheimer's disease, she enters into the assisted living center Meadowlake, while Grant must abide by the institution's policy prohibiting visitors for the first month so that new residents can adapt to their surroundings. During that month, Fiona forgets her attachment to him and develops a fondness for another resident, Aubrey, who has been stricken by a virus that left him mostly mute and in a wheelchair. Without any memory of her relationship to Grant, Fiona has lost her faithfulness. Although Grant is jealous and persistently watchful over her and Aubrey, he seems to adapt to this change and does not chastise her for her changed allegiance. One day, Aubrey is removed from Meadowlake by his wife Marian, leaving Fiona heartbroken. In response, Grant seeks out Marian and implores her to allow Aubrey to visit Fiona. However, Grant's own loyalty undergoes a further test by Marian's invitation to a dance. He plays on Marian's attraction in order to gain her permission with regard to Aubrey's visit.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS

A. Narrative Time

The narrative text is temporal art, and it is never separate from time. Narration develops in time and time passes in narration. Making full use of temporal factors is one of important ways for a novelist to succeed in maneuvering the textual mechanism of his novel. In narratology, narrative is a doubly temporal sequence: the narrative time and the story time. The former one also called the time of the signified or internal time, which refers to the arranged time that based on the successive order of a series of events. The narrative time also called the time of the signifier or external time,

which refers to the temporal conditions presented in a narrative text. According to Genette, the duality not only renders possible all the temporal distortions that are commonplace in narratives and more basically, it invites us to consider that one of the functions of narrative is to invent one time scheme in terms of another time scheme. (Genette, 1980, p.33) Genette isolates three major aspects of temporal manipulation in the movement from story to text. Studying the possible relationship between the story time and narrative time, he points out that they may be classified in terms of order, duration and frequency.

To know the temporal order of a narrative text is to explore the relationship between the chronological order in which events are arranged in the story and the order in which these events are presented in the narrative text. Any departure is termed anachrony by Genette in the order of presentation in the text from the order in which events evidently occurred in the story. It mainly includes two forms of temporal motion track such as prolepsis and analepsis.

Prolepsis refers to any narrative maneuver that consists of narrating in advance an event that will take place later while analepsis designates any evocation after the fact of any event that took place earlier than the point in the story where we are at any given moment (Genett, 1980) However, it is not entirely limited to the two terms. Chinese narratologist HuYamin points out that there exists another form of temporal motion track such as achrony besides prolepsis and analepsis, which means that the track of narrative time is sometimes unintelligible, and past, present and future are complicatedly interweaved.

B. Temporal Order in *The Bear Came Over the Mountain*

In the short story *The bear came over the mountain*, Munro makes full use of chronological disorder to succeed in maneuvering the textual mechanism. There exists the normal temporal order, but anachronies are more used. A lot of prolepses and analepses make the temporal order of the story chaotic, and the narration which shuttles past, present, and future makes the time sequence of story even more chaotic and fragmented. For example, at the beginning of the story, the narrator begins with the story from their young age life, then suddenly skips to their seventy years old situation at the next paragraph.

“Do you think it would be fun—” Fiona shouted. “Do you think it would be fun if we got married?” He took her up on it, he shouted yes. (p 164)

The next paragraph:

Just before they left their house Fiona notices a mark on the kitchen floor...She was a tall, narrow-shouldered woman, seventy years old but still upright and trim. (p 164)

In order to know the temporal sequence of this story, it is necessary to make a comparison on the two kinds of orders. They are the order in which events or temporal fragments in the narrative discourse and the order of succession these same events or temporal fragments have in the real story. In fact, according to many historical events and actual dates provided in the novel, the time sequence of the story can be roughly constructed. In *the bear came over the mountain*, the temporal analysis of such a text consists three vital clues in the story. Clue A presents any events happened in their youths of Grant and Fiona. Clue B represents Fiona’s amnesiac and some reminiscence near their elder age. Clue C naturally shows the Grant’s experiences after Fiona enters into the assisted living center Meadowlake. The internal order of the Clue A, B, C are sometimes interweaved but here a rough line can be given. They are as follows:

Clue A	narrative order	A1	A2	A3	A4
	story order	A3	A1	A4	A2

A1: It presents their younger lives and their love of each other. Grant wanted never to be away from Fiona for she had the spark of life.

A2: Grant’s dream about his deceiving for Fiona: his love affair with other girls

A3: Their flipped love in their teen ages.

A4: Grant’s adultery with a woman Jacqui Adams who was the opposite of Fiona and after that, he get involved with a girl who was young enough to be Jacqui’s daughter.

Clue B	narrative order	B1	B2	B3	B4
	story order	B3	B2	B4	B1

B1: Fiona’s appearances of Alzheimer’s disease became apparently. She put many little notes stuck up all over the house to remind her memories. She got lost on the road to home and she asked policeman that if he’d seen Boris and Natasha who were dead wolfhounds she had adopted many years ago.

B2: several years ago, they visited Mr. Farquhar, an old bachelor farmer who had been their neighbor. Fiona could not bear the gloomy and the smell of the old Meadowlake.

B3: After the death of Fiona’s feather as well as the two wolfhounds Boris and Natasha, Grant and Fiona rebuild their house, leading a new life where no more Grant’s adulteries.

B4: In the last few years, Fiona had developed an interest in the Iceland.

Clue C	Narrative order	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
	Story order	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5

C1: The scene before entering into the care center Meadowlake.

C1-1: Fiona's preparation when she gets ready to enter into the care center Meadowlake.

C1-2: They made the drive to the care center in January and adopted the rules of there.

C2: After one month, Grant go back to Meadowlake for the first visit with anxiety. Unfortunately, he finds that Fiona develops a fondness for another resident, Aubrey, and does not know who he is.

C3: The reflection and experiences of Grant in the Meadowlake.

C3-1: Grant is jealous and persistently watchful over Fiona and Aubrey.

Day by day, Grant does not get used to the way they were but Fiona seemed to get used to him, but only as some persistent visitor who take a special interest in her.

C3-2: Being influenced by his sees and hears in the care center, Grant gets more familiar with the people's living style here and begins to understand Mr. Farquhar's situation at that time.

C3-3: Grant keeps trying and takes the book Iceland to Fiona but she was not interested in it because she is greatly grieved for the departure of Aubrey.

C4: Fiona can not get over her sorrow and her living gets worse, Grant find out Aubrey's house.

C4-1: Grant implores his wife Marian to consider taking Aubrey back to Meadowlake, but failed.

C4-2: Marian invites Grant to join a dance party (actually it's Marian's flirtation and his accepting would get her acquiescence to Aubrey visiting Fiona). Grant is caught in a dilemma that he hesitated what he should do would lead a better result to Fiona.

C5 Grant brings Aubrey to Fiona. Surprisingly, Fiona reads the book Iceland near window. Her memory regained and she considers that Grant just leaves here for a long time.

The whole narrative order is

A1→C1-1→B1→C1-2→B2→A2→B3→C2→C3-1→A3→C3-2→B4→A4→
C3-3→C4→C5,

The whole story order is based on the three clues lined each other, they are as follows:

A3→A1→A4→A2→

B3→B2→B4→B1→

C1-1→C1-2→C2→C3-1→C3-2→C3-3→C4-1→C4-2→C5

From this analysis, we can find that the normal time sequence is somewhat used, anachronies are more often found in the story. Clue C mostly follows a line sequence, while clue A and clue B do not progress chronologically and embedded in the clue C. In the whole text, the three clues presents disordered. They may overlapped or skipped. In fact, they are often interrupted by analepses and prolepses.

C. Examples

In the story, analepses are easily found. Here gives three examples.

a. Although they have been to the Meadowlake before Fiona entered into, the narrator put it later.

..the supervisor said, "we find that if they're left on their own the first month they usually end up happy as clams." (p 167)

The next paragraph:

They had in fact gone over to Meadowlake a few times several years ago to visit Mr. Farquhar. (p167)

b. When narrating Grant's single life in the first month after Fiona entered into the Meadowlake, narrator firstly turns to their former old age time, then from Grant's dream backs to Grant's young life experiences.

Grant skied for exercise. He skied around and around in the field behind the house as the sun went down... (p 168)

They had usually prepared supper together...In a dream he showed a letter to one of his colleagues...he hauled himself out of the dream, took pills, and set about separating what was real from what was not.(p 168)

The next paragraph:

There had been a letter...he promised Fiona a new life. (p 169)

c. When narrating Grant's borings for the people in the Meadowlake, the narrator turns to the narration of the event which happened in Grant's young life.

On a Wednesday...-- and when Aubrey and Fiona were again in evidence, so that it was possible for Grant to have one of his brief and friendly and maddening conversations with his wife... (p 177)

The next paragraph:

When Grant had first started teaching Anglo-Saxon and Nordic literature he got the regular sort of students in his class... (p 178)

With the help of these analepses, Grant's young life stories which happens several years ago overlap his old age life experiences today so that the two stories about Grant taking place in different time are presented simultaneously. Thus, the narrator shows us an implied connection between his scandalous affair and his today's sufferings.

Except for those analepses, there are also some prolepses which cannot be ignored. For example, Fiona's preparation for the Meadowlake is told in advance, which happened later than her appearance of Alzheimer's disease that is being narrated. Within the first month after Fiona entered into the Meadowlake, Grant's guilty conscience from his scandalous affair is being pre-exposed in his dream, which is not known clearly by reader until the event of his adultery with Jacqui

Adams being narrated later.

To sum up, although these anachronies cause the temporal order of the story to be chaotic, they are aesthetically and purposefully. From these examples, these analepsis in the text not only provide the backgrounds of Grant and Fiona, but also present a complicated inner world of Grant and his guilty conscience, which play an important role in filling up the character's integrity. In the process of reading the story, these analepsis like flashbacks in a movie, making readers know more about their experiences and their characteristics, felling their ambiguous feelings. While prolepsis gives reader some hints in the development of their life and arose reader's interest. In my opinion, these anealepsis and prolepsis are all the author's firm grasp on the complicated interplay between character's desires and the outside forces over which they have almost no control.

III. DURATION

A. *Duration in Narrative Work*

In narratology, duration refers to the relationship between the amount of time covered by the events of a story (the duration of a story) and the amount of time involved in presenting those events (the duration of a narrative). Since it is hard to measure the duration of a narrative, narratologists explore duration by studying the speed of a narrative that is defined "by the relationship between a duration (that of the story, measured in seconds, minutes, hours, days, months and years) and a length (that of the narrative text, measured in lines and pages)" (Genette, 1980, p. 87). There are five basic forms of narrative movement whose narrative speeds are different. Ellipsis indicates the form of narrative movement of maximum narrative speed while pause refers to that of minimum narrative speeds. Between them, there exist other forms of narrative movement of various narrative speeds, which are called summary, scene and slow-down. Those five different narrative movements thus become distinguishable:

Ellipsis	Narrative time = 0	story time $> \infty$ narrative time
Summary		story time $>$ narrative time
Scene		story time \approx narrative time
Slow down		story time $<$ narrative time
Pause	Story time = 0	story time $< \infty$ narrative time
Here	$>$ means longer than	∞ means infinite
	$<$ means shorter than	\approx means round equal

B. *Duration in The Bear Came Over the Mountain*

1. The summary in the bear came over the mountain

Summary refers to the form of narrative movement in which the narrative time is obviously shorter than the story time, and to be more specific, the event of a long period is narrated in succinct language. Since most stories often cover long periods of time, summary is often need. Different summaries are different in narrative density.

For example, their old age life before Fiona getting ill is narrated in one paragraph:

It was a new life. He and Fiona worked on the house. They got cross country skis. They were not very sociable but they gradually made some friends. There were no more hectic flirtations. No bare female toes creeping up under a man's pants leg at a dinner party. No more loose wives. (p170)

For Grant, each Saturday's scenes in Meadowlake are narrated in a few sentences:

Saturdays had a holiday bustle and tension. Families arrived in clusters. Mothers were usually in charge; they were the ones who kept the conversation afloat. Men seemed cowed, teenagers affronted. (p 176)

2. The scene

A scene is like a scene in a play, which unfolds characters; activities or actions and also reveals their conversations or dialogues. A conversation between characters is considered to be a most typical scene. In a scene, the duration of the story and that of the narrative are roughly the same, and the narrative tempo is slower than that of a summary or an ellipsis. Here is a scene where Grant talked to Fiona:

"I brought you some flowers," he said. "I thought they'd do brighten up your room. I went to your room but you weren't there."

"well, no," she said. "I'm here" she glanced back at the table.

Grant said, "you've made a new friend." he nodded toward the man she'd been sitting next to. At this moment that man looked up at Fiona and she turned, either because of grant said or because she felt the look at her back.

"it's just Aubrey," she said. "The funny thing is I knew him years and years ago." (p172)

In this scene, Grant's and Fiona's actions and dialogues leap up vividly, and the event seems to be going on before reader's eyes. Besides this, character's actions or postures are meticulously described. For example, when Fiona backs to her seat, the narration is:

She slipped back into her chair and said something into Aubrey's ear. She tapped her fingers across the back of his hand. (p 173)

When Aubrey is going to leave from Meadowlake, Grant watch them in the room, the narration is:

They were hanging on to each other's hands and they did not let go.

The hat on the bed. The jacket and tie. (p 180)

3. The Pause

A pause occurs much more frequently and it includes all narrative sections in which no movement of the story time is implied. Much attention is paid to one element, and at the same time the plot remains stationary. However, when it is continued later on, no time has passed. In that case, we are dealing with a pause. In a narrative text, pauses mainly involve the narrator's intruding narration and static description. The narrator's intruding narration means that the narrator stops narrating the story, and instead makes comments on characters or events. In this intrusion, there is no flow of the story time. Description also means that there is no flow of time, though some objects are described a lot.

In *the bear came over the mountain*, there exist a lot of pauses such as the narrator's intruding narration. The narrator always stops telling the story being narrated, and comments on the events or characters. Later she goes on with the previous story again.

For example, when the narrator narrates the conversation between Grant and Kristy about why Fiona does not know him, she interrupts the narration of their conversation and gives description on Grant's thoughts.

Grant said, "does she even know who I am?" He could not decide. She could have been playing a joke. It would not be unlike her. She had given herself away by that little pretense at the end, talking to him as if she thought perhaps he was a new resident. If it was a pretense. Kristy said, "you just caught her at sort of a bad moment. Involved in the game." (p173)

4. Slow-down

The slow down stands in direct contrast to the summary. In a narrative text, the slow-down can have an extremely evocative effect. In this story, there appears such narrative movement as slow-down. When Grant anxious about what he would do for Marian's invitation, his consideration before he dialed the phone takes several paragraphs to narrate his complicated thoughts.

"Drapes. That would be her word for the blue curtains-drapes. And why not? He thought of the ginger cookies so perfectly round that she has to announce they were homemade, the ceramic coffee mugs on their ceramic tree, a plastic runner, he was sure, protecting the hall carpet... The walnut-stain tan--he believed now that it was a tan-of her face and neck would most likely continue into her cleavage, which would be deep, crepey-skinned, odorous and hot. He had that to think of as he dialed the number that he had already written down. That and the practical sensuality of her cat's tongue. Her gemstone eyes." (p 191)

At the moment of Grant dialing the number to Marian, many words are used in narrating it. Although they are all Grant's inner world, the slow-down makes an endless effect and presents Grant's intertwined mood.

5. Ellipsis

Ellipsis means the form of narrative movement in which the narrative time stops while the story time is still stretching. In the story, after narrating Marian's invitation and Grant's ambiguous feelings, Munro leaves a lacuna with a sequence in which Grant and Marian enter a sexual relationship and directly skips to the Meadowlake where Grant brings Aubrey to Fiona. On the one hand, the ellipsis in the text can suspends the result firstly and then allows readers guess how Grant would do. On the other hand, the lacuna leads reader a depression when they know the results for they don't expect Grant to do any sexual infidelity with Marian, though in this situation he must make a choice for the sake of winning her acquiescence to Aubrey visiting Fiona.

To sum up, there exist five forms of narrative movement such as ellipsis, summary, pause, scene and slow-down in the story, but scene, summary and pause are more often seen. Not only do these various narrative movements bring the novel different narrative rhythms, but also they produce other particular effects for the novel.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the narrative time is so cleverly maneuvered that particular effects have been achieved. With the help of the chaotic temporal order, the timeless surge of life is somewhat vividly revealed, so is the characteristic of the process of man's interior experience and the impingement of future and past on present. Scenes, ellipses, summaries and pause produce both different narrative rhythms and other special effects. Unlike many contemporary short fiction writers who capture moments in time, Munro can put backward and forward in time, which is often seen in novels instead of short stories. In her short stories, Munro is able to break off narrative then continue it later, and it's still connected. Meanwhile, readers can travel through the time, space even point of view so that sometimes we are closer in or further away. Alice Munro, seemingly creates a lot of pieces but actually a carefully arranged story and successfully brings us to her magical world.

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Vocabulary Learning through Using Mechanical Techniques Vocabulary Learning Strategy

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Abstract—Vocabulary learning and teaching is a key issue that has always been one of the related subjects for both teachers and learners of foreign languages. The aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of vocabulary learning strategy of using Mechanical Techniques in reading comprehension as a Direct vocabulary learning strategy by Iranian EFL learners for their lexical knowledge improvement. To achieve the aim of the study, fifty-eight pre-intermediate language learners were elected and appointed into two experimental and control groups based on a vocabulary pre-test. During the period of the study the experimental group was taught Mechanical Technique vocabulary Learning Strategy and the second group was assigned as a control group. To assess the impact of vocabulary learning strategy the researchers have used the model proposed by Oxford (1990) “Strategies Inventory for Language Learning. At the end of the study, the students in experimental and control group participated in a post test. The results showed that using Mechanical Technique by the students in the experimental group is effective in enhancing their vocabulary storage. Measuring lexical improvement indicated that using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy at pre- intermediate level can lead to higher achievement of vocabulary storage of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL undergraduate learners in reading comprehension skill.

Index Terms—mechanical techniques vocabulary learning strategy, vocabulary learning strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary mastery is one of the significant components in acquiring a second or foreign language and also is required to be learned in order to command of four important abilities, that is to say, reading, listening, writing and speaking, which cause to successful contact. In order to have successful communication, having acceptable knowledge of vocabulary is an inseparable portion of that communication. Thus, without having good and acceptable knowledge, no effective contact can manage and successful communication relies massively on vocabulary knowledge. According to Fauziati (2005) lack of enough vocabulary, one cannot transfer his/her message successfully or represent his/her views in both written and oral forms. One significant determinant is the amount of lexical a person possesses and can remember. Thus, having a good knowledge of vocabulary shapes the significant part of any language (McCarthy, 1988; as cited in Hamzah, Kafipour, & Kumar Abdullah, 2009). Attraction in acquiring a second language (L2) vocabulary has increased recently, especially after the necessity for more study on this ignored area of language learning (Meara, 2009) was declared by pioneer vocabulary learning researchers (Webb, 2007; Schmitt, 2008; Meara, 2009).

Regarding language learning, vocabulary acquisition is basic to language and of greater attention to typical language learner (Zimmerman, 1998). Moreover, it carries a significant role in English language skills. The more word learners acquire, the better they accomplish their language. Based on Schmitt (2000), the center of learning and communication is vocabulary. Limitation of vocabulary knowledge, the learners will face problems commanding English skill. The central effect of vocabulary storage in second or foreign language learning has been lately identified by researchers and theorists in the field. In the same line, some methods, techniques, styles, efforts and practice have been indicated in the area to train how to learn vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). It has been proposed that teachers in the process of instructing vocabulary should not only include particular vocabularies, but also aimed at familiarizing students with strategies and techniques necessary to improve their vocabulary knowledge (Hulstijn, 1993, cited in Morin & Goebel, 2001).

Various explorations by different researchers in foreign or second language have been done in the previous decades (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Green and Oxford, 1995; Weinstein et al, 2000), concerning with language learning strategies (LLS) and the effects of strategies in language learning. These studies had a realistic aim which was the investigation of the methods of enabling or improving second language learner to become more, resourceful, flexible, self-directed, and productive in their learning. As the teaching of language has enhanced also with different techniques, language researchers got more information on the significance of language learning strategies (LLS). The more researches were implemented in the mid-seventies, the more important the strategies were achieved (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). The main goal of learning strategies is to build communicative competence (Oxford, 1990).

Learning strategies can help students manipulate, guide, assign and direct their learning process (Hu & Tian, 2012). The exploration discovered that language learning strategies could assist learners' deficiencies, for instance, in English reading text and students also use strategies that do not entail them to be examined and criticized (Normazidah, Koo, & Hazita, 2012). Thus, strategies are regarded as facilitator tools, or guidance to a language learning of learners who are learning the English language as a second foreign language. English learners can be looked as personalities in English speaking setting whose native language is not English (Tamara, Elizabeth, Laura, Michelle, & Nina, 2012). Therefore, the language learning strategies can improve the learners' requirements, motivations, enjoyments, and other methods of learners in learning the English language. These informants help learners to affect their language learning acquisitions.

Linguists, scholars, and researchers propose various explanations of language learning strategies. Suwanarak, (2012) recognizes that language learning strategies are particular methods of learning, activities, techniques, behaviors which empower to make the process of vocabulary storage easy, reminding or usage of the target language for the purpose of connecting to an incomparable context. Takač, (2008) characterizes language learning strategy relates to the learners' attempt in order to acquire that it has become widely identified in the scope of second or foreign language learning. White, (2008) illustrates the process of language learning strategies as the procedures or activities that learners who elite and utilize to acquire the second or foreign language or make the process of language learning easy for learners. Macaro, (2001) reveals that using a strategy in the process of foreign or second language learning is a particular activity that learners utilize for the purpose of making their language learning methods faster, easier, more pleasant, independent, productive and applicable to the other specific situation. English language learning strategies relates to factors such as management, methods of acquisition in both outside and inside classes environment, actions of particular English language, and process utilized by a foreign or second language learners to make them gain their acquisition achievement (Kanchanit, 2009).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Significance of Vocabulary Learning*

According to Folse (2004), this is like a fiction to claim that vocabulary learning is not as significant as grammar learning or other components of language learning, concerning the point that in facts, vocabulary learning has a sorely significant role in learning the English language (Chen & Chun, 2008; Shoebottom, 2007). This is due to the fact that the more vocabulary storage those learners equipped, the more they have the ability to comprehend what they read and hear, thus the more successful they are transferring their ideas and more capable of saying what they need when writing or speaking (Shoebottom, 2007). In addition, learning the vocabulary of L2 is different from learning one's first language (L1). Folse (2004) also asserts that, contrary to vocabulary learning of L1, it is necessary for the learners of L2 to recover the form, the meaning, or the usage of the word that can be acquired by doing varieties of activities within classroom time. Wilkins (1972, as cited in Herbertson, 2010), explains the significance of learning vocabulary in his quote, "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." The expression demonstrates that without words, someone's efforts to make communication of his/her message to others could be of no profit. Although, a message could still be comprehended even though he/she does not use grammatically correct sentences. Nevertheless, problems might happen if a person does not have suitable and enough information to use the right vocabulary to understand his/ her message. The expression also shows that one could not read or listen without the enough knowledge of vocabulary storage (Herbertson, 2010).

B. *Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension*

Having good and acceptable command of the knowledge of vocabulary will help students to the better understanding of a reading text. Literacy experts are in a agreements that good knowledge of vocabulary storage and the capability to inseparably linked, the strength word is a base predictor of his or her capability to comprehend an extensive range of texts (Anderson and Freebody, 1981). This is also can be generalized for both native speakers of English and second language learners (Coady, 1993). Different types of strategies can be utilized to guide and help these learners for improvement their knowledge of vocabulary such as guessing meaning from context and using a dictionary. In other hand, to help students grasp and be able to keep in mind the new vocabularies better, it is necessary that they do more tasks and activities in which trainers would have to devote more and more time and this is where the direct teaching of vocabulary comes in.

C. *Vocabulary Learning Strategy*

For a long time, the significance of vocabulary teaching and learning has been attracted by instructors, researchers and commentators, due to the fact that having acceptable knowledge of vocabulary has a significant role in learning a second or foreign language (Laufer, 1986; Nation, 1990; Richards, 1980; cited in Lawson and Hoghen, 1996). Using strategy in Language learning can guide and help English trainers get a clearer comprehending of their learners' expectations and satisfaction with their language classes Suwanarak, (2012). It should be noted that sometimes the method of teaching applied by the English instructor may influence the learner' language learning strategies (Mohammad, 2011). Therefore, all English language teachers should explore different methods of teaching. Oxford,

(1990) illustrates that novel teaching capacities mentions the recognition of learners' learning strategies, administrating teaching on learning strategies, and guiding learners become to be more independent of their learning and thinking.

Generally, vocabulary knowledge is looked as the basic communication instrument, and usually labeled as the most problematic area by language instructors (Celik & Toptas, 2010). Although students command all grammar points in the language learning, they cannot make suitable communication when they do not have the enough word storage. The usage of strategies for learning of vocabulary has been explored by various researchers, scholars, linguists and language trainers in the previous decades (Levenston, 1979). A great number of scholars and researchers have been exploring the language learning and teaching method in different styles, and possible importance of other contexts of learning or trainee contributions such as learning styles, motivation, and language learning strategies and so forth. Various researchers have recently attempted to explore the conceivable causal connection between word knowledge and the enhancement of reading comprehension skill. Vocabulary storage has been regarded as a longitudinal predictor of reading comprehension (Ouellette & Beers, 2010; Sénéchal et al., 2006; Verhoeven & Van Leeuwe, 2008). Thus, the aim of this study is to find out the effect of using Mechanical Technique vocabulary Learning strategy in vocabulary learning process in reading comprehension skill based on Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies on Iranian Pre-intermediate university students.

D. Some Current Studies of Vocabulary

Nyikos & Fan (2007) pointed out, outcomes from research after research argue that successful second of foreign language learners, for the most part, present a sample of choosing more complex, suitable, and task-compatible strategies for learning new L2 vocabularies and attain outcomes comparable to more proficient L2 learners.

Arjomand and Sharififar (2011) in an experiment study, made attempts to study the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and gender among Iranian EFL students. They induced that cognitive strategy has been the most frequently used strategy, while social strategy was the least commonly utilized one. Moreover, considering the gender, they contended that cognitive/ metacognitive and social strategies were respectively the most and the least frequently utilized ones. Regarding the disagreement outcomes of the vocabulary strategy studies, especially at tertiary level, the outcomes of this study may have an important contribution to our understanding of this strategy and the way they are implemented by Iranian EFL university students.

In a recent experimental study; Naeimi and Yaqubi (2013) examined the impact of Structure Reviewing as a sub branch of direct vocabulary learning strategy in reading comprehension of university students. They assign two groups of EFL language learners at pre-intermediate language proficiency level as experimental and control group. Although both groups were taught how to use vocabulary learning strategies for a period of 10 weeks, only the experimental group received Structure Reviewing vocabulary learning strategy. The model of training was based on the theoretical framework for direct and indirect language learning strategies instruction suggested by Oxford (1990). The outcome of the study showed that Structure Reviewing as a sub branch of direct strategy training could notably improve the vocabulary learning of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL undergraduate students (as cited in Naeimi & Foo, 2014).

III. DIRECT STRATEGY AND OXFORD'S VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

Concerning different researcher's classifications of language learning strategies, Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of strategies seems to be the most comprehensive specialized arrangement representing direct and indirect learning strategies. Oxford's (1990) classification represented direct and indirect strategies with 6 categories, 19 strategies and 62 sub-strategies. The Direct language learning strategy of language learning recommended that vocabulary can be learned by using instruments that engage the learners' attention in direct connection with the form and meaning of word items, like word lists, dictionaries and so on (as cited in Naeimi & Foo, 2014). A direct method of vocabulary learning is defined as any activity that intends on giving word information to memory (Hulstijn, 2001; cited in Choo et al., 2012). In contrast to Indirect strategy of vocabulary learning that concentrate chiefly on the context, the major emphasis of the Direct strategy of vocabulary learning is the word itself. Any intentional strategy may be utilized with the purpose of learning vocabulary in direct learning.

IV. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The current study is an attempt to broaden our knowledge and also achieving more information on vocabulary learning strategies by analyzing the impact of using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy of teaching vocabularies in terms of Direct VLSs. Consequently, the present research has emphasized on instructing vocabulary and the impact of learning strategy use by students and their success in learning vocabulary. The available literature in Iran is admittedly low on experimental research on the impact of Direct and speciaslly sub-branches of VLS, particularly in the context of EFL. As such, the scarcity of research exploring the VLSs can shed light on the effect of Direct in general and sub-branches of Direct vocabulary learning strategy in particular at pre-intermediate level and thereby making the EFL instructors and even the curriculum designers to be more aware of their roles in designing suitable materials and tasks to guide the students enhance their vocabulary learning. It allows EFL educators and curriculum developers to correspond teaching and learning to improve the learners' potentials. It also guides the learners to enhance strategies to

become more autonomous learners. Simply put, the study is an attempt to compare the impact of teaching through using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy of the experimental group in comparison to the control group. This study intends to address the following research question:

V. RESEARCH QUESTION

Does using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners?

VI. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the present study consisted of 58 individuals of second and third semester (12 female and 46 males) that were chosen out of 118 volunteer students at Islamic Azad University of Omidiyeh, Iran. Taking a *General English* course is compulsory in the syllabus of the bachelor program of non-English major students in Iran universities. The participants of the current study ranging in age from 21 and 26 years old, with different majors and different faculties, and were selected randomly from a bachelor level. The first language of these students was Persian and they were learning English as a foreign language at university level. Moreover, they had learned English as a foreign language for about 6 years and passing English is regarded a prerequisite for entering into university. They are considered as pre-intermediate English learners.

B. Instruments

In the present research, the authors were used three types of instruments for collecting data. The first instrument used as vocabulary test and as a pre-test, adapted from the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) developed by Paribakht and Wesche (1993). Such test was administered in order to make sure as the homogeneity of the students' lexical knowledge and included of 40 multiple-choice vocabulary items. The reliability of this test was determined through a KR-21 formula in the pilot study (0.86). Its validity was also determined by two competent experts in the field who had considerable experience in test planning. Finally, 58 male and female pre-intermediate Iranian university students from Islamic Azad University, Omidiyeh, Iran, were selected as participants of this study.

The next instrument of this study that researchers provided as the treatment elements constituted of 12 units reading comprehension text practices and exercises. The reading practices and exercises were identical for two groups and were selected from the book of *Select Readings* (Pre-intermediate level) by Lee and Gunderson (2002). The focus of this course book is on various subjects in the field of general English learning, including topics for general information, plants, music, university, and work and leisure.

The third instrument is a post-test that prepared by researcher consisted of 40 multiple-choice vocabulary items chose from the 12 units that were taught during the 14 sessions (first sessions considered as introduction and last one post-test) of the treatment period. Each question was given one point. Hence, the learners who answered all the questions correctly obtained 40 points. The total selected vocabularies were about 220 words from different subjects of this textbook that were chosen as the target training words. The post-test was given at the end of the treatment period (14th session) of instruction for both groups. The words, estimated in post-test were all selected from new lexical items taught and explained in the period of the teaching procedure. KR21 was used to prove the reliability which was 0.82 for the pre-test and 0.86 for the post-test. As Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) pointed out that the reliability of teachers' self-made tests was accepted when KR 21 was higher than 0.70.

C. Procedure

The present study is aimed to examine the impact of one type of sub branch of Direct vocabulary learning strategy (VLSS) namely; Mechanical Technique, by Iranian EFL learners at a tertiary program for better understanding of the methods that they applied to learn new words in English reading comprehension skill. The study is administrated in Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University, Khuzestan, Iran. The focus of this study was concentrated on learners of non-English majors. Prior to the research, Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) developed by Paribakht and Wesche (1993) test was conducted to 118 university students majoring in different disciplines other than English was administered in order to assure the homogeneity of the participants. Then 58 learners whose scores were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were chosen. The remaining 58 students were randomly divided into two equal experimental and control groups; that is, one experimental group (Mechanical Techniques) and the other one considered as a control group.

Then the main phase of the study began in which the experimental group was instructed about using the Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy for 14 sessions. Treatment procedures; that implemented by the corresponding author, both experimental and control groups were instructed in the identical subjects from the same book. The treatment period lasted for 14 sessions. The two groups of the study were taught one session every week for 14 weeks (one semester).

Within the process of training, about 220 English words from different subjects of the chosen textbook were determined to be taught in the experimental group of the study following using Mechanical Techniques strategy

instruction. First session of instruction for the experimental group was devoted to strategy instruction and acquainting the students with the strategy using in general and acquainting them with the Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy that they are going to use during the next sessions and what Mechanical Techniques strategy is. A practice section was also incorporated for the strategy using in order to guarantee the participants' understanding of the strategy. Prior to teaching and learning session, the participants were familiarized with the concept of strategy and its definition; then they were provided with some practical examples to master applying the intended strategy. In the experimental group, all the time of instruction was administered to teach vocabulary by using the Mechanical Techniques strategy and particular activities and different types of assignments on using the strategy as practice and tasks.

In other hand, teaching in the control group, includes the regular and common method that consisted of various ways of presenting vocabulary were included in the instruction. That is, each word was introduced separately on the board. Then, the instructor taught the learners the oral pronunciation of vocabularies, provided them with the parts of speech of words, and finally giving a direct translation of new vocabularies in Persian. This method of teaching was used and implemented every session for the whole 14 sessions of treatment period, which the students were not provided any vocabulary learning strategy. Later, the learners practiced the words in the text and then did the related exercises.

In the last phase of the study, that is, at the end of thirteenth session's teaching period and studying 12 lessons of the course book a post-test provided by an instructor, was implemented to two groups of the research for the purpose of measuring the impact of Mechanical Technique strategy and compare its impact with the control group method of vocabulary learning. The post-test had a similar format like the pre-test which included of 40 questions and was implemented in the final session (14th). After collecting the data, the obtained scores, were submitted to statistical analysis. The next sections introduce the treatment period of the using Mechanical strategy briefly.

D. Mechanical Techniques as Direct Vocabulary Learning Strategy

According to Oxford (1990), in order to keep in mind what has been read, using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy was adapted as a beneficial strategy in manipulating, flashcards, with the new vocabulary written on one side and the definition written on the other, are both familiar. For contextualizing a new expression and get writing practice, learners wrote the new expression in a full sentence on flash cards. Flashcards were moved from one pile to another, depending on how well the learners knew them. Separate sections of the language learning notebook were used useful for words that have been learned and words that had been not reviewed by the learners. Following Oxford (1990) recommendations, the researcher asked learners to read and practice the words when they had some free time out of the class environment. For example, they were required to read them on the bus, in lines, etc. (as cited in Naeimi & Ghassemiazghandi, 2013).

VII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Following the data collection, the participants' performances in both groups were measured with respect to their improvement in vocabulary learning. For this purpose, according to the data received, the participants' performances in two groups of experimental and control group were gauged on the post-test with concern their improvement on vocabulary learning. The teacher (corresponding author) designed the post-test for two groups at the end of the treatment in which to examine the vocabulary enhancement of participants of two groups. Then, the collected results were given to statistical analysis, which included two independent samples t-tests to compare the impact of using Mechanical Techniques strategy for vocabulary learning on the post-test.

According to Table 1 and 2 the mean scores of two experimental and control groups in pre-test did not differ significantly in terms of vocabulary proficiency before the treatment period. In order to gauge the efficiency of the learners in terms of using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy instruction a post-test was implemented by the teacher to the two groups of the study. Thus, to compare the learners' performance another independent samples t-test was conducted as statistical analysis. Tables 1 and 2 reveal the mean score for the experimental and control group. Based on the results demonstrated in Table 1, the mean scores of the experimental group (Mean=38.49) were significantly ($t(3.854)$, $p<.05$) different from the control group (Mean=31.32, $t=0.58$).

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RELATED TO EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (PRE-POST TEST RESULTS)

Experimental Group	N	Mean	SD	t-test
pretest	26	24.90	0.62	3.854
posttest	26	38.49	0.76	P=0.04

T-observed= 3.854 T-critical=1.729 T-observed is bigger than t-critical

TABLE II
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RELATED TO CONTROL GROUP PRE-POST TESTS RESULTS

Control Groups	N	Mean	SD	t-test
pretest	26	24.40	0.62	0.056
posttest	26	31.32	0.58	P=0.77

T-observed=0.056 T-critical=1.729 T-observed is smaller than t-critical

Table 1 and 2 show the learners' performance on the post-test with regard their vocabulary learning. As it can be considered, the learners' performance in the experimental group did improve significantly. That is to say, regarding vocabulary learning and training, the difference between the learners' performance in two groups of the exploration was statistically significant on the post-test. In summary, the findings of the study gained from independent samples t-tests showed that using Mechanical Techniques had a significant effect in improving learners' vocabulary. However, this impact on the participants' vocabulary learning through control was less significant in comparison to the experimental group instruction. The findings of the sample t-test for the results gained from the post tests of experimental group also revealed that the improvement was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). That is, learners of experimental group in which using Mechanical Technique as a Direct strategy outperformed the learners in the control group in the vocabulary post-test. Thus, the Direct Mechanical Technique strategy teaching seemed to have improved the learners' vocabulary intake. In other hand, the findings of the sample t-test for the data provided from group B also revealed that the improvement was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

In this study the impact of using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy as a direct vocabulary learning strategy was explored on 58 pre-intermediate Iranians' learners. Utilizing the statistical analysis, the researchers of the study discovered confirmation that using Mechanical Techniques strategy teaching did positive effect on the students' vocabulary performance. This reveals that performing the Mechanical Techniques as Direct vocabulary learning strategy could enhance vocabulary learning of the Iranian's learners. The findings of the present research are in agreements with Craik and Lockhart's (1972) depth of processing theory which claims that the more cognitive energy a person apply while administrating and thinking about a vocabulary, the more likely it is that they will be capable to remember and utilize it later (Craik & lockhart, 1972; Craik & Tulving, 1975). This hypothesis points out that it is not significant how lately individuals have learnt something. What is of more significance in learning process is, in fact, the depth of processing; in other words, learners must be taught on how to process data deeply. The results of the study show that the learners' vocabulary learning is impressed and thus enhanced through Mechanical Techniques strategy instruction significantly.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of the present study was to examine 58 pre-intermediate male and female Iranian university learners from non-English majors of Omidyeh Islamic Azad University, Khuzestan, Iran in learning English as a general course. The particular aim of this study was to investigate the impact of the Mechanical Techniques as a Direct vocabulary learning strategy of the aforementioned students. The research question of this study is "does using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy has any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners?" The effect of Mechanical Techniques strategy teaching on the vocabulary learning was gauged through comparing the learners' performance in the pre-test and post-test. Concerning the findings of this study, the answer to this question was positive; that is to say, students who received the Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy treatment revealed a higher word learning rate compared to control group students. The fundamental point in this exploration was the amount of enhancement of learners in the Mechanical Techniques strategy in the experimental group and that outscoring its parallel group in the control group. In fact, training through using Mechanical Techniques as a Direct vocabulary learning strategy was an effective way of learning and retaining the vocabulary items for pre-intermediate students.

Concerning the focus point of this study, it is recommended that the English teachers in pre-intermediate level should introduce the Direct vocabulary leering strategy like the Mechanical Techniques strategy to their learners in better improving their vocabulary knowledge. The teachers can encourage their learners to utilize it effectively. It may help learners, instructors, and curriculum developers to be aware of the effectiveness of sub categories of VLSs components, and vocabulary knowledge in order to provide and present vocabulary education and training. In addition, it may enhance the knowledge on the importance of lexical learning strategies in English language learning and teaching. The explanations of former scholars lend support to the respective benefit of category and subcategory of the Direct strategy instruction in improving learners' vocabulary learning. The results found in the current research also give more hilighting to the previous studies (Beck et al., 2002; Beck et al., 2005; Beck et al., 2007; Naeimi & Yaqubi, 2013) which focused on the pedagogical value of implementing category and sub-category of direct vocabulary learning strategies in language learning classrooms.

IX. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the findings of this exploration might be regarded as an important contribution to a better understanding of VLSs training, some limitations should be noticed. Firstly, this study consists of just fourteen instructing sessions, thus, a more broad research could convey more comprehensive conclusions. Second, the proficiency levels of the learners under exploration were Pre-intermediate. Moreover, the number of learners in two groups was relatively small, which made it limited for the generalization of the findings. It is recommended that these elements be regarded in future replications of the current research.

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The Role of Multimodal in Chinese EFL Students' Autonomous Listening Comprehension & Multiliteracies

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Abstract—This research, taking 102 Chinese sophomores as participants, examined the role of multimodal in EFL students' autonomous listening comprehension and multiliteracies. Materials consisted of a questionnaire concerning autonomous learning of listening comprehension and listening proficiency tests (a pretest and a posttest) so as to find participants' attitude towards the new autonomous listening model and the effectiveness of the model. Results indicated that the new model proved to be popular with most of the participants, able to effectively improve students' autonomous learning ability and significantly improve their listening comprehension and multiliteracies. Suggestions and implications for the results were discussed.

Index Terms—EFL reading comprehension, multimodal, autonomous listening comprehension, multiliteracies

I. INTRODUCTION

Within China researches on autonomous learning started in the 1980s, while the application of discourse analysis with multimodal in EFL teaching began in recent years. And the effect of input modal on language learning has attracted researchers' sufficient attention with the focus on the effect of different input modals on EFL comprehension and incidental vocabulary acquisition (Gu & Zang, 2011). Nevertheless, there have been few empirical studies with respect to EFL listening teaching via the combination of multi-modal and autonomous learning theory. Hence this research aims to compare the traditional teaching mode with pure videos with the multi-modal one to find the students' attitude towards the new model and the differences between the two modes or the effect of multimodal on Chinese EFL students' autonomous listening comprehension and multiliteracies.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS

Discourse analysis proposed by Harris analyzes the internal regularities of discourse activities and the relationships between them and cognitive modes., while multimodal discourse analysis is not limited to the written text but extended to other forms of expressions such as pictures, sounds, colors and cartoons (Harris, 1952, quoted in Zhu, 2007), which has become the focus of researches both within and outside China.

A. Multimodal and Multimedia

Halliday (1985) believed that in the particular social context, people always made the most out of semiotic resources to achieve the creation of meaning and accordingly various semiotic resources constituted multimodality (quoted in Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001, p. 80). LeVine & Scollon (2004) deemed that multimodal referred to the various modals which were used in communication, including speech, color, taste and pictures (p. 3-5). Other scholars suggested that multimodal referred to the interaction via more than two organs (Hu, 2007; Gu, 2007; Zhang, 2009; Zhu, 2008).

Media and modal are the two keywords in the multimodal discourse analysis. The former is the medium through which information communication is achieved among people, or the carrier of information, and the medium which involves more than two carriers is called multimedia (Gu, 2007). Hence multimedia is closely associated with multimodal. On the one hand, the development of multimedia technology has promoted the appearance of new form of discourse. On the other hand, multimodal discourse analysis has to turn to multimedia means for help, e.g. the transcription and analysis of sound, the interception and decomposition of dynamic image pictures and the creation of corpus, etc. Accordingly the development of multimodal discourse analysis will promote the combination of multimodal and multimedia (Xin, 2008). Hence autonomous listening model via multimodal in EFL teaching has to be supported by the multimedia technology and equipment.

B. Multimodal and Multiliteracies

In the 1990s, the new London Group composed of eleven linguists firstly proposed the concept of multiliteracy. They believed that with the rapid development of information technology, people had to have contact with various information of medium transmission on a daily basis, such as print, pictures and videotapes and communicate with culture groups with different backgrounds. Therefore there is need to develop students' multiliteracies in EFL teaching.

Multiliteracy is composed of five elements: (1) linguistic components, e.g. vocabulary, metaphor, structure and mood; (2) visual components, e.g. color, perspective, vector, prospect and background, etc; (3) auditory components, e.g. voice, music and video effects, etc.; (4) posture components, e.g. behavior, feeling, physical control, emotion and movement, etc.; (5) space components, e.g. ecological space, geometry space and building space, etc. (Gentle, Knight & Corrigan, quoted in Zhu, 2008).

It proves to be one of the effective methods to introduce multimodal teaching, connect multiliteracy with modal and media transition so as to develop learners' multiliteracies, achieve the interaction between the five sense organs so that learners will better adapt themselves to the multi-lives in the future (Wei, 2009).

Helgesen (2003), Rost (2002) and Richards & Schmidt (2002) all defined listening as an active process of meaning creation. In other words, The listener does not simply decode what he has heard, but also actively obtains information from what he has seen or heard and connects it with his known knowledge (Rubin, 1995). Accordingly listening teaching is the first phase of multimodal teaching and also the key stage via which multiliteracy competence is achieved. Scholars proposed some valuable suggestions for it. Kress et al. (2001, p. 42) proposed that in the EFL classroom the behavior, visual and linguistic semiotic resources introduced by teachers and students ought to be made full use of and the interaction between the resources should be promoted in order to achieve the creation and literacy of complete meanings. Healy suggested four stages for classroom teaching, namely *situated practice*, *overt instruction*, *critical framing* and *transformed practice* (quoted in Hu, 2007). Led by teachers, learners might experience, analyze and use the multimodal texts, and become subjects of the classroom teaching so as to improve their overall EFL competence.

The fact is that according to the traditional listening teaching model, learners obtain information via auditory sense or single modal, without modal transition from auditory sense to comprehension. Hence it means a modal transition to introduce oral introduction about background before listening, videos during listening and oral repetition or classroom discussion after listening. In other words, the auditory modal of input is transformed into movement and writing modal of visual nerve, vocal organ and body movement (Zhang, 2009). The transformation of modal might strengthen the internalization of the knowledge that learners have learnt and transform more input into in-take (Long & Zhao, 2009).

C. EFL Autonomous Learning Ability

Autonomous learning as a scientific and educational concept was born in the 1960s and has been widely accepted and advocated in the teaching field both within and outside China, and even regarded as the ultimate goal of EFL/ESL education. It is of multiple-dimension and complicated, not only a kind of competence but also an attitude, consisting of learners' autonomous choice and control of learning in an all-around way and their own planning, management, monitoring and regulation (Zhu & Deng, 2011). Shu & Zhuang (2008, p. 85-87) believed that the concept of autonomous learning was not only composed of attitude and competence, but also the environments. In other words, learners might offer themselves various opportunities and situations to practice and improve their own learning ability. Yu deemed that only when learners controlled their learning process, create their learning goal of their own accord in communication with others in authentic context, actively explore and discover, could they ultimately achieve the learning goal (quoted in Zhu & Deng, 2011).

This research tried to introduce multimodal-based autonomous listening model into Chinese English majors' listening course. About 20 minutes were spared for students' to discuss of their own will, determine what to listen to and present, how to practice, etc.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Questions

There are three questions to be answered: (1) Is multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching popular with all the participants? (2) Can multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching improve learners' autonomous learning ability? (3) Can multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching improve learners' listening proficiency and multiliteracies?

B. Participants

The participants were 102 sophomores of non-English majors from Hubei Engineering University and divided into experiment group (51) and controlled group (51). For the experiment group, the researcher adopted the multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching mode and for the controlled one, the traditional teaching mode with pure audios. Before the experiment both of the groups took a listening proficiency test and result indicated no significant differences between them ($P > .05$). The experiment lasted about two semesters (from March, 2013 to January, 2014).

C. Materials

One of the instruments was questionnaire which consisted of two parts. One was about learners' attitude towards the multimodal-based autonomous EFL listening teaching, their motivation, how much time they had spent on it, method, the effectiveness of the method, their apperception and suggestions concerning the teaching mode. The other was about the advantages and disadvantages of the multimodal-based autonomous EFL listening teaching, the difficulties of the mode, learners' preference of listening materials, their views and suggestions about the teaching mode. The coefficient

of internal consistency for the questionnaire was 0.87

Other instruments were the pretest and posttest for listening proficiency. The former was designed by two teachers who taught the same grade, the latter were chosen from the previous year's CET4. Reliability coefficients for the tests were respectively 0.89 and 0.90.

All the data collected were analyzed via SPSS19.0.

D. Procedures

Before the experiment began, questionnaires were distributed to 102 participants.

The experiment group had classes in the multimedia classroom. Learners were divided into several groups and chose what they would listen and practice of their own accord. During each period, two groups presented and interacted with each other before the whole class. Three phases (before-listening, in-listening and after-listening) were designed according to Underwood (quoted in Helgesen & Brown, 2008).

Firstly, before-listening. The whole class was divided into ten groups with two groups for each presentation. Students chose topics of their own will, which covered politics, economics, culture, social hotspot and anecdotes. Autonomous creative design included role division within the group, components of items-dictation, repetition, translation, summarizing the main idea, discussion about the topic, etc. The presentation way included the length of time and the times it might need for video playing, and the order of procedures, etc. Videos might be also chosen of their own will according to the topic and the interest of the group. In addition, in order to activate participants' participation and active atmosphere, some groups would prepare some novel presents as rewards and add games such as word guessing and discrimination when listening to a song so that the listening course would become the effective classroom where multimodal-based teaching was practiced. Before class the teacher would also offer valuable directions and suggestions and assist students to choose topics so as to optimize the presentation effect of the multimodal-based classroom activities.

Secondly, in-listening. In the classroom the groups who had been well prepared would present themselves one by one. The whole class listened to the video material chosen by the group and each group played videos according to their own division and design, which might activate students' auditory, visual and tactual senses to obtain the relevant information. After each video playing, there would be some questions related to the video for students' to answer. With the increase of video playing (usually 2-4 times), there would be more exercises, such as filling in the words, repeating sentences and translating the videos into Chinese, etc., or the items with some difficulties. Some groups would choose one of the classical fragments in the video and listen to it repeatedly.

Thirdly, after-listening. When the video playing ended, there were usually extended discussions relevant to the video so as to timely process the information input, transform it into information output, enhance the impression and do the exercises that might extend students' way of thinking. This process made it possible for the information which had been input to be internalized as learners' own knowledge and taken as their own knowledge system via the interaction and communication through various senses.

When each group had finished its item presentation, other learners marked the two groups as judges did and put forward their suggestions. The teacher, as a participant, offered appropriate comments, correction and the suggestions for the future groups. This multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching model changed the previous situation in which teacher chose listening materials and learners passively accepted so that the learners became real subjects in the classroom, which at a degree avoided the traditional monotonous teaching model, learners' lack of activeness, absence of mind and indigestion of what they had taken in, etc., activated learners' activeness, creation, imagination and team spirit and greatly increased their participation.

When the experiment ended, questionnaires were redistributed to the participants from the experiment group.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Pretest

Of the 102 questionnaires, 80 were returned and valid. Results indicated that most of the participants preferred videos because of their being interesting and practical (80% learners used videos for autonomous learning and 20% used audios), yet in actual teaching there were still some problems to be solved. Firstly, there was no sufficient time for autonomous learning via videos, merely about half an hour a day for most learners (half an hour for 73.6%, an hour for 26.3%). Secondly, there was something wrong with learners' method. The pictures and movement of the videos would divert part of learners' attention (Only 23.8% learners took notes when watching the videos and were able to write down the important expressions). The above two resulted in the fact that learners' were willing to use videos for listening materials but deemed that there was no significant difference between videos and audios (50.7% thought videos were more effective and 49.7 believed audios to be more effective).

Questionnaires indicated that although learners preferred to use the videos with various forms and contents, there were no significant differences between the effects of videos and the traditional audios. Nevertheless, according to Gu's (2007) multimodal-based EFL learning model, transition of different modals may in turn activate learners' brains to memorize and understand better what they have heard. Compared with audios, videos ought to have more advantages, but results of questionnaires indicated that the advantages failed to be make full use of and that further exploration

was needed so as to make the most out of videos. In addition, learners were supposed to be directed and learn to know how to use videos for autonomous listening. Hence the researcher designed an experiment which lasted two semesters so as to exploit the advantages and maximize them.

B. Post-test

1. Question one: Is multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching popular with all the participants?

When the teaching experiment ended, questionnaires were redistributed. All of the 51 questionnaires were returned and valid. Results indicated that the students who chose videos for listening materials significant increased and 95% of them adopted positive attitude towards the introduction of videos into the classroom and claimed to have benefited from them.

2. Question two: Can multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching improve learners' autonomous learning ability?

When learners became able to better understand the videos and skillfully use them (including designing by themselves, taking notes and discussing), the effect of videos on autonomous listening was greatly increased and learners' listening proficiency also improved (see 3.2.3). Learners' attitude towards the multimodal-based teaching mode or videos as listening materials was positive. Most of the learners thought that there were many advantages for the division of students into several groups and their presentation of multimodal-based classroom via audios and videos as well as oral discussions. 65% participants thought that such classroom changed the traditional teaching mode when students passively accepted what had taught to them and improve the effect and efficiency of listening course. 82.5% deemed that the contents of their own choice were close to college life, popular with students and easily aroused their interest. 52.5% believed that in such classroom students might exploit their own advantages, share the teaching resources and cramp out the newest materials. The above indicated that under the teacher's guidance, students became more aware of the multimodal-based listening teaching, could more effectively plan, manage and organize listening course, supervise and regulate each other so as to greatly improve their listening efficiency and effect.

3. Question three: Can multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching improve learners' listening proficiency and multiliteracies?

Question three is actually the focus of the three questions. Since learners were fond of multimodal-based autonomous listening mode and their competence was indeed improved, can the new model effectively improve students' EFL listening proficiency and multiliteracies? After two semesters' experiment, the researcher compared the experiment group and the controlled group in terms of their performance in the final listening test, as table one indicated.

TABLE ONE
MEAN SCORE FOR THE TWO GROUPS IN THE FINAL LISTENING TEST

	Semester one	Semester two
Experiment group	81.638	81.767
Controlled group	75.481	76.117

Table one revealed that the mean score for the experiment group was significantly higher than that for the controlled group ($t=-6.499$, $p=0.0000<0.05$). Paired sample t test indicated significant differences between the experiment group and the controlled group in their mean scores. Further Pearson correlation analysis ($r=0.809$, $p=0.000<0.05$) revealed that the multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching mode was positively and significantly correlated to learners' performance in the test, which indicated that this teaching mode significantly improved learners' performance in the listening test. In other words, learners' visual, audio and tactual organs interacted with each other and finally improved their multiliteracies via experiencing, analyzing and using multimodal semiotic system.

V. SUGGESTIONS

From the above discussion, it could be clearly seen that multimodal-based teaching model was positively correlated to learners' autonomous learning ability as well as listening ability. Hence the researcher would like to propose some suggestions for the future EFL listening teaching.

Firstly, in the EFL listening classroom, learners should be the subjects. During the experiment, learners revealed keen enthusiasm. They were divided into several groups, chose appropriate materials and design the exercises of their own will, which was actually part of task-based teaching, increased opportunities for learners to learn the target language and promoted the meaning negotiation and emotion communication between learners (Gonzalez-Loret, 2003). Learners' self-evaluation and scoring developed their sense of pride and subject consciousness (Fang, 2011). Teaching practice indicated every time students came to class, they would bring surprises, and the listening materials and vides they chose all involved the current hot topics, proved to be popular with themselves and able to arouse learners' interest in relevant discussion. Accordingly learners' attitude towards listening course changed from the previous boring and anxious into wishful. Learners were able to give veins to their imagination and creativity. Besides the listening exercises themselves, some groups designed the items such as word guessing and filling in the song words, etc. Some prepared various interesting gifts, which activated learners' visual, auditory and tactual organs in the pleasant atmosphere, consolidated the language and culture knowledge learners had acquired in watching the videos. In addition, after the application of

multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching, learners from the experiment group also became active in other classes such as reading and writing, as the researcher observed. They actively expressed their own ideas, and the whole class became more and more cohesive and keen in team work. Therefore only learner-centered listening course with students as subjects is able to exploit students' learning potentials and maximize the beneficial effect of EFL teaching.

Secondly, in the EFL classroom teachers should be the directors. Teacher's role should be different when autonomous teaching mode is employed (Gardner & Miller, 2007: 180). Multimodal-based autonomous teaching mode does not weaken teacher's role. In contrast, it challenges teacher's autonomous learning competence. When this mode is used, after various class activities, learners expect the evaluation from the teacher. Due to the variety of topics and materials, it is required that teachers should improve their own competence of autonomous learning, be well aware of the current hot topics, have their own views of them and offer their valuable proposals. At the same time listening comprehension itself is a complicated process which involves linguistic, cognitive, cultural and social knowledge (Wang & Miao, 2003: 2). Therefore teachers have to give students continuous and theoretical directions so that students will change the past notion that listening course simply means teacher's playing audios and learners' repetition so as to improve others linguistic skills via listening and realize the good circulation of EFL learning.

Thirdly, multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching should be different from the traditional listening and speaking course. It is in reality different from the current popular visual, auditory and speaking course. Listening course emphasizes auditory modal while visual modal and oral expression are merely auxiliary means, the three modals are transmitted from one to another, offer multi-activation to the brain cells so that the input information is internalized part of learners' knowledge. Simultaneously learners actively participate in the whole teaching process, choose topics, organize the classroom activities for a period of time of their own will and turn out to be the subjects of the classroom all the time. The visual, auditory and speaking teaching mode, however, does not change the situation in which learners passively accept what has taught to them and the three modals are equal to each other with no emphasis, which may lead to the fact that learners are quite at a loss. The most important thing is that the ultimate purpose of the multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching is not only to improve learners' listening comprehension, but also their autonomous learning ability and feel the regional differences of language and culture via the interaction between teacher and students and also the multimodal texts through visual, auditory and tactual modals. In the course of making PPT and classroom presentation, learners combine the five components such as linguistic, visual, auditory, posture and spatial ones to improve their multiliteracies.

VI. CONCLUSION

From the above analysis the following conclusion can be arrived at: (1) Multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching mode is popular with most of the participants; (2) This teaching mode can effectively improve learners' autonomous learning ability; (3) This mode does effectively improve learners' listening level and multiliteracies. There are some implications for the results. Multimodal-based autonomous listening teaching mode has its own advantages. In addition, such mode can be extended to other EFL courses such as reading and writing, help increase teaching effect as well as learners' autonomous learning ability and multiliteracies. There are also some drawbacks for such mode via videos. For example, in the two questionnaires, there were some students who claimed that pictures and plots in the videos might divert their attention or they might be attracted by the plots and neglect taking notes. In other words, the interaction between visual modal and auditory modal might be neutralized and produce negative effect, which should be the focus of future researches.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research is funded by Hubei Engineering University, P.R.C. (No. 2014A06).

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The Relationship between Iranian EFL Teachers' Critical Thinking Skills, Their EQ and Their Students' Engagement in the Task

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Abstract—This study attempted to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking skills, their Emotional Quotient (EQ) and their students' engagement in the task. To that end, 20 EFL high school teachers completed "Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal" (Form A) and the "Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory". Furthermore, 600 male and female learners, the students of the teacher participants at the time, participated in the study by answering the Persian version of "Tinio High School Survey on Student Engagement". The findings of the study indicated that there was a significant relationship between teachers' critical thinking skills and their students' engagement in the task. However, the results did not show any meaningful relationship between teachers' EQ and their students' engagement in the task and also between teachers' critical thinking skills and their EQ, although the results pointed to a high degree of correlation between 'intrapersonal aspects of teachers' EQ' and 'students' behavioral engagement'.

Index Terms—critical thinking skills, emotional quotient, engagement in the task

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Overview

Teacher characteristics and how they may influence the learning outcomes have recently received considerable research interest in the field of education. Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) believe that the teacher is an ultimate key to successful education and she or he has a fundamental role in educational reform. Therefore, it is very common that a widespread range of language education investigations have addressed the features of successful language teachers, and the ways language teachers' characteristics can influence the degree of students' collaboration in the learning process (Borg, 2006; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009). Campbell (2000) maintains "teaching is a complex interaction among subject matter, content, teacher characteristics, student characteristics, pedagogy, resources, and learning context" (p.50).

The outstanding characteristics of a good teacher are defined by Korthagen (2004) in a five-layer 'onion model' as: performances, competencies (knowledge, skills, and attitudes), beliefs, personality and mission. Characteristics of a virtuous teacher can be described as a person who is well organized, is motivated, is optimistic toward students and is thoughtful (Kleiner, 1998; Santrock, 2008).

Many of such features have already been examined, but it seems that some such as critical thinking skills and Emotional Quotient deserve further investigation as they seem to affect students' engagement.

Ruminski and Hanks (1995) argue that instructors should have a strong perception of critical thinking before starting teaching and evaluation. According to Ennis (1987), good thinking is critical thinking which he defined it as: a reasonable reflective thinking which is dedicated to deciding what to believe or do. May and Chee (2008) assert that the ability to promote critical thinking is fundamental in teacher effectiveness. Furthermore, the most important factor for effective leaders in the workplace is emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2001). Brown (2007) regards emotions as dominators of all our thought, actions and reflections. In fact, we are influenced by our emotions.

Students' engagement in the task is formed by the students' interaction with teacher and other students (Ames, 1992). So, teachers' critical thinking skills and their EQ are studied in relation to students' engagement in the task.

As learning is a goal that teachers desire for their students, Bean (2004) believes that the student achievement in the task depends partly on how much the students are engaged in the learning process (students' engagement in the task). Some scholars state that students' success is linked to their engagement in the task (e.g. Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Students' engagement has principally and traditionally focused upon developing accomplishment and appropriate behaviors and a sense of belonging in the classroom (Willms, Friesen & Milton, 2009). Many studies show that the

consequences of not engaging students in learning are terrible and frustrating (Claxton, 2007; Gilbert, 2007; Prensky, 2001; Tapscott, 1998; Willms, 2003 as cited in Taylor & Parsons, 2011). Willms, Friesen and Milton (2009) state that students' engagement is mainly focused on students in middle school and high school, where disengagement usually comes to be a concern.

Teachers extremely affect students' achievement (Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain, 2005) and some teachers are much more effective than others (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Additionally, a large number of researches have acknowledged the strong positive relationship between students' engagement and learning outcomes (Connell, Spencer & Aber, 1994; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Finn & Rock, 1997; Klem & Connell, 2004; Marks, 2000 as cited in Kraft & Dougherty, 2013).

Cole (2001) believes that disengagement is particularly linked to lack of success in learners. Students' disengagement from their task disturbs the learning process and learning takes place when students are tied up in the learning process. Furthermore, teachers' characteristics are most likely to influence students' engagement (Goe, 2007).

This study aims at examining the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking skills, their emotional quotient and their students' engagement in the task.

B. Statement of the Problem

According to Mortiboys (2005), some practical domains of studying the teacher's influences on the EFL learners can be teachers' critical self-awareness and emotional intelligence quotient. Considering teachers' emotional intelligence can provide the basis for producing learners who have more engagement, better motivation and creativity, more positive attitudes, greater collaboration and readiness for risks taking (Mortiboys, 2005).

For this reason, Damon (2008) calls students' disengagement "the most pressing problem in education today" (p.61). Disengagement comes with a sense of emptiness, boredom and apathy (Damon, 2008). According to Pascarella and Terenzini (2005), students' achievement is related to their engagement in the task. Furthermore, engagement in learning is linked to decreased dropout rates of students (Kushman, Sieber & Heariold-Kinney, 2000). Accordingly, the problem of students' disengagement with the task encounters the students with the risk of dropping out of school that cause many social and personal problems. Rumberger (1987) stated that students who quit school are more expected to be unemployed, to participate in antisocial behaviors, to be in need of welfare and to experience health and affective problems.

Furthermore, teachers have come to be worried at increasingly "high levels of student disengagement, evidenced by early school leaving, poor student behavior, and low levels of academic achievement" (Harris, 2008, p. 1).

This study has a glance at the supposed problem to find out possible relationships between teachers' characteristics and their students' engagement. There are many studies that concentrate on "teachers' critical thinking", "teachers' EQ" and "students' engagement" in relation to other issues, but none of them has concerned the relationship between these three categories yet. In this way, the possible relationship of factors, namely critical thinking, Emotional Quotient and students' engagement will be investigated concerning Iranian EFL teachers and their students.

C. Significance of the Study

Some of the significances of the present study are as follows:

1. Teachers transfer knowledge and ideas to students, prepare them for further education and for working life, and beside parents, they are the main sources of good education. Additionally, teachers as core contributors in learning process play a vital role in learning. According to Edge (1993), teacher as the most powerful person in the classroom has to take some very important things into consideration such as: organisation (supporting students and defining clear purpose), security (students have to feel safe), motivation (it increases their involvement in the task), instruction (preparing useful guidelines), modeling (learners need to be shown how to do something), guidance (a helping hand to discover new things), information (preparing source of basic and extra information for students), feedback (teacher's response), encouragement (learners need teacher's support) and evaluation (learners want to be informed how they have performed).

2. Wayne and Youngs (2003) examined the characteristics of effective teachers that are interrelated to student effectiveness. Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf (2003) believe that caring, supportive, knowledgeable teachers can effectively help students to learn. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) state that teachers come to the job with their personalities previously formed, but there are still abilities and attitudes which can be learnt and worked on. Additionally, Harmer (1998) mentions that the teacher's character and personality is a crucial issue in the classroom.

3. Some researchers point to the importance of some aspects of the current discussion. Birjandi and Bagherkazemi (2010) believe that teachers' critical thinking is highly intertwined with teachers' pedagogical success. As teachers' success is in some ways related to students' engagement, teachers' critical thinking which is interconnected with educational achievement may affect students' engagement subsequently.

4. Goleman (1995) even hypothesizes that the majority of a person's success in life is determined by his or her Emotional Quotient (EQ). Furthermore, Sharma and Bindal (2012) found a significant relationship between teachers' EQ and their prosperity. Teachers extremely affect students' achievement (Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain, 2005) and one of the factors that manifests teachers success is the degree of students' engagement in the task. So, teachers' EQ can affects their students' engagement in the task and prevent disengagement consequently.

5. Examining the possible link between teachers' critical thinking, their EQ and students' engagement in the task would be significant in foreign language acquisition, since it might have outstanding effects on teacher education programs, syllabus design and adapting methods for promotion of students' engagement and involvement in the task.

D. Purpose of the Study

The present research aims at investigating the relationship among EFL teachers' critical thinking, their EQ and their students' engagement in the task. Therefore, the basic issue is how much EFL teachers with more advanced critical thinking and EQ capabilities can be successful in pedagogical programs and be effective in students' involvement and engagement in the educational tasks.

E. Research Questions

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. Are there any meaningful relationships between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking skills, their EQ and their students' engagement in the task?
2. Are there any meaningful relationships between EFL teachers' critical thinking skills and their EQ?
3. Are there any meaningful relationships between EFL teachers' EQ and their students' engagement in the task?
4. Are there any meaningful relationships between EFL teachers' critical thinking skills and their students' engagement in the task?

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Teaching as a complicated process is influenced by many different factors. One of the fundamental aspects of language teaching and learning is teacher (Campbell, 2000). According to King Rice (2003), teaching is influenced by different aspects of teacher quality and teacher quality can predict student performance in the task. Teachers' critical self-awareness and emotional intelligence quotient are two practical domains of studying the teachers' influences on the EFL learners (Mortiboys, 2005).

The literatures on critical thinking and emotional quotient have a long history. Critical thinking has its' roots in ancient Greek and emotional quotient traces back to 1920. As a main objective of education is to organize students in order to be successful learners, students' engagement in the task is noticed as one of the features of the present study. Students' engagement appeared as an educational notion during the 1970's and 1980's (Harris, 2008).

Boler (1999) argues that emotions indicate what deserves attention and moral scrutiny to the individual and emotional intelligence plays a critical role in decision making. Elder (1997) from the other point of view states critical thinking as the key to emotional intelligence indicating that emotional intelligence and critical thinking factors are cognitive and emotional based constructs.

Damasio (1996) found that certain aspects of the procedure of emotions and feelings are absolutely necessary for rationality. Emotions and feelings are interlaced with reason and there is mutual connection between cognition and emotions (Damasio, 1996). Brookfield (1987) and Paul (1987) argued that thoughts and emotions are inescapably bound.

Esmond Kiger, Tucker and Yost (2006) found that emotional intelligence is not the opposite of cognition. Some scholars identified two minds and two different kinds of intelligence that operate simultaneously (Goleman, 1995; Parkins, 2002) and that both emotional brain and thinking brain are involved in reasoning (Damasio, 1996; Gardner, 1993).

As Elder (1997) points out, teachers should make an appeal to the emotional lives of students and engaging them cognitively and emotionally as these two affective dimensions are interconnected. "In fact, critical thinking is the only plausible vehicle by which, we could bring intelligence to bear upon our emotional life" (Elder, 1997, p.5).

Student engagement promotes students' scholastic, emotional, social and behavioral achievement (Klem & Connell, 2004). Above and beyond, high engagement during tasks in the classroom has been a significant predictor of motivation and overall performance in school (Shernoff & Hoogstra, 2001). It also improves low levels of academic accomplishment, high levels of student boredom and disaffection (Steinberg, Brown & Dornbusch, 1996).

Student engagement is progressively seen as an indicator of successful classroom and engagement in learning have consistently been linked to reduced dropout rates of students (Kushman, Sieber & Hearnold-Kinney, 2000). When students are engaged in learning activities, they attend as active participants rather passive ones.

Although not exactly the same studies, there are some specific related experimental findings in this area. Ghaemi and Taherian's study (2011) aimed to investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' critical thinking and their teaching success revealed a positive connection between the two variables. Birjandi and Bagherkazemi (2010) examined the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking ability and their pedagogical success and they found a significant relationship between these two variables.

Khodabakhshzadeh and Ghaemi (2011) showed a significant relationship between IELTS instructors' critical thinking and their teaching success. Additionally, several researchers have recognized the significant role played by critical thinking in individuals' academic success (Fahim, Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010; McCutcheon, Apperson, Hanson & Wynn, 1992; Yeh & Wu, 1992).

Saeidi and RimaniNikou (2012) in their study indicated that there is a significant relationship between EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their students' language achievement. Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2010) revealed a significant relationship between teachers' success and EQ in their study. Pishghadam (2009) could not find any significant relationship between the students' EI and their achievements.

EQ has been studied in relation to personality (Pishghadam & Sahebjam, 2012), academic success (Meshkat, 2011) and achievement (Fahim & Pishghadam (2007). Furthermore, Studies by Hamurlu (2007), Haley (2004) and Emig (1997) designated that emotional intelligence-based teaching affected both EFL learners' language accomplishment and their positive attitude towards language learning experience. Den Brock, Brekelmans and Wubbels (2004) found important associations between interpersonal teacher behavior and student outcomes.

Guvenc and Celik (2012) found a substantial relation between sorts of emotional intelligence of teachers and their reflective thinking skills. A study by Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) indicated that there was a significant relationship between EFL students' critical thinking and their emotional intelligence. Vaezi and Fallah (2011) distinguished a negative relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and burnout. Besharat, Reza Zadeh, Firrozi and Habibi (2005) reported that EQ was positively correlated with academic success. Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan and Majeski (2004) indicated that academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Stottlemayer (2002) in a study of EQ and its relation to student achievement and engagement found that EI skills were significantly predictor of academic achievement.

In line with the studies of the kind reported above, the present study aimed at discovering the degree of EFL teachers' effectiveness with advanced level of critical thinking and EQ capabilities in students' engagement in the educational task.

III. METHOD

A. Design

The study reported here is a multi-dimensional correlational study investigating the relationship between EFL teachers' critical thinking, their EQ and their students' engagement in the task. The design of the present study is ex post facto because it is investigating the possible relationship between three variables i.e. teacher's critical thinking, teachers' EQ and their students' engagement in the task, all of which have already occurred.

B. Participants

The participants of this study were English as foreign language high school teachers and their students. 20 EFL teachers (8 male and 12 female) with Bachelor, Master or PhD degree (10 Bachelors, 8 Masters and 2 PhD teachers) in Teaching English as a Foreign Language were selected according to their accessibility (convenient sampling) to take part in this study. Their age and sex were not considered. Furthermore, 600 male and female high school learners out of 1500, the students of the teacher participants at the time, 252 male and 348 female; 211 grade one learners, 202 grade two learners, 100 grade three learners and 87 grade four learners, participated in the study.

C. Instruments

To collect the data for the study, the following instruments were used:

1. Watson–Glaser (1980) Critical Thinking Appraisal-Form A (W-GCTA)

The Watson-Glaser critical Thinking Appraisal includes five subsections which practically measure the five characteristics of a critical thinker as defined by Watson and Glaser (1980):

- 1) Drawing inferences
- 2) Recognition of assumptions
- 3) Making deductions
- 4) Interpreting evidence to decide if conclusions are legitimate or not
- 5) Evaluating arguments as being strong or weak

The W-GCTA includes 80 statements each followed by two to five alternatives which can be completed in 60 minutes. Inferences statements are followed by five alternatives which are: T (True), PT (Probably True), ID (Insufficient Data), PF (Probably False) and F (False). Recognition of assumptions statements are followed by "Made" and "Not made" alternatives; deduction and interpretation by "Follows" and "Doesn't follow"; and evaluation of arguments by "Strong" and "Weak" alternatives.

In addition to the face, content, construct, and criterion validity of the appraisal, its test-retest reliability was calculated to be ($r=0.81$) by Watson and Glaser (1980).

2. Bar-On (1997) Emotional Quotient Inventory

Bar-On Emotional Quotient inventory (with the reliability of 0.85) in a likert scale ranging from "Very Seldom True" to "Very Often True" measure intrapersonal (self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-actualization), interpersonal (empathy, social responsibility, interpersonal relationship), Adaptability (reality testing, flexibility, problem solving), stress management (stress tolerance, impulse control), general mood components (optimism, happiness) of participants. The Persian version of this test with 90 questions, validated by Samouei (2003) was used in this study.

3. Tinio (2009) High School Survey on Student Engagement (HSSSE)

The High School Survey of Student Engagement (HSSSE) is the most comprehensive survey on student engagement and school climate issues available to schools. HSSSE works closely with individual schools, districts, state departments of education, state and national organizations, and foundations to investigate deeply the attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs that students have about their work, the school learning environment, and their interaction with the school community. Tinio (2009) HSSSE questionnaire including 120 items on likert scales, from “always” to “never”, available in Persian version was easy to answer for Iranian students. Fooladvand, Soltani, FathiAshtiani and Shoaie (2012) investigated psychometric properties (Cronbach's alpha = 0.96) of Tinio students' engagement in the task and translated it into Persian.

D. Procedure

Several high school teachers and students contributed to this study. To achieve measures of teachers' critical thinking ability, the teachers were given the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal-Form A (W-GCTA) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory to fill out in their free time. Each was shortly introduced to the purpose of the research and provided with some brief oral instruction on how to complete the appraisal form. To obtain reliable data, the researcher explained the purpose of administering the questionnaires and assured the participants that all the data collected would be confidential. In other words, endeavor was made to observe the privacy and anonymity considerations.

Moreover, their students' engagement was evaluated by Tinio High School Survey on Student Engagement (HSSSE) in their regular class time. The importance of exact and correct fair responses to the questionnaires was explained to the students.

Having collected the data, the researcher worked on data analysis to answer the research questions to find out if there is any relationship between EFL teachers' critical thinking ability, their EQ and students' engagement in the task.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the data collected, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regressions were used. In the Table (1), the results of the variance and model meaningfulness are explained simultaneously.

TABLE 1
RESULT SUMMARY OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE AND MODEL SIGNIFICANCE

Model Summary						
Method	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
Enter	.26	.07	.07	71.41	22.53	.000

F ratio and its significance indicate meaningful effects of variables in regression equation. In this stage the regression effect is $F=22.53$ which is meaningful in 0.01 level. Based on these two mentioned variables, the estimated R^2 is 0.07. It means that these two variables explain 0.07 percent of students' engagement in the task's variance.

TABLE 2
SIMULTANEOUS REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS OF PREDICTOR VARIABLES RELATED TO STUDENTS' ENGAGEMENT IN THE TASK

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	(Constant)	201.963	34.40		5.871	.000
	Total critical thinking skills	2.605	.396	.260	6.573	.000
	Total EQ	.083	.091	.036	.910	.363

Table 2 indicates that the only variable which is a significant predictor of students' engagement in the task is 'total critical thinking' ($\text{sig} = 0$). It could be argued that total critical thinking explains 0.07 of student engagement in the task variance. This is the only predictor variable of students' engagement in the task and total EQ is not a significant predictor of this variable ($\text{sig} = .363$).

$$Y = a + b_1x_1$$

Students' engagement in the task = $201.96 + (2.60)(\text{total critical thinking})$

Note that if you keep all the other conditions constant, by increasing teacher's total critical, students' engagement in task will raise too.

TABLE 3
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN EFL TEACHERS' CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS AND THEIR EQ.

	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Adaptability	Stress management	General mood components	Total EQ
Inferences	.075	-.323**	.087	.322**	-.100*	.019
Recognition of assumptions	-.046	-.037	-.245**	-.023	.154**	-.055
Deduction	.286**	.153**	.014	.260**	.270**	.261**
Interpretation	-.325**	-.129**	-.327**	-.165**	.133**	-.236**
Evaluation of arguments	.151**	.265**	.200**	.124**	.565**	.307**
Total critical thinking skills	.027	-.068	-.085	.172**	.280**	.069

**p<0.01
*p<0.05

Table 3 provides the correlation between teachers' critical thinking skills and their EQ. The following results are taken from the above table:

A meaningful and negative relationship was observed between 'inferences' with two aspects of EQ which are 'interpersonal' ($r = -.323$, $p < 0.01$) and 'general mood components' ($r = -.100$, $p < 0.05$). This means that by increasing 'inferences' skill 'interpersonal' and 'general mood components' will decrease. The above table shows a significant relationship between 'inferences' and 'stress management'.

A meaningful and negative relationship was noticed between 'recognition of assumptions' and 'adaptability' ($r = -.245$, $p < 0.01$). That is, the 'adaptability' will reduce by increasing 'recognition of assumptions'. There was a positive meaningful relationship between 'recognition of assumptions' and 'general mood components' ($r = .154$, $p < 0.01$).

There was a meaningful relationship in $p < 0.01$ level between 'deduction' and 'intrapersonal' ($r = .286$), 'interpersonal' ($r = .153$), 'stress management' ($r = .260$), 'general mood components' ($r = .270$), and 'total EQ' ($r = .261$).

The mentioned table shows an inverse relationship among 'interpretation' and all aspects of EQ. It means that by increasing EQ elements, the 'interpretation' will decrease.

There was a meaningful relationship between 'evaluation of arguments' and all of the EQ aspects.

There is a meaningful relationship between teachers' critical thinking skills, 'stress management' ($r = .172$, $p < 0.01$) and 'general mood components' ($r = .280$, $p < 0.01$).

TABLE 4
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN TEACHERS' EQ AND THEIR STUDENTS' ENGAGEMENT IN THE TASK.

	Behavioral engagement	Emotional engagement	Cognitive engagement	Total students' engagement in the task
Intrapersonal	.194**	.113**	-.039	.086
Interpersonal	.033	-.037	-.079	-.024
Adaptability	.088	.007	-.067	-.003
Stress management	.124**	.085	.000	.053
General mood components	.121**	.085	.042	.089
Total EQ	.151**	.069	-.041	.054

**p<0.01
*p<0.05

The results of correlation between teachers' EQ and their students' engagement in the task are provided in Table 4. As the table shows, there are meaningful relationships between 'behavioral engagement' with 'intrapersonal' ($r = .194$, $p < 0.01$), 'stress management' ($r = .124$, $p < 0.01$) and 'general mood components' ($r = .121$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, there is meaningful relationship between 'emotional engagement' and 'intrapersonal' ($r = .113$, $p < 0.01$). Generally, the highest degree of correlation is related to 'intrapersonal' and 'behavioral engagement' ($r = .194$, $p < 0.01$).

As a final point, there was not a meaningful relationship between teachers' EQ and students' engagement in the task.

TABLE 5
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN TEACHERS' CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS AND THEIR STUDENTS' ENGAGEMENT IN THE TASK.

	Behavioral engagement	Emotional engagement	Cognitive engagement	Total students' engagement in the task
Inferences	.133**	.141**	.094	.126**
Recognition of assumptions	.260**	.305**	.222**	.268**
Deduction	.246**	.251**	.163**	.214**
Interpretation	.045	.136**	.175**	.131**
Total critical	.241**	.285**	.233**	.263**
**p<0.01				
*p<0.05				

Table 5 provides the correlation between teachers' critical thinking skills and their students' engagement in the task. Based on the table, one could argue, with 95% confidence, there is not any significant relationship between 'interpretation' and 'behavioral engagement' and also between 'inferences' and 'cognitive engagement' ($p > 0.05$). However, among other aspects of teachers' critical thinking skills and students' engagement including 'behavioral engagement' ($r = .260$, $p < 0.01$), 'emotional engagement' ($r = .305$, $p < 0.01$) and 'cognitive engagement' ($r = .222$, $p < 0.01$) there are meaningful relationships with 'recognition of assumptions' and 'emotional engagement' reflecting the highest meaningful relationship ($r = .305$, $p < 0.01$).

Finally, there was a meaningful relationship between teachers' critical thinking and students' engagement in task ($r = .263$, $p < 0.01$).

V. DISCUSSION

This study inspected the relationships between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking skills, their EQ and their students' engagement in the task. The results of this study suggested that there was a meaningful relationship between teachers' critical thinking skills and their students' engagement in the task ($r = 0.263$). This finding is in line with Ghaemi and Taherian's (2011) and Birjandi and Bagherkazemi's (2010) findings who found a significant relationship between EFL teachers' critical thinking ability and their pedagogical success.

This is also in line with Khodabakhshzadeh and Ghaemi's studies in (2011). Khodabakhshzadeh and Ghaemi (2011) investigated the relationship between IELTS instructors' critical thinking and their teaching success. The results suggested that there was a significant relationship between IELTS instructors' critical thinking and their achievement. Furthermore, Fahim, Bagherkazemi and Alemi (2010), McCutcheon, Apperson, Hanson and Wynn (1992), Yeh and Wu (1992) recognized the significant role played by critical thinking in individuals' academic success.

Emotional quotient as one of the most important aspects of teachers' characteristics has also been investigated in relation to their students' engagement in the task. The present study also examined this issue and found that there was not any meaningful relationship between teachers' EQ and their students' engagement in the task. This is, in some aspects, similar to the findings proposed by Pishghadam (2009). Pishghadam (2009) could not find any significant relationship between the students' EI and their achievements.

However, this is different from that arrived at by Saeidi and RimaniNikou (2012), who found that there is a significant relationship between EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their students' language achievement. Additionally, Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2010) revealed a significant relationship between teachers' success and their EQ in their study.

In other studies, however, Hamurlu (2007), Haley (2004) and Emig (1997) found that emotional intelligence-based teaching affected both EFL learners' language achievement and their positive attitude towards language learning experience. Furthermore, Stottlemayer (2002) in a study of EQ and its relation to student engagement found that EI skills were significantly predictor of academic achievement.

The present study also indicated that there is a high degree of correlation between 'intrapersonal' (one aspect of teachers' EQ) and 'students behavioral engagement' ($r = 0.194$). This runs contrary to Den Brok, Brekelmans and Wubbels (2004) who found important associations between interpersonal teacher behavior and student outcomes.

Another important issue in the present study was studying the relationship between teacher's critical thinking and their EQ. The present study also surveyed this issue and found that there was not any meaningful relationship between teachers' critical thinking and their EQ. The finding of this study is different from Guvenc and Celik's (2012) finding. Guvenc and Celik (2012) found a substantial relation between sorts of emotional intelligence of teachers and their reflective thinking skills. Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) with a slight difference studied this issue in relation to students and they indicated a significant relationship between EFL students' critical thinking and their emotional intelligence.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study suggested that teacher's critical thinking is the only predictor variable of student engagement in the task and total EQ is not a significant predictor of this variable. It was explained that by increasing teacher's critical thinking, students' engagement in the task would raise too.

The finding of this study also showed that there was not a meaningful relationship between teachers' critical thinking and their EQ; also, there were some significant relationship among teachers' critical thinking sub-components and teachers' EQ sub-categories. Therefore, the answer to the second question is that there were not any significant relationships between teachers' critical thinking and EQ.

Concerning the third question, one can say that there were not any meaningful relationships between teachers' EQ and their students' engagement in the task. The findings of this study correspondingly showed that there were meaningful relationships between teachers' critical thinking and their students' engagement in the task. It was noticeable that 'recognition of assumptions' and 'emotional engagement' reflecting the highest meaningful relationship among teachers' critical thinking and students' engagement sub-components, all this points to the answer of fourth question.

VII. IMPLICATIONS

Based on the results of the study, some practical implications can be provided which may be useful to EFL teachers and syllabus designers.

1. Concerning the effects of teachers' critical thinking on students' engagement, by increasing critical thinking skills in EFL teachers, their students' engagement will increase too. So, changes could be made in Iran teacher training programs. They could be trained as professional critical thinkers.

2. A critical thinker teacher can nurture critical thinker students. Since the future is in the hands of today's students, critical thinking can train successful individuals.

3. Since being critical thinker means creativity and dynamism, curriculum designers can allow more freedom for teachers and respect their autonomy in classroom management.

4. Activities need to be informative, useful and, relevant to students' current interests and future objectives.

5. The extent and quality of students' engagement should be monitored, and where there is evidence of low levels of engagement follow-up action should be taken.

6. As there was a meaningful relationship between teachers' critical thinking skills, 'stress management' ability (as one of the sub-components of teachers' EQ that includes 'stress tolerance' and 'impulse control') and 'general mood components' ability (as one of the sub-categories of teachers' EQ that includes 'optimism' and 'happiness'), by teacher training focusing on stress management and general mood components skills, the teachers' critical thinking skills will increase too and it will affect positively students' engagement in the task as well.

7. It was noticed that there was a high degree of correlation between 'students' behavioral engagement' and 'intrapersonal' ability (as one of the sub-categories of teachers' EQ that includes 'self-regard', 'emotional self-awareness', 'assertiveness', 'independence' and 'self-actualization'). In addition, there was a meaningful relationship between 'emotional engagement' and 'intrapersonal' ability of teachers. Therefore, it is logical to conclude that by increasing intrapersonal abilities in EFL teachers, the behavioral and emotional engagement of their students in the task will increase too.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The studies to inspect the effect of teachers' features and characteristics (cognitive, emotional, personal and social features) on students' engagement and achievement are infrequent in pragmatics area. More studies are required to consider these issues.

Another concern is studying the relationship between students' features (values, attitudes, behaviors, experiences and backgrounds) and their engagement and involvement in the task. Furthermore, finding the teachers' critical thinking and EQ subcomponents that load the students' engagement in the task is crucial. For more explanation, teachers' critical thinking consists of some sub-categories which are: inferences, recognition of assumptions, deduction, interpretation and evaluation of arguments. Additionally, EQ is composed of intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood components sub-divisions. Therefore, focusing on these subcomponents and finding the aspects that may influence students' engagement in the task could be helpful in preventing students' disengagement and subsequently their dropping out from school.

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A Review of Research Methods in EFL Education

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Abstract—Ontological assumptions are dichotomous as realism and nominalism, which gives rise to dichotomous epistemological assumptions as positivism and interpretivism (or anti-positivism). This gives rise to methodological paradigms as quantitative and qualitative. As a blended paradigm of quantitative and qualitative, mixed methods rise as a third option. Each paradigm has its own characteristic research methods and strategies for data collection and analysis. The article elaborates these three research paradigms and relevant research methods in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Specific examples are given when each research method is illustrated.

Index Terms—EFL, ontology, epistemology, methodology, quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods

In general English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education can be defined as the English language which is taught and learnt in a country where the official language is not English, like China, Japan, etc. This differs from English as a Second Language (ESL) education, which refers to English language that is taught and learnt in an English-speaking country, like USA, UK, etc. The language environment is the key factor in distinguishing the two terminologies. The primary concern for doing research in this field lies in making EFL education more effective. Good research contributes more effective EFL education by providing new insights into the teaching and learning process (Mackey & Gass, 2011). The research in EFL education covers a wide range of targets, e.g. students, teachers, textbooks, teaching models, learning strategies, education policies, etc. As a result the research methods adopted can vary greatly in light of the specific research purpose and a researcher's stance of paradigm. The research paradigm is closely related to ontology and epistemology.

I. ONTOLOGY, EPISTEMOLOGY AND METHODOLOGY

Ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological approaches; which, in turn, give rise to methodological considerations (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Ontology is the rationale for methodological option. Figure 1 reflects a flow of thought on research methods.

Ontology originates from Latin 'ontologia', which is a compound word of 'onto + logia'. The prefix 'onto-' means 'being, existence' while the suffix '-ology' means 'science, study, theory'. Therefore ontology refers to the study of the nature of being or reality. In people's endeavor to comprehend social reality, two strikingly different paradigms have been constructed. Their divergence centers on their ontological assumptions about the very nature of the social reality under investigation. Is the social reality external to individuals? Or is the social reality the product of individual consciousness? The different answers to the two questions have formed two contradictory paradigms to the research work of social science: *realism* and *nominalism*. The positive answer to the first question believes in realism. Realists hold that social reality has an independent existence and are not dependent on the knower for its existence. The real world has hard, intangible structures that exist irrespective of our labels. On the other hand the positive answer to the second question is a believer of nominalism. Nominalists however assume that the social world is chiefly concepts or labels that help individuals to structure reality. These concepts or labels are human being's artificial creation. As a result the social reality is relative. As far as nominalism is concerned, objects of thought are merely words and there are no independently accessible things constituting the meaning of the words (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Cohen et al., 2011).

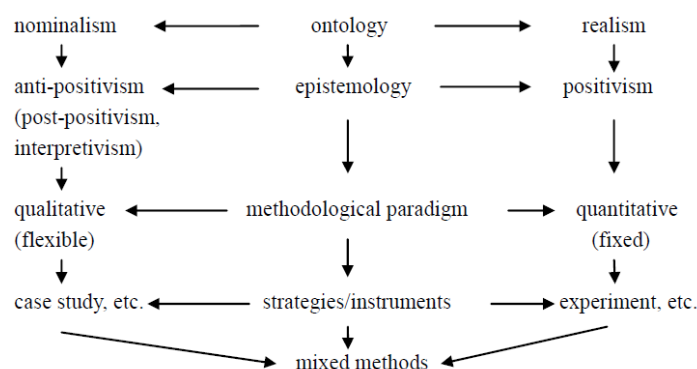


Figure 1 (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Cohen et al., 2011)

Different ontological assumptions (realism or nominalism) give rise to different epistemology. *Epistemology* questions what knowledge is and how it can be acquired. Realists believe that reality exists independently of observers. They view knowledge as hard, objective and tangible. In their enquiry of knowledge realists tend to adopt the approach of *positivism*. Positivists hold that society, like the physical world, functions according to general laws. The law can be understood by way of objective research. When doing research, they claim that the information deriving from mathematical and logical treatments and the report of sensory experience is the exclusive source of authoritative knowledge (Macionis & Gerber, 2010). They assume that all authentic knowledge allows verification and that only valid knowledge is scientific. Hence the positivists take an objective approach to the social phenomena. They treat the social phenomena as being real and external to individuals, so the social phenomena could be researched in ways similar to natural science. Positivists hold that researchers can seek to explain what has happened and predict what will happen in the social world by searching for patterns and relationships among the relevant variables. They assume that researchers can develop and test hypotheses, and knowledge is a cumulative process (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). In their enquiry of knowledge, the traditional methods, such as experiment, survey, and the like are often adopted.

By contrast, nominalists see knowledge as personal, subjective and unique. In their course of understanding the social phenomena, they tend to adopt the approach of *anti-positivism* (or post-positivism, or interpretivism). Anti-positivists challenge the positivists' view of social reality being objective, independent, ordered, standardized, rational, impersonal, etc. As human societies have unique characteristics like rules, norms, symbols, meanings, and values, which is different from the world of nature (HLS, 2011), anti-positivists hold that social phenomena are multi-layered and deserve multiple interpretations. They believe people's knowledge of the world is conjectural, falsifiable, challengeable and changing, and the researcher could have multiple perspectives and multiple warrants (Popper, 1968). In enquiry of knowledge, anti-positivists favor the styles of ethnographic fieldwork, discourse analysis, etc.

Different epistemological assumptions give rise to different methodological paradigms. *Methodology* can be defined as a general research paradigm that outlines how a research project is to be undertaken and, among other things, identifies the specific methods to be used. These methods define the instruments or strategies for data collection or, sometimes, how the result is to be analyzed (Howell, 2013). In other words, methodology is a system of methods, principles, and rules for regulating a research project in a given discipline. In practice, positivism may be equated with quantitative (or fixed) research while anti-positivism is more qualitative (or flexible).

II. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Qualitative (or flexible) research is a paradigm of inquiry that allows researchers to examine human behavior in depth and the reasons that govern such behavior. Qualitative research is useful for exploring new topics or understanding complex issues, e.g. for explaining people's beliefs and behaviors or for identifying the social norms of a society. Thus qualitative research is most applicable for addressing 'why' questions to explain and understand issues or 'how' questions that describe process or behavior (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). The qualitative data is generally termed 'soft', i.e., rich in description of people, places, and conversations, which is not easily handled by statistical procedures. The qualitative data is usually collected via sustained contact with the people being researched in the settings where they regularly spend their time. The researchers enter the world of the people they plan to study, get to know, be known, and be trusted by the researched, and systematically keep a detailed record of what is heard and observed (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006).

Participant observations and in-depth interviewing¹ are the two frequently adopted strategies to collect qualitative data. Qualitative data are the kinds of information gathered in a non-numeric form. The common examples of these data include: field notes, interview transcript, audio/video recordings, documents, etc. The data analysis of qualitative research is the process of moving from data collected into some form of explanation, understanding or interpretation of the people or situations being investigated. The purpose is to figure out the meaning and symbolization of the data. For example, by analyzing interview data the researcher might attempt to identify any or all of the followings:

- What the respondents have been doing;
- Their interpretation of a certain phenomena;
- Why they have that point of view;
- How they convey their viewpoint of their situation;
- How they identify or classify themselves and others in their discourse. (Lewins, Taylor, & Gibbs, 2010)

Qualitative analysis is not adhering to any one 'correct' approach or set of rigid techniques; it is imaginative, artful, flexible, and reflective (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). The process requires a lot of human efforts and it is very labor intensive. The good news is that computer assisted qualitative data analysis softwares (CAQDAS), NVivo for example, can help to reduce the manual work. Analyzing qualitative data is an inductive process, which often involves the process of:

- Transcribing – transcribe recorded data into written form that is agreeable to analysts;
- Coding – breaking the data down into small segments and labeling these;

¹ Other data collecting methods may include open-ended questionnaires, diaries and verbal reports, discourse analysis, documents and records, audio/video recordings, etc.

- Looking for larger categories or themes;
- Interpreting meanings and present results.

The most commonly used qualitative research methods include case study, action research and ethnography research, etc.

Case study

A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in the real world context (Atkins & Wallace, 2012; Yin, 2003). It is a study of a single instance of a bounded system, such as a community, a school, a class, a clique, a child, etc. (Creswell, 1994). The data collection methods may include interviews, observations, open-ended questionnaires, diaries and verbal reports, documents and records, etc. For example, if we want to explore EFL teachers' perceptions towards Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) at a specific university. In-depth interview will be a good way to elicit data. The research process may roughly include: designing interview questions, deciding on subject size, selecting the subjects, conducting the interview, analyzing the data, and interpreting the data. Open-ended questionnaire might be another option. This can cover larger subject size, but this is more demanding in the aspect that the EFL teachers answer the questions willingly, carefully and honestly.

Action research

Action research in applied linguistics is the research initiated to explore and solve a specific problem in the teaching or learning context by systematic data elicitation and analysis (Heigham & Croker, 2009). The purpose of action research is to solve a particular problem and to produce guidelines for better practice. In the field of EFL education, action research is usually associated with solving the teaching and learning problems within classrooms rather than addressing social problems concerning language teaching. The researchers are often the EFL teachers in that they themselves are important source of knowledge regarding their own classroom situations. As a result action can be implemented more credibly. For example, if an EFL teacher notices some of his students are not active in participating in class activities, e.g. role-plays, presentations, etc., he wants to solve this problem to improve his teaching. He can conduct an action research with the initial research question like: 'What barriers come between the students and class activities?' Observations and interviews might be the good approaches to find the reasons why the students are not active in class activities. Once the reasons are sought, the teacher can take actions accordingly to improve the class activities. With no doubt, the teacher has to continue observing his class to see if the measures taken are effective.

Ethnographic research

Ethnographic research focuses on describing and interpreting the common patterns of a culture-sharing group through prolonged participant observation and interview (Heigham & Croker, 2009). The 'culture-sharing group' here is not limited to ethnic groups but can be related to any bounded units such as communities, institutions, and programs. Thus we can talk about the ethnography of a language classroom, or a specific school, or other language learning context (Dö rnyei & Taguchi, 2012; Harklau, 2005). There is an ethnographic study conducted by a teacher-ethnographer in his own school (Pollard, 1985). The study aims at giving a thorough description of what it means to be a participant-observer, and what opportunities and difficulties a teacher-ethnographer has when trying to fulfill the duties of the teacher and of the researcher. The data collection method applied in this study is participant observation and interview. Another example is an ethnographic study of students' writing development conducted by Starfield (2010) at a South African University. The purpose of the study is to better understand why it is that black students who speak English as an additional language are much less successful than their white peers. Eleven students participated in the year-long study. A combination of data collection methods were applied, i.e. observation, in-depth interview and documentation.

III. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Quantitative (or fixed) research denotes the systematic empirical investigation of social phenomena by means of mathematical and statistical techniques (Given, 2008). It involves collecting data in numerical form and analyzing by statistical methods (Mackey & Gass, 2011). Its research objective is to develop mathematical models, theories or hypotheses about certain social phenomena and in an aim to make use of them.

A key step of quantitative research is to collect data which is mainly in the form of numbers, percentages, scores, etc. (Given, 2008). The strategies and instruments for data collection can include experiments, questionnaires, tests and the like. The researchers analyze such data with the help of statistical knowledge and tools, hoping the data will yield an unbiased result which can be generalized to a larger population. SPSS is one of the most popular statistical analysis softwares. It offers easy ways to explore relationships among variables and to compare groups, which are the frequently researched questions in EFL education.

Qualitative research is often an inductive process, fit for in-depth exploration of small samples with a less generalizable result, however quantitative research is usually deductive, fit for more breadth of information across a large number of samples with more generalizable result. The frequently used research methods include survey, experiment and correlational study, etc.

Survey

Survey gathers data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events (Cohen et al., 2011). Surveys are question-and-answer

formats that are conducted in person, on the phone, by internet, or through other interactive points with people. Questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information. It can provide structured, often numerical data, which are comparatively straightforward to analyse. Survey is typical with large sample size. For example, Kelsen (2009) did a survey on using YouTube as supplementary material with college EFL students in Taiwan. The purpose of the survey is to explore students' attitudes towards using YouTube to study English. Pre-intervention questionnaire and follow-up questionnaire were conducted separately on the first and last days of class of the fall semester, 2007, in two sophomore classes (n=69). The statistical results were calculated using the descriptive statistics function of SPSS.

Quasi-experiment

Experiment involves manipulating one or more independent variables and observing the effect on a dependent variable. There is a big difference between true experiment and quasi-experiment. True experiment is commonly used in the natural sciences, such as chemistry, geology and physics, in order to prove or disprove a hypothesis, or theory; however it is difficult to apply to social science, such as psychology or education. This is because the subjects under study in social science are usually human-related, which are difficult to control. Quasi-experiment, also known as natural or in-situ experiment, is the experiment in which subjects are beyond the control of the experimenter and are not randomly assigned (Dunning, 2014). It is an empirical inquiry used to estimate the causal impact of an intervention on the subjects. Therefore quasi-experiment is more suitable for social science. Specifically, it is frequently used in EFL education research. For example, a quasi-experiment research was ever conducted on investigating the effect of note-taking on EFL listening comprehension (Zohrabi & Esfandyari, 2014). The subjects include 30 English learners in the intermediate level of language proficiency. The experiment is conducted through pre-test and post-test on two subject groups. Two classes are selected randomly, one as the control group and the other as the experimental group. These two groups were involved in six sessions of listening task where the experimental group took notes and the control group did not. The procedure of data collection was completed by obtaining the subjects' scores in the listening part of PET test.

Correlational study

A correlational study investigates relationships between variables, namely, it explores whether or not two variables are correlated and how strong their correlation is. Sometimes more than two variables are involved. Kalla (2011) summarizes three kinds of correlations between two variables.

- *Positive correlation* refers to when an increase in one variable gives rise to an increase in the other, and a decrease in one gives rise to a decrease in the other.
- *Negative correlation* refers to when an increase in one variable gives rise to a decrease in the other, and a decrease in one gives rise to an increase in the other.
- *No correlation* exists when a change in one variable doesn't give rise to a change in the other and vice versa.

SPSS is very capable of doing this kind of data analysis.

Wu (2012) did a correlational study of Chinese non-English majors' learning strategies and CET-4 achievements. The subjects are sophomores of non-English major from a university in Zhengzhou, China. Eighty subjects responded to the questionnaires. Pearson correlational analysis and multiple regressions were conducted to explore the relationships between learning strategies and CET-4 achievements. Independent samples t-test was also carried out to identify the significant differences in the use of learning strategies between high-achievers and low-achievers.

IV. MIXED METHODS

It is highly possible that there are both singular and multiple versions of truth and reality in human society. The truth and reality is sometimes subjective and sometimes objective, sometimes scientific and sometimes humanistic (Cohen et al., 2011). A single quantitative or qualitative paradigm will only yield a partial understanding of the phenomenon being investigated (Greene, 2008). Polarization obscures the fact that quantitative and qualitative data are closely related to each other. The qualitative data can be described and manipulated numerically, and the quantitative data is based on qualitative judgments (RMKB, 2006). The social world is not an either/or world, but a mixed world. The paradigm of *mixed methods* recognizes and works with the fact that the social reality is not exclusively qualitative or quantitative. The paradigm of mixed methods involves collecting, analyzing, and interpreting both quantitative and qualitative data in a single research or in a series of research that investigates the same underlying phenomenon (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). The research of mixed methods addresses both the 'what' (quantitative and qualitative) questions and 'how' or 'why' (qualitative) questions. This is particularly useful if the researchers intend to understand the different interpretations of a certain phenomenon.

A mixed method recognizes and accepts that many variables are operating in a single case, and, hence, to catch the implications of these variables, it usually allows more than one instrument for data collection and plenty of evidence sources. It has the potential to blend quantitative and qualitative data (Cohen et al., 2011).

For example, if a researcher wants to do a study on perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students towards a combined 'EGP-ESP' model for College English education in a specific university, a structured and closed questionnaire can be used to explore the attitudes of students since a questionnaire is very efficient in collecting survey information from large samples, moreover it is easy to be administered and comparatively straightforward to be

analyzed. The questionnaire can conveniently generate frequencies of response amenable to statistical processing and analysis. This is quantitative data that can be analyzed by SPSS.

Meanwhile a semi-structured interview can be used to explore the perceptions and attitudes of EFL teachers since interview is fit for collecting in-depth information with small samples. In a semi-structured interview, the researcher usually designs in advance a list of questions or some specific topics closely related to the phenomenon under investigation. These questions or topics are often referred to as an interview guide. During the interview, both the interviewer and interviewee have some leeway in asking and answering. That is to say, the questions asked may not follow on exactly in the way outlined in the interview guide. Questions that are not included in the guide may also be asked while the interviewer picks up some things said by interviewee and wanted to explore deeper. The interview process is flexible and the emphasis is put on the interviewee's viewpoint and understanding of the phenomenon (Bryman, 2008). The data collected is typically qualitative.

To sum up, a qualitative researcher elicits detailed descriptions and narratives in an aim to give the phenomenon an in-depth understanding. A quantitative researcher elicits data coded in numeric form in an aim to analyze them statistically. Mixed methods incorporate descriptives and unstructured inquiry into a framework of numeric measurements, or integrate numeric elements into the subjective and detailed descriptions (Healey, 2012). As for the criteria to choose the right research methods, two considerations may play into this decision: the research questions and the researcher's experience. Certain types of research questions call for specific methods. A researcher must analyze what research methods best fit for his research questions. In addition, a researcher's personal experience and training received might considerably decide what research methods he/she adopts. A researcher is very likely to choose the research methods he/she is most familiar with. In one word, the best policy is to adopt a pragmatic and fit-for-purpose approach.

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The Effect of Teaching Critical Reading Strategies on Advanced Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Retention

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Abstract—The core interest of this study was to investigate whether teaching critical reading strategies had any significant effect on advanced EFL learners' vocabulary retention. In order to make a homogenous sample, 96 language learners in an English institute in Sari were invited to participate in a paper-based TOEFL test. Finally, 48 of them regarded as advanced EFL learners were selected to participate in the study. The instrument employed in the study included five critical reading comprehension texts selected from Critical Reading Workbook for the SAT (2006) by Green and Weiner and one supplementary material from Cambridge IELTS7. After the pretest had been administered, advanced EFL learners had 8 sessions of explicit teaching and practicing the critical reading strategies such as annotating, questioning, summarizing, and inferencing. Then, they had their posttest and finally the mean scores of pre and post-test critical reading were compared through Paired samples t-test which led to the rejection of the null hypothesis. At the end of the instruction, Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) was administered with the repeated measures designed to measure the retention of inferred meanings after an interval of 2 weeks. By applying one way ANOVA, the researcher could claim that there was a significant difference between VKS pre-test and VKS immediate post-test, and there was no significant difference between VKS immediate and VKS delayed post-test. The participants' knowledge remained largely the same during the two weeks interval. Therefore, teaching critical reading strategies affirmed to have a significant effect on advanced EFL learners' vocabulary retention.

Index Terms—critical reading, critical reading strategies, vocabulary retention

I. INTRODUCTION

No communication can take place without knowing the lexical items that can carry the meanings of the message. Wilkins (1972) argues, "While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed"(p.111).

Many learners have been complaining that not long after memorizing a word, it runs away and according to what Allen (1983) says, in most cases that teachers spend much time to vocabulary teaching, the results are not satisfactory. Thus, in order to absorb and retain many unfamiliar words without internalizing them requires vocabulary learning by the means of elaborating and effective approaches.

McCarthy (1990) pointed out that a word is well remembered in the case of being learned in a meaningful context. So, it seems that advanced learners require proper and efficient strategies to keep the new words, and EFL teachers also require to apply efficient approaches and practices to equip learners with those strategies. Learners with high-level reading comprehension strategies are able to acquire more vocabularies and retain them better (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Stoler & Grab, 1993).

An efficient attempt has been made to promote critical reading and higher level thinking skills in reading by the means by the means of developing effective strategies, techniques, and model lessons. In order to fully understand a text and critically analyze it, different steps in the form of strategies which include inferencing, questioning, annotating, finding the main idea, and summarizing are adopted (Sousa, 2004, pp. 105-106).

Learning words of a language is one of the essential components of learning that language. To do so, based on Wallace (2003), a critical reader mentally works on the word-form and makes connections between the context and his own personal knowledge to guess the meaning of the word. A critical reader is able to build a connection between the text and its vocabularies by concentrating on decoding meaning from the passage rather than just rote-reading the words.

Critical reading is a skill which helps to discover information and ideas within a text and it is applied for a careful, active, reflective, and analytic reading (Kurland, 2000). It provides learners with the chance of thinking about and analyzing the information critically. In other words, it makes them be able to consider the context with a better view and a critical understanding and provide the opportunity to evaluate the context. It is done through critically and frequently exposing to and using the new vocabularies in a meaningful way (Wallace, 2003). (as cited in Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Critical Reading

Flynn (1989), critical reading involves "an interactive process using several levels of thought simultaneously" (p.664). "Critical reading" is considered as teaching the students to think while reading. It is described as "learning to evaluate, draw inferences, and arrive at conclusions based on evidence" (Collins, 1989). In fact, students learn to read personally, actively, and deeply (Sweet, 1993). Critical reading regarded as "turning knowledge into wisdom" is one of the central skills in learning. It is the ability to learn from text, to think analytically and critically. Critical reading suggests teaching the students the way to analyze and improve reading and writing assignments from the perspective of formal, logical pattern of consistency (Popkewits & Flender, 1999). Critical reading has some strategies which are pointed out below.

B. Critical Reading Strategies

There are some critical reading strategies three of which were provided to the participants by the means of some pamphlets, and were directly instructed to them by the researcher in this study. These strategies are fully explained here:

The first strategy utilized in this study was *annotating*. Based on Diyanni (2002) this is the strategy the researcher explicitly taught during reading which is actively reading the text while reading and marking, circling, or writing some key words, and the meaning of unknown words (synonym and antonym) and the definitions in the margin. Based on Susa (2004) by applying this strategy, the learners pay attention to the unknown words and they are not ignoring the unknown words in the text. The learners should also have a pencil in hand so that they can "annotate" their text. Key words or symbols in the margin refer to the significant information. Also at the end of sub-sections, the reader can write short summaries in the margins, and follow the steps of the process by writing numbers in the margin. He can write questions in the margin beside the answer in the text, and identify the audience's challenging ideas, knowledge, sentiment, and beliefs. Furthermore, the reader can note his every personal experience on the topic. Marking, circling, or underlining the words which demonstrate voice, tone, sentiment, and the style of writing, and recognizing the information or evidence which demonstrates the historical, cultural, and biographical context of the text are recommended. The learners are also taught to make any connections to other sources they already have read on the topic.

The second strategy of this study was *inferencing* which takes place after guessing. Loafer (1997) argued that a learner who has been taught guessing strategies would not automatically produce correct guesses while reading. The factors, availability of clues, familiarity with the clue words, and presence of misleading clues will effect guessing. According to Brown (1993) a number of learning texts and contextual factors that influence the success of L2 lexical inferencing have also been identified in many researches on the topic. Inferencing was one of the strategies which the researcher has applied while reading. This strategy is common in critical reading. Reading is a process that is not regarded as separate units. The reader is frequently engaged in guessing meaning through encountering with the text. The meaning which is derived by the reader is influenced by the context, the reader's aim for reading and the situation of reading.

The last strategy used by the researcher was *summarizing* which helps the learners to self-correct by the means of reading the text again and again, checking the topic sentences, identifying the main ideas, and relating passages to each other. In this study, the participants first looked for main information while their reading and then they switched to style, details, and examples in the subsequent readings. If the participants were being asked to summarize a particular piece of writing or the texts, they would want to look for the main points. Summarizing the text which the participants have read was a valuable way to check their understanding of the text. When they summarized, they were able to find and write down the main points of the text. They restated a summary which reflected the author's main point, purpose, intent and supporting details in their own words. They were also able to discard information seemed redundant or trivial from their summary on their reading assignment. Summarization fostered the understanding of the text, as they needed to be able to recreate the meaning of the text in their own words. Summarizing made it possible for the participants to analyze and critique the original text. In order to understand the material they should read it over as many times as necessary and notice the unfamiliar words at the same

C. Vocabulary Retention

Schouten-Van Parreren (1985) discussed the presentation of vocabularies in text. She believed that texts give a lot of clues of reference for the retention of new words. Schouten-Van Parreren's focus was reading with the purpose of vocabulary acquisition, and the researcher discussed that guessing and analyzing the new word is really efficient. Guessing refers to the inference of the meaning of unknown word-form of the context. This action is thought to greatly cause the retention of new words. The identification of the relationships between unfamiliar words and the known words in L2, the mother-tongue, or other languages, considering etymology and the knowledge of word formation is the result of the analysis of word-form.

According to Paribakht and Wesche (1993, 1996, & 1997) engaging "greater mental effort" is fundamental for more efficient learning and retention of words. Hulstijn (1992) also suggests cognitive psychology by which it is meant that when learners have to infer or induce a solution to a problem they will invest more mental attempt than when the

solution is given and that information that has been attained with more mental attempt can later be better retrieved and recalled than information that has been attained with less mental attempt.

A critical reader mentally works on the word-form and makes connections between the context and his own personal knowledge to guess the word meaning (Wallace, 2003). Therefore, the researcher wanted to investigate if teaching critical reading strategies to advanced Iranian EFL learners can have a significant effect on the retention of new vocabulary.

D. Empirical Studies of Critical Reading and Vocabulary Retention

De Bot et al. (1997) attempted to present a lexical inferencing model based on the results of their introspective study of L2 learners' strategies when encountering an unfamiliar word through the text. Within the framework of Levelt's (1991) model they hypothesized that the richness of the text context in which the unknown words are embedded, enables L2 readers to infer word meanings. Results revealed that the participants utilized a wide range of knowledge sources to infer the 35 meanings of unknown words in two reading tasks (summarizing paragraphs and answering reading comprehension questions). De Bot et al. (1997) stated that in the process of constructing knowledge about the semantic and the syntactic features of their lexicons, the participants were engaged in applying these knowledge sources.

The study of Paribakht and Wesche's (1999) was a pursuing classroom experiment with 10 university ESL students. They tried to recognize the strategies and the types of knowledge and information which learners use while inferring unfamiliar L2 vocabularies they encounter in reading by the means of using introspective and retrospective think aloud data collection technique. They reported that learners tended to ignore a large proportion of the words. Moreover, they found that inferencing was the mostly used strategy (almost 80 %) for those words that learners paid attention to.

Wesche and Paribakht's (2000) argued that text-based vocabulary exercises might promote vocabulary growth. Ten intermediate-level ESL students took part in the research in a Canadian university setting. Learners were trained how to think aloud their thoughts before the study. First, the researchers asked the participants to read the text. Then, they asked them to perform the eight tasks in the same way with expressing their thinking and doing. A comparison of the findings of this study and the previous one (reading only study, Paribakht & Wesche, 1999), helps to explain the differential word-learning outcomes found for the two treatments in the earlier experimental study (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997). The result of Wesche and Paribakht (2000) revealed that majority of the target vocabularies learned by the learners stayed at the recognition level in the *reading only* condition. On the contrary, in the *reading plus* condition achievement of the vocabulary knowledge covered some aspects of word knowledge and word use ability in production. Differences between learners responses under the *reading only* and *reading plus* instructional conditions help to explain the superior effectiveness of the latter condition in the number of words retained (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997).

The use of strategies and knowledge sources in L2 lexical inferencing and their relationships with inferencing success was explored in Nassaji's (2003) study. Data were collected in individual sessions which consisted of introspective and retrospective think-aloud protocols of 21 intermediate ESL learners. The findings of his study showed that different strategies contributed differently to inferencing success and that successful inferencing possibly depends on not just applying particular strategies but on how efficiently the use of strategies is corresponded with the use of sources of information in and outside of the text, as well.

Trautman (2012) reported that strategies which help to develop and improve annotation with young adults pay meticulous attention to aid their reading comprehension and critical thinking skills. Likert scale questionnaire was given to teenager students. Besides, observations and a journal were frequently recorded thoughts and comments on how annotation activities were going. The results showed that annotation helps students be more desirable reader, writers, and critical thinkers. The aim of that study was to find strategies which enhance annotation strategies in the seventh grade English classroom.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was to examine the effect of teaching critical reading strategies on advanced Iranian's EFL Learners' Vocabulary retention. The present study was going to answer the following research question:

Does teaching critical reading strategies have any significant effect on advanced EFL learners' vocabulary retention?

A. Participants

The subjects of this study were 48 students of different social classes and university degrees, but of a homogenous advanced level of English proficiency in the north of Iran. The sample participants whom were asked to take part in this study had voluntarily agreed to take part. They were male and female EFL learners whose first language was Persian. Their age range was twenty to thirty-one (mainly adults). The sample comprised of 31 male and 17 female, and none had ever lived in an English speaking country.

The first criterion used to choose the adults participants was the learners' proficiency level. Ideally, participants were expected to be advanced learners in terms of general proficiency. The TOEFL test (Paper-Based TOEFL Practice Test, 2003) was administered to subjects. The TOEFL test in three phases was administered since the researcher had large population in the study. Among the 96 subjects who took the TOEFL test, only 48 EFL learners were invited to the study. The researchers selected the participants who passed the TOEFL exam by the score of above 515 in order to

make homogenous sample of around 50 participants for the study. According to the participants' performance on the TOEFL test, they were considered to be advanced language learners.

B. Instrumentation

The instruments employed in this study encompassed reading texts in which there were 20 target words which were unfamiliar for the participants. In order to make sure that the intended words were unfamiliar to them, these words along with other words had been piloted with some advanced students who did not take part in the study. They were asked to choose unknown words which were given on a list, so that they could not use the clues in the sentences, and based on their responses, 20 words were selected as unfamiliar target words for the study. The target words which were also given on a list to the participants consisted of ten Nouns, six Verbs, and four Adjectives: Cognition, Slogan, Aphid, Craft, Espousal, Lubricant, Circumstance, Coincidence, Livestock, Egotist, Defer, Propagate, Obviate, Sift, Belittle, Domesticate, Phony, Rugged, Epigrammatic, Sophisticated. The instrumentation included five Critical Reading comprehension texts selected from Critical Reading Work Book for the SAT (2006), by Weiner Green and Mitchell Weiner, 12th Edition. It also contained texts and critical reading comprehension questions. In addition there was a supplementary material which was a text from Cambridge Book for the Cambridge exams, Cambridge IELTS 7. The researchers used this non-critical text to assess the participants' critical performance on the text. It was based on learners' interests in the title of Ant Intelligence which engrossed for the participants who were mainly males. Vocabulary Knowledge Scale, VKS, (Paribakht and Wesch, 1993, 1996, 1997; Wesch and Paribakht, 1996) was administered with the repeated measures designed to measure the retention of inferred meanings.

C. Procedure

In order to find the answer of the research question in this study, the researchers arranged two critical reading tests and three VKS tests.

D. The Administration of the Pre & Post-test of Critical Reading

The researchers held 8 sessions of teaching and practicing critical reading strategies classes once a week. They administered a pretest of critical reading and vocabulary knowledge scales test in the first session. The participants answered critical reading pretest in order for the researchers to understand the participants' early concepts of Critical Reading. The number of the questions in this test was sixty seven for the participants to answer. In the next two sessions the researchers explicitly taught the critical reading strategies with the help of a pamphlet and made the participants aware of these strategies. Annotating is an important strategy to employ if the readers want to read critically. Successful critical readers read with a pen or pencil in their hands, making notes in the text while reading. As an "active reader", the participants already knew that when they read textbook assignments, they should have had questions in their mind (Carter, 2007). Here are some techniques that the readers could use to annotate text: underlining important terms, circling definitions and meanings, writing key words and definitions (Diyanni, 2002), making a signal where important information or key words could be found by the means of "NB" which implies "important" in the margin, an asterisk, writing "concl" which implies "conclusion" in the margin of points where the writer drew major conclusions (Freshwater & Rolfe, 2004). By the means of these readings, the learners would be ready to handle the strategies in a way that they could later apply while reading a text. In this course the focus of teaching was more on the strategies which participants were less familiar and had more problems with. After the strategies had been taught by the means of guiding the required practices, the focus was switched to the text by going through reading and then discussing different questions and inferences that the participants had made. The participants were taught strategies such as inferencing, annotating, questioning and summarizing, and afterwards could promote inferencing and annotating strategies while reading. From the next session on, six selected texts were read in the class by the participants and the researcher asked them to apply the critical reading strategies which they have already been taught.

The researchers tried to engage the participants in the process of thinking, make the participants familiar with the critical reading strategies through reading as much as possible and also tried to extend the strategies in all levels using their background knowledge experience, connecting different information, making inferences, annotating, and generally being critical.

The participants in this study first searched for basic information while reading and then their focus switched to style, details, and examples in the subsequent readings. The participants read with a pen or pencil, underlining the key statements, parts, or points even those they found confusing. Also, they made notes of words or terms which they did not understand. Teaching critical reading strategies could help to become autonomous readers in the classroom.

The purpose of post-test was to search to what extent the participants were familiar with the critical reading ability after almost 3 months. And at the end of the sessions, the participants answers the same test, the post-test of critical reading, and the results were compared to their answers at the beginning of the first session by the researchers to investigate if teaching critical reading strategies caused any development in participants' understanding of critical reading strategies. In this study the researchers attempted to investigate whether the participants' English vocabulary retention could be developed through explicit instruction of the critical reading strategies.

E. The Administration of the Pilot Test for VKS Test

Before the main study, a pilot study was conducted for selection of target words in VKS. As Dornyei (1960) has pointed out, a research study needs a dress rehearsal to ensure high quality in terms of reliability and validity of the outcomes in the specific context. Piloting is more important in quantitative studies because a quantitative study relies on the psychometric properties of research instrument. An intact class of eleven participants who were not present in the main study in an institute was given the list of the thirty five words in order to check the unfamiliarity of words. The time taken to complete the pilot test ranged from 10 to 15 minutes. Based on their responses twenty target words out of thirty five words were selected and employed in the VKS tests for assessing vocabulary retention. It was to make sure that the intended words were unfamiliar to the participants of the study. After running pretest of critical reading the researchers administered the pretest of VKS.

F. The Administration of the Pre & Post-test (Immediate & Delayed) for VKS Test

After the explicit instruction period, two (immediate and delayed) posttests of VKS were also given. Warning & Takak (2003) argue that new words are fresh in the mind for an immediate posttest, thus, the scores of immediate posttest are higher than the scores of delayed one which is taken some time later. Claims made only on the basis of the immediate posttest results could not be generalized. Repeated measure design was preferred to measure whether the participants could retain the meaning over time. The first immediate posttest was run; participants completed the immediate posttest in a time in 8 to 12 minutes. The second test was administered two weeks after the first posttest to measure the retention of vocabulary. The VKS tests sessions were unannounced, and the same procedure was followed for both of them, the time taken to complete the VKS test ranged from 8 to 10 minutes. Since the participants had read the text, they might infer the meaning of the words in the test. As the researcher tried to measure the vocabulary retention, it was decided to not test the target words in the context in order for the researchers to definitely understand if the word was learned from reading, or inferring by using contextual clues.

IV. RESULTS

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics related to the critical reading pre-test and critical reading post-test:

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CRITICAL READING PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Test	Number	Mean	SD
Pre-Test	48	37.65	3.33
Post-Test	48	55.33	3.86

It can be inferred that the participants did much better in post-test than the pre-test. In order to scrutinize whether the differences are significant or not, as mentioned earlier, Paired Samples t-test was used.

TABLE II
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR CRITICAL READING PRE-TEST & CRITICAL READING POST-TEST OF THE STUDY

	Mean	Std.Deviation	T value	Df	Sig.(2.tailed)
Pre vs. Post Critical Reading	-17.68	1.41	-75.96	47	.00

*P<0.05

According to table 2, the results of Paired Samples t-test for comparison of pre and post-test revealed the mean of 17.68, standard deviation of 1.4, and t value of -75.96 with the significant level .00 and df of 47 that is statistically significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the researchers claim that teaching critical reading strategies were positively effective for participants.

The results of the comparison between VKS tests are shown in the tables below. The first table shows the mean, standard deviation, and the number of the participants in each test of VKS pre-test and VKS Immediate Post-test.

TABLE III
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF VKS PRE-TEST AND VKS IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

VKS Test	Number	Mean	SD
Test 1	48	20.88	.81
Test 2	48	55	1.45

The results of paired samples t-test for VKS pretest and VKS Immediate post-test of the participants as illustrated in table 4 revealed the mean of -34.12, standard deviation of 1.53, and the t value of -153.671 with df of 47 that is statistically significant at .05 level ($p < .05$). Therefore, the researcher asserts that the participants had better retention of vocabulary in VKS immediate post-test.

TABLE IV
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR VKS PRE-TEST AND VKS IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

	Mean	Std.Deviation	T	Df	Sig.(2.tailed)
Pre vs. VKS immediate Post-Test	-34.12	1.53	-153.67	47	.00

*P<0.05

As illustrated in table 4, paired samples t-test for equality of means exhibits that $\text{sig}=0$ which is less than 0.05, and as a result the mean is significant.

The results of the comparison between VKS tests are shown in the tables below. The first table shows the mean, standard deviation, and the number of the participants in VKS Immediate Post-test and VKS Delayed Post-test.

TABLE V
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF VKS IMMEDIATE POST-TEST AND VKS DELAYED POST-TEST

VKS Test	Number	Mean	SD
Test 2	48	55.46	1.27
Test 3	48	55.40	1.28

The results of paired samples t-test for VKS immediate post-test and VKS delayed post-test of the participants as illustrated in table 6 revealed the mean of 0.06, standard deviation of 0.24, and t value of 1.77 with df of 47 that is not statistically significant at the .05 level. So the researchers claim that VKS immediate post-test and VKS delayed post-test yield the same retention of target words in the study.

TABLE VI
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST FOR VKS IMMEDIATE POST-TEST AND VKS DELAYED POST-TEST

VKS Immediate vs. VKS delayed Post-Test	Mean	Std.Deviation	T	Df	Sig.(2.tailed)
	0.06	0.24	1.77	47	0.08

* $P < 0.05$

The above table clearly displays that there is no significant difference between the means of the VKS Immediate posttest and VKS Delayed posttest. The significance level of VKS immediate posttest and VKS delayed posttest is 0.05. Therefore, the researchers assert that there is no significant difference in retention of target words during two weeks.

The researchers used one way ANOVA for assessing the significance of the differences in the means of VKS pre-test, VKS immediate post-test and VKS delayed post-test. There was a significant difference between VKS pre-test ($M=20.88$, $SD=.82$), and VKS immediate post-test ($M=55.46$, $SD=1.27$), and there was no significant difference between VKS immediate and VKS delayed post-test ($M=55.40$, $SD=1.28$), $F(7, 2.62) = 211.67$ $P < .001$. The participants' knowledge remained largely the same during the two weeks interval. Thus, the researchers claim that VKS immediate post-test and VKS delayed post-test had an equal weight on vocabulary retention.

TABLE VII
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR VKS PRE-TEST, VKS IMMEDIATE POST-TEST AND VKS DELAYED POST-TEST OF THE STUDY

		Df	F	Sig.
VKS	Between Groups	7	211.67	.00
	Within Groups	40		
	Total	47		
VKS	Between Groups	7	0.45	0.86
	Within Groups	40		
	Total	47		

Therefore, it could be inferred that teaching critical reading strategies had statistically significant effect on advanced EFL learners' vocabulary retention.

V. DISCUSSIONS

Teaching critical reading strategies might have led critical reading activities to be easier and more interesting for the participants and also helped them retain the target vocabularies. Moreover, it is asserted that the more L2 readers apply critical reading strategies on texts, the more they can enhance their vocabulary and reading skills to become more independent and successful readers and as a result retain the vocabularies easier. Differently speaking, critical reading strategies could make the students more independent in vocabulary learning and led in better retention since the learners consider themselves as the responsible for their learning.

The type of the participants' critical reading activities such as text summarizing, annotating, lexical inferencing, and questioning did have a better effect. The researchers concluded that every student in the class could have the chance to involve in the intellectual discussion and made their voices heard through these activities. Based on Oxford and Scarcella (1994) and Joel Walz (2001) language experts strongly believe that vocabulary learning in context is more efficient than learning words in lists. They perceived that decontextualized vocabulary learning can help learners to internalize vocabulary for tests, while learners possibly forget vocabulary memorized from lists. Furthermore, McCarthy (1990) indicated that a word is well remembered if it is learned in a meaningful context. Therefore, the positive impact of critical reading strategies on the reading comprehension might deduce the results of this study and as a result contributed to the vocabulary retention in an indirect way.

The findings of this study also corroborated the effective role of critical reading strategies in contextualizing vocabulary learning. The participants' handling with the vocabularies in context by utilizing critical reading strategies

such as: inferencing, questioning, summarizing when conversing the content of the texts in the class resulted in good vocabulary retention of the participants.

Based on the studies conducted by Coady 1997; Meara 1997; Nation and Newton 1997; Watanabe 1997; Huckin & Coady 1999; and Hulstijn 2001, word knowledge has to be processed in mind and should be developed to successfully attain vocabulary learning, and critical reading strategies set an appropriate context for vocabulary learning.

The result of this study was in line with the result of Khabiri and Pakzad (2012). They investigated the effect of teaching critical reading strategies on intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention. In that study, almost the same content was taught to both control and experimental groups throughout 19 sessions treatment with the only difference that the experimental group was taught critical reading strategies while for the control group the common comprehension-based approach was applied and after an interval of two weeks, the pilot vocabulary retention post-test corresponding to the vocabulary pre-test was administered to the participants of both groups. According to the results, teaching critical reading strategies proved to have a significant effect on intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention. As the researchers of this study studied almost the same topic with different methodology on participants of different ages and levels of proficiency, they could enjoy the purpose and the results of that study so much.

Patching, Kameenui and Carnine, Gevsten and Colvin (1983) investigated the impact of direct instruction in critical reading. The results showed that significant differences were found on performance of the main posttest between the direct-instruction sample and both the workbook with corrective-feedback and no-intervention samples. The critical reading test indicated that systematic instruction on adults using modeling and explicit training in overt strategies was significantly more effective than exposing to the same material in a workbook format with no intervention. Therefore, the researcher utilized the same way of teaching (explicit training) for teaching the critical reading strategies.

Linda Flynn (1989) reported on the study of the developing critical reading skills through cooperative problem solving. He showed that young readers develop into independent critical readers when they learn how to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate knowledge by thinking how to solve the problems in a cooperative learning environment, and applying critical reading strategies make the students become autonomous. The researcher found almost the same results in developing critical reading skills by adult participants in class which provides a cooperative learning situation.

In the case of supportive intensifiers, Kobayashi (2007) highlighted the effect of critical reading orientation on applying external strategies such as note-taking or underlining while reading an expository text. Trautman (2012) reported that strategies which help to improve annotation with young adults pay special attention to helping their reading comprehension skills and critical thinking skills. Note-taking and underlining are the strategies of annotating which in this study the researchers taught the participants to use in order to focus the participants' attention to the unknown words in the reading texts. They underlined new vocabulary and then inferred the meaning of those words.

Zabihi and Pordel (2011) referred to what extent popular reading text books meet the criteria for the development of critical reading that identifies and investigates the presence of those items within reading text books which help to promote critical reading. The results revealed that the prerequisites to develop the critical reading are autonomy and engagement which can be obtained by the means of task-based teaching the strategies. The researchers in this study also paid much attention to the selected reading texts in order to meet the criteria for the development of critical reading. Moreover, the researchers utilized strategies instruction to reach the goal.

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Many teachers and learners agree on the need for vocabularies as the building blocks of a language without which people cannot communicate their intentions (Allen, 1983). The basic role vocabulary learning plays in acquiring a new language was well demonstrated in the study conducted by knight (1994) and Paribakht & Wesche (1996). So, absorbing and retaining too many new words in a short time without the chance of internalizing them needs vocabulary learning carried out by the means of detailed and efficient approaches.

It has been the frequent complaint of many learners that too short after they have memorized a word, it runs away and referring to Allen (1983), even in the case of teachers' dedicating much time to vocabulary teaching, often the results are not satisfactory. Thus, it is indicated that EFL learners require effective and suitable strategies to keep the new words in mind, on the other hand, EFL teachers require to find elaborate and effective approaches and practices to provide learners with required strategies. According to the findings proposed here in this study, teaching the critical reading strategies to EFL learners is an effective approach, because reading text provides an extensive exposing to unfamiliar vocabulary in L2. From the other point of view, high-level reading comprehension strategies enable the learners to acquire more vocabularies and retain them better (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Stoler & Grab, 1993). "Vocabulary learning dominantly occurs through reading with the learner's guessing the meaning of unknown words" (P. 182).

The findings of this study enhance the language teachers' understanding of the nature of the teaching critical reading strategies and the necessity of this process in L2 vocabulary retention through reading. The experimental study reported in this research supports the important role of teaching critical reading strategies in vocabulary development and suggests that in order to develop vocabulary retention through reading, formal training of critical reading strategies can be effective in strengthening the learners' ability to infer and retain the meaning of unknown words while reading. A further pedagogical implication of the findings of this research recommends L2 language teachers to assign their

students as more reading exercises as possible. The more they read the greater chances they can find to learn. This study also has some other usages which are applicable in other institutes and educational centers. Recently, the importance of vocabulary learning has been more emphasized. It seems necessary to adopt some ways which can lead to better vocabulary learning. Critical reading strategies can be included in educational curriculum in order to create a way of teaching. It can be a challenging course and program for future language learning as it helps the learners to develop their knowledge of vocabulary.

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A Postcolonial Perspective on the Cultural Translation Strategies—A Case Study of the English Version of Shuihuzhuan (All Men Are Brothers)*

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Abstract—Based upon the two English Versions of Shuihuzhuan (All Men Are Brothers), the paper mainly discusses the different translation strategies used by Pearl S. Buck and Shapiro from the perspective of post-colonialism. Then the reasons of these existing differences will be illustrated. Lastly the paper will come up with the limitation of the present research.

Index Terms—Peal S. Buck, Shapiro, post colonialism, contrast, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

ShuiHuzhuan, as one of the four greatest classical novels of china, its artistic charm not only attracted Chinese scholars' concern, but also caused a lot of foreign scholars to explore and research. Since 1850, about 27 versions of Shuihuzhuan in Western language emerged, and the two most famous English versions are "All Men Are Brothers" and "Outlaws of the Marsh". For a long time, however, researchers were used to focus on "fidelity" to the original text or social and cultural contributions of one single version or pure contrast of translating between the two versions, and the choice of strategies in translating of the two versions has been either ignored. As a result, there are no systematic studies for the contrast of the two versions with a certain theory on the choice of strategies in translating.

In view of this, the study will be done from a perspective of post colonialism. Based on the methods of text contrast, the author will make a thorough analysis on the strategies of the two versions, all men are brothers and the outlaws of the marsh, and then discuss their different choices in translating the original text of Shuihuzhuan. It then will probe into their strategies of translation and explore the cultural and realistic efforts of their translations, thus make a conclusion for the reasons of their different choices in translating and their different effects for the development of translation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. An Overview

Of the many who have translated Shuihuzhuan into English, Pearl S. Buck and Shapiro are the most representative writers. Peal S. Buck, an American writer who grew up in China, has outstanding talent in novel, and she got achievements on the creative writing, the translation and the social activities. All above not only shows us the diverse cultural writer's huge potential, but reminds us that we can't see her translation as simple literal work, but a special contribution as the means of spreading of Chinese culture and expressing the rebellion to the west. Her great work All Men Are Brothers came out in 1930. Sidney Shapiro, the Chinese Jewish translator, was living in America in his youth. He came to china out of his love and yearning for Chinese culture. As the representative of cross-cultural scholars, he got a great achievement in translation, and his work, Outlaws of The Marsh was published in 1980, which caused a surprising effect in both the west and china. Just based on the similar backgrounds of the two great translators, their different translations about Shuihuzhuan have a deep significance for study. Besides, Peal S. Buck's work All Men Are Brothers was actually beyond her age, it expresses the eager for the rebellion to the cultural hegemony and the difference, which offer an sample for the later emerged post- colonial culture that manifest ego identity.

B. Theory of Post-colonialism

* This paper is supported "the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities"(DUT13RW412) and National Higher Education Teaching and Research Project (Liao -0012-A) and "the Liaoning Province's Social Science Planning Foundation"(L13DYY057)

The post-colonialism rises in the West in 1970s. It was defined a movement that is to eliminate the colonial ideology and challenge to the impact of west cultural imperialism. The post-colonialism emphasizes the identity, and pays attention to the relation of subject and object, and has the feature of hybridity. However, postcolonial theory is not a few contemporary scholars' creation full of "inspired". The bud can be traced back to the second half of 19th, and developed in 1947 for the independence of India, and matured in the late 1970s and attracted scholars' attention. Its important symbol is the Said's Orientalism, which is called "the creation of the postcolonial areas" by Spivak. And then through post-colonialism masters including Said, Spivak and BaBa' motivation, the post-colonialism has the present glory. As a theory aimed directly at the "post-colonialism", on one hand, it behaves sharp critical and disruptive feature. Its dispelling to the relation between center and edge and care for the minority identity make it easily that causes the resonance from the third world countries. On the other hand, the hybridity and superiority of post-colonialism critics often led to the skepticism about their essence and inclination of new colonialism. Such above comes to critics' mixture for the uncertain of the post-colonialism. However, no matter what the post-colonialism is, the theory has at least the high unity from three aspects including the attitude that respects and concerns about the difference, paying attention to the identity and subject, and the inclination beyond dualism epistemology.

Shapiro's work was published in such a background. Adding the feature and style of Pearl's work, the research about the translation strategies has its applicability of the theory and the present important significance in a perspective of post-colonialism based on the method of contrastive analysis of these two versions.

C. Related Researches

1. Research of *All Men Are Brothers*

Since 1933, the Pearl's translation has five versions (1937, 1948, 1952, 1957, and 2006). The feature of her translation is literal translation. That is, has a Chinese classical style in translation. Pearl said in her preface, "I have translated it as literally as possible, because to me the style in Chinese is perfectly suited to the material." Peter Conn has ever praised Pearl, "to some extent, Pearl's translation let the west see the text of the reality." Of course, Pearl's version also got a lot of critiques. Lu Xun, the Chinese famous writer, he said, "Not all men are brothers in Shuihuzhuan". And Shapiro also criticizes it a strange mixture, has a taste of Chinese classics. Actually, however, Pearl thinks that her work has no academic at all, and she just would like to make the translation as much like the Chinese as I could because I should like readers who do not know the language to have at least the illusion that they are reading an original work. No matter it is praise or critique, Pearl's literal translation style got a great success at the angle of the effect of the work. We are used to neglecting its mission. That is to spread Chinese culture to the West. Mr. Lin Yutang, the master of Chinese culture, rarely mentions the contents itself in his preface for Pearl's all men are brothers, but to expresses his opinions about the function of the work on the spread of Chinese culture. The publication of the translation is undoubtedly made great contributions for the spread of Chinese culture.

2. Research of *Outlaws of the Marsh*

Shapiro's work, *Outlaws of the Marsh* was published by Beijing foreign language press, has four versions (1980, 1981, 1990, 1993), and was the only English versions that covers one hundred chapters. Shapiro took the different translation strategies; he put the emphasis on the difference of cultural communion between china and the west, differing from the concern on the original of Pearl's work. Cyril. Birch evaluated in *Wilson Quarterly*, "Buck's *All Men Are Brothers* brings Chinese *Shuihuzhuan* partly to the west, but Shapiro's efforts are three times more outstanding than hers". Cyril. Birch saw the features of accuracy, appropriateness and understandability.

D. Study on Pearl S. Buck and Shapiro

Since 1930s, the evaluation about Pearl S. Buck had two opposite point of view in the fields of literature criticism. In short, we can call it affirmation of the disputed as the final evaluation. Per Hallstrom, general Secretary of Swedish Academy, praised her works "Make human's sympathy to heavily cross ethnic boundaries". American sinologist Nathaniel Preffer said pearl's all men of brothers uncover the mask of translation and recommend the book to the utmost extent, and at the meantime, he regarded Pearl S. Buck as a great artist for she can grasp the special rhyme of Chinese words. Mr. Lin Yutang even regarded it as the best gift to the west on behalf of china.

Of course, not everyone was in favor of her translation. Tai Jen said in the *Saturday Review of Literature* that the name of *Shuihuzhuan* should be better if can be changed into *The Righteous Brigand*. Beside the doubt about the name of *Shuihuzhuan*, the sinologist Arthur D. Waley (1889-1966) pointed out and analyzed some mistaken translations. While in recent years, most of evaluations are positive. In 1990s, American academia set off a pop of "Pearl S. Buck", American historian Thompson published an article in *Philadelphia Inquirer*, and he said Buck was the most influential writer on the description of China except Marco Polo. At the same time, Buck attracted a wide attention in domestic academia, including four large academic discussion hosted by Pearl S. Buck Institute in Jiangsu and commemorative activities in one hundred in 1992. In brief, Pearl S. Buck got a large attention and she is a writer full of affirmation and query.

As for Shapiro, he got far more praises than skepticism. He tried his best to express in an English way and remain the pure Chinese cultural elements. Pym Anthony thought Shapiro's works "have some degrees of interculturality". Shapiro is more popular in Chinese academia, some scholars evaluated him as a milestone in the history of Chinese translation. And in the recent article of *Oriental Translation* about Shapiro, the writer Ren Dongsheng regarded Shapiro's

translation as “Shapiro’s Translation Model”, which better shows his great achievement in translation and his effect in translation academia.

III. METHODOLOGY

Due to the large span on the content of this study, referring to the original text, the two English versions of *Shuihuzhuan*, all men are brothers and outlaws of the marsh, the paper would borrow a variety of research methods for ensuring the reliability and quality of research results. In general, it includes as follows:

A. *Diachronic Study*

The diachronic study in this paper is a study of the change of translating choice, including describing and account for obvious change in translation in particular words or names and discuss how and why the change happened. It is a linear study of time. In the course of the study, the paper will not only pay attention to the empirical analysis, but also concentrate on the process analysis, in order to have a comprehensive inspection about the background of Buck’s and Shapiro’s translation activity and their true face in the choice of translation strategies.

B. *General Research Combines with Case Study*

Out of the large length of *Shuihuzhuan* and the two English texts, the paper uses the method of general research combined with case study for avoiding catching one and losing another. In general, the paper will give the complete sample for the translation of words and phrases around the whole text of *Shuihuzhuan* and take the case study in the translation of sentences, paragraph, and even a brief story.

C. *Contrastive Analysis*

The method is the paper’s main method, mainly with reference to the different translation strategies used by these two translators. For example, we suggest that Buck praise highly of alliteration for she used many in her translation while Shapiro used the different sentence pattern in his masterpiece, which is the striking contrast in terms of their translation strategies.

IV. FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

A. *The Post-colonial Perspective in the Diachronic Study*

One of the definitions about post-colonialism is that it is an activity which challenges to the impact of non-western culture and eliminate the colonial ideology. Although it is commonly acknowledged that the post-colonial theory rises up in 1970s, and Buck’s *all men are brothers* was published in 1930s, Buck’s text still covers the contents about identity, cultural conflict, ethics, and culture hegemony. Those above have close relations with the post-colonial perspective. As professor Guo Yingjian said, “Buck is the pioneer of the post-colonial literature.” That is to say, Buck’s translation shows the features of the early post-colonialism. Besides, Shapiro’s texts emerged in 1980 when the post-colonialism is boosting. During the fifty years from 1930 to 1980, the two versions of *Shuihuzhuan* testimony the development of post-colonialism in china. In the same post-colonialism horizon and the different time, the two writers, Buck and Shapiro, have the different translation choice. The phenomenon proves that the post-colonial theories constantly develop and it is an evolving theory. It is just the evolution that gives the research significance between Buck’s and Shapiro’s masterpieces in the diachronic study with the post-colonial perspective.

B. *The Contrastive Analysis*

1. **The Analysis of the Title**

Buck’s title, *all men are brothers*, comes from Confucius’s words in *Analects*, “all men are brothers around the world”. The title suddenly emerged in her brain before her work was published, she said. However, in my opinion, it is more like a reflection for her inclination in translation, the title contains Chinese culture and obviously it expresses the contents of *Shuihuzhuan*, neglecting the original name of *Shuihuzhuan*. Interestingly, it is the most different one in *all men are brothers* for most contents in the work were literally translated. Superficially, it is the rebellion of Chinese words, but actually, it praised highly Chinese literature and culture. The title expresses the Ideographic characteristics of Chinese words. As an English work, the title exactly reflects its rebellion to the English culture.

Shapiro’s title, *outlaws of the marsh*, is more literal. During 1980s, translation about *Shuihuzhuan* has developed a lot, most translator pay more attention to the accuracy of language in translation. However, with the rise of post-colonialism, translators usually try their best to remain the cultural phenomenon existed in the original text. With such premise, Shapiro’s work was published. The title well interprets Shapiro’s features in translation; his work is more like a mixture of Chinese culture and English words. On the one hand, it well remains the Chinese elements. On the other hand, it suits the custom of English language, which is more easily accepted by westerners.

2. **The Analysis of Characters’ Names**

In *Shuihuzhuan*, the 108 heroes are the main characters and all of them have nicknames. These nicknames refer to these heroes' personalities, appearance, and status and so on. For these nicknames, Buck and Shapiro also have their own distinctive translations. The table below gives the contrast between their different translations about nicknames.

The original text	All men are brothers	Outlaws of the marsh
九纹龙史进	The nine dragoned	Nine dragons ShiJin
小霸王	The little robber king	The little king
花和尚	The tattooed priest	Lu the tattooed Monk
赤发鬼	The red-headed devil	Red-haired demon
急先锋	The eager vanguard	Urgent vanguard
美髯公	The beautiful beard	Beautiful beard
宋公明	Sung Chiang	Song Jiang
母夜叉	The she-monster	The witch
武都头	Wu sung	Wu song
青面兽	The blue-faced exile	The blue-faced beast

From the table above, we can clearly see that Buck's English translation is casual and informal, but closer to the original text, such as the red-headed devil, the she-monster, and the blue-faced exile. They are all literally translated. Even if not the literally translation such as sung Chiang and Wu song, there are no regular rules for the translation of these nicknames. As for the Shapiro's translation, we can enjoy more the native English than Buck's, but not so lively and visual as Buck's. Here are the two different choices faced with these nicknames. Buck's translation is the rebellion to the English language but remain the pure Chinese element in *Shuihuzhuan*, while Shapiro's translation is more rational, and his English words are easily accessible for westerners.

3. The Contrast of Words

(1) The words in *Shuihuzhuan* are traditional Chinese words, which are simple but full of meanings. The translation for these words is built in the translators' understanding to the original text, which is exactly Buck's thoughts that expresses the difference between English and Chinese. Inevitably, the translation shows a strange style called Chinglish by Zhang Qiyang. However, Shapiro has different translations for the same words in *Shuihuzhuan*. Based on the different translation, the following part gives a contrast on the translation of high-frequency words.

The original words	Buck's translation	Shapiro's translation
话说	It is said	No clear meaning (ellipsis)
且听下回分解	Pray it in the next chapter	Read our next chapter if you would know
且说，只说，却说	Let it be told further	No clear meaning(ellipsis)
次日	The next day	That day

All words above emerged at least 70 times in *Shuihuzhuan* (“话说” 98 times “只说” 70 times “却说” 124 times “且说” 177 times “且听下回分解” 70 times), the original text and there are no exceptions that they are all connectives which clearly reflect the characteristics of the traditional Chinese language. And through the contrast in the above table, buck's translation are more close to the original text while Shapiro's translation respect the “Englishism”, that is, suits the custom of English language. Buck's words better reflect the features of traditional Chinese characters but hard to read in English while Shapiro's ones make foreigners read more fluent. Buck almost abandoned the English culture in her translation. Shapiro uses more alienated methods to interpret the meaning of the original words in an English language way.

(2) Not only the connective words, but the adjective words that describes characters in *Shuihuzhuan*, reveal Buck's and Shapiro's difference in translation strategies. Take the words “皮开肉绽” (6 times) as an example.

The original words	Buck's translation	Shapiro's translation
连打三四顿，的皮开肉绽，鲜血迸流 (Chapter17, 6th Page 6)	Then he was beaten thirty or forty strokes, so that his skin was split and his flesh protruded and the red blood streamed out	They beat him three or four times, till his skin split and blood was pouring from his wounds.
狱卒牢子情知不好，觑不得面皮，把戴宗捆翻，打得皮开肉绽，鲜血迸流 (Chapter 39, Page10)	Now all the wardens and guards of the goal knew there was something wrong and so they could not consider who he was. They bound Tai Chung and they beat him until his skin was split and his flesh torn and the red blood streamed out.	The prison guards knew it was hopeless. They couldn't be concerned for their superintendent's dignity. They tied Dai, held him prone, and beat him till his skin split and his fresh blood flowed.
一连打了两料，打得宋江皮开肉绽，鲜血淋漓 (Chapter32, Page9)	So Sung Chiang was given two rounds of beating and his skin was split and his flesh broke forth and the red blood streamed out.	Song Jiang was flailed severely in two storms of blows. Blood flowed from his lacerated flesh.

Buck deals with the words “皮” “肉” “血” literally, without any illustrations and descriptions, and she uses the same English words to try her best to show the features of traditional Chinese. Compared with her translation, Shapiro’s ones remains some Chinese elements, such as the literal translation of “皮” and “血” as “skin” and “blood”. Besides, he added some descriptive words to present a pitiful picture.

(3) Through the example above, there are no extreme differences between their translations, for both of them have parts of literal translations. The case is due to the similar meaning of “皮开肉绽” in English, actually on the contrary, for some fixed words, it is the largest difference between them. Buck often split some fixed words while Shapiro did not. Such as the Chinese words “青春”

The original words	Buck’s translation	Shapiro’s translation
妇人又问道: “叔叔青春多少?” (Chapter23, Page8)	The woman asked again, “brother in law, how many green spring times have you passed?”	“How old are you”
西门庆道: “不敢动问娘子, 青春多少?” (Chapter23, Page52)	...and HIS Men Ching said, “I do not dare to ask how many springs and autumns the goodwife has passed.”	“May I ask how old you are” Ximen said to the girl

The translation about “青春多少” are absolutely different. Buck’s translation is something which is completely literal and suited to the original words, and Shapiro’s ones are pure English style. In terms of influence, buck’s literal translations are hard to be accepted by scholars, and even Shapiro thought it as “a strange mixture”.

And as is seen now, buck’s translation is ridiculous for she translated “青春多少” as “how many green spring times”, and oppositely Shapiro’s are too formal, losing the classic taste of the original words.

Therefore, buck’s choice about words in translation take the method of selective dismantling- some Chinese words are literally translated and are easily acceptable, and others are strange causing scholars’ critiques. And Shapiro did his best to translate in an English way, only the words that has the similar meaning both in Chinese and English did he choose some expression to remain the traditional Chinese elements.

4. The Contrast about the Order of Words and the Transplantation of Collocation

The orders of words and the transplantation of collocation are less studied by researchers. However, they are actually the important parts on the aspects of comparing the two masters’ translation strategies. Just the details can reflect the translators’ attentions and their differences in translation.

(1) the simple example “王教头”

Buck’s: Wang the chief

Shapiro’s: arms instructor Wang

(2) another example “陈抟处士”

Buck’s: A certain Ch’en T’uan, who was a Taoist hermit.

Shapiro’s: A Taoist hermit named Chentuan.

Clearly, the two examples both shows that Buck’s translations are not the normal English orders, which should be put the name backward like Shapiro’s ones. In other word, generally, there is only one English language expressing way on the relationship between identity attributive and center words. Buck’s translation emphasized on the names so that she used a Chinese way to express the subject. Shapiro’s concentrated on the native English expressing way, neglecting the expressing points of the original text. Here reflects buck’s ability in grasping the original message in details.

Except the orders of words, the transplantation of collocation is a phenomenon that cannot be ignored. For instance:

(1) 话说故宋, 哲宗皇帝在时, 其时去仁宗天子已远,..... (Page 6, Chapter 1)

Buck’s: It is said: in the time of the sung dynasty in the reign of the emperor Che Chung, somewhat distant from the time of the emperor Jen Chung.

Shapiro’s: During the reign of Emperor Zhe Zong, who ruled a long time after Ren Zong...

The word “远” in the original text points out the length of time, but buck used the word “distant” collocated with time. Such translation left us a strange impression and the artistic conception of the original. Shapiro’s “a long time” gives us a clear meaning of the original text, suited more an English expressing way.

5. The Contrast of Sentences in Translation

In the literary, sentence is one of the elements of articles, and closely related to writers’ style. And in translation, the translation of sentences is an important index if the translation is successful. As FuLei said, “nothing but sentences can pass the literature style.”

For the translation on sentences of Shuihuzhuan, buck and Shapiro’ work well passed their own styles.

The contrast between parallel sentence patterns and tree sentence patterns

The feature of Chinese sentences is the parallel structure, ie, no main streams and branch streams, compared with English tree sentences. In other words, Chinese literary usually covers a large amount of simple sentences, leading to a plenty of “and” as the connective words emerging in literature. While English emphasizes on the difference of the main part and the rest part, more like a structure of a tree. Buck and Shapiro passed absolutely distinctive styles in the translation of Shuihuzhuan. Please refer to their differences below.

The original words	Buck's translation	Shapiro's translation
众人身边都有火刀，火石，随即发出火来，点起五七个火把，众人都跟着武松，一同再上岗子来，看见那大虫做一堆儿死在那里。（Chapter 2, Page1）	Now every man had on his person flint and iron and immediately they struck out fire and lit some five or seven torches and they all went with Wu Sung and they went together up the ridge and there they saw the great beast lying there dead in a great round heap.	They had flint and steel and struck a fire, and lit six or seven torches. They went with him up the ridge to where the tiger lay dead in a great heap.

From the example above, it is clear that buck used more “and” in translation, keeping the original style in translation and having a Chinese taste. Shapiro's translation is close to the Chinese style as possible as he can, but actually, he divided the sentence as two sentences and only one subject in the whole translation. To some extent, it is more English style rather than a Chinese one. And the difference is exactly buck's highlight in her translation, for no one know the core part in the original part of the sentence, where needs reader's imagination. Shapiro's translation made a distinction between the primary and secondary, losing some readable part for readers.

6. The Contrast of Textual Discourse

Shuihuzhuan has caused lots of controversy and critiques in the academic community, for its story-telling way brings trouble for translators and these translators have their own ways to solve the problem. Inevitably, the translated works have different features in discourse. Buck and Shapiro remain the original features at a different extent from the angle of the whole work; as a result, the recipients have different strange senses to the language and form a different Intuitive understanding to the original text.

Due to the length of the text of Shuihuzhuan, I specially choose the Chapter47 to analyze Buck's and Shapiro's different styles in handling complex characters and events of the chapter.

(1) First, the subtitle of this chapter has been translated differently.

The original text said:

扑天雕双修生死书 宋公明一打祝家庄

Buck's translation:

The eagle who smites the heavens twice writes a letter of brotherhood.

Sung Chiang goes for the first time to attack the village of the Chu family.

Shapiro's translation:

Heaven soaring eagle writes two letters requesting reprieve

Song Jiang's first attack on the Zhu family manor

From the example above, we can see that Buck's and Shapiro's understandings of the title are different. Buck translated “双修” into “twice” while Shapiro thought it should be “two letters”. The difference derives from the translators' different definition for the events. And another difference is the translation of “生死书”, Buck added her understanding into the translation, she tasted the feeling of heroes in the Shuihuzhuan as brotherhood, so the letter is the letter of brotherhood. Shapiro did not put his emotions into his translation, so he translated it as letters requesting reprieve, which suits the English expressing ways. And in the form of translation, the former one translated the title in a prose way to avoid the difficulty of poems, and such translation shows the flexibility. And the latter try his best to use English poems to translate Chinese poems, and such translation are more accessible.

(2) As for the contents, we can discuss with the following examples.

a. The original text said:

话说当时杨雄扶起那人来，叫与石秀相见。石秀便问道：“这位兄长是谁？”杨雄道：“这个兄弟，姓杜，名兴，祖贯是中山府人氏，因为他面颜生得粗莽，以此人都叫他做鬼脸儿。

Buck's translation	Shapiro's translation
IT IS SAID: At the time when Yang Hsiung lifted up that man and Shih Hsiu saw him then Shih Hsiu asked, saying, “Who is this brother?” Yang Hsiung answered, “This brother is surnamed Tu and his name is Hsing, and his ancestors were men of Chung Shan Fu. Because his face is so coarse and wild men all call him the Devil Faced.	Yang Xiong raised the man to his feet and called Shi Xiu over. “Who is this brother?” asked Shi Xiu. “Du Xing is his name. He's from the prefecture of ZhongShan. Because of his crude features everyone calls him Demon Face.

b. the original text said:

杨雄道：“此间大官人是谁？”杜兴道：“此间独龙岗前面，有三座山冈，列着三个村坊。中间是祝家庄，西边是扈家庄，东边是李家庄。这三处庄上，三村里算来，总有一二万军马人家。

Buck's translation	Shapiro's translation
And Yang Hsiung asked, “Who is this great lord?” Then Tu Hsing answered. “Before The Ridge Of The Lonely Dragon are three ridges and upon each ridge is a village. The one in the middle is the village of the Chu family, the one on the west is the village of the Hu family, the one on the east is the village of the Li family. The three villages and the three families have altogether some ten thousand or so men and horses.	Who is this big official?” “Before Lone Dragon Mountain are three cliffs, and on each of these is a village. Zhu Family Village is in the center, Hu Family Village is to the west, Li Family Village is to the east. These three villages and their manors have a total of nearly twenty thousand fighting men.

Buck's translation is more like a section of a brief story. Shuihuzhuan itself is the collection of folksy tales, presenting a picture of heroes in the form of "telling it out". The core part is "telling out". Buck's work hardly stays the style. Such as the first example, "这个兄弟，姓杜，名兴，祖贯是中山府人氏，因为他面颜生得粗莽，以此人都叫他做鬼脸儿", buck translated it as "This brother is surnamed Tu and his name is Hsing, and his ancestors were men of Chung Shan Fu. Because his face is so coarse and wild men all call him the Devil Faced." The translation completely inherited the talk way, casual and informal, orderly in the form and rhyming in the tone. Shapiro's work is a typical masterpiece, and his words are more fitted emerging on the paper. For the same words, he gave the translation "He's from the prefecture of ZhongShan. Because of his crude features everyone calls him Demon Face." His translation presented the contents more clearly at the cost of form and features of the discourse. Similarity, in the second example, the original words "中间是""东边是""西边是" expressed a firm emphasis in one's talk. Buck use the form of "the one + postpositive attributive" displaying perfectly the speakers' tone. The way and the "telling out" story bring out the best in each other in effect. And Shapiro's narrative expressing ways looks flat and simple, losing the vivid and touching sense of character's words.

Otherwise, characters' conversational styles in discourse can be divided into two forms, the direct speech and the indirect speech. The direct speech is more close to the talk and the indirect part usually adding the completeness of a story. To deal with the characters' talk, buck and Shapiro took the same way just like the following example.

c. The original text says:

上年间做买卖，来到蓟州，因一口气上打死了同伙的客人，吃官司在蓟州府里。杨雄见他说起拳棒都省得，一力维持救了他。不想今日在此相会。”

Buck's translation	Shapiro's translation
Last year he came to Chi Chou to do business and in a fit of anger he killed his fellow traveler and so he was taken to court and put into the gaol at Chi Chou. I, seeing that he understood boxing and the use of all weapons, made every effort to save him, and I did not think to meet him again here today."	Last year he came to Qizhou as a trader. He killed one of the other merchants in his company in a fight, and was brought before the prefect and committed to my prison. I talked with him and found him very knowledgeable about hand-to-hand fighting and jousting with staves. So I used my influence and got him off. I never expected to meet him in this place."

No exception that buck and Shapiro both used the direct speech quotation, almost inherited the form of the original text. According to the statistics of professor Ren Dongsheng and Wang Keyou, the 27 paragraphs in the chapter 47, buck and Shapiro, both of them respect the direct speech of the original (Ren and Wang 2005). However, they have some difference in dealing with the details. Buck pays more attention to express characters' personalities, and keep the original characters' talk in words, and her words are more like "script". Shapiro concentrated more on the expressing function of words, inherited from the form and changed the structure and the way of speech. As he said in his translator's note, "their rebellious deeds developed into folk tales" (Shapiro 1980)

C. The Analysis of Translation Strategy under the Post-colonial Perspective.

In the early time of 20th, the imperialist culture of the west impacted deeply on the world's culture. Not only the geographical inflation, but the expansion of culture fettered people's minds. And the ex-colonial culture didn't get respect in translation. In such backgrounds, buck finished his translation of Shuihuzhuan in 1930s in a way of opposing the English language culture. On one hand, it comes from the buck's passion to Chinese traditional culture and her wish to spread Chinese culture. On the other hand, the buds of post-colonialism had come out at that time, and buck's translation is a bold trying to show the non-west culture. Buck knew much about the style full of the features of mental analysis or consciousness, but she didn't think the style had the higher art's values than that in Chinese traditional classics. Buck ever said: I must admit that our novels in west look so plain if we have the taste in Chinese traditional novel."

In her translation works, the features that post-colonialism emphasized were apparent. She remained the elements of Chinese elements and kept the obscurity of primary and secondary plots. She expressed the Chinese identity in translation aimed at the spread of the Chinese culture in a casual way.

In the late 20th, the translation study has put eyes on the translators', and the subject behavior played an important role in the translation activity. At the meantime, the post-colonial theory had come into the mature time and the west knew some Chinese traditional culture. On one hand, Shapiro's work didn't hurry to spread purely the Chinese traditional culture to the west. He learned to pay attention to the accuracy of the translated text and add his own understanding of Shuihuzhuan. On the other hand, inevitably, he was influence by the post-colonial ethos. He seemed to find a balanced point between the traditional Chinese elements and the use of English language. Furthermore, in the period, the translators' status got the introspection in the field of translation. The translators are not the simple copier of the original text but a creator of a great work, which offered Shapiro an opportunity on the choice of translation strategies.

Under the same post-colonial perspective, buck and Shapiro showed their different translation strategies and the influence of post-colonialism deeply inscribed in their works.

V. CONCLUSION

Buck was the first translator to translate the whole Chinese masterpiece of *Shuihuzhuan*, and her work has got the wide spread around the world. However, in terms of the accuracy of the translated work, Shapiro's work was better accepted, which was praised by the scholars and critics in both China and the West. But few studies linked Buck's and Shapiro's works in a contrast way, and even their identity as the translators and the choice of their translation are less known by people. In view of this, the paper specifically analyses Buck's and Shapiro's translation strategies through the method of contrast under the perspective of post-colonialism, and exposes the differences of their translations through the contrast of names, words, sentences and discourses. On the basis of the contrast result, the paper gave the objective evaluation to their translations. In terms of significance, firstly, the paper used the same post-colonial theory, probes into the differences between the two translators' works in the spans of fifty years. Then, the paper discusses their respective inclination and purpose in translation, which provides a reference for the future study of their translations. Finally, the perspective of post-colonialism let us clearly see the cultural spread and the development of translations impact on the selectivity of translations. The following parts are the main findings and the limitations.

A. The Main Findings

In view of the writers, Buck is a radical rebellious translator while Shapiro is the person that partly agrees with the rebellious translation actions. Buck literally translated the *Shuihuzhuan* into English in order to put the radical and complete Chinese traditional novel on the front of the West and spread the pure Chinese culture. Such choice in translation was actually suited to the contents that fight against the cultural imperialism in the post-colonialism. Buck's translation emphasized the subject, Chinese original text, and ignoring the improper use of English language, sticking out the principal status of the original text itself. In the post-colonialism, the action is a "powerful" attention to the original text. Besides, the post-colonialism also pay attention to the subject of translators. And the attention deeply influenced Shapiro's translations. He added new understandings into his work, so he is a creator instead of a copier. But similarly, he also emphasized the reflection of Chinese traditional culture of his work, and he remained the fundamental Chinese elements. In the contrast of their translations, we can see that Buck and Shapiro are so different in dealing with the names, the order of words, the narrative sentences and the discourse. But we also see the similar parts in the example (4.26c), similar translations about the direct speech shows their consistency in respecting the contents of the original text. The similarity comes from the two translators' faiths in Chinese traditional literature and culture. Compared with Buck's and Shapiro's translation, Buck's work looks more radical, and she even remained "the talk way" of the original text. No matter on the words, phrases, sentences, discourse or the use of language, Buck insisted on the Chinese way. Oppositely, the most obvious difference of Shapiro's work is "the written way". His change in style showed his faith in understanding the original text.

In general, Buck surged for absolute differences between the Chinese and the West culture, which had deep impacts on the later post-colonialism. She offered both the theoretical and practiced evidence for the rebellion to cultural imperialism. And Shapiro showed the subject as a translator. His translation strategies provided a realistic example for the blend of Chinese classics and English language.

B. Limitations

The paper mainly has three limitations as follows.

(1) The paper only discusses the difference in translation between Buck and Shapiro's works in the perspective of post-colonialism. For their choices in translation, the paper ignored the impact of the experience of the translators. Such ignorance refers to the efforts of cross-cultural communications, which deeply influenced the translators' minds in the choice of translations.

(2) The paper is based on connective words and name words in the contrast of words, lacking study on the verbs and adjectives, and such limitation easily causes an arbitrary judge for their translations on words.

(3) About sentence, different structures may go to the different styles, and the paper only carries the study of contrast on the patterns of the whole sentence, lacking the contrast of structure in the sentence. For these aspects, researchers may find out their different styles in translation, which helps the future study about their translation strategies.

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The Effect of Task Complexity on Iranian Pre-intermediate EFL Learners' Incidental Learning of Grammatical Collocations through Reading

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Abstract—The aim of this research was to examine the effect of task complexity instruction on EFL pre-intermediate learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading. To do so, the test of general English proficiency, OPT, was administered to 140 participants to homogenize subjects. Based on the mean score ($X = 34.5$) and standard deviation of students' scores ($SD = 2.8$), 90 subjects were selected, those scoring between half a standard deviation above and half a standard deviation below. They were assigned in three classes with 30 students in each. Each of these classes was randomly assigned to one of the three tasks (fill in the blank, sentence writing, and translation sentences). Then the pretest, based on fifty fill in the blank questions was administered. After ten treatment sessions, the post-test which was the same as pretest was given to the participants to measure their knowledge of grammatical collocations in the tasks. Paired samples t-test, one-way ANOVA, and post-hoc tests were used to calculate for the productive and receptive knowledge of the students. The findings showed that there is significant main effect for all three groups. The result of this experiment is discussed in light of the involvement load hypothesis.

Index Terms—task complexity, involvement load hypotheses, incidental learning, grammatical collocation

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning words of any language are the main part of almost every language teaching program and having communication is the central aim of teaching the second language. The researchers have begun to find a useful way of teaching with the goal of communication in recent years. The importance of vocabulary is in a way that the linguistic Wilkins (1972) summed up in the famous sentence. As Wilkins (1972) stated, "While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p. 111). Hatch (1983) in a similar notion claims, "when our first goal is communication, when we have little of the new language at our command, it is the lexicon that is crucial... the words... will make basic communication possible" (as cited in Gass, 1988).

One of the main parts of researchers' effort is finding an effective and useful way of teaching words, especially, grammatical collocations by tasks and also it is important to know which task is more effective for learners to be remaining in their mind. The learner's inability to produce structures by using new words, especially grammatical collocations is a frequent problem in EFL classes. Teachers are usually dealing with this problem at all levels of teaching. The learners prefer to keep silent instead of using these grammatical collocations during their class time or they refuse to use these word partners. Therefore, the teachers should increase the students' ability to use these grammatical collocations to increase their fluency and accuracy. If the students are not able to use new vocabularies, they won't be able to communicate with each other. Thus, the whole task of teaching will be unsuccessful and useless because there will be no communication. It is also a need to attempt to remove this problem in educational institutions inside Iran. Iranian learners have less opportunity to use English because they don't have enough exposure to foreign language. To overcome this problem, teachers need to find new ways and techniques that promote learners to write native-like and to speak fluently by using grammatical collocations in order to communicate and this is the main goal of learning a language.

The goal of any language learning is to use proper vocabulary in the sentences for transferring the meaning. To do so, many researchers (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Bygate, 2001; Laufer, 2003; Rahimpour, 2007; Guara-Tavares, 2008; Sharifi Haratmeh, 2012) are seeking a way to remove this problem by using tasks. Therefore, the current study tries to find the possible effect of task-complexity-based instruction of incidental vocabulary on Iranian learners' vocabulary learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Task Complexity and Involvement Load Hypothesis

Nowadays, one part of researchers' attention is focused on task-based instruction. The aim of using Task-based Language Learning (TBLL) also called as Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) or Task-based Instruction (TBI) is the use of real and actual language by using meaningful tasks. We have meaningful learning in task based as McCarthy (1990) believed that a word learned in a meaningful text is the best way to be retained in the mind. The first person who worked on the expansion of task-based learning (TBL) was N. Prabhu (1987) pointing that if the learner's mind is focused on the task instead of the language itself, they may learn more usefully.

It is important to point to the key issue of task, such as task complexity. Ellis (2003) believed that the inherent characteristics of the tasks are the nature of the input, the task conditions, and the outcome. Robinson (2001: 29) named these three factors as task complexity (pp. 220-21). But Ellis (2003) expressed five factors as the level of task complexity: 1. input medium, 2. code complexity, 3. cognitive complexity, 4. context dependency, and 5. familiarity of information. Input medium specified that pictorial or written input can be got easier or faster than the oral input. Code complexity means that lexico-grammatical complexity of the task cause it more complex and more difficult. Cognitive complexity means the "cognitive demands of processing the informational content". The fourth factor of task complexity is context dependency and means that textual input along with visual information is generally easier to process than information without such support. Finally, the term familiarity of information refers to the learners' background knowledge (pp. 222-23).

Nowadays, the perspective of teaching has changed to task based approaches. Different tasks can affect different dimension of learning words. Hulstijn and Laufer took traditional and commonly accepted components of effective tasks (noticing, attention, elaboration, and motivation) and proposed a new formula for vocabulary instruction. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) proposed Involvement Load Hypothesis (ILH). This hypothesis includes both cognitive and motivational factors. ILH consists of three components—need, search, and evaluation—with different degrees of importance. It can be mentioned that they constructed "task-induced involvement". It should also be noted that this hypothesis attempts to draw attention only to vocabulary learning per se in a foreign or second language. This hypothesis revealed that tasks with different involvement load will lead to different incidental acquisition. They claimed that the presence or absence of each of the three components will affect the word processing and also the combination of three factors, called involvement load, will support the degree of learners' engagement in cognitive processing.

The researchers argue that different involvement load will affect different vocabulary acquisition processing. Hulstijn and Laufer described these levels with the term *index*. When the component is not present, the index level is zero (0), the moderate level is rated at index one (1), and the strong level is index two (2). The total of the three components is the amount of the task-induced involvement load. Researchers and teachers can employ the three components and factors in their research or teaching situation more easily than they could with the depth of processing model. Involvement includes need, which is a motivational factor. They suggested two degrees of prominence for need: *moderate* and *strong*. If it is imposed by an external agent such as the need to use a word in a sentence, it is moderate (index 1) and if it is self-imposed by learners, it is strong (index 2) such as the need to use dictionary to write a composition.

Search and evaluation are cognitive factors of involvement. Search exists when learners attempt to find the meaning or the form of an unfamiliar word. Both are common in vocabulary learning situations when learners encounter unfamiliar words or want to express concepts, but they do not know the needed word form. Search can be categorized into levels like the need component. When learners do not have to search for either the meaning or the form of a target word, search does not exist (index 0). This occurs when both the meaning and the form are already provided in the activity. When language learners find the meaning of a word they do not know, for instance, when students encounter an unknown target word in a reading passage and they look up the word in a dictionary and find the meaning, the involvement load is moderate (index 1) and when the search for a word form occurs the involvement is strong (index 2). For example, when Iranian students enrolled in a beginning English language course need to know how to greet someone in the morning and they look up the needed expression in a phrasebook, or ask their teachers.

Evaluation involves decision to choose appropriate word in its context. When learners do not make such decisions, they are not engaged in evaluation (index 0). Sometimes, language learners do not need to think of word choice. An example is when copying a sentence. When learners want to choose a proper word by comparing all word meaning in a dictionary against the specific context, it is referred to as moderate (index 1). When learners are deciding on additional words that can be used with the target word in the learner's original sentence or text, it is referred to as strong evaluation index (index 2). In other words, when language learners have to decide on the appropriate target word in the provided context, they perform moderate evaluation. This is seen when language learners choose a word from several choices to fill in a blank in a sentence. When they have to write an essay, they are involved in a strong evaluation because they must use the words in a context they have created.

B. Grammatical Collocation

Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that "a lexical approach in language teaching holds that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching, but Lexis, that is words and word combinations" (p. 132). Many researchers such as Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) have found that lexical chunks, including collocations, are the important word combination in any language

learning. Nattinger (1980) and Schmitt and McCarthy (2005) claimed that if vocabulary learning be taught in lexical phrases from the beginning, learners' care will be centralized on lexical combination, through collocations. One of the main properties of using collocations is to be fluent as native speakers and second language learners. Many scholars defined collocation in many ways. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 87) define collocation as "the way in which words are used together regularly." Benson et al. (1986) classified the grammatical collocations into eight groups and Lewis (2000) classified the grammatical collocations in more types.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was to examine the effect of task-complexity instruction on EFL pre-intermediate learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading. The present study seeks to answer the following research question:

Does task-complexity-based instruction affect EFL pre-intermediate learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading?

A. Participants

The participants of the current study were 90 male and female learners from pre-intermediate level in Jahad-Daneshgahi institute in Amol, in north of Iran. The participants were largely young adult learners with an age range of 19 to 25. All the participants are native speakers of Persian. After giving general English proficiency test to 140 participants, 90 students were chosen and took part in three groups, 32% were females and 68% were males. Nonetheless, compared to these three groups, a higher proportion of males attended Task 3.

There were three classes in this institute which took part in this study. Each of these classes was randomly assigned to one of the three tasks. The number of students in each class was 30 students. Regarding space, time, and facilities, the conditions of the three classes were approximately the same. The data were collected during their regularly scheduled class periods.

TABLE I
CHARACTERISTICS AND SIZES OF THE SAMPLE

Institute	Classes	Number	Tasks
Jahad-Daneshgahi institute	Class 1	30	Task 1: Fill in Blanks
	Class 2	30	Task 2: Sentence writing
	Class 3	30	Task 3: Translation sentences

B. The Instruments

Pilot test: To homogenize the participants; 150 samples of tests were selected from the internet, retrieved on October 15, 2013, from www.Englishpage.com and www.grammar-quizzes.com, which was suitable for pre-intermediate level of learners. The difficult or ambiguous sample tests were discarded. Fifty grammatical collocations items, adjective+preposition and verb+ preposition, were selected. This pilot test was consisted of fifty items. For about 50 minutes, the participants answered these questions. It is worth mentioning that there is not any time limitation for answering the questions.

The key instruments in this study were tasks. The explanation of these three tasks is as follow:

Task 1: "Fill-in". It was a reading exercise with fill in task. The task was to read the text, find the proper preposition from the text and then write the proper preposition. The grammatical collocations which are used consisted of adjective+preposition and verb+preposition. These grammatical collocations were in the content of the text.

Task 2: "Sentence writing". It was a reading exercise with sentence writing. The structure of this task was different from task 1. Learners read the text then they found the proper preposition and then made a meaningful sentence by using these grammatical collocations in the sentences. Actually, these grammatical collections were adjective+preposition or verb+ preposition which were in the content of the text. During sentence writing students were asked to use dictionary to look up the meaning of grammatical collocations.

Task 3: "Translation sentences L1-L2". This task was chosen from Laufer and Girsai (2008). Students were provided with the same text in tasks 1 and 2. The task was to read the sentences, use dictionary to look up the meaning of grammatical collocations, write translation of sentences into L1.

In order to evaluate the issue, the involvement load of the tasks and the involvement index are provided in the following table:

TABLE II
THE INVOLVEMENT LOADS FOR THE THREE TASKS IN THE PRESENT STUDY

Task	Involvement Factors			Involvement Index
	Need	Search	Evaluation	
1. Writing Sentences	1	1	2	4
2. Fill in Blanks	1	0	1	2
3. Translation sentences	1	1	1	3

C. Procedures

At first to homogenize the learners, the test of general English proficiency, Oxford Placement Test, OPT, was administered to 140 participants. Based on the mean score ($X = 34.5$) and standard deviation of students' scores ($SD = 2.8$), 90 subjects were selected, those scoring between half a standard deviation above and half a standard deviation below. Then fifty samples of fill in the blank tests were selected from the internet which was suitable for pre-intermediate level of participants as explained above. These tests were administered as pretest and later as a posttest. They were randomly assigned to three experimental groups (with 30 participants in each group). Each of these classes was randomly assigned to one of the three tasks (fill in the blank, sentence writing, and translation sentences). These tasks consisted of a reading text followed by five questions. The ending questions were different in each task. Using proper preposition was the main goal of these tasks. After ten treatment sessions, a post-test which was the same as the pre-test was administered. The time interval between pre-test and post-test was five weeks. The method of scoring for pre-test and post-test was in such a way that every item received a point from 0.5 to zero. Incorrect fill in the sentence or no fill in received no points or 0; correct fill in sentence received the maximum point or 0.5. Finally, the results of the pretest and posttest were compared to come up with a reasonable view with regard to the possible improvements in learners' performance resulting from the treatment applied.

In order to test the research hypothesis, the data were analyzed using SPSS version 21. An alpha level of 0.05 was set for all statistical tests. Paired samples t-test, one-way ANOVA, and post-hoc tests were used to calculate for the productive and receptive knowledge of the effect of task complexity on learning grammatical collocations in EFL pre-intermediate learners and to investigate the results of these tests. Means and standard deviations were calculated and compared.

IV. RESULTS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

At first, the test of general English proficiency, OPT was administered to 140 EFL participants in Jahad-Daneshgahi institute to test their general English proficiency and to select the subjects. The descriptive statistics of participants' scores is presented in table 1.

TABLE III
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF OPT TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
OPT	140	27	42	34.38	2.890
Valid N (listwise)	140				

Table 1 shows the results of the OPT test. The mean score equals 34.3 and the standard deviation of students' scores equals 2.8. These values show that those subjects were selected that had scores between half a standard deviation above and half standard deviation below the mean.

TABLE IV
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE THREE GROUPS ON PRETEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Fill in the blank	30	13.4667	2.45979	.44909	12.5482	14.3852	10.00	19.00
Sentence writing	30	13.8333	2.26035	.41268	12.9893	14.6774	10.00	18.00
Translation sentences	30	13.8000	2.72156	.49689	12.7838	14.8162	9.00	19.00
Total	90	13.7000	2.46526	.25986	13.1837	14.2163	9.00	19.00

According to table 2, the mean of Experimental group 1 (Fill in) equals 13.46, the mean of Experimental group 2 (Sentence writing) equals 13.83, and the mean of Experimental group 3 is 13.80. These values show that the mean of three groups are not statistically different at the pretest before the instruction ($Mean = 13.70$).

In order to check whether the variances in the scores are the same for each of the three groups, Levene's test for homogeneity of the variances was run. The results are illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE V
HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE TEST OF PRETEST SCORES FOR THE THREE GROUPS

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.541	2	87	.584

As indicated in table 5, the sig. value is greater than .05 ($Sig. > .05$), then there is not a significant difference among the mean score on dependent variable for the three groups. Figure 1 provides the means plot as an easy way to compare the mean scores for the different groups.

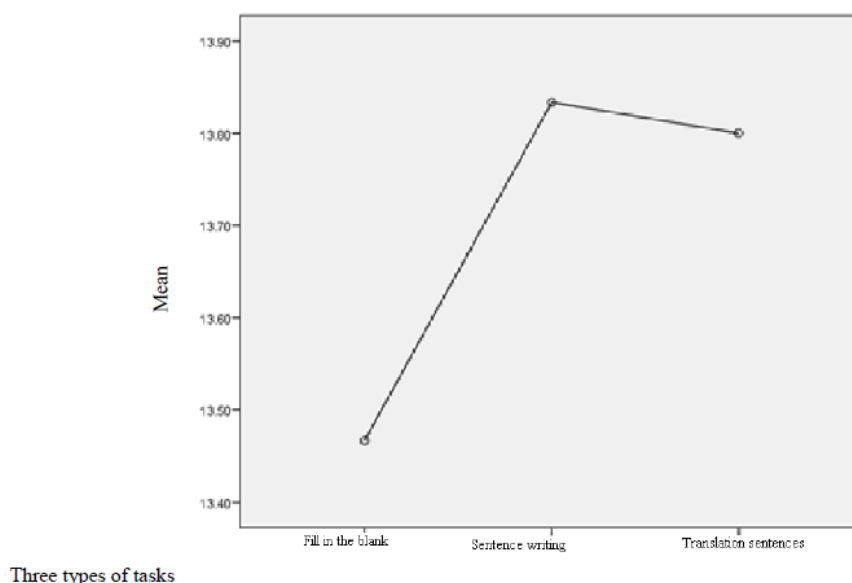


Figure 1. The means plots for the three groups in the pre-test

Figure 1 presents the means of three pretests in three tasks (Fill in the blank, Sentence writing, and Translation sentences) on pretest. The horizontal line stands for three tasks. The vertical line also stands for the mean score of each task. According to these results, students got the highest mean scores in sentence writing task and also they got higher mean scores in translation sentences than those in Fill in blank. The mean scores of three tasks are represented below respectively:

13.83 > 13.80 > 13.46.

TABLE VI
COMPARISON OF AVERAGE GROUPS (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 1, EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 2, AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 3)

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1586.067	2	793.033	142.540	.000
Within Groups	484.033	87	5.564		
Total	2070.100	89			

According to the information presented in table 6 the sig = 0.000 and F = 142. It means that there are significant differences. So the Null hypothesis (task-complexity-based instruction does not affect FEL pre-intermediate learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading.) is rejected and H1 is accepted with the utmost confidence.

TABLE VII
SCHEFFE POST HOC COMPARISONS FOR THE THREE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON POSTTEST

Dependent Variable: posttest score							
	(I) Task complexity	(J) Task complexity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Scheffe	Fill in the blank	Sentence writing	-6.96667*	.60902	.000	-8.4834	-5.4499
		Translation sentences	3.06667*	.60902	.000	1.5499	4.5834
	Sentence writing	Fill in the blank	6.96667*	.60902	.000	5.4499	8.4834
		Translation sentences	10.03333*	.60902	.000	8.5166	11.5501
	Translation sentences	Fill in the blank	-3.06667*	.60902	.000	-4.5834	-1.5499
		Sentence writing	-10.03333*	.60902	.000	-11.5501	-8.5166

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As it can be seen, the mean difference of 10.03 between the sentence writing group and translation sentences group was significant at the 0.05 level. The mean difference of 3.06 between fill in the blank group and translation sentences group was significant at the 0.05 level and also the mean difference of 6.96 between fill in the blank group and sentence writing group was significant at the 0.05 level. Then this table illustrates that there is a significant difference between three groups. These results reject null hypothesis and confirm that task-complexity-based instruction affect EFL pre-intermediate learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading.

TABLE VIII
HOMOGENEOUS SUBSET FOR THE THREE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON POSTTEST

	Task complexity	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
			1	2	3
Duncan ^a	Translation sentences	30	12.2000		
	Fill in the blank	30		15.2667	
	Sentence writing	30			22.2333
	Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000
Scheffe ^a	Translation sentences	30	12.2000		
	Fill in the blank	30		15.2667	
	Sentence writing	30			22.2333
	Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 30.000.

According to table8, the mean of Experimental group 1 (Fill in the blank) equals 15.26, the mean of Experimental group 2 (Sentence writing) equals 22.23, and the mean of Experimental group 3 (Translation sentences) is 12.20. As indicated in the table, two groups, sentence writing group and fill in the blank group affect EFL learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading. Figure 2 present the means plot for the better schematic representation.

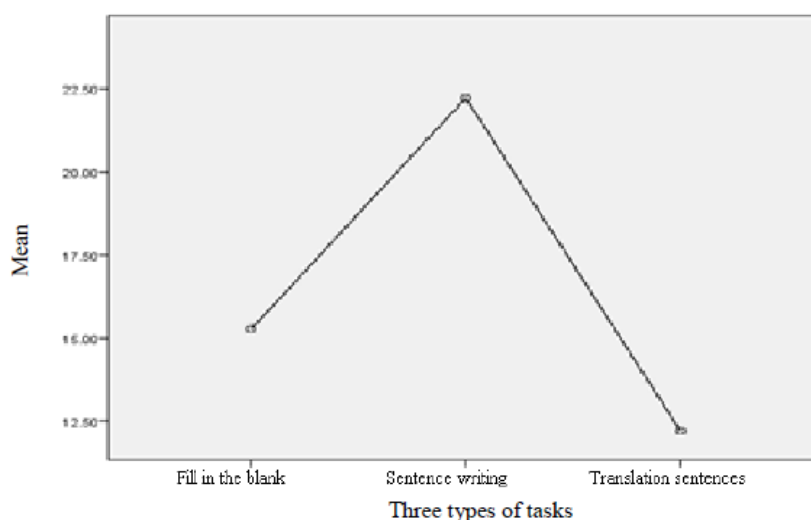


Figure 2. The mean plots for the three groups in the post-test

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

After collecting the data from pre-test and posttest and comparing the means and standard deviations, it was found that all of the mean differences are statistically significant. The data above illustrate that there is a significant difference between three groups. These results reject the first null hypothesis and confirm that task-complexity-based affect EFL pre-intermediate learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading. Table8 indicates the results of Duncan homogenous subset. According to this table, the mean of Experimental group 1 (Fill in the blank) equals 15.26, the mean of Experimental group 2 (Sentence writing) equals 22.23, and the mean of Experimental group 3 (Translation sentences) is 12.20. As indicated in the table, two groups, sentence writing group and fill in the blank group affect EFL learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading.

In comparison with the mean of these three groups on pretest (the mean of Group 1 = 13.46, the mean of Group 2 = 13.83, and the mean of Group 3 = 13.80), differences between three groups are statistically significant. These results reject the first null hypothesis and confirm that task complexity affect learner's learning. The summary of this Experiment are provided in table 9:

TABLE IX
THE COMPARISON OF THREE TASKS ON PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Task	Mean	
	Pretest	Posttest
Fill in the blank	13.46	15.26
Sentence writing	13.83	22.23
Translation sentences	13.80	12.20

As indicated in table 6, it was found that, compared to the three groups, sentence writing task and fill in the blank task made significant improvement in using proper preposition for adjectives and verbs through reading. Therefore, it can be submitted that the treatment for sentence writing in which the degree of task complexity according to Involvement Load Hypothesis was four and the treatment for fill in the blank in which the degree of task complexity as Hulstijn and Laufer believed in ILH was two. It has indicated that sentence writing task and fill in the blank task were the most effective in learning grammatical collocations (adj + prep and v + prep). By taking a look at Figure 2, it can be stated that there is a decline of the students' performances in translation sentences (involvement load = 3) on posttest. As indicated in this figure, the students got the highest mean scores in sentence writing task (involvement load = 4) on posttest. It shows the improvement of sentence writing task in comparison of the other groups.

This study had some limitations. First, all participants were pre-intermediate level of proficiency in English. This study can also be replicated with students varied in different level of proficiency. Second, two kinds of grammatical collocations (adj+prep. and v+prep.) were assessed. Therefore, findings cannot be extrapolated to other types of grammatical collocations. Further studies can be implemented with other types of grammatical collocations. And finally, no interviews were made with the learners. Through interviews, the researcher could have obtained more information about the learners' attitudes to the tasks and the reasons for why these grammatical collocations being remembered.

In this research the effect of task complexity instruction on EFL pre-intermediate learner's incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading was investigated. This study involves certain suggestions for further research, as detailed below.

1. The present study did not examine the participants' opinions about their experience of learning vocabulary through using the tasks. This study was based on learning grammatical collocation through a reading - based task. It would be worthwhile for another study to examine learning grammatical collocation through speaking and listening-based tasks.
2. This research investigated the effect of task complexity on Iranian pre-intermediate FEL learners' incidental learning of grammatical collocations through reading. It is proposed that the future studies organize on intentional learning to make comparisons to find which learning is more effective.
3. And also all participants were pre-intermediate level of proficiency in English. This study can also be replicated with students who vary in their levels of proficiency.

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Nature and Categorization of Metalinguistic Negation

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Abstract—Metalinguistic negation, as opposed to descriptive negation, has captured great attention from scholars in philosophy, semantics and pragmatics, etc. throughout the world after its initiation. Various aspects of it have been brought into heated discussions, including its nature, categorization, constraints, scope and focus of negation and pragmatic functions, and so on. However, as the basis of investigation, what is the nature of metalinguistic negation and how it should be categorized are still controversial and current solutions to these two questions seem to be biased. This paper attempts to provide an impartial and more plausible explanation for its nature from the perspective of “use” and “mention” and categorize it according to prototype theory. Based on the distinction between “use” and “mention” and prototype theory, it is proposed that metalinguistic negation is the negation of what is mentioned rather than used in a sentence, and that there is an interface between descriptive negation and metalinguistic negation; in other words, there is no clear-cut borderline between descriptive negation and metalinguistic negation and they are two poles of the same continuum.

Index Terms—metalinguistic negation, use, mention, prototype theory, continuum

I. INTRODUCTION

Commonsensically, it seems that negation operators are utilized to produce negative sentences. However, there is a very interesting language phenomenon in which though negation operators such as “not” are employed in the utterance, the actual meaning of the utterance is not negation at all. For example:

(1) A: The food is delicious.

B: It is not delicious; on the contrary, it tastes bad.

C: It is not delicious; it is very delicious.

Compared with B’s answer, C’s answer is not actually negation of A’s meaning. Instead, it strengthens A’s proposition by adding his affirmative subjective attitude towards the taste of the food. Such a phenomenon is traditionally called metalinguistic negation by some scholars or pragmatic negation by others. We think pragmatic negation is a more inclusive term which also encompasses negation merely realized by contexts instead of negation operators and tend to prefer metalinguistic negation.

The concept of metalinguistic negation was first proposed by Ducrot (1972/1973) who distinguished within negation descriptive negation and metalinguistic negation. Horn (1985, 1989), who also held the idea that negation in natural language can be subdivided into descriptive negation and metalinguistic negation, is among the first to raise scholars’ interest in metalinguistic negation. His initial investigations on metalinguistic negation are quite heuristic, and cause a heated debate on the issue. Some scholars following his footsteps improved Horn’s idea from other perspectives and made his analysis on metalinguistic negation more plausible and systematic, while other scholars who argued against him tried to embark on a course which they think can remedy where Horn has failed.

Various investigations have been directed to different aspects of metalinguistic negation, including how it is distinct from descriptive negation, what is its nature, how it is categorized, what should be included in its discussion, constraints on metalinguistic negation, its scope and focus of negation, and its pragmatic function, and so on. Though great achievements have been gained in the studies of metalinguistic negation, and those investigations have definitely improved our conception of it, there are still not inconsiderable controversies.

Among those controversies, issues on the nature and categorization of metalinguistic negation seem to stand out and are quite urgent, because as the foundations for the exploration of metalinguistic negation, they will determine how a scholar constructs his or her overall framework for the explanation of it. At present, three major perspectives on the issue of the nature of metalinguistic negation can be concluded and all of them are truth-conditionally motivated. Firstly, in alignment with Horn, metalinguistic negation has been regarded as the negation of non-truth condition of a sentence. Contrary to the first point of view, the second one claims that metalinguistic negation is the negation of the truth condition of a sentence. The third one seems to deny that there is a correlation between metalinguistic negation and truth condition and argues that metalinguistic negation is essentially a kind of language skills. As for the categorization of metalinguistic negation, different views can also be found and generally fall into two dimensions, one from the content of negation and the other, the motivations for metalinguistic negation. Their arguments have been whether the negation of phonetic and grammatical incorrectness should be categorized within the domain of metalinguistic negation.

However, since different directions along the path of truth condition have already been chosen but no consensus concerning the nature and categorization of metalinguistic negation has been reached, we would like to propose another way of thinking. We maintain that the nature of metalinguistic negation will be illuminated by an analysis in terms of “use” and “mention”. Correspondingly, since a construction may be both “used” and “mentioned” in different contexts, metalinguistic negation can be categorized from the perspective of prototype theory.

This paper is generally divided into four parts. In the first part, a brief introduction of metalinguistic negation is given. The second part is devoted to the discussion of the nature of metalinguistic negation while the third part focuses on its categorization. Finally comes the conclusions.

II. NATURE OF METALINGUISTIC NEGATION

It is beyond any doubt that a better understanding of the nature or definition of metalinguistic negation will be conducive to any investigation of it, as is generally acknowledged that the nature or definition of a concept is the basis for the examination of all other aspects pertaining to it. However, it is far from explicit as to what is the nature of metalinguistic negation and no consensus on this question has been achieved among scholars yet. In this section, this paper will attempt to provide a more plausible, tenable and impartial illumination of the nature of metalinguistic negation. Before the explanation, previous views on it and the distinction between “use” and “mention” will be first presented.

A. *Traditional Conception of Metalinguistic Negation*

Traditional conception of metalinguistic negation can be generally categorized in terms of two perspectives. One perspective follows the guideline of truth condition initiated by Horn (1985, 1989) which, in turn, can be subdivided into two directions: metalinguistic negation as the negation of non-truth condition of a sentence and metalinguistic negation as the negation of the truth condition of a sentence. The other perspective tries to break away from the restraint of truth condition and proposes that metalinguistic negation is irrelevant to the truth condition of a sentence and is just a kind of language skill adopted by interlocutors.

Negation of Non-truth Condition

Traditionally, ambiguity caused by negation has been conceived as semantic ambiguity. However, Horn (1985, 1989) pointed out that this is not the case and instead it should be regarded as pragmatic ambiguity. He maintained that such an ambiguity resulted from two different ways of the use of negation operator, i.e. truth-functional use and non-truth-functional use.

By truth-functional use of negation operator, it is meant that the truth condition of a sentence or proposition is what is negated. In other words, it is the negation of what a sentence or proposition affirms. This is internal negation, which is the most common and unmarked way of the use of negation operator, and it will not cancel the presupposition of the sentence. Horn (1985, 1989) called this kind of negation descriptive negation. As for non-truth-functional use, he argued what is negated is not the truth condition of a proposition. It is used to “signal the speaker’s unwillingness to assert a given proposition in a given way; or, more generally, the speaker’s objection to the content or form (phonetic, morphological, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic) associated with a given utterance” (Horn, 1985, p.122). This is what he called metalinguistic negation, which is an external, marked and presupposition-cancelling negation.

Such a dichotomy of negation into descriptive negation and metalinguistic negation is welcomed by scholars throughout the world and wins Horn many followers. In accordance with Horn’s definition, scholars in China including Shen (1993), Xu (1994), Zhang (1999), etc., generally agree that metalinguistic negation is the negation of felicity conditions of an utterance, though they use different terminologies, semantic negation and metalinguistic negation.

Negation of Truth Condition

In response to Horn’s distinction between truth-functional use and non-truth-functional use of negation operator, Carston (1996) expressed his disagreement. He claimed that negation operator per se is not ambiguous, but the content it governed is. He further conducted a careful examination on the content governed by negation operator and identified two different ways of use, a semantic representation of the world and a semantic representation of another semantic representation or what is called the echoic use of a construction. A representation is said to be used echoically when it attributes some aspect of its form or content to someone other than the speaker himself at that moment and expresses an attitude to that aspect and the attribution may be explicit or implicit, and the expression of attitude may be explicit or implicit.

According to him, the negation operator itself acquires no special pragmatic meaning and it is interpreted as standard truth-functional negation in all cases. What metalinguistic negation is distinguished from descriptive negation is that it negates an echoic use. In this sense, metalinguistic negation is actually the truth-functional negation of the semantic representation of another semantic representation or the echoic use of a construction.

Jing (2002) and Gao (2003) also hold that metalinguistic negation is actually a truth-functional negation but they differ from Carston. They explored metalinguistic negation from the perspective of cognitive linguistics and proposing that metalinguistic negation is also the negation of truth condition of utterance by other speakers, which is not in a narrow and objective traditional sense but instead refers to the truth condition in cognitive linguistic sense, related to interlocutors in particular context.

Metalinguistic negation as Language Skills

The above two perspectives on the nature of metalinguistic negation have been closely related to truth condition of a sentence. Is it possible that metalinguistic negation actually has nothing to do with truth condition at all? A positive answer is given by Kong (1995), Liang (2000), He (2002), etc.

They purport that metalinguistic negation is irrelevant to the truth condition of a proposition and consider it as a kind of language skill adopted by speakers or writers. As a consequence, metalinguistic negation is the negation of the inappropriateness of an utterance, instead of the non-truth of a proposition or incorrectness in pronunciation or grammar.

B. A New Perspective on the Nature of Metalinguistic Negation

As can be seen from the above discussions, metalinguistic negation has mainly been investigated in terms of whether it is related to truth condition of a sentence or proposition or not, and if it is truth-conditionally related, whether it is the negation of the truth condition of a sentence or not. These investigations have centered on truth condition, leading to three directions, that is, metalinguistic negation as the negation of non-truth condition of a sentence, metalinguistic negation as the negation of the truth condition of a sentence and metalinguistic negation as linguistic skills irrelevant to the truth condition of a sentence. Such a course of metalinguistic negation has led to not inconsiderable controversies. The root of these controversies, as far as we are concerned, lies in truth condition per se, which is the product of logical semantics. Here we are attempting to offer a new outlook on the nature of metalinguistic negation from the actual language use. Two modes of language use can be distinguished, that is, “use” and “mention”, which will be discussed in the following part. It is argued that the nature of metalinguistic negation is actually the negation of the “mentioning” of a construction in a sentence, while descriptive negation is considered to be the negation of the “use” of a construction.

Use vs. Mention

The use and mention distinction has been widely acknowledged among scholars in philosophy of language. Following our intuition, the vast major of language is produced for use rather than simply mention. In other words, the essential function of language is its use in human communication and the roles of mention are auxiliary, albeit indispensable, to language use.

In fact, words, expressions, even clauses are usually employed to describe things, actions or events and so on; that is, they are used as not only linguistic symbols but also something beyond themselves. This is the “use” of words, expressions or clauses. However, on the other hand, they can be used merely to refer to themselves. To put it in another way, the occurrence of a word, expression or clause is meant to evoke hearers’ or readers’ attention to the mere word, expression or clause rather than something beyond them. This is the “mention” of words, expressions or clauses.

Take example (1) as an illustration.

(1) A. The book is on the table.

B. It should not be many “book”, but many “books”.

In (1) A, the word “book” is used not mentioned because it refers to a particular thing in the real world and on hearing or reading it, hearers or readers will pay special attention to what it picks out instead of the word “book” itself. However, as for sentence B, hearers’ or readers’ attention is just directed at the mere word “book”, a string of four letters, rather than what it refers to in the real world. In such a case we shall say that the word is being mentioned, not used.

Paul Saka (1998, p.126) proposed that “use” and “mention” can be understood as follows:

“use”: Speaker S uses an expression X iff:

- (1) S exhibits a token of X;
- (2) S thereby ostends the multiple items associated with X (including X’s extension);
- (3) S intends to direct the thoughts of the audience to the extension of X.

“mention”: Speaker S mentions an expression X iff:

- (1) S exhibits a token of X;
- (2) S thereby ostends the multiple items associated with X;
- (3) S intends to direct the thoughts of the audience to some item associated with X other than its extension.

It should be noted that “mention” can be categorized into “ostensive mention” and “non-ostensive or implicit mention”. In ostensive mention, quotation marks or italics (especially for sentences) are usually employed in written texts to reinforce the word, expression or clause being mentioned, as is shown in (1) B, while in spoken language, nonverbal cues are often given to signal mentioned language, such as prosodic features (e.g., intonation, stress) or gestures. Non-ostensive or implicit mention is always unmarked with any cue. Therefore, they are often confusing and give rise to ambiguity. It is also non-ostensive or implicit mention that results in the debate on the nature of metalinguistic negation.

Negation of Mention

Based on the examination of the distinction between “use” and “mention”, we think that the confusion in the nature of metalinguistic negation is deeply rooted in the misinterpretation of “mention” with “use”, and propose that metalinguistic negation is in fact the negation of the mentioning of a construction while descriptive negation is essentially the negation of the “use” of a construction.

Compare (2) B and C.

- (2) A. This book is interesting.
 B. No, it is not interesting; it is boring.
 C. No, it is not interesting; it's very interesting.

In (2) A, the word “interesting” is “used” to predicate the subject “this book”, to express some quality of the subject. In other words, “interesting” contributes to the propositional meaning of the sentence and is indispensable from it. B, in which “interesting” is also “used”, negates what is affirmed by A and conveys a totally opposite proposition. Thus, B is the negation of proposition A, or rather, the use of the word “interesting”.

However, different from B, C only mentioned the word “interesting” in *No, it is not interesting*. It negates the mention of the word “interesting”, which, from the perspective of a hearer or reader, is not accurate enough, rather than the lexical meaning of it. As a matter of fact, it echoes to or confirms the proposition expressed by A. What distinguishes it from A is that it indicates a higher scalar of interesting.

If the nature of metalinguistic negation is the negation of the “mentioning” of a construction, how to identify “mention” of a construction in practice since it is implicit with any unified formal marking? We propose a principle of mention:

A construction is mentioned in a negative sentence (in the sense that a sentence contains a negation operator) when it is used to strengthen its phonological or orthographical pole rather than its semantic pole. But such a principle is susceptible to various contexts and different interpretations.

In conclusion, instead of being entangled with whether the nature of metalinguistic negation is connected with truth conditions of sentences or not, we embark, on the basis of the distinction between “use” and “mention”, a new dimension in which metalinguistic negation is conceived as the negation of the “mentioning” of a construction while descriptive negation as the negation of the “use” of a construction. We maintain that our explanation of the problem is more plausible, tenable and impartial, and we will show how it will be further conducive to the categorization of metalinguistic negation in natural language.

III. CATEGORIZATION OF METALINGUISTIC NEGATION

How should metalinguistic negation be categorized? Such a question seems as disputable as the nature of metalinguistic negation since the categorization of it depends, if not exclusively, mainly on its nature. Consequently, based on different perspectives on its nature, various categorizations are provided. However, most of them are restricted to dichotomy, in which language phenomena are sharply divided into two clear-cut categories, either descriptive negation or metalinguistic negation. However, is dichotomy still suitable for language use which is quite sophisticated and daedal? Can a clear-cut borderline be maintained between descriptive negation and metalinguistic negation? As for these questions, we will take a careful consideration with reference to our previous conception of the nature of metalinguistic negation.

A. Traditional Dichotomic Categorization of Metalinguistic Negation

Traditionally, metalinguistic negation is mainly categorized on the basis of its two aspects, the content of negation and the motivations for metalinguistic negation.

According to the content of negation, metalinguistic negation is said to include, according the analysis of Horn (1985) and Shen (1993), five subcategories:

- A. The negation of the implicature resulting from the maxim of quantity; for example, *Some men are not chauvinists; all men are chauvinists*.
 B. The negation of the implicature resulting from the maxim of “Be Orderly”; for example, *They did not had a baby and got married; they got married and had a baby*.
 C. The negation of the implicature resulting from language style, context and so on; for example, *I'm not colored; I'm black*.
 D. The negation of the presupposition of a sentence; for example, *John did not manage to solve the problem; he was given the answer*.
 E. The negation of the felicity conditions in phonetics and grammar. For example, *I did not trap two “mongeese”; i trapped two “mongooses”*.

However, within this framework, many other categorizations, which are more or less similar, have also been provided. Their divergences lie in the fact that some scholars (e.g., Kong, 1995) think that the negation of a phonetic and/or grammatical incorrectness should not be included in metalinguistic negation.

Based on the motivations for metalinguistic negation, it, according to Liang (2000), should include the following five subcategories:

- A. The negation of the preconditions of the sentence; for example, *John did not manage to solve some problems; he solved them easily*.
 B. The negation of conversational implicature; for example, *Some men are not egoists; all men are egoists*.
 C. The negation of the focus or topic of an utterance; for example, *John Smith is not a black Police Commissioner but a Police Commissioner who is black*.
 D. The negation of the social connotations; for example, *I beg your pardon: Mary is not an uppity nigger broad; she*

is a strong, vibrant black woman.

E. The negation of the way of expressing. For example, *I did not manage to raise two "sheeps"; I managed to raise two "sheep"*.

Although seemingly different from the categorization of Horn, Shen and some other scholars, Liang's categorization essentially chimes in with the previous one. But he protests that the negation of phonetic incorrectness should not be covered in metalinguistic negation.

He (2002) embraces a unique opinion on the categorization of metalinguistic negation. According to her, metalinguistic negation or pragmatic negation in her terminology can be subdivided into two kinds: explicit and implicit pragmatic negation. Explicit pragmatic negation can be inferred from the context, and the negative reading is usually expounded by the following clause while negative reading in implicit metalinguistic negation can only be reached by pragmatic inferences. She insists that pragmatic negation should not contain negation of phonetic and grammatical incorrectness either. In addition, she further takes other two kinds into the consideration of pragmatic negation, that is, the negation of illocutionary act and negation caused by violations of certain conversational maxim or maxims but apparently without any negation operator.

B. Categorization of Metalinguistic Negation in Prototype Theory

The above categorizations have acquiesced that there is a clear-cut distinction between metalinguistic negation and descriptive negation. Under this prerequisite, a negation is either metalinguistic negation or descriptive negation. However, problems arise when it comes to negation of phonetic and grammatical incorrectness which some scholars think should be within the discussion of metalinguistic negation while other do not. These problems force us to reconsider whether traditional dichotomic categorizations are valid or not. Can it be the case that a negation in some linguistic context is metalinguistic negation while in another context, descriptive negation, or that there is no clear-cut distinction between metalinguistic negation and descriptive negation? Based on our previous assumption that metalinguistic negation is the negation of the "mentioning" of a construction and the fact that a construction can both be "used" and "mentioned" in different contexts, we think the answer is positive and we will provide our evidences based on prototype theory.

Prototype Theory

Following the tenets of prototype theory, there are best examples within a category, which are called the prototypes. A category is organized around the most prototypical members. That is to say, categories members do not enjoy the same status and they differ in their prototypicality, or degree of to which they are prototypical. There are good and bad members in category. In addition, categories have fuzzy boundaries. Certain things do not fall into clear-cut categories.

Continuum of Descriptive Negation and Metalinguistic negation

In 2.2, we have introduced the distinction between "use" and "mention". One more important point should be added that a particular word, expression or clause can occur with an interpretation of "use" in some context while as "mention" in others, and even both of "use" and "mention" within the same context. For example, in (3) A, the word "chocolate" is "used" to refer to a food which is made from roasted ground cacao beans. In B, the word "chocolate" is just "mentioned" because it is the form of it of it is just this string that is employed to designate certain kind of food. In C, "chocolate" is "mentioned" in the attributive clause and "used" in the main clause.

(3) A. Chocolate is delicious.

B. Chocolate is a kind of food.

C. Chocolate, which is a kind of food, is very delicious.

That a construction may be interpreted as "use" or "mention" or both in different contexts is heuristic when we take the categorization of metalinguistic negation into considerations. Is it possible that a negation may be metalinguistic negation in some context while descriptive negation in other contexts? We think so.

(4) We did not see hippopotamus; we saw hippopotami.

Traditionally, negation in (4) is considered to be the negation of incorrectness in grammar because "hippopotamus" is a countable noun and is not supposed to stand alone without any article. As have been noted above, different categorizations of such a negation have been proposed. Some scholars maintain that it is metalinguistic negation while others regard it as descriptive negation. However, we think that this negation is ambiguous.

On the one hand, it can be conceived as descriptive negation in some contexts. For example, in the zoo, there are many hippopotami right before your eyes and you uttered *we saw many hippopotamus* and one of your companions corrected *we did not see hippopotamus; we saw hippopotami*. In such a context, you are "using" the word "hippopotamus" in singular form to refer to a lot of animals, resulting in a wrong "use" of this word. In this sense, your companion's negation of your utterance is the negation of your misuse of "hippopotamus", so it is a descriptive negation.

On the other hand, it will be interpreted as metalinguistic negation in other context. For example, imagine a situation in which a child who is learning English, or perhaps is learning the plural forms of nouns, reported to his teacher his experience in the zoo yesterday and said *we saw many hippopotamus*, but the teacher corrected *We did not see hippopotamus; we saw hippopotami*. In this case, the teacher in fact cares nothing about what "hippopotamus" refers to or the animals themselves. Instead, he is just "mentioning" the word itself, that is, the student uses the wrong form of the word "hippopotamus". Therefore, his negation is just the "mention" of the word, and consequently is metalinguistic

negation.

There is no wonder that the categorization of the negation of grammatical incorrectness has been controversial. The reason lies in the fact that they can both be interpreted as descriptive negation and metalinguistic negation in different contexts. However, whether such an analysis will be suitable for other phenomenon of negation? We will provide another example in which the implicature brought about by the maxim of quantity is negated and which all scholars have thought of as metalinguistic negation.

(5) A: It is warm here.

B: It is not warm here, but hot.

According to the traditional categorization of metalinguistic negation, (5) B is the negation of the implicature brought about by the maxim of quantity and has been regarded as a prototypical example in metalinguistic negation by all scholars. However, from our perspective, it is far from that simple. This negation can also be interpreted differently in different contexts or according to different ways of conceptualization.

Previous categorization has included negation in (5) B in metalinguistic negation. The reason for such a categorization lies in the following assumptions. It is argued that hot and warm are on the same scale of temperature and that they are at the same pole of the scale. (5) A has not provided enough information as is required by B. Therefore, B expresses what he thinks is more accurate or detailed by first “negating” what A said, which is actually not semantic negation but an affirmation. In this sense, hot and warm are conceived in the same conceptual domain and B only negates what is mentioned by A. Therefore, it is a metalinguistic negation.

However, it should be noted that whether hot and warm can be conceptualized in the same domain or not lies in the interpreter. In this sense, they may be conceived as two different concepts in two different conceptual domains. When in different conceptual domains, “warm” is not “mentioned” by B but “used”. Consequently, B’s negation of A’s expression of warm is essential semantic negation, that is, B negates the proposition expressed by A. So, in this context, the negation in (5) B should be descriptive negation instead of metalinguistic negation.

Therefore, we propose that there is no clear-cut boundary between metalinguistic negation and descriptive negation and they actually form a continuum. As is similar to other categories, there are prototypical members and less prototypical ones in the category of metalinguistic negation. Meanwhile, typical uses and atypical uses can be distinguished within the same negative construction, such as the negation in (5) B which is prototypically used as metalinguistic negation but can also be regarded as descriptive negation in particular cognitive context.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, through a briefly review on previous discussions about the nature of metalinguistic negations and the categorization of it, this paper find there are still many controversies concerning them. It is observed that the root of these controversies lies in the misunderstanding of the nature of metalinguistic negation. Therefore, this paper proposes to reanalyze metalinguistic negation in terms of “use” and “mention” instead of truth condition initiated by Horn. We maintain that metalinguistic negation is essentially the negation of “mention” of a construction while descriptive negation is actually the negation of “use” of a construction. Since a construction can be both “use” and “mentioned”, there is no clear-cut boundary between metalinguistic negation and descriptive negation, that is, metalinguistic negation and descriptive negation form a continuum. In addition, a negative construction has its prototypical use, either as metalinguistic negation or descriptive negation, according to the particular context it occurs. In other words, whether a negative construction is metalinguistic negation or not is closely related to the contexts, both linguistic contexts and cognitive contexts.

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A Critical Review on the Socio-educational Model of SLA

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Abstract—Gardner's socio-educational model is the leading theory of motivation in the area of language learning (MacIntyre, 2002). Focusing on integrative motivation (Gu, 2009), it presents a dynamic model in which attitude and motivation affect language achievement, and language achievement itself affects attitude and motivation in an almost cyclical fashion (Gardner, 2001b). Although many researches have dealt with this model, few have scrutinized it a concise format. This paper, consequently, attempts to meet such an end.

Index Terms—socio-educational model, motivation, integrativeness, orientation, attitudes toward the learning situation

I. INTRODUCTION

Gardner's socio-educational model, according to MacIntyre (2007) is one of the most dominant models in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). It is the first and most influential theory of motivation in the area of L2 motivation research (Gu, 2009). Being considered as the most influential social-psychological models of SLA (Williams & Burden, 1997), it falls under the category of positivist models (Dewaele, 2009). The central concept of this model is motivation (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In simple terms "A socio-educational model of second language learning suggests that the learning of a second language involves both an ability and a motivational component and that the major basis of this motivation is best viewed from a social psychological perspective" (Gardner & Lalonde, 1985, August, p. 1).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Background

Gardner (2001b) has attributed the first empirical investigation associated with the socio-educational model to Lambert's (1955) research on bilingual dominance and the development of bilingualism. Gardner and Lambert (1959) were the first researchers who attempted to measure variables directly relevant to this approach.

According to Gardner (1985), the socio-educational model shares much in common with the seven foreign language learning models of Krashen's monitor model, Carroll's conscious reinforcement, Bialystok's strategy model, Lambert's social psychological model, Schumann's acculturation model, Clement's social context model, and Giles' intergroup model although often different concepts and perspectives have been emphasized in these models. Gardner (1985) has made the following comparisons between these models and his socio-educational model.

Both Krashen's monitor model and socio-educational model include attitudes and motivation, but they differ in that while in the former these have a facilitating function in the latter motivation is considered as an instigator to action. Moreover, both models predict that attitudes and motivation will correlate with proficiency, whereas the nature of the process varies in experimentally verifiable ways.

Central to Carroll's conscious reinforcement is the notion of reinforcement, which is clearly a motivational concept. According to Gardner (1985), although not discussed in the Carroll's model, there is evidently some social reason underlying the desire to communicate. Also, the idea of the performance grammar suggests some cognitive component similar to language aptitude and/or intelligence. These elements are also considered in the socio-educational model.

Although Bialystok's strategy model contains no explicit motivational construct, it, however, implies that individuals must try to find language exposure. Also, the notions of inferencing, monitoring, and formal and functional practicing show goal-directed behavior, which is indicative of a motivational component. Both Bialystok's and Gardner's models permit the operation of both cognitive and affective processes.

Many of the constructs in Lambert's social psychological model are identical to socio-educational model. However, they differ in that the former predicts direct causal relationships between attitudes and orientations and second language proficiency, while the latter claims that this association is mediated by motivation. Also, while the effects of proficiency on self-identity are not discussed explicitly in Gardner's, they have been dealt with in Lambert's model. Of course, the notion of changes in one's self-identity is close to the idea of non-linguistic outcomes of language study in Gardner's model.

Many of the social variables in Schumann's acculturation model are comparable to cultural beliefs in Gardner's model. The individual variables such as language and cultural shock are analogous in concept to situational anxiety. The concept of motivation exists in both models. The concept of ego permeability, i.e., the ability to identify with others, in Schumann's model is conceptually similar to the integrative component of motivation in Gardner's model.

Many aspects of constituents in Clement's social context model are similar to those of the Gardner's model. However, they differ in that the former focuses on the cultural context as a determinant of the types of motivation and includes fear of assimilation as an element of integrativeness. Also, the concept of collective outcomes in social context mode, a sociological concept, is not mentioned specifically in the socio-educational model although it would be associated with the outcomes of language study.

Giles' intergroup model, like the socio-educational one, puts considerable emphasis on integration with the other community as a major motivational construct. Also, like socio-educational model, it includes intelligence, language aptitude, situational anxiety, language acquisition contexts, and language learning outcomes. The models, however, differ in that the intergroup model is concerned solely with SLA by minority group members, and notion of ethnic identity although this notion seems applicable to all individuals irrespective of the status of their own ethnic group in the community.

B. Different Versions

The initial social psychological model was developed by Lambert (1967, 1974, as cited in Gardner, 2010b), who proposed that aptitude, attitudes, orientation, and motivation boost the development of language proficiency and affect self-identity. The socio-educational model proposed by Gardner and Smythe (1975, as cited in Gardner, 2010b) has maintained the elements of Lambert's social psychological model but has further expanded it to take into account the language learning situation by distinguishing between formal and informal language learning contexts. According to Gardner (2010b), this model also differs from Lambert's model in that the concept of self-identity in it is not explicitly identified although the concept of integrativeness raised in this model includes the willingness to identify with the other language community.

This model has been revised over the years. Consequently, it has several versions which were devised in 1979, 1983, 1985 (Ellis, 2008), 2007 (Cook, 2008), and 2000 (Gardner, 2000). There are slight differences between different versions, for instance, the model proposed by Gardner (1985) (Figure 1), according to Brown, Robson & Rosenkjar (2001), was primarily developed to account for L2 learning in classroom settings although it also considered natural settings.

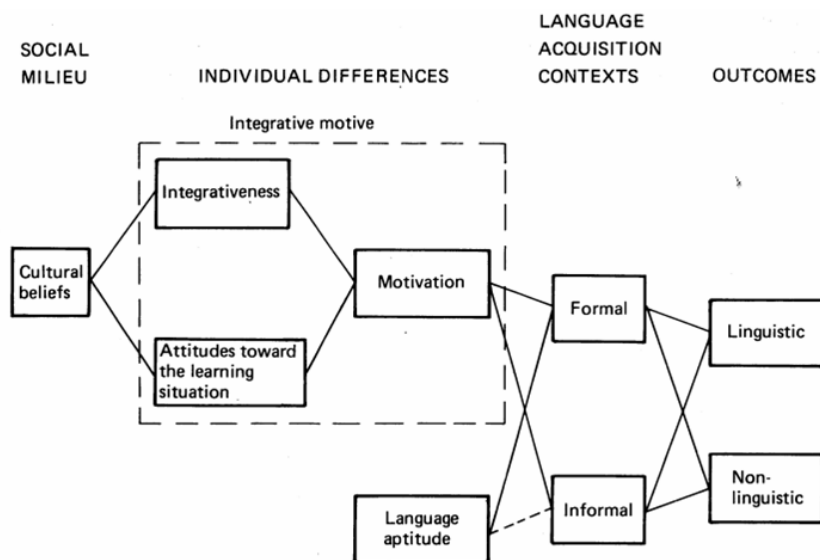


Figure 1 Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model. (from Gardner & Lalonde, 1985, August)

In 2000 Gardner proposed another version of the socio-educational model (Gardner, 2000) (Figure 2). According to Gardner (2000), as shown in figure 2, Integrativeness and Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation are two correlated variables which influence Motivation to learn a second language. Moreover, Motivation and Language Aptitude influence Language Achievement. According to Gardner (2001b), based on this model if someone shows high levels of Integrativeness and/or very positive Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation, but these are not linked with Motivation to learn the language, these variables will not be particularly highly related to achievement. Similarly, a person who demonstrates high levels of Motivation which are not supported by high levels of Integrativeness and/or favorable Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation may not show these high levels of motivation consistently. Integrative Motivation represents a complex of these three variables.

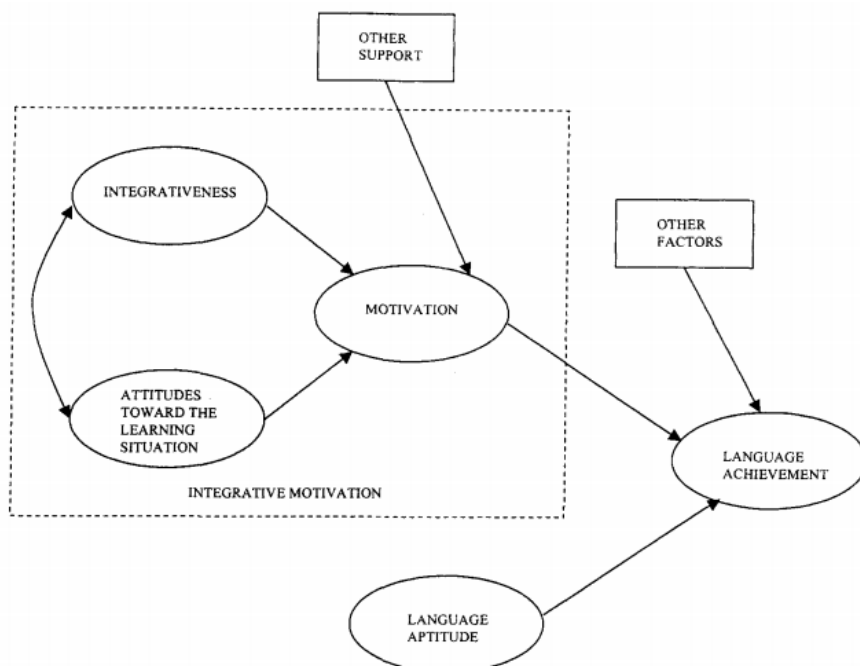


Figure 2 Gardner's (2000) socio-psychological model (from Gardner, 2000)

C. Main Hypothesis

The underlying rationale in Gardner's model is that learning a second (or foreign) language involves two types of tasks, i.e., cognitive and emotional. The cognitive aspect in this model considers another language as simply another code - a set of words, grammatical principles, pronunciations, etc. Based on this aspect language learning is much like learning any skill. And like other skills those who learn languages more readily have a cognitive or ability component which in the case of language is referred to as language aptitude. The emotional aspect, on the other hand, considers another language as an aspect of behavior which is characteristic of another ethnolinguistic community. Consequently, learning another language goes beyond learning another set of words, grammatical principles, pronunciations, etc. That is, it also requires learning the characteristics of another cultural community (Gardner & Lalonde, 1985, August).

D. Basic Components

1. Motivation

According to Gardner & Lambert (1959), L2 motivation differs from that involved in other learning processes because language is inherently related to socio-cultural identities and socio-political factors. Motivation to learn a second language plays the leading role in the socio-educational model. But motivation is a complex concept which cannot be simply measured by one scale (Gardner, 2010a) and there are many variables which affect motivation. (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995)

According to Tremblay and Gardner, in order to query why there is a relationship between motivation and proficiency a simple statement that some aspects of motivation result in higher proficiency or better performance is not sufficient. Rather, they believe that to improve motivation models mediators that explain why one variable affects the other should be identified. They proposed that the three 'motivational behaviors' of *effort*, *persistence*, and *attention* mediate between the seemingly distant factors of *language attitude*, *motivation* and *achievement*. They found support for a LISREL structural equation model linking these variables and concluded that the new motivational measures deepen our insights into motivation in language learning. In other words, this construct, as acknowledged by Gardner (2010a), is a complex concept which cannot be simply measured by one scale. Rather, it should be assessed by multiple scales. Therefore, motivation, as defined by Gardner (1985), refers to "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (p. 10). Consequently, motivation in the socio-educational model, according to Gardner (2010a), is assessed in terms of the following three components:

- 1) The desire to learn the language
- 2) Attitudes toward learning the language
- 3) Motivational intensity (i.e., the effort extended to learn the language)

Therefore, according to Gardner (1985), for a student to be considered motivated four elements of a goal, desire to achieve the goal, positive attitudes, and effort are necessary. Gardner (2010a) believes that while neither any of the three aforementioned elements on its own would provide an adequate assessment of motivation the tripartite assessment provides a rather fairly good estimate of this construct.

As mentioned by Sternberg (2002), this definition of motivation is consistent with the previous definitions in literature and at the same time, it is more comprehensive since it includes attitudes and desire to which Gardner has referred "affective variables". Sternberg believes that Gardner has managed to clearly differentiate these variables from the more purely cognitive factors such as intelligence, aptitude and related variables. This definition, as held by Sternberg, allows Gardner to address different issues under the motivation rubric and allows establishing a link between motivation and emotion which is often missing from the definition of motivation provided by cognitively-oriented psychology.

According to Gardner (1985), this definition is an operational definition of motivation which makes possible the measurement of the three components of motivation, i.e., desire to learn the language, motivational intensity, and attitudes towards learning the language.

These elements are measured by the Aptitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner and Smythe (1981). According to Gardner (2001b), this test battery was used to assess the supposedly major affective factors involved in second language learning. It currently consists of 11 subtests which are grouped into the five categories of Integrativeness, Attitudes Towards the Learning Situation, Motivation, Instrumental orientation and Language Anxiety.

According to Brown et al. (2001), AMTB was first based on the theoretical model developed by Lambert, but Gardner (1985) later altered the theoretical basis of this test battery to encompass the sum of the three aforementioned elements. This scale, as mentioned by Dörnyei (2005), is a useful self-report instrument adapted for use in different learning contexts throughout the world. Gardner (1985) emphasizes that there is not *one* AMTB and rather the items on such tests should be developed in such a way as to be appropriate to the particular context under investigation.

According to (Gardner & Lalonde, 1985, August) success in language learning is related to motivation which itself is shaped by a variety of attitudinal variables such as ethnic relations, as well as ability and linguistic factors and it is possible that the social and cultural milieu in which language learning takes place will determine learners' beliefs and influence which attitudinal variables serve as basic supports for their motivation.

2. Integrativeness

While the central concept of this model is motivation (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), its main hypothesis is that the individual's openness, i.e., their willingness or ability to acquire features of another community, plays a leading role in the process of SLA (Gardner, 2010a). At the same time, "The motivational component is influenced to some extent by factors that affect an individual's willingness to accept "foreign" behavior patterns"(Gardner & Lalonde, 1985, August, p. 1). This aspect is regarded as the cultural component of second language learning which is represented in the construct of integrativeness (Gardner, 2010a).

The concept of integrative motivation, as acknowledged by Gardner (2001b), has been considered by many researchers to play a role in the process of SLA, yet this concept has been used rather slightly differently in literature. According to MacIntyre, Mackinnon, & Clement (2009), the integrative motive from Gardner's socio-educational model (1985) has been the central concept in motivation study for many years. This concept, as mentioned by Gardner (2005, as cited in MacIntyre et al. 2009) has two important defining features of integrativeness and motivation. In simple terms integrativeness refers to "how the learner relates to the target culture in various ways" (Cook, 2008, p. 223). Put in Gardner's words (2001b), it refers to a learner's "genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community" (p. 5). "Integrativeness, Attitudes toward the Learning Situation and Motivation form "Integrative Motivation"" (Gardner, 2001a, February, p. 13). Integrativeness and attitudes are two correlated variables which influence motivation to learn a second language, moreover, motivation and language aptitude influence language achievement (Gardner, 2001a).

Gardner and Lambert (1959) developed a "Motivational Intensity Scale" which measured the amount of effort and enthusiasm which students show to acquire the second language. To recapitulate it should be mentioned that:

- 1). Integrative motivation is a complex of attitudinal, goal-directed, and motivational variables.
- 2). The concept of integrative motivation assumes that
 - a. Second language acquisition refers to the development of near-native-like language skills, and this takes time, effort, and persistence.
 - b. Such a level of language development requires identification with the second language community." (Gardner, 2001b, pp. 1-2)

3. Orientation

According to Gardner (2001b), "Orientations are simply classifications of reasons that can be given for studying a language, and there is little reason to believe that the reasons, in and of themselves, are directly related to success" (p. 16). Gardner and Lambert (1959) developed the "orientation index" which aims at identifying the types of motivation associated with success in language. This index classifies individuals as integratively or instrumentally oriented.

As mentioned by Gardner (2001b, p. 2), "There is an important distinction between integrative motivation and an integrative orientation." Nevertheless, it appears that orientations or reasons for studying a second language have been equated with motivation by some researchers. But the important point is that the operative variable is motivation, and not orientation. Integrative orientation refers "to the desire to learn a language in order to interact with, and perhaps to identify with, members of the L2 community" (Noels, 2001, p. 44). Instrumental Orientation "refers to an interest in

learning the language for pragmatic reasons that do not involve identification with the other language community." (Gardner, 2001b, p. 8)

4. Attitude Toward the Learning Situation

According to Gardner (2001b), attitudes toward any aspect of the situation where the language is learned is referred to as Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation. For example, in the context of school, these attitudes could be directed toward the teacher, the course, classmates, the materials, extra-curricular activities associated with the course, etc. In other words, "in any situation, some individuals will express more positive attitudes than others, and it is these differences in attitudes toward the learning situation that are the focus of the model." (Gardner, 2001b, p. 6)

E. Basic Elements of the Model

According to Gardner (2010a), the 1985 version of the model consists of the four components of 1) the social milieu, 2) individual differences 3) SLA context, and 4) outcomes. These four factors are believed to play an important role in determining the achievement in second language learning. The first factor, social/cultural milieu, according to Semmar (2007), refers to the social and cultural setting, i.e., monolingual/monocultural vs. multilingual/multicultural societies, where learning is taking place and which shapes the learner's belief about other ethnic and linguistic groups. The second factor, which has to do with individual difference variables, is related to the first. According to Ellis (2008), Gardner identified a number of variables that are conducive to individual differences. Gardner and MacIntyre (1992, as cited in MacIntyre, 2002) have referred to the socio-cultural milieu which affects both cognitive and affective (Individual Differences) ID variables. Cognitive variables include intelligence, language aptitude, and language learning strategies, and affective variables include attitude, motivation, language anxiety, and self-confidence. The third factor is about learning context and whether it is formal or informal, and the last factor has to do with the outcome of learning which, according to Ellis (2008), can be linguistic (L2 proficiency), and non-linguistic (attitudes, self-concept, cultural values, and beliefs).

The attention to non-linguistic outcomes in this model is important, since such non-linguistic outcomes encompass the attitudes, values and beliefs that learners have derived from the learning experience. Consequently, such outcomes affect the learner's identity. This is in line with the idea held by many scholars such as Williams & Burden (1997) who consider language a part of one's identity, and a means to convey this identity to other people. Therefore, learning a language goes beyond simple acquisition of linguistic aspects and it includes an alteration in self-image. In short, according to Gardner (1979, as cited in Finegan, 2012), the acquisition of a second language is far more than learning new information. Rather, it is a process during which the learners acquire "symbolic elements of a different ethnolinguistic community" (p. 520). Therefore, the acquisitions of, for instance, new words, grammar, and pronunciation are far more than learning new concepts, new words order, and new ways of saying different things. It is a process which involves the acquisition of features of another ethnolinguistic community.

The socio-educational model has evolved ever since its presentation, so that its current version, according to Gardner (2010b), focuses on the six latent constructs of *language aptitude*, *attitudes toward the learning situation*, *integrativeness*, *motivation*, *language anxiety*, and *language achievement*. The last construct has been characterized in terms of linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes.

F. Critical Appraisal

1. Strong points

a. Providing scientific and empirical studies supporting socio-educational model

By playing an important role in implementing scientific L2 motivation research procedures, Gardner's psychological theory brought research to maturity (Gu, 2009). Gardner's model is associated with the AMTB which provides reliable assessments of its major constructs, allowing empirical tests of the model (Gardner, 2006). This issue is important because, as acknowledged by Gardner (2010b), often various models use concepts and measures that are somewhat different. Assessing the validity of such models, therefore, requires obtaining more information regarding the specific measures used in each model. Moreover, observing the utilization of somewhat different constructs bearing the same name, Gardner (2010b) has also recommended the clarification of concepts in order to remove the problem of using multiple definitions for one construct.

Consequently, one of the main concerns of Gardner (2010a) is to present models which focus on the underlying constructs and their measurement while containing schematic diagrams which indicate the processes by which the variables under considerations are linked. Gardner believes that an appropriate strategy in a scientific investigation is to follow such a procedure since it emphasizes the operational definition of the constructs and therefore, enables other researchers to verify the validity of the generalizations made by the model. This point can be considered as one of the strength of the model. In fact there are many researches whose results empirically supports Gardner's socio-educational model, e.g., Gardner, Lalonde & Pierson (1983), and Semmar (2006).

b. Providing a realistic model

The other strength of this model can be claimed to be what Gardner, (2010a) and many scholars (e.g., MacIntyre, MacMaster & Baker, 2001; Ellis, 2008; Baker, 1992) have referred to as the non-static nature of the socio-educational model. This model, therefore, "is a dynamic one in which individual difference variables are seen to influence language achievement and language achievement is seen to have an influence on the individual difference variables" (Gardner,

2010a, p. 85). Consequently, this model, as acknowledged by Baker (1992), is also cyclical, in the sense that the outcomes of the learning feed back into the model. That is, the experiences gained by learners in formal or informal settings affect attitude which in turn affects motivation, which itself in an endless cyclical process affects continued experience in those settings. Therefore, this model takes the true dynamic nature of learning into account and allows for the inevitable variability of the interlanguage, and as such the model is considered to be (more) realistic than other methods.

Moreover, due to this dynamic nature, Gardner (2010a) has rejected some of the critics of this model who consider ID variables as traits. Since traits, as acknowledged by him are relatively enduring, while these variables allow for changes under different circumstances.

c. Providing a useful and practicable model

As mentioned by Gardner (2001b), there are other attributes of the motivated individual about which the model is silent, but the model tries to focus "on only the defining attributes *in the interest of parsimony* [emphasis added]" (p. 6). In other words "it satisfies the scientific requirement of parsimony in that it involves a limited number of operationally defined constructs" (Gardner, 2006, p. 237). Nevertheless, this point does not pose a threat to the model because Tremblay and Gardner (1995) indicated that the integration of other indices of motivation into this model still does not change its basic structure.

d. No limitation of the model in EFL context

There are some criticisms raised which have been apparently answered by Gardner (2010b). For example, there are critics who believe that socio-educational model is just applicable to bilingual settings such as Canada, where most of Gardner's studies were taking place, believing that the results of such contexts cannot be generalized to different settings (particularly in EFL contexts as opposed to ESL contexts). But, as held by Gardner (2006), the socio-educational model can be applicable to both foreign and second language learning contexts.

To find out the generalizability of the Gardner's model, a number of researches were conducted in this area in EFL contexts. But the results of some of them do not support Gardner's claims, e.g., Kojima Takahashi (n.d.). Such results point to the limitations of integrativeness in such context. Nevertheless, the study conducted by Gardner (2006) shows that when uniform measures are utilized, the obtained results show considerable stability.

2. Weak points

a. A gap in development

While Dörnyei (2005) has referred to Gardner's model as the dominant motivation model for more than three decades and has considered AMTB as a scientific assessment tool both in terms of presentation and content, nevertheless, he believes that Gardner's motivational theory has remained rather unmodified over time. Dörnyei believes that this lack of development is not in accord with the dramatic changes that have taken place in motivation research following the "cognitive revolution" in psychology. In this regard, Gardner (2010a), in an attempt to provide an answer to this criticism, has been reported as saying "Revolutions in psychology come and go, and though the socio-educational model is not phrased in "cognitive" terms, this does not mean that the research findings and the model itself are no longer relevant" (p. 203). Yet it seems that Gardner has not been successful in providing an adequate answer to Dörnyei's criticism.

2. Over-emphasis on integrativeness

It seems that Gardner has over-emphasized the role of integrativeness in predicting achievement and has placed excessive emphasis on the positive attitude and beliefs of the learner. While the facilitative effect of this concept is not at all rejected, it seems that Gardner's model is not able to account for cases where learners do not have a positive attitude towards the target language and culture but, nevertheless, succeed in learning it. Also, as mentioned by (Gu, 2009), despite the emphasis on social attitudes, Gardner's theory has not succeeded in addressing the intricate interrelationship of Anglophone and Francophone communities in Canada or how changing power relations between the two groups affects L2 learning in various different ways. And instead he has considered the individual's attitudes towards the L2 community as the main social determinants. Gu has depicted this shortcoming by the following figure (Figure 3).

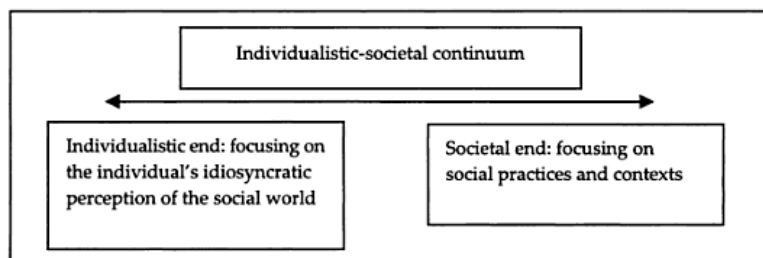


Figure 3 Gardner's Theory of an Individualistic-Societal Continuum (from Gu, 2009)

Gu believes that while Gardner's theory has focused on the individual end, it has overlooked the societal end. And as language learning can never happen in a vacuum, a theory which does not consider the impact of the societal factors at

large is not comprehensive. In other words, it can be claimed that one of the shortcomings of the Gardner's theory is it has neglected to consider what Kumaravadivelu (2006) has referred to as "language as ideology". Kumaravadivelu has looked at "language" from the three vantage points of language as system, language as discourse, and language as ideology. The third vantage point, i.e., "language as ideology" "deals mainly with issues of how the social and political forces of power and domination impact on language structures and language use" (p. 24). This is the very point which has been overlooked in the socio-educational model.

III. CONCLUSION

Although Gardner (2006, p. 237) believes that his model is superior to other models in that "it is concerned with the motivation to learn and become fluent in another language, and not simply with task and/or classroom motivation", nevertheless, there is still a long way ahead of motivation inquiries.

Dörnyei (2005) has divided the history of motivation into the three phases of 1) the social psychological period (1959-1990) with Gardner playing the key role, 2) the cognitive situated period (during the 1990s) when studies were conducted based on cognitive theories in educational psychology, and 3) the process-oriented period (2000 till present) which is marked by an interest in motivational change. In line with the new era in motivational study some researchers have proposed other motivational model which takes into account other variables. For example, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, as cited in Rock, 2011) discussed motivational Self System as a superior L2 motivational theory than Gardner's construct of integrative motivation in the socio-educational model, believing that their system is a better predictor of a learner's overall motivational disposition than the concept of integrativeness raised by Gardner. Others such as Yashima (2002, as cited in Dewaele, 2009) considered a concept which she named "international posture" as a better predictor of achievement in EFL contexts. Also, Gu (2009) believes that there is a need for research into more globally oriented models of motivation.

Nevertheless, taking into account all merits and demerits of Gardner's socio-educational model into account, the influential role of this model cannot not be neglected. This point can be evidenced by the fact that criticisms addressing this model were not successful at marginalizing it. To the extent that even Dörnyei (1994), who has been ranked among the critics of this model, has acknowledged the seminal work of Robert Gardner and his colleagues and admitted that Gardner's theory has profoundly influenced his thinking on this subject. Indeed, even Dörnyei himself has attempted to integrate the social psychological constructs postulated by Gardner, Clement, and their associates into the proposed new framework of L2 motivation (Dörnyei). On the whole, not neglecting the achievements made by Gardner, it can be said that considering the complexity of the construct of motivation still there is a long way ahead of researchers to be taken.

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Error Type Analysis in CAT

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Abstract—This paper conducts an empirical investigation on the errors in English-Chinese translation memories in computer-aided translation (CAT) and shows that the intention of error occurrence and the statistical difference in three common types: fixed expressions, omissions and symbols. It reveals that the translation errors in sentence pairs of translation memories reach as high as over 14%, and among all the errors in target texts punctuation errors account for nearly 46%. These findings are of great significance in improving the target text quality as well as in lowering the cost in CAT.

Index Terms—computer-aided translation, error types, translation memory

I. INTRODUCTION

Steven (2009) says computer-aided translation(CAT) is an emerging industry in the translation market, which is a trend to make full use of artificial intelligence and develop through cooperation cross fields. It is distinct from both traditional translation and machine translation (James & Anastasia, 2000). Wherein human translators play key parts and the computer serves as a powerful assistant to improve translation efficiency as well as quality. Undoubtedly, translators in CAT projects are likely to make some typical errors due to the computer input procedure. As a result, more and more attention has been put on the quality check or post-editing of the target texts in CAT. Quality check or quality management has already become an essential and key part in CAT which directly decides the overall quality, efficiency and cost of the whole translation project in CAT.

Considering these important facts, this research is focused on the quality check of target texts in English-Chinese CAT translation memories. By doing a practical manual contrastive analysis of the 15000-word translation samples, we obtained a particular classification of some frequently occurring translation errors and compared them with those in traditional English-Chinese translation in order to help make the specific error features under CAT circumstances and achieve automatic identification of some typical errors in Chinese text without going back to and comparing with the original text or looking it up in the build-in dictionaries of the CAT software. This study can help find a clearer clue in target (Chinese) text quality check in CAT translation memories.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

Unlike machine translation, Bowker (2002) says computer-aided translation (CAT) is more practical and accurate and a storage and retrieval operation which is carried out on line with a computer through out the whole translation procedure. Considering the fact that most of the current widely used CAT softwares and systems are designed to be one-way operations which means the texts imported to and exported from the CAT software are both monolingual. In order to better complete the quality check process and meanwhile guarantee the accuracy as well as effectiveness of the results, we have to select Chinese which is our mother language as the target text language. As a consequence, the subject of this study is about 15000 words of English-Chinese translation sentence pairs. All the samples are selected from 10 Trados translation memories uploaded by translation students both senior and MTI students in CAT class in a certain university. Given consideration to the proportion of different sorts of texts in all the translation memories, this research selects 6 novel translation and 4 article translation.

Based on the comprehensive contrastive analysis, 10 translation samples are picked randomly out of more than 40 translation memories and sorted according to their text type. Then 1500 word's Chinese texts are carefully checked without comparing with the original English texts in respects of wrongly written or mispronounced characters, sentence structure, punctuations. Then we go back to the original English texts for more detailed semantic and lexical quality check. The feature of each error type will be analyzed after collecting and counting various errors and making specific error classifications with SPSS 20.0. Then regular expression is used in text editor in order to approach automatic identification of some common error types out of the whole category list. Finally, the specific error types and the statistics are compared with that in some papers on traditional English-Chinese translation for finding out its uniqueness under CAT circumstances The whole process of this study is shown in Fig.1.

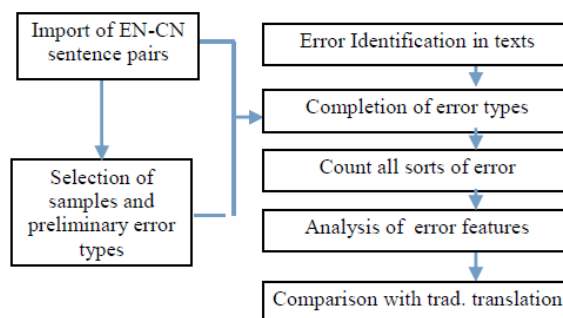


Figure 1 Process flow

III. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

After manual work on checking through all the 1000 English-Chinese sentence pairs selected from 10 translation memory samples, we have set the general error types (Error Level 1) including Critical Words, Non-Critical Words, Fixed Expressions and Symbols. Then through collecting and carefully analyzing the features of various translation errors in the target texts, we have eventually classified them into 11 specific error types (Error Level 2) under the general patterns. And the specific error types are shown in Table 1.

When working on the complete error classification, we have taken some English-Chinese translation error analysis and even some post-editing rules as references, including China's National Standard for Translation (GB/T 1968-2005), English-Chinese translation error types in Wang Jianjia's (2013) research based on corpus of 150 translation test paper, and machine translation errors by Luo and Li (2012) from Tongji University.

TABLE 1
CAT ERROR TYPE LIST

Error Types (L. 1)	Critical Words	Non-Critical Words	Fixed Expressions	Symbols
Weight	3	1	0.5	0.25
Sub-types (Level 2)	Critical semantic error; Omission of sentences, words and Numbers	Polysemy; POS; Prepositional phrase; Input error	Terminology; Brand names & Names; Abbreviations	Punctuations; Units

When having done the sentence-by-sentence quality checking work, we collect all the errors appeared in the target texts and count their frequencies while sorting them into the error list shown above. (Table 1)

After classifying all the errors in the target texts, we first count the error rate of the whole samples. It sounds reasonable to take one English-Chinese sentence pair as a single unit instead of putting every single word in the text into the statistic results. When a sentence pair includes at least one of the error types listed in Table 1, we count it in the "WRONG PAIRS". Besides, when a sentence pair includes more than just one error type in it, we do not count repeatedly while calculating the translation error rate of the whole 1000 English-Chinese sentence pairs. The error rate, we calculate it as "WRONG PAIRS" / "TOTAL PAIRS" * 100%. Among all the 1000 sentence pairs, we count 147 pairs as "WRONG PAIRS" and 853 as "CORRECT PAIRS".



Figure 2 General error percentage

When we count the frequency of the four general error types occurring in the target texts, every single error is counted to calculate the total error number. Even as in some situations one sentence contains more than one error types or one error type occurring more than once. By doing this way, we have worked out the total error number at 273 and the frequencies of each general error type are shown in Fig. 2. From Fig. 2, it is obvious that elements of critical words, non-critical words, fixed expressions and symbols can result in errors. We will analyze them one by one.

A. Critical Words

It is quite clear that mistranslation of some critical words in the sentence may have a great influence on the understanding of the whole sentence. And that is why in most of the quality assessment standards "Critical Semantic Error" is weighted most. Considering the weight and influence of critical words, translators would spare no effort to avoid critical word translation error in order to ensure their target texts are up to the quality standard. In Fig. 3, among all the 273 translation errors, we find only 28 critical word errors. That is just about 10.26% of the total error number.

While under the general type “Critical Words”, we also work out statistics of frequencies and proportion of each specific error type. 15 critical semantic error, 5 omission of sentences and words, 8 Numeral& quantifier mistranslation.

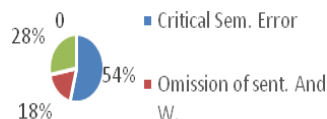


Figure 3 critical words

Here, we will use some examples of translation errors to go through a more detailed analysis of every specific error type.

First of all, in all the 28 Critical Words errors, we find 15 errors belong to critical semantic error. And the vast majority of these 15 errors appear in 5 out of the 6 novel samples. In fact just 3 errors appear in 2 out of the 4 informative articles. And these 3 errors are all mistranslation of key words. To be more detailed, the 15 errors are basically two sorts: mistranslation of double negative sentences and mistranslation of rhetorical questions.

a) Double negative sentence

EN: “I didn’t betray nobody,” Tracy cried, “and you are setting me up.”

CN: “wo shi you guo bei pan,” te lei xi han dao, “ke ni xian zai jiu shi zai gei wo xia tao.”

In this example, the translator might be confused by the double negative sentence “didn’t betray nobody” and translated it as positive. But it is actually a common practice among western people especially black people when they are trying to emphasize the point. They would frequently use “no” to replace “any”, like nobody, nothing for anybody and anything. So the first sentence in this example actually means “I didn’t betray anybody”. And here, just a slight mistranslation of words changed the meaning of the whole sentence.

b) Rhetorical question

EN: “Don’t you miss her, Ted?” “Yes. And I bet she will answer this way too.”

CN: “ni nan dao bu xiang ta ma, te de?” “dang ran xiang. er qie wo da du ta ye xiang wo.”

This example is a very typical mistranslation of rhetorical question. Obviously in the answer “yes” means “I don’t miss her”. And this is also the exact evidence of how translators lack language skills and influence the whole context of translation. And these two examples should represent “critical semantic error” well. As for omission of sentences and words, we find the reasons for the 5 omission errors basically result from two factors. One is careless operation of translators. When the sentence pair is rather short, like one word, the translator might ignore it. The other reason is misspelling of words in the original English texts, so that the translator left it untranslated. Fortunately, the majority of omission errors appeared in the samples can be identified by the QA checker of Trados system. Numeral& quantifier translation errors also account for a certain proportion though very small in “Critical Words” general error type, because the accuracy of translation of numbers is quite significant and sometimes determines the quality of whole translation. While among the 8 numeral translation errors in the samples, it is clear that the translators attach much importance of the accuracy in numbers when translating, which leads to the mistranslation. Here are two examples (c) and (d):

c) EN: “John and I, we have known each other for decades.”

CN: “yue han he wo yi jin ren shi you shi ji nian le.”

Obviously in this example “decades” was mistranslated. It means not “over ten years” but “several ten years”.

d) EN: Nowadays, computers work seven times faster than they did just 3 years ago.

CN: ru jin, ji suan ji yun xing su du bi qi jin jin 3 nian qing, jiu kuai le 7 bei.

Actually, this is a typical numeral translation error which has been discussed by many scholars. Here when westerners use “seven times faster than”, they really mean exactly “seven times as fast as”. And if Chinese people read only the translation, we would definitely regard it as “eight times as fast as”. And this special kind of numeral translation error is unacceptable in informative texts or government reports

The above four specific error types constitute the error type of “Critical Words”. It is quite reasonable that the frequency of this general type shows fairly low, just 28 out of all 273 errors. Though it doesn’t appear in a large number, it is an important error type. Once it occurs, it hurts the translation quality. What’s more, in order to identify and even solve this type of error, we have to take advantage of the existing CAT system with build-in dictionaries to carry out word-by-word comparison and even go back to the original English texts for careful manual check of sentence structure and meaning.

B. Non-critical Words

When we come to “Non-Critical Words”, we find it is of such a big proportion of all translation errors. In Fig.4 it is clear that among all 273 errors, we count 97 into this general error type. And to be more detailed, 97 errors in this type are made up of 13 polysemy errors, 7 prepositional phrase errors and 77 input clerical errors. The result is in Fig. 4. As a fact, the vast majority of English words are polysemant. Sometimes it is difficult for Chinese translators to pick out their specific meaning in a particular context. And even some of the frequently used words would adopt uncommon

meanings in some situations. If translators are not aware of those uncommon use of words or only make choices among common meanings, mistranslation of words are almost unavoidable. Here are two examples (a) and (b):

a) EN: "I need a wrench and some nuts."

CN: "wo xu yao yi ba ban shou he yi xie jian guo."

Here "nuts" does not mean the food. It refers to a sort of tool used to bite the screw tight. In Chinese it should be translated as "luo mu".

b) EN: "I was cross with him at that time."

CN: "na shi wo zheng hao he ta ca jian er guo."

In this sentence, "cross" does not mean "pass by" but "mad or angry".

As for the 7 prepositional phrase errors, nearly all of them are mistranslated into their look-like phrases or "twin phrases". In this type, we encounter "in case of" (in the case of), "out of question"(out of the question), "at a word" (in a word), "at no time"(in no time). Here is an example:

c) EN: "See? The engine lies right in the front of the wing."

CN: "kan jian mei? ying qing jiu zai ji yi de qian fang."

In the sentence, the translator confused "in the front of" with "in front of". The correct translation should be "ji yi qian duan".

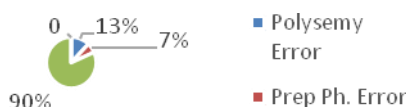


Figure 4 Non-critical words

In terms of the input clerical errors, there are 77 different careless Chinese character input errors in total. We present some most frequent ones in Table 2.

TABLE 2
CHINESE CHARACTER INPUT ERROR AND FREQUENCY

Wrong (Correct)	Frequency
... mention (say)	11
he (she)	15
slow- (slowly)	28

It is quite clear that the last three errors account for the vast majority percentage of this specific error type. Although the "he (she)" error and the rest of low-frequency error can only be identified with going back to the original sentence pairs and carrying out careful manual check, the "mention (say)" and "slow (slowly)" two sorts of errors could be automatically identified with the help of regular expression in text editor to some extent. Due to the clear Chinese grammatical and structural feature of these two errors, we have the chance to achieve automatic identification and only deal with the target (Chinese) texts.

Firstly, when we use "mention", we must attach more contents after it. But when we use "say", it is always followed just by a comma, a period or a colon. So the pattern of this error is: "a number of Chinese characters" + "shuo dao" + "a comma, a period or a colon". For the first part we could use "[\u4e00-\u9fa5]*" to represent "any number of Chinese characters. And for the last part, it could be written in "[, . : ;]". And considering the whole text in Chinese, we could even simplify it as "shuo dao[, . : ;]". After checking out this way in the text editor, we pick out all of the 11 "mention (say)" errors within the target texts.

Secondly the Chinese character "de (di)" error is a very common Chinese input slip-up. In fact, we find among the 28 errors there are 25 which should be "di" instead of "de". And this is typical misunderstanding in the use of Chinese adverbs and adjectives. Though there are some of the errors showing no common features, which means if we want to identify or even correct them, we have no choice but check carefully through the target texts, there are still over half of the 25 errors having something in common. That is before Chinese character "di", there are often two same characters or so-called reduplication. We can certainly take use of this common feature and try to identify this error. Although the research result might be larger than we need and not that accuracy, it can conclude most of this sort of error. And the trial method we put forward now is "[\u4e00-\u9fa5]\1[de di)".

C. Fixed Expressions

Compared to the first two general error types, the third general type "Fixed Expressions" occurs in quite low frequency. And the situations are much simpler. Here we have 13 name errors (missing of separatrix in foreign names), 5 Terminology errors and 4 abbreviation errors. And these errors of course we could solve it by setting detailed rules for QA Checker and improving our terminology database. Among them, the name errors takes 59%, the terminology error takes 23% and the abbreviation errors takes 18%.

D. Symbols

When dealing with the last general error type, we find that under this general type, all the errors we collected can be just sorted into two specific types: punctuations and units. Although the type number is quite small, the total error number in this general type is the biggest among all the 4 types. 119 punctuation errors and 7 unit errors. In total 126 here out of all 273 errors. The 7 unit errors are not rare, most of them just results from careless typing. Like “less than 12 miles” into “bu dao shi er li lu”. The types are listed in Table 3.

TABLE 3
PUNCTUATION ERROR TYPE DISTRIBUTION

No.	Type	Ratio
1	Missing of period	18%
2	Missing of book title quotes	5%
3	Missing of quotation marks	13%
4	Incompletion of bracket	6%
5	English punctuations in Chinese texts	7%
6	Quotation marks reverse	14%
7	Incompletion of quotation marks	37%

These 7 more detailed error types in punctuation shows very clearly that the translators using CAT softwares are even more likely to commit typing errors in the beginning or the end of the translated sentence than in doing the translation itself. And if we put together some of the similar errors in the list above, we will find that “missing or incompletion of punctuations” reaches as high as nearly 80% of all the 126 punctuation errors. Although it seems not that important in assessment weight. However when little things come in huge number, they make a great difference. Ignorance on this less-weighted error type could shake the stem of the whole quality of translation project. It is obvious that the translator should not only pay much more attention to the translation of words but also things around them. Unfortunately, most of these punctuation errors could be left to the QA Checker of Trados system. Such as “missing of period” and “English punctuations in Chinese texts”, what we should do is just making more strict rules for the checker and choose more regulations in full stop. To turn to the CAT system for help can no doubt save us from much heavy manual checking work, but there are still some punctuation errors we have to handle them ourselves such as the book title quotes. More or less, there will be some manual work in translation and post-editing no matter how advanced the information technology and artificial intelligence become. Computer Aided Translation has its limitations.

IV. ERROR COMPARISON WITH TRADITIONAL EC TRANSLATION

The study on common error types in traditional English-Chinese translation has attracted plenty of attention for quite a long time. And there have been some researchers doing various experiments and researches on different aspects of English-Chinese translation errors. In terms of error type list, there also have been some distinct results achieved by some people. According to Wang (2011) in his English-Chinese translation research based on corpus of 150 translation test paper, he collected all the translation errors appeared and sorted them into four different level: Lexical level, Phrasal level, Syntactic level and Textual level. And for each general level he set a few error types. And he sorted all the translation errors into different types. While in the corpus-based study of Liang (2004) on English-Chinese translation from non-English major postgraduates, they checked nearly 30000 words' English-Chinese translation and concluded all the errors into 6 types. And in the research paper of Wang in 2011 on Chinese students' common translation errors in English-Chinese translation, he classified the translation errors according to their causes into ten types. Taking their results as references, we can conclude a preliminary error type list for traditional English-Chinese translation. It is shown as follows:

TABLE 4
TRADITIONAL ERROR LIST

Error Type	Frequency	Proportion
Key Words	84	14.92%
Smoothness of Sentence	94	16.70%
Mismatch of Words	59	10.48%
Part of Speech	108	19.18%
Omissions	83	14.74%
Redundance	105	18.65%
symbols	30	5.33%
Total Error Number	563	
Total Word Number	29067	

If we compare the list above with our specific error type list in CAT, we can easily find out that there are some common types in both of them but still a lot of apparent differences. First of all, we can easily tell that in the traditional error list it focuses frequently on the structure and expression of the whole sentence in quality check. Smoothness of Sentence and Redundance error types are not inclusive in the CAT list, while input Chinese error which takes a huge part in the CAT list here is even not in the traditional list. Compared these two lists, we find that the error types in CAT list are more word-focusing and detailed. We think the reason for this obvious difference in error types has basically

two aspects. One is selection of samples from different translators. In CAT study, we pick all the 10 translation samples from English major and MTI students. To some degree, they are quite skillful in both languages. They might have very little difficulty in understanding and sentence expression. As a consequence, the errors appeared in CAT translation memories are more subtle. While in the traditional error list, the statistics of samples are mostly from non-English major postgraduate students. So they made more errors in terms of expression and understanding. And the other factor we consider is technical the translator uses. In traditional translation, the translator's language skills more or less has an impact on the producing high-quality translation. While in CAT, it is not the case at all. Like we checked in the study, as the translators were of comparatively high level of language and translation skills, they did make very few errors in understanding. But they encountered a huge number of errors in choice of Chinese characters and punctuations due to the unfamiliarity of input method of keyboard and mis-operation of Chinese pinyin input softwares. Then when we come to those common error types in both the two lists, we find that the frequencies of them vary greatly. For instance, the "Omissions" in traditional list reaches as high as about 15% of total error amount. However in CAT list, it accounts for less than 2%. It shows the great advantage of computer-aided translation system. In CAT softwares, the whole passage or paragraph is divided strictly and clearly into separate sentence pairs. When the translators are working on a text, they do it pair by pair instead of taking it as a whole target, which often make the translators ignore something unconsciously. What's more, the CAT system will usually make a notice if a sentence is left unfinished. As a result, it is relatively easier for translators to avoid omissions under CAT circumstances. In another similar case, we can compare the "Mismatch of Words" (10.48%) in the traditional list with the "Fixed Expressions" (less than 5%) in CAT list. It also shows how much improvement CAT system has brought to translation quality. In CAT systems, there are build-in dictionaries, terminology database, and most of all translation memories. All these instruments help greatly in translation of terms, abbreviations, fixed phrases, and also the consistency of translation in target text. So the error rate in this part is reasonably lower than that in traditional translation. However, CAT systems are still far from perfection. It even causes new troubles for its users. A very clear clue is that the "Symbols" which is mainly punctuation errors accounts for over 46% of all the errors. While "Symbols" in traditional translation takes even less than 6%. This is a sharp difference. And among all the punctuation errors in CAT list, three types stand out: missing of period, incompleteness of quotation marks, misuse of English punctuations in Chinese text. We think that the cause for these phenomena is to some extent the sentence separation (Gao, 1996). When the translator finishes one sentence pair translation, he must slid to the next line to see the following content, which means he would often forget to complete the sentence with a correct and suitable punctuation for there is nothing just behind his translation in this line. As for the misuse of English punctuations, we can simply tell it is mis-operation of key board input. In order to solve these "little" errors, we think a smart algorithm should be applied in the exploration of Chinese pinyin input. For example, the input software should be able to automatically identified and even replace English punctuations in Chinese text. And to prevent incompleteness of quotation marks, the input software could insert a complete quotation mark and set the mouse between the quotation marks even when we type just the left side of the quotation mark. Another same kind of situation is the input or choice error of Chinese characters. It accounts for nearly 30% of the errors in CAT error list. In fact, it is the second most frequent error type among all types in the CAT list. It is an apparent as well as a unique phenomenon in computer-aided translation. We believe the reason for this error lies in the "association and smart match of characters" function of current pinyin input software. As is known to all, current pinyin input software will always predict more phrases than we need. And it ranks the characters or phrases according to the frequency of utilization in web database. So the character comes out first is not always what we want. Especially when we are type some Chinese character with exactly the same pronunciation in pinyin, we have to pick out the right character carefully. With the fast development of translation industry, CAT is applied more and more widely. It is urgent that translators input the target text with a fairly high speed and get high efficiency of translation. But obviously high speed of input will no doubt challenge the quality of Chinese translation. In order to further improve the translation quality and efficiency, we have to cooperate with researchers in input software industry. A better and truly smarter input software can definitely help avoid careless input error meanwhile produce high-quality translation with great efficiency.

V. CONCLUSION

Computer-aided translation has achieved great progress in recent years especially in terminology database and translation memory. In this research, we contrastively analyse the specific error classification list of typical translation errors in CAT and put forward some preliminary solutions and ideas for improvement of CAT performance. We believe it would be of some contribution to the later research and development in certain aspects of CAT. By analyzing the features of various error types and getting a clearer clue of the high-frequency error trend, the translators or users of CAT system could be much more careful to avoid careless input errors. Only through improving the accuracy as well as efficiency of both computers and human translators, can we expect to reduce the cost of translation projects and raise the whole industry onto another tide. Of course, completely automatic identification of translation errors in CAT will remain a great challenge even in the short future.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This search is partially supported by National Social Science Fund of China (11CYY030).

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Psychogrammatical Utilization of the Definite Article ‘the’ in the Story ‘Lamb to the Slaughter’

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Abstract—Function words, the same as, content words will have some connotative meanings based on the contexts in which they appear. This study aimed at addressing some of the connotative meanings pertinent to shades of meanings of the definite article ‘the’ in the short story ‘Lamb to the slaughter’. The results of the reflection on the use of the definite article ‘the’ illustrated that in some contexts the same as one motioned in the story where ‘the’ has been used without any prementioned entity to which it can refer, it can carry some shades of meaning beyond the context itself. Accordingly, the definite article would associate the following meanings: 1- It is separate from you. 2- It is far from you. 3- It is dependent. 4- It is a complete entity 5- it conveys the sense of focalization by the camera man.

Index Terms—shades of meaning, contextualization, genitive pronoun, definite article

I. INTRODUCTION

Words of language could gain functions and shades of meaning(s) beyond the linguistic one(s) studied in dictionaries. Viewed within the discourse, articles and content words get sense(s) which need to be studied in an in-context situation; a very instructive practice to get a clear vision of these senses, we imagine, would be the study of literature and especially fiction and poetry. There we see and feel the language as contextualized. And that is again where we see the fact that lexicography is not sufficient alone for a holistic/broader view of language. People use their language naturally; writers apply the same structures in their fiction and poetry. The same lexicography situation is/could be true for grammar books. Probably we cannot expect these senses/meanings to be studied in there as these books’ primary focus is on the linguistic or sociolinguistic meanings and functions of language. Yet for people dealing with discourse, the senses beyond the linguistic ones are vital to think about. That’s the right place to deal with these, although we are aware that these studies are infinite.

In this paper it has been tried to show an organic, tight connection between the choice of lexis and the mind in a simple language. This study is aimed at proving the fact that as our minds enter the conscious and unconscious layers, the choice of lexis will shift to be in harmony with those layers. Thus a new perspective is offered as we attempted to throw a new light on the way writers use the language to give hidden parts of the mind a projection. We are aware that the definite article “The” has been treated from various angles by others, yet in this paper, it has been looked at within the context of the short story as we believe it can be “felt” better.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The usage of function words such as pronouns, articles, and prepositions has begun in the past few years. Since the function words are so difficult to control, their use in natural language samples has provided a non-reactive way to explore social and personality processes (Chung & Pennebaker 2007). Based on the related contexts and communication goals, different function words may be used. The link between the psychological states of the mind and the use of the function words is correlational. Moreover, this is a novel issue which has not much been the focus of the study before. Yet, some pieces of research have been conducted by gathering the samples of the authors or speakers under study where they were not aware of the dependent variable under investigation (Fazio & Olson, 2003).

There are some pieces of empirical evidence pertinent to the usage of function words in different contexts. The first piece of evidence is that related to Biological Activity. Surprisingly, the links between the biological activity and the function words has been examined by few researchers. Scherwitz, Berton, and Leventhal (1978), for example, found that coronary-prone Type A interviewees who used first person singular pronouns more frequently exhibited higher blood pressure than did those who referred to themselves less frequently. Type B interviewees, who are not prone to coronary heart disease (CHD), did not exhibit a relationship between self-references and any of the measures taken. In a later prospective study, neither density nor frequency of self-references could predict CHD, but the relationship for frequency of self-references and Type A personality remained significant (Graham, Scherwitz, & Brand, 1989).

The second piece of evidence is that of Depression. Reviewing of multiple studies has shown that the use of first person singular is associated with negative affective state (see also Weintraub, 1989). When some pupils were asked to write about their coming to college, currently depressed students used more first person singular pronouns than either formerly depressed or never depressed ones. In addition, formerly depressed students use more first person singular pronouns than never depressed students (Rude, Gortner, & Pennebaker, 2004). In natural speech captured over several days of tape recordings, use of "I" is more frequent among those with high depression scores than those with low depression scores (Mehl, 2004).

Deception is another piece of empirical evidence in the use of the function words. The utilization of pronouns and other function words will reveal hints about the truthfulness of statements. Negations, conjunctions, and certain prepositions are used to make important distinctions about categories. A particularly interesting class of words is exclusive words. These include words like "but", "except", "without", "exclude". Factor analytically, these words typically load with negations (no, not, never), and are associated with greater cognitive complexity (Pennebaker & King, 1999). Across multiple experiments where people have been induced to describe or explain something honestly or deceptively, the combined use of first person singular pronouns and exclusive words predicts honesty (Newman, Pennebaker, Berry, & Richards, 2003).

As the next piece of evidence of the use of function words, one can name State. Of all the function words, the relative use of first person singular pronouns is a particularly robust marker of the status of two interlocutors in an interaction. Within dyads, we have found that the person whose use of "I" words is lower tends to be the higher status participant. In the analysis of the incoming and outgoing emails of 11 undergraduates, graduate students, and faculty, the rated status of the interactant was correlated $-.40$ with the relative use of "I" words (Pennebaker & Davis, 2006).

Demographics: Sex and Age would be the next piece of evidence. There are sex differences in the use of virtually all function words: prepositions, articles, pronouns, and auxiliary verbs. In a study of over 10,000 text files, Newman et al. (2003) found that females tend to use first person singular pronouns at a consistently higher rate than do males.

III. SUMMARY OF THE STORY

Firstly, it would be advisable to provide the reader with a summary of the story so that he will have a clear vision of the whole discussion. The story is that of a kind and caring woman "Mary Maloney", awaiting her husband "Patrick Maloney", a police officer to come back home. She is pregnant and absolutely beautiful! The story starts with a calm and tranquil scene where everything is set for him to arrive. As Patrick is arriving, she gets happy to meet him at the door, but from the onset of his arrival an imperceptible yet vital contrast is drawn between them. Patrick talks less, while Mary does more; he is cold and distant while she is full of life, and he is unfriendly while she is friendly in her tone and talk. Gradually we come to the point where Patrick asks her to sit down and listen to him for a short while as he is going to tell her some shocking news. And yet this shocking piece of news is not revealed to the reader to give him a chance to develop his own imagination and have more involvement in the process of analysis. As Mary is listening to him, she becomes more and more shocked as it is fully revealed to him to the point where she is in a total state of shock. As Patrick finishes, she manages to get up, with however difficulty, to make dinner. She comes back from the cellar with a frozen leg of lamb, and in her shocked state of mind hits Patrick hard on the head killing him there on the spot. After running some errands at the local grocery store, she comes back home to find him lying dead on the floor. She calls the police, and they arrive at the crime scene to begin their investigations. As they become a little tired of work, Mary offers them to have the now fully developed leg of the lamb as dinner. They help themselves to it in the kitchen while talking about the murder as it dawns on them who the murderer was. That is where Mary giggles and the story ends.

IV. REFLECTION ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE 'THE'

So the story rotates around an angel of a woman turning into a murderer, a loving and would-be mother turning into a cold-blooded killer committing the most hideous crime.

What this paper deals with is the shift from one mental state into another one projected through a fine and subtle shift of the choice of lexis. What we mean by this statement is a total shift from controlled, conscious actions into those of utter unconscious ones, which are out of control. As seen in the story, Mary commits the crime in an absolutely unconscious state of mind. She is not aware at all of what she is doing then.

The theoretic mental frame we have adopted is as follows: we imagine that the [The +N. phrase] leads to a separate entity. The phrase creates a different world of life where the thing functions on its own; a world where things get new forms of "mind" and frames of function(s). The fact remains to say that a phrase like "the hand" creates a whole new, unusual feeling where you are sent to new ambiances as the reader. The linguistic meaning(s) stands/stand opposite the one(s) created here. And yet it remains to say that the discourse meaning(s)/senses are created here through the "the + N." phrase where they stand in a face-face situation to the dictionary/linguistic meanings.

Let's read some excerpts from the story to help us have a clear picture of this mental shift: "She couldn't feel her feet touching the floor.... She couldn't feel anything at all.....Everything was automatic now....." That is the point where we see the story bursting with phrases such as, "the stairs, the cellar, the light, the deep freeze." (The emphases are

ours). These lead the reader to the (almost) climax where we read: “The hand inside the cabinet.....” (Again the emphasis is ours).

Now the question the reader could logically ask would be: “Why the hand?” and not “Her hand?” That is the pivot point of the story, we believe, where the genitive pronoun is substituted by the definite article “The”; this in turn signals the shift from one state of mind into another one. That is where the modules of syntax and mind meet. In fact, the opposite poles of the genitive pronoun and that of the definite article “The” lead us into two sets of worlds.

We believe it would be a good idea to begin with the opposite pole of “Her hand”, and look for its possible mental connotations and then proceed with the “The hand”.

The genitive pronoun “Her.....” would connote, we believe, the followings:

1: It “belongs” to you.

2: You have control over it.

3: It is “close” to you.

4: It is inseparable and “dependent” on you. By this we mean that the body part proceeds and moves as you do as an independent entity. The part can make no movements on its own. So the part finds itself in total harmony with you as a conscious agent. The part finds itself impractical unless used through a conscious agent. The part lacks any sense if operated on its own. It finds its use when used with the whole.

5: The part and many a time would carry positive implications. By this we mean as it is dependent on you, so it is in a state of conscious movements. The part makes movements out of a totally planned thought.

6: There is a possibility of anticipation as what will happen next; this in turn gives you a sense of relief as you know what course events will take. Therefore, a sense of calmness will come over you. It follows that a feeling of familiarity and friendship will prevail. The reader is guided to think in a certain fashion as how the story proceeds.

7: It lacks the dynamic structure of the “The hand”. By this we mean that the part is “lost” in the whole conscious mind out of which it gets its orders. The dominant pole here is the active mind casting a shadow over the part. The part can “think” of no independent action on its own. It finds itself recessed in the active, conscious mind. It is covert in the bigger picture of the mind. This would add another dimension to the ambience; the fact that we enjoy a sense of security and lawfulness. The ambience would exude a calm flow of law and order. Things are under control, and as they find their right place, so it follows that no violation of rights is allowed.

8: It is something real and genuine. By this statement we mean that as the part moves in harmony with the whole, so its movements make sense. These movements are understandable. We know the whys and wherefores.

In addition to the English language, we imagine, other languages can provide further evidences for the discussion above.

In the Persian language, as an instance of a sense of familiarity created by speakers, we can think of the following situation: imagine a man knocks at the door of his neighbor asking for the father; when the son answers the door, the man normally would say something like, “Is your dad/father home?” The reason for this genitive phrase, we believe, is the fact the speaker is trying to establish a close relationship here, making an emotional impact on the listener. He is trying to impart the feeling in the listener that: “He is your father; he is someone close to you; he is a part of you; I need to talk to someone who is an integral part of your own being; he is someone you know well and is loved.” Thus the genitive phrase in the Persian language moves along the same ones mentioned above for the English language.

Another language where, we imagine, the same feelings of closeness and a sense of friendship is created is the Arabic language. We are quoting sentences from the Koran as further proofs/evidences of our discussion above. In chapter “The Broad Day”, Mohammad was worried as there was some pause in God sending him more of the Koran. And then God sent the following sentences in the chapter among which we read, 3: “Your Lord has not abandoned you; He has not made you His enemy.” 5: “And so soon your Lord will give you (all you asked Him for); and you shall be pleased.” 11: “So talk to people about your Lord’s gifts and blessings.” Here, we imagine, God is creating a sense of familiarity and friendliness through the genitive pronouns. He is saying that He is yours; He is right with you; He is not far from you.

Now it is time to proceed with the opposite pole of “The hand”, and look for its possible implications. The definite article, we imagine, would associate the followings:

1: It is something separate from you. We should bear in mind that the article “the” is a derivative of “That” in old English. This would essentially and especially in the context of the story imply a kind of “distance” and being far away. It strikes you as all bonds are cut off. All bonds of love and connectedness are torn away. Thus the definite article +N. lead to symbolic implications. The lexis, we believe, is there not just to give us the linguistic meaning(s) but also the symbolic ones which in turn enrich the story.

2: Therefore something which is “far” from you is less controlled by you.

3: It is independent. By this statement we have the sentence “Everything was automatic now” in mind. When she manages with however difficulty to go to the cellar to get the frozen leg of lamb we read, “.....down the stairs to the cellar, the light switch, the deep freeze.....”. What strikes us here is the sense of automation created through the deliberate deletion of verbs; as verbs and many a time impart a feeling of conscious actions, so their emission suggest the opposite; we see automation projected by the narrator to give us a feeling of assembly line where no thought there is behind what the machinery does; what we feel here is an individual who has lost all sense of identity; an individual who

is void of any sense of humanity which causes the murder. So this loss of a sense leads the character to do what she did. And that is why the whole scene is filled with a sense of terror. We are dealing with someone who is a robot now. Here what we see is the unconscious mind taking the lead and encircling the whole scene. Thus two circles are created where the conscious one is surrounded by the unconscious one. The one dominating is the unconscious one which causes all the terrible killing.

Through these two circles and symbolically, we can detect a pattern here. And that is the dynamics governing the structure of the story. In one pole, you have the conscious mind knowing what it does; still in another one you have the unconscious one projected through the definite article +N. phrase. Thus a “clash” is set where the quintessence of the story is laid bare. The story is filled with a liveliness and vitality where opposing poles “challenge” each other.

This in turn leads us to the multilayer aspects the story offers. In fact through the above mentioned definite article +N. phrase, the story gives us various visions and viewpoints. We move in different directions through the choice of phrases.

We believe if we look at the story though the bigger picture of its whole structure, it offers two “feelings”. One is that of fear and terror as belongs to the genre. This is of course the apparent, dominant one. The ambience is one of fear and fright. You see an angel becoming a devil; a lover turning into a hater.

But yet, looking at the bigger picture, the story displays a vital structure of multilayer phases where the energetic layers “play” roles each in its own place and these functions power the story forward. Therefore the lexis mentioned above gives the story both a negative and positive aspect. If we look closely at the “mind” of the story, we can detect a subtle movement from the conscious mind to the unconscious one and yet again moving back to the conscious one at the end. In the beginning, all is conscious; Mary is fully aware of her actions as is Patrick; and then follows the state of shock where she commits the crime, and she comes out of the unconsciousness yet again when Patrick falls down on the ground. This last state continues to the end of the story. Therefore notice the “three” phases of the mental aspect of the story which could add further dimensions of the symbolic movements. The number “three” has as its quintessence the concept of vitality and energy. This lends additional aspects to the story and gives it a lively structure. What we are trying to say is that there is current and cross-current movement in here which lends the story a subtle texture of vitality throughout. This covert yet ongoing energy is what lies at the bottom of the story, and yet finds its projection through the definite article + hand lexis.

4: It is a separable and complete entity. By this we mean that the part can make movements on its own; you have no control over it whatever. Thus you cannot anticipate what is going to happen next. This would add further feelings of anxiety and fear. And that is where the reader finds the ambience filled with fear and fright.

5: The lexis mentioned above also makes “focalization” possible as well. By this statement we mean that if a movie is to be made based on the story, the cameraman will have to focus on “the hand” to give the audience the fullest visual impact possible.

V. CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, we believe in the followings:

1: Through the definite article +N. phrase, equilibrium is set. On one hand, we see the phrase leading us to the unconscious mind where the crime belongs to. Here a circle is created where the protagonist is entangled in. She does what she does in a total absence of conscious thinking. Yet logically, it follows that the other circle is that of conscious mind where you are aware of what you are doing. You move in conscious states where your actions make sense to you.

2: And at the same time, we need to see the fact that this equilibrium is disturbed through the symbolic movements we make in the conscious and unconscious ones. Again this state of movement can lend further aspects of vitality mentioned earlier. We are trying to say that this is disequilibrium where the three phases of conscious and unconscious ones interplay. A pendulum state of affairs is set where the life of the story takes its beautiful shape and proportions. You make movements constantly between the mental states.

3: These two circles/poles, we believe, are in constant play and interplay where they give the story a lively structure. Each one stands opposite the other. And finally they find their totality in the lexical structure above. This could imply the inner structure of the story where in its quintessence what lies is a unified whole/thought, and this unification finds its projection in the definite article + N. phrase.

4: And finally, we believe, that the functions we mentioned above for the definite article “The” are ought to be considered as the discourse meanings for the word “The”. They also need to be viewed as crucial subtle meanings if the story is to be translated into another language. In the target language, the translator is supposed to provide the same lexical “equivalent” for his readers to get the inner feeling(s) created in the source one.

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2: "Daisy Miller "the novelette by Henry James, a case of narrative onomastics.

3: "The Garden of Secrets "by Sheikh Mahmud Shabestari, 1317 A.D .A translation.

4: "The Verger", a short story by William Somerset Maugham, a case of narrative onomastics.

Analysis of Cooper's Writing Style In *The Last of the Mohicans*

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Abstract—The Independence of American established a new state, but political independence did not bring cultural independence. The American literature still could not cast off the yoke of English literature. Although Cooper, was regarded as the pioneer of American national literature, his style remained under the strong influence of English writers. This does not mean that Cooper had no style of himself, he had composed his special features to express his theme---Narration and Description. In this essay, we are trying to take “The Last of the Mohicans” for example to analyze Cooper special writing skills.

Index Terms— narration, description, frontier work, Indian

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most important periods in the history of American Literature is the Romantic period, which stretches from the end of the 18th century through the outbreak of the Civil War (Cunliffe, Marcus, 1985). James Fenimore Cooper, was regarded as the pioneer of American national literature during this time, was born in Burlington, New Jersey on September 15, 1789, and died on September 14, 1851(Wu Weiren, 1995). Cooper had published about fifty works in all his life. The most notable is a romance of the American frontier that came to be called “The Leatherstocking Tales”, five in all, they are *The Pioneers* (1823), *The Last of the Mohicans*(1826), *The Prairie*(1827), *The Path Finder*(1840), and *The Deerslayer* (1847) (Wu Weiren, 1995). They are vivid and fascinating stories about Indian life. The characters are vigorous and the description of primitive forest life is captivation. “The Last of the Mohicans” is the best written of the “Leatherstocking Tales” with its vivid description and exciting plot. The novels describe the life of the hunter, Natty Bumppo, a brave noble scout, who stands as a protest on behalf of simplicity and perfect freedom, against encroaching law and order, who hover between the two world of Indian and White man. This paper takes “The Last of the Mohicans” for example to analyze Cooper special writing skills .In this novel, his vivid scenes, and his fictional pattern of flight, pursuit, capture and escape became dominating conventions in the literature of adventure, and at the same time, Cooper's characteristic was showed to us completely.

A. Background

The Romantic period is one of the most important periods in the history of American Literature, in this period, we can see a rising American fast burgeoning into a political, economic and cultural independence it had never know before. Democracy and political equality became the idea of the new nation, and a new system was in the making. The spread of industrialism, the sudden influx of immigration, and the “pioneers” pushing the frontier further west---all these produced something of an economic boom and with it, a tremendous sense of optimism and hope among the people (Rubinstein, Annette T, 1997). The nation bursting into new life cried for literary expression. But the American literature still could not cast off the yoke of English literature (Guo Qunying, 1993). The demand of living left little time to the new born nation to raise their education let alone to establish its own literature. None of great American literature could be written without reference to past English and European literature. Irving, Cooper and some other are regarded as the pioneers of American national literature (Rubinstein, Annette T, 1997). But their writing style remained under the strong influence of English writers. Although foreign influences were strong, American romanticism exhibited from the very outset distinct features of its own. It was different from English and European counterpart because it originated from an amalgam of factors which were altogether.

B. Cooper's Life

James Fenimore Cooper, the first important novelist, the first frontier novelist, the first historical romance writer and the first writer of sea adventures, was born in Burlington, New Jersey on September 15, 1789. He is the son of Judge Cooper, a wealthy land agent who founded Cooperstown in central New York. When Cooper was only over one year old, his family moved to Cooperstown. There, he grew up, watching the frontier continually being pushed back and always finding a fascination in the strange darkness of the neighboring wilderness area. Young Cooper was accustomed to the life of the privileged class of the time. He entered Yale College at the age of 15. He was dismissed after two years, and

then he went to sea as an ordinary seaman on the vessel, the *Stirling*, all the time making plans for a career in the navy. When he was 18, he returned to America having, seen parts of England and Spain. In 1808, he was given a commission as a midshipman in the US Navy. During his service, exceeding over three and a half years, he sailed on the vessels the *Vesuvius* and the *Wasp*. His experience gave him more knowledge about sea, and made him keenly aware of various social levels of society, which he described in his works. In 1811, after the death of his father, he left the sea to inherit a fortune from his father and married Susan Augusta Delancey. He fathered five daughters and two sons. In 1817, he made his home in Westchester. In 1821, he returned to the American scene with *The Spy*, the first important historical romance of the Revolution, and on its success, he moved to New York to take up his new career as writer. Then he traveled in England and crossed European to Switzerland and Italy, went to Germany and France. In 1833, he returned to the US and lived in Cooperstown. From 1836 to 1838, he published five books about his European travels. In 1837, he engaged in an extended argument over a plot of land in Cooperstown called Three Mile Point. Cooper gave the world one of America's most widely admired literary creations—Leatherstocking, a striking representation of frontier freedom and individuality—himself ended his days soured with his world. He, like Leatherstocking, remained an individual. However, the Indian scout, Natty was always able to retreat westward to get away from civilization and the new ideals he considered questionable, whereas Cooper could only retire to Cooperstown and indulge himself in remembering his lawsuits. On September 14, 1851, the America's first important novelist died in Cooperstown (Wu Weiren, 1995).

C. Cooper's Frontier Works

Cooper had published about fifty works in all his life. He eventually wrote 32 novels. The most notable is a romance of the American frontier that came to be called "The Leatherstocking Tales", five in all, they are *The Pioneers* (1823), *The Last of the Mohicans* (1826), *The Prairie* (1827), *The Path Finder* (1840), and *The Deerslayer* (1847) (Wu Weiren, 1995). They are vivid and fascinating stories about Indian life. The characters are vigorous and the description of primitive forest life is captivating. The novels describe the life of the hunter, Natty Bumppo, a brave noble scout, who stands as a protest on behalf of simplicity and perfect freedom, against encroaching law and order, who hover between the two world of Indian and White man. With these and with a vast group of supporting characters, virtuous or villainous, Cooper made the American conscious of his past, and made the European conscious of America (Chang Yaixin, 1996). The unimaginable great American forests did no last long under the American ax, which were both a builder and a destroyer. Cooper captured and preserved the forest for us in his vivid, imaginative landscapes. He captured and preserved, too, the man who roamed and forest. "The Leatherstocking Tales" has been translated into many foreign languages and is as well known in European in America.

II. ANALYZE COOPER'S CHARACTERISTIC IN "THE LAST OF THE MOHICANS"

A. Brief Summary of "The Last of the Mohicans"

The time is 1757. The place is near Lake George, in New York Colony, during the war between the British and the French. Major Duncan Heyward had been ordered to escort Cora and Alice Munro from Fort William Henry, where Colonel Munro, father of the girls, was commandant. David Gamut, a Connecticut singing-master, was also accompanied with them. A Huron Indian named Magua, who claimed that he knew the short way to their destination, guided them. In fact, he wanted to lead the party to a trap. Luckily, Hawkeye and his two Delaware Indian friends discovered his trick. Magua escaped. Then under the guidance of Hawkeye, Heyward and the sisters got the way to Fort William Henry. On the way to it, Magua and his savages attracted them many times. Heyward tried to convince Magua that he should take the party to Colonel Munro and receive a large reward. But he refused, he wanted Cora to be his wife, his aim was to revenge Colonel Munro because he had punished him for his mistake. With the help of Hawkeye and his friends, the party reached the destination at last.

Several days later, Colonel Munro agreed to retreat from the fort, but being allowed to keep the colors, arms and baggage. When the English vacated the fort, an incident occurred; over two thousand Iroquois Indians massacre most of the women and children of the defeated garrison. Magua seized Alice and fled, pursued by Cora and David. On the third day following the massacre, Hawkeye and his Indian friends and Heyward and Colonel Munro began to search Alice and Cora. Finally, they reached the Huron Camp and met David. He said that Alice was in the Huron Camp nearby and Cora was with a tribe of Delaware Indians some distance away. Heyward made up as a doctor and entered the Huron Camp and found Alice. Under the help of Hawkeye, they were escaped. They reached the Delaware Camp. The next Magua visited there and took away Cora.

The Delaware, led by Uncas, Chingachgook and Hawkeye, won a victory over the Iroquis in a forest battle; a Huron fatally stabbed Cora. Magua killed Uncas with his knife and Hawkeye shot Magua. The Delaware solemnly buried Cora and Uncas, and Hawkeye and Chingachgook faced future together without the noble Uncas, the last of the Mohicans (Chang Yaixin, 1996).

B. Features of the Characters

The main character Bumppo is a legendary person, he has double background. On the one hand, he is a white, he was educated in church school when he was young, on the other hand, he lives with Indian in forest perpetually and accepted the Indian ruler, so he is the synthesis of the primitive and European civilization are impacted in history

circumstance, but he is not the representative of each aspect, he hovers between the two worlds of Indian and white man. The irresistible pressure of westward move of America—the advance of civilization—that destroyed the American wilderness had driven out Natty. He has his forests and is living as a trapper on the western plains. Cooper endowed him all the advantages which the two worlds could endow. Bumpo loves forest and yearns for freedom of hunt life, and he has the simplicity characteristics, he is not a rat of white society, but compared with the colonialists, he has the nicer characteristics of original, he loves forest and disgusts colonial civilization.

Cooper's other two characters are Indians, Chingachgook and his son Uncas. They are the sons of nature and respect nature rules and live under the rules, they have no temporal and have not rotted by civilization. The moral bases of them are very simple: brave, honest and upright. They are Bumpo's good friends and often help him, but his Indian enemy kills the last of the Monicans, Uncas, at last, while his father lives with Natty. His death shows that his tribe will be dying out.

Compared with Uncas, another devilish person is Magua, he also is a strong one, but he is the representative of all evils: craft, perfidy. To Uncas, he is a pad. In order to revenge, he forces Cora to marry him. He is a rat of his tribe, at last, he kills Uncas, but what he gets at last is death, too.

C. Analyze Cooper's Narration and Description Writing Skills in "The Last of the Mohicans"

Cooper is good at inventing plots especially suspense.

Cooper is not good at literary style or engraving character in novels. Using narration and description to express theme is his special features. To Cooper, plot is more important than style. In *The Last of the Mohicans*, his vivid scenes, and his fictional pattern of flight, pursuit, capture and escape became dominating conventions in the literature of adventure.

Cooper is good at inventing plots especially suspense. He can complicate one quickly and well. The chase through the novel from beginning to ending, it is an important part of plot. Uncas chases Magua, Magua chases Cora, and Hawkeye chases Magua again. We can find that all the plots are based on chases.

Cooper's usual suspenseful pattern of action is based upon the three words "escape", "pursuit" and "capture". We can find this technique in *The Last of the Mohicans*. But the first example is rather unusual that the successful escape and unsuccessful pursuit of the villain of the piece—Magua. But at the beginning of this novel, the party escaped from Magua's trap, then they are pursued by Iroquis, at last, they are captured by them. At the end of the chapter 6, Hawkeye and his friends heard a mysterious horrific cry. This is Cooper's typical literary technique of ending a chapter on a suspenseful note. In chapter 13, the incident of the Huron stopping to investigate the burial mound conveys that an Indian has respect for his dead, as well as adding a suspenseful moment, when the breathless group in the old blockhouse anticipates discovery and a furious battle. The Huron quietly discuss the matter and then, in respect for the dead, silently withdraw from the scene and eventually become "lost in the depths of the forest" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, *The Last of the Mohicans*, P.135). Gratefully, the undiscovered party leaves the old fort and heads in the opposite direction. When we read this sentence, we are also breathless with the characters. Another example of suspense in chapter 24 and 25, Hawkeye, disguising as a bear, adds suspense to the plot. At the first sight, readers think it is a real bear and don't understand why a bear follows Duncan and the chief. When Heyward begins to see over the sick woman, the bear lets out a "fierce growl" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.269). After the chief leaves the cave, the bear waddles up to Heyward and sits himself down in front of the Englishman, and lifts its huge talons to its head and pushes it aside. Now we find it is Hawkeye.

Inventing plots and using suspense are very important in *The Last of the Mohicans*. It is true that Cooper's plots are sometimes quite incredible, for example, at the beginning of *The Last of the Mohicans*, Fort William Henry is besieged by France troops. But to readers' surprise the commander, Munro, allows his daughters to come at this time. The most surprising point is that the two girls are not accompanied by the English forces but only a British officer. It is bewildering why they make such a stupid decision in that dangerous situation.

But those defects do not affect his novels. The story shows the wilds of the American frontier and the vivid drama of the French—Indian war, and it establishes the American frontier as a setting for thrilling adventures, although it bases on history, most of the plots are imaginary. This is also a reason why Cooper has such a high profile; he combines history and imagination in a skilled way. So *The Last of the Mohicans* is immensely intriguing and attracts many readers, and it becomes the most famous one of "The Leatherstocking Tales" for its exciting plots. From it readers also know the ability of Cooper to develop plots and suspenses.

Description of nature sight.

Cooper is good at describing natural sight, especially landscape description. Besides narration, in *The Last of the Mohicans*, another technique, which Cooper uses, is description. We can find how carefully Cooper describes the physical background of history in the chapter 1. From that, readers can realize that vast tracts of land are between the opposing forces of the English and French. The territory between Lake Champlain and the Hudson River makes up a no man's land, a battleground, occupied by the one who is the stronger or, sometimes the cleverer. No man from either side might be found on expeditions in such deadly place. The story is happened under the great background. We can find description of nature sight nearly in every chapter.

Cooper's landscape description is majestic, especially panoramic descriptions—that is, pictures of huge areas of countryside, seen from one stationary point of view. In chapter 14, Hawkeye's group climbs a high mountain overlooking a valley below. The mountain stands "a thousand feet in air... a high cone ... a little in advance of that

range which stretches for miles along the western shores of the lake" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.142), which sweeps away, far below, "at the feet of the party" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.143). The waters pour northward toward Lake Champlain where they lost in sight among masses of jumbled mountains tops. Near at hand is seen Fort William Henry, its "extensive earthen ramparts and low buildings" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.143) located "on the shore of the lake" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.143). Towards the southeast is the "entrenched camp" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.144) where the British "auxiliary regiments" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.144) are located. To the south rise "numerous dark and lurid smokes" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.144), show that the enemy has lighted its campfires in that area. Further to the west, extending "many hundreds of years from the shores of the Horicans to the base of the mountain" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.144) are seen "the white tents and military engines of an encampment of ten thousand men" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.144). We can find another example of panoramic description near the beginning of chapter 15, Heyward retires to a high wall of Fort William Henry "to take a survey of the siege" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.151). He look out over Horican, contemplating "the wide and varied" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.152) scene a few minutes. Also at the end of chapter 17, Magua, Cora and Alice gaze from the "mountain—top" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.184) to the plain below where "the Massacre of William Henry" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.186) is taking place. And near the beginning of chapter 18, the "smoldering ruin" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.187) of what had been Fort William Henry is pictured. The "whole landscape" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.187) covered with mangled, dead bodies, resembles "some pictured allegory of life" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.187)—some type of lesson as to the horrors of man-made wars and destruction.

When Cooper describes nature sight, he likes putting people's behaviors into it and describing them together, such as disguises. The common example is disguising footprints. In chapter 20, Hawkeye and his party pursue Magua and his captives, the Munro sisters. Under Hawkeye's direction, the members of the party land on the shore of a lake. They lift their canoe from the water and carry it on their shoulder into the forest. They cross a stream of water and continue on until they finally arrive at an extensive and naked rock, their footsteps might be no longer visible. In chapter 21, although Cooper doesn't tell us how Magua hide their footprints directly, we still know that from the procedure that Uncas finds the signs which Magua leaves behind. All of them are put together with descriptions of nature sight in perfect harmony, which attract reader's attention. At the same time, they make the plots more interesting and show the perfidy of enemy and the cleverness of Hawkeye and his friends. Through those descriptions, Cooper gives us an artistic picture about American western frontier, the vast beautiful virgin land and original forest.

Description of Indian customs.

Through description, Cooper also paints the original image of Indian and introduces the customs of them to us. In chapter 1 and 3, we can find the description of Indian. Magua, "the native bore both the tomahawk and knife of his tribe" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.7), "the colors of the war-paint had blended in dark confusion about his fierce countenance" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.7). When Cooper describes Chingachgook, he writes like this:

his body, which was nearly naked, presented a terrific emblem of death, drawn in intermingled colors of white and black. His closely shaved head, on which no other hair that the well known and chivalrous scalping tuft was preserved, was without ornament of any kind, with the exception of a solitary eagle's plum, that crossed his crown, and depended over the left shoulder. A tomahawk and scalping-knife, of English manufacture were in his girdle (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.21).

From the description, we can know some live habits about Indian. They like painting colors to stand for something such as death, combat, or peace, different colors stand for different meanings. At the end of this novel, when Uncas prepares to rescue Cora, he appears in his war painting and begins to walk slowly about the post, as he chants a war song. A young warrior tears the bark from a dwarfed pine, another warrior strips the branches from it, a third brave colors the post that is left "with strips of dark red paint... indications of a hostile design in the leaders of the nation" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.338), Uncas is followed by leading warriors of the tribe, each singing his own melody, following his own beat. All of those tell us the warriors will start to join a war. In chapter 30, a warrior seize Uncas shirt and rips it from his body, startled, the warrior stares at the brave Indians, as he points with his finger to the figure of a small tortoise, beautifully tattooed on the breast of the prisoner, in a bright blue tint, there we can know Indian like using animals as the symbol of one's identity, different animal stand for different tribe. This is a special feature of origin society.

Besides that, the description of the "formal assemblage of the nation" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.309) also tells us when Indian face important event, they will use this way to decide what they should do. In chapter 28, when Delawares are surprised to hear that Long Rifle who is one so famous among the Indian allies of France is within their power, they hold a council meeting of the chiefs followed by a "solemn and formal assemblage of the nation" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.309) at once, where all the Delawares, men, women, and children (over a thousand people), come together. At the same time, they invite the highly respected sage of the Delawares "Tamenund" (James Fenimore Cooper, 1981, P.311), who is a famous patriarch, and then we can know they think the meeting is very important.

Indeed, *The Last of the Mohicans* often describes scenes of devastation. Natural scenes that powerfully suggest the theme of what America has lost is the primitive natural beauty. Nature is humanized: we can not remain indifferent. Along with the poetry of its natural scenes, *The Last of the Mohicans* also reflects Cooper's scenes of realism. Indeed,

judged by the standard of his time, his wilderness fiction as the whole follows closely the best scenes of Indian studies that established in the early 19th century. Moreover, Cooper met and spoke with the most important Indian chiefs of this period. He over all, pictured that general picture, we get in his narration, the tragic, dramatic and ambiguous change. Even his most courageous and energetic characters find themselves in capable of facing the forces of nature and history. According to Cooper, the phenomenon of settlement is the ideal metaphoric expression or the tragedy of American civilization. But in Cooper's narration vision, the frontier is also an image of the sense of opportunity that comes from with change. In this description of the process of settlement, Cooper describes with eloquence the hopes and aspirations of the pioneer and simultaneously the Indian's feeling of loss and displacement.

D. Some Critical Commentary to Cooper's Writing Ways

Among the American writers, Cooper is the first one who received the most criticism. It is easy to criticize Cooper because his shortcomings of his literature creations are same and clearly in each of his works. He is not a skillful writer, his dialogue is wooden and inconsistent, his Indians hopelessly unreal, his descriptions often longwinded and pretentious, and his plot depending heavily on improbable accidents and absurd mistakes. We can find the example in the second part of this chapter and there are many other examples in *The Last of the Mohicans*.

In chapter 9, David has recovered and proceeds to sing, he is allowed to sing when the frightened group is in hiding, which seems unrealistic—even though Cooper gives us the explanation is that his voice will not be heard under the din of the falls. Cooper rarely has humor in his writing, but in *The Last of the Mohicans*, he uses this skill, but not very successful. We can find it at the end of chapter 21 and the beginning of chapter 22. In these chapters, Heyward finds an Indian village where there are many Indians. He is afraid that those Indians will find them. He thinks they are in danger, but later, David and Hawkeye tells him what he has seen is not a village but a beaver bond. When we come to this part, we feel released because the atmosphere in this part is tense, but it gives more surprise than happiness, so Cooper's this skill is not very successfully.

Another point, which makes us puzzled is Hawkeye's talking when they struggle with opponent in dangerous situation. He is not thinking a way to settle the problem but talking more other things, such as in chapter 32. His actions make us feel that it is impossible to have such mood to talk in that situation.

III. CONCLUSION

Although there are so many shortcomings in Cooper's work, he is one of the first writers of America who are familiar to people. In his time, American novel is in the stage of enlightenment. So the appearance of Cooper's defect is necessarily. And he creates his best novel, *The Last of the Mohicans*, which tells the story of early American, is a record about the war between western countries who want to fight for colony, at the same time, it shows Cooper's narration and description skills fully to us. It tells the contact and conflict between Indian and European civilization. It portrays the inevitable of opposed cultures and stands as a testament to the ways in which this struggle has been mythologized. It is a memorable depiction of courage and passion, and a precursor to the western genre. Cooper takes the west exploitation as the theme and the history as the background to compose his own style. He despites the stories that take place on American land, which gives us artistic picture about American western frontier, he combines land, people and history in a skilled way, uses nature as the general ground of people's behaviors, paints the original image of Indian.

Cooper imagines Natty, perhaps as the ultimate American—friend of the Indian as well as the white man. Under Cooper's writing, Natty can speak both languages and though the Mohicans are disappearing he can befriend the last of them and fully understand what is being loss as it occurring, though it fulfills wish as distasteful as the thought may be to the white psyche, the white man could not progress in America without the disappearance of the Mohicans and as stated earlier progress is the reason that the white settlers was here and the situation was well. Natty is the prototype of the frontier hero.

So Cooper is by no means a great novelist and a powerful thinker and he becomes a most important landmark in the literary history of the United States.

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In the Wake of Pure Farsi-Muslim Culture and Ideology through Translating Anthems in “The Kite Runner”

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Abstract—Since the 11th of September, 2001, the media and American public have been obsessed by all things Islamic and Middle Eastern, as the war on terrorism has been essentially engaged against various countries and peoples believed to be terrorists, including Afghanistan. Since America’s declaration of war on terrorism, people have been flocking to bookstores to find and read up on topics like Islam, terrorism, the conflict in the Middle East, and more. While there have been many documentaries published on the Taliban, Osama Bin Laden, and women’s rights in the region, there were still no works of fiction in English published by an Afghan author until 2003. Khaled Hosseini’s 2003 novel, *The Kite Runner* presents itself as a powerful depiction of the formation of a complex Afghan-American cultural identity against the backdrop of the turbulence of modern Afghanistan. Political change throughout the book influenced people in Afghanistan. Anthems as national and/or religion folklore of Afghanistan make a better sense of pure culture and ideology and the translation of them may help to show the real face of Afghani’s better. This study examined the anthems in *The Kite Runner* by Khalid Hosseini and their Persian Translation by Mehdi Ghabraei in accordance with Vahid Dastjerdi’s proposed model of poetry translation on the basis of both textual and extra-textual levels. The results vary from one item to another. The researchers hope that this little work may help to show the innocent spirit of East to reduce the wars and killings there.

Index Terms—translation, culture, ideology, anthem

I. INTRODUCTION

As an interdisciplinary field, translation studies, plays a very important and effective role in bridging the gap between the nations and cultures. Translation is the art of combining science and craft in rendering a text from source language into target language. As Niknasab and Pishbin stated in their article named “On the Translation of Poetry: A Look at Sohrab Sepehri’s *Traveler*”:

“Every act of translation is mingled with some problems and challenges. Poetry translation may be more challenging than other types of translation due to the importance of both form and content in the type of interpretation and response evoked in the audience. In poetry translation one of the most essential issues to be addressed by the translator is whether to prefer the form over the content or vice versa (Niknasab and Pishbin, 2001).”

The issue of the translatability of poetry has long been a heated debate among scholars. “Some scholars believe that what is lost in translation is the poetry, while others state that all meanings are translatable and only the form of poetic discourse is lost in translation (Vahid Dastjerdi et al, 2008)”. “There are still other scholars who believe that poetry translation is possible only if both the meaning and style of the source text are kept intact in the target language (Ibid, 2008)”. Concerning the translation process, a very general view is that in translation there are two processes involved: the translator analyzes the SL form in order to find out the meaning and second the translator produces, or chooses proper TL form for this meaning (Mollanazar, 2005).

Anthems are rhythmic oral texts that mostly originated from one nations’ culture and also folklore. Anthems shows a specific communities’ dogmas, attitudes, utopias and also religion beliefs. According to Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, Anthems refer to “a formal song of loyalty, praise, or happiness and a song that is important to a particular group of people” (Webster, 2004). According to the above mentioned dictionary, the origin of anthem goes back to the church in the mid-16th in which it was regarded as a church music. It was sung at morning and evening prayer. “Since anthem is linked to religion as one of the most powerful and magic phenomena political powers tended to misuse its application and use it as a technique of propaganda in order to stabilize their power and position and establish their ideology among the public people (Khorsand Parcheh and Salmani, 2014)”. Religion plays an important role in many people’s lives. Since religion is portrayed very differently from beginning of the book to the end, the assessment of

translation of anthems selected in this study is looking somehow interesting and may help to find out the Afghani-Muslim ideology better.

This research is going to analyze the translation of anthems in *The Kite Runner* by Khalid Hosseini and their Persian translation by Mehdi Ghabraei under the light of Vahid Dastjerdi's (2008) proposed model of poetry translation at both textual and extra-textual levels.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This part of research is describing in details the materials and the theory in which we used to analyze the data and draw conclusions.

A. Poetry Translation

The translator of poetry must be fluent in and sensitive to the source language; he must know the source language's cultural matrices, its etymologies, syntax, and grammar, as well as its poetic tradition. He must culturally and politically identify himself wholeheartedly with the original poet. He must penetrate the exteriority of the original text and lose himself in its inter-textuality.

"To make the translation become a poem, the translator must also meet successfully the expectations and sensibilities of the poetic tradition of the target language. Thus, the most successful translators of poetry are frequently those who happen to be bilingual and bicultural and, above all, poets in the target Language (Rose, 1981)."

As it is evident translating poetry is a matter of relativity i.e. all aesthetic aspects of the original poem cannot be transferred into the TL version. We can find excellent translations of masterpieces of the world poetry. This shows that although translating poetry is more demanding than other types of texts, it doesn't mean impossibility of translation of poetry (Niknasab and Pishbin, 2001).

B. Vahid Dastjerdi's Model of Poetry Translation

In his paper "Translation of Poetry: Towards a Practical Model for Translation Analysis and Assessment of Poetic Discourse", Vahid Dastjerdi proposed a model for poetry translation quality assessment on the basis of two different but inter-related levels: Textual and Extra-Textual.

Textual Level of Analysis:

This part, according to him, is divided into six categories named below:

Form:

Form is the *look* of the text and consists of rhymes, rhythms, stanzas, structural patterns, punctuation and kind of the poem.

Sound:

Sound is the *music* of the text and consists of alliteration (assonance and consonance), stress patterns, rhythm and rhyme and the fastness or slowness of the poem.

Words:

Words are the *lexis* of the text and consists of simple or complex, given or new (familiar and unfamiliar), concrete or abstract and meaning suggestions in the texts.

Images:

Images are the *figures* of the text and consist of connotations (implicatures), similes, metaphors and other tropes.

Tone:

Tone is the *aura* of the text and consists of light or serious, elegiac or panegyric, lyrical or admonitory, ironic and straightforward features of the tone of the texts.

Content:

Content is the *message* of the text and consists of realistic, mythical, time and place, and descriptive features of the texts.

Extra Textual Level of Analysis:

This level of analysis concerns the coherence of the texts at both sides: the knowledge presented in the text in one hand, and the readers knowledge of the world consists of age, sex, race, nationality education, religious and political ties and values of him/her in another hand. Coherence with implicature constructs the pragmatics of the text. The pragmatics of the text shows the extra-textual level of analysis.

C. The Kite Runner

This novel is an epic tale of fathers and sons, of friendship and betrayal that takes us on a journey in Afghanistan from the time of the monarch's overthrow to the tyranny of the Taliban. "*The Kite Runner* is a novel about friendship, betrayal, and the price of loyalty. It is about the bonds between fathers and sons, and the power of their lie. Written against a history that has not been told in fiction before, *The Kite Runner* describes the rich culture and beauty of a land in the process of being destroyed (Kohistani, 2005)."

The Kite Runner derives its name from an ancient Afghan hobby of dueling kites. Kite flyers attempt to down their opponent's kites. In most cases, the kite flyer is encouraged to duel aggressively at high altitudes by the 'string giver' who usually holds the string reel while the hands of kite flyers are cut by the ground glass coating of kite string. When

the opponent's kite has been downed, then the real battle turns into a race, the kite run, to see who retrieves the fallen kite (Kohistani, 2005).

D. Khalid Hosseini

Khaled Hosseini is the first Afghan-American writer to publish a work of fiction in English in the United States. *The Kite Runner* is Hosseini's first novel, and his book has achieved a significant amount of success since its publication in 2003—now in its seventeenth printing with over 1.4 million copies sold—and has repeatedly appeared on the *New York Times* Best Sellers List over the last three years. Even though bookstores and libraries have been inundated with literature about Afghanistan and Iraq (post-9/11), none appear to have achieved the same amount of recognition or success as *The Kite Runner* (Kohistani, 2005).

III. METHODOLOGY

The materials of this study comprise the songs of the novel named *The Kite Runner* by Khalid Hosseini in English and their translation in Persian by Mehdi Ghabraie. This research is going to analyze the data by the means of Vahid Dastjerdi's (2008) proposed model for poetry translation at both textual and extra-textual levels.

This study is a descriptive-analytical one; the original text with its Persian translation was comparatively analyzed as in the following steps:

- Studying the text exactly and isolating the items under study.
- Gathering the data and analyzing it on the basis of the proposed model.
- Representing conclusions.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this section, the analysis of poetry *the Kite runner* by *Khaled Hosseini* will be represented.

A. First Anthem

English Text:

If thou art indeed my father, then hast thou stained thy sword in the life-blood of thy son. And thou didst it of thine obstinacy. For I sought to turn thee unto love, and I implored of thee thy name, for I thought to behold in thee the tokens recounted of my mother. But I appealed unto thy heart in vain, and now is the time gone for meeting... (Hosseini, 2003)

Persian Text:

بدو گفت ارایدون که رستم تویی
بکشتی مرا از بنخویی
ز هر گونه بودمت رهنمای
نجنبید یک ذره مهرت ز جای
چو برخاست آواز کوس و از درم
بیامد پر از خون دوزخ مادرم
همی جان از رفتن من بخت
یکی مهره بر بازوی من بیست
مرا گفت کاین از پدر یادگار
بدار و ببین که اید به کار
کنون کارگر شد که بی کار گشت
پسر پیش چشم پدر خوار گشت
(Ghabraei, 2006)

Textual Analysis:

In this part, alliteration (assonance and consonance) and rhymes are considered in Persian poetry and its English translation.

First Stanza:

Regarding music, in the first, second and third stanzas can find some cases of alliteration. Alliteration (assonance and consonance) and rhymes are considered both in English and Persian translation of the Poetry. There are two main translation strategies represented in this couplet. There is rhythm between /toy/, /badkhoy/, /rahnamay/ and /zejay/.

There is rhythm in the last Persian verse between /yadgar/, /kar/, /bikar/ and /khaar/.

Consonance in Persian: /r/ in /araydun/, /rostam/, /mara/, /rahnamay/, /mehrat/, /barkhast/, /daram/, /madaram/, /raftan/, /mohre/, /mara/, /pedar/, /yadgar/, /bedar/, /kar/, /kargar/, /bikar/, /pesar/, /pedar/, /khaar/.

Assonance in Persian: /aa/ in words like /Maraa/, /Jaay/ and /Jaan/.

Consonance in English: /r/ in English translation: /Art/, /Father/ and /Sword/.

Assonance in English: /aa/ in words: /Art/, /Father/, /Life-blood/ and /a/ in /hast/.

Second Stanza:

Consonance in Persian: /r/ in /Barkhast/, /Daram/, /Madaram/, /Raftan/, /Baar/, /Mara/, /Pedar/, /Yadgar/, /Bedar/, /Mohre/ and /Baar/.

Assonance in Persian: /aa/ in words: /Barkhaast/, /Avaaz/, /Madaram/, /Jaan/, /Baazuy/.

Consonance in English: /r/ in words: /For/, /Turn/, /Implored/, /For/, /Recounted/, /Mother/.

And /t/ in words: /sought/, /Turn/, /Thee/, /unto/, /Thee/, /Thy/, /Thought/, /To/, /thee/, /Tokens/, /Recounted/.

Assonance in English: /aa/ in words: /I/, /Unto/, /love/, /I/, /Thought/, /Tokens/, /Mother/.

Third Stanza

Consonance in Persian: /r/ sound in words such as: /Mara/, /Pedar/, /Yadgar/, /Bedar/, /Kar/, /Kargar/, /Bikar/, /Pesar/, /Pedar/, /Khaar/ and /sh/ sound in words: /Shod/, /Gasht/, /Pish/, /Gasht/.

Assonance in Persian: /aa/ in words like: /Maraa/, /yadgaar/, /Bedaar/, /Aayad/, /Kaar/, /Kaargar/, /Bikaar/, /Khaar/.

Consonance in English: /r/ in /Heart/ and /For/.

Assonance in English: /aa/ in English translation of words: /but/, /unto/, /heart/, /time/.

Tropes:

The most significant elements in literary works are tropes or figurative features. This literary work by *Khaled Hosseini* riches with such literary terminologies: metaphor, simile, allusion, synesthesia and so on. The translator should use various techniques and devices to translate his text.

First Stanza:

In Persian translation there are rhymes between words: /toyi/ and /badkhoyi/.

Second Stanza:

Metaphor: in Persian translation “Aavaaz-E koos” is metaphor from the sound of token.

Personification: in Persian translation “khooon-e doozakh” is personifying heal.

Between the words: /daaram/, /maadaram/, /bekhaast/, /bebast/ there is rhyme.

Third Stanza:

In third stanza /bekhaast/ and /bebast/ are rhymes.

Paradox: there is a contrast between /kaargar/ and /bikaar/ in Persian translation.

Extra Textual Analysis:

In this anthem the poet tries to make image of the scene of war for the readers. He explained every stage step by step. In first stanza he represented “Najonbid mehrat ze jay” in Persian translation. He connotatively represented the exasperation of antagonist in this way.

In the second stanza the poet pragmatically in metaphorical terminology of “Avaz-e koos” established to order in which it likes the cough tuned.

In English translation, the concept “father” is transferred, but in Persian text the name of Rostam is brought. The son, became despised in father’s mind. The concept is so different from English translation, which is mentioned in the translation. The hemistich four and five not translated precisely.

B. Second Anthem

English Text:

Make morning into a key and throw it into the well,

Go slowly, my lovely moon, go slowly.

Let the morning sun forget to rise in theeast,

Go slowly, my lovely moon, go slowly. (Hosseini, 2003)

Persian Text:

صبح را تو کلیدی کن و در چاه انداز
آهسته برو ماه من آهسته برو
نگذار که خورشید درآید ز چه مشرق باز
آهسته برو، ماه من، آهسته برو
(Ghabraei, 2006)

Textual Analysis:

Alliteration in this anthem is seen. So in:

First Stanza:

Consonance in Persian: /k/ in words: /kelid/ and /kon/.

Assonance in Persian: /aa/ in words: /raa/, /chaah/, /andaaz/, /aahesteh/, /maah/ and /aahesteh/.

Consonance in English: /m/ in words: /make/, /morning/, /my/, /moon/.

Assonance in English: /o/ in /morning/, /into/, /throw/, /into/, /slowly/, /lovely/, /go/.

Second Stanza:

Consonance in Persian: /sh/ in words: /khorshid/, /baaz/ and /s/: in words: /aahesteh/, /aahesteh/.

Consonance in Persian: /aa/ in words: /daraayad/, /baaz/, /aahesteh/, /maah/, /aahesteh/.

Consonance in English: /t/ in words: /let/, /forget/, /theeast/. And /m/ in: /make/, /morning/, /my/ and /moon/.

Assonance in English: /o/ in words like: /morning/, /into/, /throw/, /go/ and /show/.

Tropes:

First Stanza:

Simile: in Persian Translation “sobh raa to kelidi kon”, so morning is like a key which throw it into the well.

Repetition: /Aahesteh/ and /Boro/.

Second Stanza:

Illusion: "khorshid dar aayad ze che mashregh baz", represents arise of sun in the morning from east.

Repetition: /Aahesteh/ and /Boro/.

Extra Textual Analysis:

In this anthem, in first stanza, the poet pragmatically illustrates that he is immovable in his purpose and steady to achieve it. In second stanza, he connotatively explains to the reader that he does not cause the problems challenging and complicating, and try to solve it easily. The Persian and English readers know definitely, sun rises from the east, but the poet pragmatically represented that. Problems does not complicate, and not to challenge them, and solve them easily especially for the reader in his real life.

In verse one and hemistich four, form and meaning have translated in English correctly. In second verse, the poet brought the verb in negative form, but in English, it is translated positively.

Through this strategy, the author have tried to make positive effect on his reader. So, he have selected the positive verb, not negative one in his translation.

C. Third Anthem

English Text:

The desert weed lives on
but the flower of spring blooms and wilts.
Such grace, such dignity, such a tragedy. (Hosseini, 2003)

Persian Text:

گل بستان دو روزی بیش نیست عمر اما،
گون در قیل کوهستان دوام آرد به سالی
چه جلالی، چه وقاری، چه مصیبتی
(Ghabraei, 2006)

Textual Analysis:

There are alliteration in these two stanzas. So:

Consonance in Persian: /S/ in: /Bostan/, /Nist/, /Kuhestan/, /Saali/.

Assonance in Persian: /Aa/ in: /Bostaan/, /Amaa/, /Kuhestan/, /Davaam/, /Saali/, /Jalaali/, /Vaghaari/.

Consonance in English: /L/ in /lives/, /flower/, /blooms/, /wilts/ and /r/ in /grace/, /tragedy/.

Assonance in English: /e/ in /desert/, /lives/, /the/, /flower/, /weed/, /grace/, /tragedy/.

Extra Textual Analysis:

In the poem analyzed above, the poet pragmatically sets forth ephemeral and transient of life and mortal of this world.

In first text, in first hemistich, there is "Bostan" which is translated to "desert" in second text, have paradox from the direction of meaningfully. In the other aspect, in the first text, has brought, the life is just short and in two days, but in English translation, it is translated, in which we live in weed and not just in duration of short life definitely. In first text, in first hemistich, which is brought "Gavan" in mountains, enduring the year, But, in English translation, it is brought, just the flower make bloom in spring and wilts. So, in English translation, we do not have any hint to during the time "Gavan" can live. In Persian text, it does not any hint to the spring and blooming of the floor.

D. Forth Anthem

English Text:

Give ear unto the combat of Sohrab against Rostam, though it be a tale replete with tears, "I began." It came about that on a certain day Rostam rose from his couch and his mind was filled with forebodings. (Hosseini, 2003)

Persian Text:

کنون رزم سهراب و رستم شنو
دگرها شنیدستی این هم شنو
یکی داستان است پر آب چشم
دل نازک از رستم آید به خشم
زموید بدین گونه برداشت یاد
که رستم بر آراست از بامداد
غمی بد دلش ساز نخجیر کرد
کمر بست و ترکش پر از تیر کرد
(Ghabraei, 2006)

Textual Analysis:

In this part, alliteration (assonance and consonance) and rhymes are considered in Persian Poetry. Regarding music, in the first stanza we can find some cases of alliteration.

First Stanza:

Consonance in Persian: /Sh/ in /sheno/, /shenidasti/, /sheno/ and /Ch/ in: /Cheshm/, /Khashm/ and /S/ in: /Dastan/, /Aast/, /Rostam/.

Assonance in Persian: /aa/ in /Sohraab/, /Degarhaa/, /Daatan/, /Aab/, /Naazan/, /Aayad/.

Consonance in English: /t/ in words: /unto/, /combat/, /against/, /Rostam/.

Assonance in English: /O/ in /Unto/, /Combat/, /Sohrab/, /Rostam/, /Though/, /On/, /From/, /Forebodings/, /About/, /Rose/, /Couch/.

Second Stanza:

Consonance in Persian: /D/ in /moobad/, / Bedingone/, /Bardasht/, /ziyaad/, /Bamdad/, /Baad/, /Delash/, /Kard/, /Kard/.

Consonance in English: There is no case of consonance in English.

Assonance in English: /O/ in /About/, /on/, /Rostam/, /Rose/, /From/, /Couch/, /forebodings/.

Assonance in Persian: /Aa/ in /Bardaasht/, /Yaad/, / Bamdaad/.

Tropes:

First Stanza:

Rhyme: /Chashm/ and /Khashm/.

Metaphor: "del naazok".

Repetition: /Sheno/ and /Sheno/.

Second Stanza:

Rhyme: /yaad/ and /Bamdaad/, /Nakhjir/ and /Tir/.

Extra Textual Analysis:

In this anthem in first stanza, the poet tries connotatively illustrates expiration of Rostam even "cheshm-e del" which is the metaphor of intelligence which is cried from the expiration of Rostam and the description of his wrath. In second stanza the poet pragmatically tries to illustrate the preparation of Rostam from morning for the war. In the third stanza the poet illustrates the description of the war which Rostam was alone and decided ready to it, and the situation of the war, in which the Rostam was stressful and excited and stimulating mood of him in environment of the war, which described by the poet inward and outward.

In second hemistich in first verse in Persian text, it is brought which the Rostam even insight and intelligence, make wrath, but in English translation, just the author said that, the eyes filled with tears, and not to confabulate from the Rostam.

In second verse, in Persian text, it is said that, the Rostam have prepared for war in morning, but in English translation, not to converse of morning, and have finalized the translation with certain day. In third verse in Persian text, it is also said that, the Rostam wearing a girdle and filled his helmet, and he has special sorrow in his heart, but in English translation, not to gab with it, and it is just translated that, his mind was filled with the forebodings.

E. Fifth Anthem

English Text:

On a high mountain I stood,
And cried the name of Ali, Lion of God.
O Ali, Lion of God, King of Men,
Bring joy to our sorrowful hearts. (Hosseini, 2003)

Persian Text:

سر کوه بلند فریاد کردم
علي شیر خدا را یاد کردم
علي، شیر خدا یا شاه مردان
دل ناشاد ما را شاد گردان
(Ghabraei, 2006)

Textual Analysis:

First Stanza:

Consonance in Persian: /k/ in /kouh/, /kardaam/, /yaad kardaam/.

Assonance in Persian: /aa/ in /faryaad/, /khodaa/, /raa/, /yaa/, /Faryaad/, /yaad/.

Consonance in English: /m/ in /mountain/.

Assonance in English: /o/ in /on/, /mountain/, /stood/ and /i/ in /I/, /high/, /mountain/.

Second Stanza:

Consonance in Persian: /sh/ in /shir-e khodaa/, /shaah/, /naashaad/, /shaad/.

Assonance in Persian: /aa/ in /shir-e khodaa/, /shah/, /mardaan/, /naashaad/, /shaad/, /maraa/, /gardaan/.

Consonance in English: /m/ in /name/.

Assonance in English: /o/ in /of/, /lion/, /God/ and /e/ in: /cried/, /name/ and /i/ in: /cried/, /Ali/, /lion/.

Extra Textual Level:

In the poem the poet pragmatically assist from Imam Ali the first pioneers of Shia. The Persian reader of this poem know perfectly about the main idea of the Poet and claims get assist from existence of Imam Ali, but the English reader of the poem did not know the background of religious message of it as Persian reader. So, whenever the poet says "Lion of God" the Persian reader gets the main idea of the Poet definitely but the English reader might not get it perfectly. But the main idea of the poet is to let one's assistance from Imam Ali especially for the reader.

In Persian text, punctuation in first and second hemistich is so different and varied. In English translation, in first hemistich have translated, the person in high mountain, and after that the author and/or translator used comma (,), and

then he mentioned, the name of Imam Ali, which is cried. But, in Persian text, it is just said that, in a high mountain, the person cried and then used comma, and called to mind, the Imam Ali, the lion of God.

In English translation, in the first hemistich, with the assisting of punctuation, the author or translator tried to use “expanding” in his translation. In second verse, the translator does not used punctuation in his translation, but in the previous hemistich of it, punctuation tools in his translation is used. It would be better use punctuation in both of them.

V. CONCLUSIONS

We discussed in this study on the anthems from the kite runner of Khaled Hosseini based on Vahid Dastjerdi's proposed model of poetry translation (2008). We found these conclusions in both textual and extra-textual analysis for each poem. In anthem one, we represented textual analysis for alliteration for assonance and consonance and rhymes. In every three stanzas we have consonance in /r/ and /aa/. So, the frequency of /r/ in consonance and /aa/ in assonance are the most. In extra-textual analysis we found in both the description and image of scene in the war in first stanza and metaphorical terminology in second stanza both in ST and TT. But, in TT we found some deletions and lexicological replacements.

In anthem two, we have alliterations in Assonance and Consonance. But we take the frequency of assonance /o/ in English translation more than the other in textual analysis. And in extra-textual analysis the poet decides describe the solution of the problems would be easy if the reader not to challenge his/her problems and he/she can find the solution easily. And this system is rendered to the translation correctly.

In anthem three, the alliteration in assonance /aa/ has the most frequency in textual analysis. And in extra-textual analysis the poet illustrated the ephemeral of mortal life of this world. In TT the translator could render this thoughts correctly.

In anthem four, the alliteration assonance /o/ and /a/ have the most frequency in textual analysis. And in extra-textual analysis, the translator described the scene of war, wrath, and solitude of Rostam pragmatically. In TT, the translation cannot show the turning points of Persian poetry in English and there was time and lexical problems in translation and cannot render the feeling better.

In anthem five, the alliteration assonance /o/ and /aa/ have the most frequency in textual analysis. And in extra-textual analysis the poets represented the phrase “Lion of God”, which the Persian readers get the main idea of the poet and take assistance from Imam Ali. In TT, the translator rendered correctly the ST willing but we saw the punctuation differences both in ST and TT.

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The Acquisition of Words' Meaning Based on Constructivism*

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Abstract—Students do need opportunities and guidance to acquire the meaning of the word and make the words active. Constructivism stresses that word meaning cannot be assimilated by the child in a ready-made form but have to undergo a certain development. The acquisition of the words meaning depends on the cooperation between the student and the teacher. The aim of this paper is to expound how we can take advantage of the theory of Constructivism to help the students acquire the meaning of the words. Constructivists hold that education should be concerned with helping people to make their own meanings and teachers should present learners with problem-solving activities. Students are hosts. Teachers are instructors and helpers. They emphasize students' important role in learning. Only when we adopt this, can we improve students' thinking ability and realize the sustainable development in students' acquisition of vocabulary.

Index Terms—words' meaning, acquisition, constructivism, assimilation

I. INTRODUCTION

Constructivist theories have formed the bedrock of popular educational theory. To the constructivist, learning is essentially a matter of storing information for later recall. The typical school curriculum is based on a structure where important knowledge is identified for the students to acquire, often expressed in the form of task analyses and behavioral objectives. Based on these, nowadays, the predominant and typical teaching model is direct instruction model, meaning that the teacher's central role in the classroom is to transmit knowledge to learners and students must directly absorb information. Instructivists emphasize that the student's role is reception and compliance, while teachers' performance in front of students is critical. Under the guidance of this model, in many school districts, teachers are evaluated for their ability to establish "effective" eye contact, use different kinds of questions, and so forth. The whole teaching process is a process of disassembling knowledge into small bits for students to comprehend.

The traditional model of teaching vocabulary attaches too much importance to teachers' role and neglect the students' creativity and activeness. The result of the traditional teaching model is that students memorize English words in isolation seldom linking words' meaning with their actual need. This kind of learning makes students' active vocabulary very limited. Their limited active vocabulary hinders them from speaking fluently and writing appropriately. So what students need is not only to broaden their vocabulary but also to change their passive vocabulary into active vocabulary in order to express themselves more clearly and appropriately in a wider range of situations. In order to attain this aim, when words are taught, teachers should not only be concerned with students understanding of the meaning of the words, but also the understanding of the contexts in which the words are used. Cognitive theories, perceive learning of any other kind as a meaningful process and involves the establishment of a relationship between the word outside and the word meaning in the cognitive structure which reside in the mind of the learner.

II. REPRESENTATIVES OF CONSTRUCTIVISM

Constructivism emphasizes the importance of what the learner to any learning situation as an active meaning-maker and problem-solver. The learners play the central role in classroom teaching. Teachers must emphasize the critical role that experiences or interactions with the surrounding environment play in students' learning. The following are the Representatives of Constructivism concerned with the acquisition of words' meaning. All the cognitive approaches or models are closely related. When one is used, the others are also embedded in it.

In Piaget's theory, assimilation is the process by which incoming information is changed or modified in our minds so that we can fit it in with what we already know (Piaget, 1972). Accommodation, on the other hand, is the process by which we modify what we already know to take into account new information equilibrium between subjects (Piaget, 1972). To Piaget, learning process occurs just because of the reciprocal effects of assimilation and accommodation, constantly forced to attain an active and objective states.

Vygotsky's most widely known concept is probably the zone of proximal development (Williams, M. & Burden, R. 1997). It suggests that the teacher should set tasks that are at a level just beyond that at which the learners are currently capable of functioning, and teach "principles that will enable them to make the next step unassisted" (Williams, M. &

* This paper is funded by the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities.

Burden, R. 1997, p. 66). In other words, the tasks chosen by the teachers must be challenging to the students. In this way, students' cognitive ability can be cultivated.

Ellis (2003) thinks that "connectionism emphasizes the interaction between linguistic knowledge and real world knowledge" (P.22). Lewis (1993) mentions in early period of studying, we should provide students with linguistic materials from the real world. According to Elman et al (1996), the expansion of the new words is to assimilate the new words into the neural networks. The connectionist theory assumes that lexical information is stored in networks of nodes. The process of creating (binding) form-meaning relationships occurs when neural networks are strengthened over time as the learner frequently encounters the item in the input. Connectionist view of lexicon not only explains how lexical knowledge is constructed and acquired, but also has a profound influence on the teaching of English vocabulary.

III. EXPERIMENTS

The current research is an experimental study focusing on the applicability of cognitive approaches or models to the acquisition of words' meaning. It aims at raising learners' awareness of expanding their active vocabulary and promotes the students' language competence. An experimental group is involved in a one-term training program apart from traditional instructions, while a control group is only exposed to the latter.

1. Objective

The objective of this experiment is to find out whether there was strong evidence to infer that the new teaching approaches to vocabulary were superior to the traditional one in developing students' acquisition ability of words' meaning.

2. Subjects

Subjects are 2013 freshmen from two parallel classes in Dalian University of Technology.. One class consists of 38 students, while the other contains 37 students. The two classes are both non-English majors. The average scores of vocabulary of the two classes in the pre-test are 10.4 and 10.5 (the total is 20) respectively. Their starting-point is the same. In order to make the experiment more accurate and convincing, thirty students are selected in each class. The students are listed according to their academic number. Among every five students, the first four are chosen and the last one is dropped. For the first class, the first two students of the last three are chosen. For the second class, the last two students are chosen. They are taught by the same teacher and have four classes every week.

3. Procedures

The experiment extends from September of 2013 to July of 2014. During this year, both classes receive two-period teaching on vocabulary every one week. The experiment consists of four processes:

(1) Before the experiment, a pre-test is used to find out whether the students have a good command of English words, and whether there are any differences between these two classes.

(2) And then practice two teaching methods independently in the chosen classes. In experimental class, concept attainment model is used. In the other, traditional teaching model (direct instruction model) is used.

(3) After teaching each unit, a post-test is followed to find out whether concept attainment model is effective in vocabulary teaching.

4. Experimental Instruments

A pre-test before training is designed dealing with how proficient the students are in commanding the words, to know whether these two classes are in the same starting-point. The students of these two classes are told that they should treat the test seriously because it is closely related to their final score. And they are monitored by two teachers. So the result is very convincing.

A post-test is designed to inspect whether there is any difference in the commanding of English words between the experimental classes and control classes, after training in a complete distinctive way.

5. Purpose and Hypotheses

Different teaching approaches are adopted in the above-mentioned two classes to inspect which approaches are more effective in helping the learners to acquire the new vocabulary and activate their old vocabulary. Prior to conducting the experiment, two hypotheses are made. One is null-hypothesis. The other is alternative-hypothesis.

(1) Null-hypothesis: the new teaching model which is based on the cognitive theories are less effective in vocabulary teaching than direct instruction model which is adopted widely nowadays by most of the teachers.

(2) Alternative-hypothesis: the new teaching model based on the cognitive theories is more effective in vocabulary teaching than the traditional approaches. They can really contribute to the improvement of the learners' language competence.

6. Teaching Practice

The whole process of teaching based on cognitive theories is presented in details. And all the above-mentioned theories are employed in the process. Since the traditional approach is familiar to us, it will not be presented in details.

Class task is that students find the contexts in which the words are used and activate their passive vocabulary. Teachers present the definition and explanation of the words, and ask questions concerned with the words learnt. Students provide examples and contexts in which words are used. Through the interaction among the students and the interaction between the teacher and the students, students acquire the usage of the words and learn the related contexts.

The final task is to write and translate a short paragraph. It is expected that this writing and translation should enable students to use the vocabulary they have studied in a realistic context, and that they could be motivated to learn even more vocabulary they feel they need to accomplish the task. The completion of the final task for homework will also help to reinforce and revise the vocabulary learnt, giving students a better chance to store the items in their long-term memory. The final task will be explained before the teaching of vocabulary in which they should notice what kind of context the words are used in.

(1) Class Presentation

Experimental class is given courses as followings by focusing on students' cognitive development. Take unit two in College English (Integrated Course 1) published by Shanghai Language Education Press as an example to show how the course is conducted based on the cognitive theories. The procedure of instruction is given to a full play.

(1) The Procedure of Instruction

First, divide all the words into six groups according to the different features of the words through group discussion and the interaction among the students and between the teacher and the students. The result of the classification is listed in Class Presentation.

Second, help the students acquire the different features of words in each group through class activities.

Finally, let the students write and translate a short paragraph. Students are required to employ the new words as many as possible in their paragraphs and translations.

II. Class Presentation

The First Step: group the words

Six Groups:

Group One: words carrying connotative meanings: urge, or something, kid, guy, kind of or sort of, shrug, urge, hang out

Group Two: words associated with the rules of the formation of the words: available, neighborhood, sorrowful, unpack

Group Three: words having synonymous relations: estimate, keep up, correspondence, a couple of, postpone

Group Four: hyponymy: tough, awful, skip, available

Group Five: verb Phrases: come up, go by, choke up

Group Six: words concerned with collocations: be lost in, go ahead, know by heart, might just as well, practically, all the way, lose touch, on one's mind, keep in touch with, reference, absolute, reunion, every now and then, mostly, in the distance, right away, unpack

The Second Step: class activities:

Group One:

Connotative meaning: the meaning of a word is primarily what it refers to in the real world. This is often the sort of definition that is given in a dictionary. A less obvious component of the meaning of an item is its connotation: the associations, or positive or negative feelings it evokes, which may or may not be indicated in a dictionary definition. So a more subtle aspect of meaning that often needs to be taught is whether a particular item is the appropriate one to use in a certain context or not. It is useful for a learner to know that a certain word is common, or relatively rare, or tends to evoke positive feelings or negative feelings or tends to be used in writing but not in speech, or is more suitable for formal than informal discourse, or belongs to a certain dialect.

For this group of words, the Piaget's concept attainment approaches, interactionist approaches and connectionist approaches are employed.

Example: the teaching of the verb "urge" is presented as follows:

First, teachers guide the students to pay much attention to the English explanation of urge "try very hard to persuade". And then let the students to provide examples through discussion. Students list the following examples (some grammatical mistakes have been corrected).

- [1] He urged me to accept his invitation.
- [2] They urged us to go with them.
- [3] Salesmen usually urged people to buy the things they sell.
- [4] My mother urged me to do my homework.
- [5] Who urged you to do such things?
- [6] I was urged to do the things against my will.
- [7] He was urged to steal the money.
- [8] Children are easy to be urged.
- [9] Workers are urged to finish the work quickly.

Students are required to discuss all these examples and point out the examples that evoke positive feelings and the examples that evoke negative feelings under the guidance of the teacher.

The result is as follows:

Examples (evoke positive feelings)

[1][2][4][9]

Examples (evoke negative feelings)

[3][5][6][7][8]

After that, the teacher points out that [1][2][4][9] are good examples while [3][5][6][7][8] are wrong examples. And

then let the students summarize the attributes of the word “urge”, that is, “urge ” can evoke positive feelings in both speakers and listeners. In conclusion, it has positive connotation. In the situation of [3][5][6][7][8], students better use the word “induce”. “induce” also means “persuade”, but it carries negative connotation.

Mixed Examples:

[10] The leader urged us to hand in our reports.

[11] Three men urged the old lady to buy their rings.

[12] The children are urged to put on their clothes quickly.

[13] The children are urged to steal the apples.

Students identify that [10][12] are the examples for the word “urge” easily. Then let the students use “urge” and “induce” to fill in the blanks.

[14] The trade unions _____ the employer to invest more money in workers.

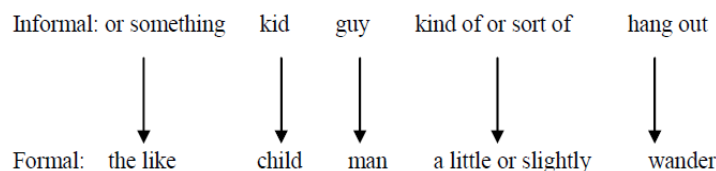
[15] As the competition becomes increasingly intense, the shops are trying all kinds of ways to _____ people to buy.

[16] If he is _____ to buy this house, we will earn more money.

[17] The researcher _____ the students who are lack of self-confidence to change their self-image.

After this practice, students can master the usage of the words “urge” and “induce”.

The presentation of the other words in this group is omitted here, because the procedures of the presentation are the same as that of the word “urge”. The only difference is that they carry different connotative meaning. All the other words except “shrug” are more suitable for informal discourse (explained in the following figure). The word “shrug” can be associated with a certain kind of attitude such as indifference or doubt.



Group Two:

The formation of the words: adding prefix or suffix before or after the words is one of the ways to expand students’ vocabulary. Usually, the prefix or the suffix has its own meaning. The meanings of the prefix or the suffix plus the meanings of the words constitute the meanings of the new words. So it’s necessary to guide the students to grasp the meaning of the new words by identifying prefix or suffix.

For this group of words, Vygotsky’s theory of ZDP, interactionist approaches and connectionist approaches are applied.

Examples: sorrowful, available

Teacher: please pay attention to the English explanations of these two words. And then point out the words which indicate the meaning of the two suffixes “ful” and “able” in the explanation.

Students: “ful” → full of

“able” → be able to be

Teacher: please, guess the meanings of the following words according to the meanings of the two suffixes and the words.

hopeful, fearful, doubtful

acceptable, reliable, usable, teachable

Students: 充满希望的, 充满恐惧的, 充满疑虑的

可接受的, 可信赖的, 可用的, 可教的

Teacher: what’s the meaning of the word “avail” according to the explanation?

Students: “avail” means “use” or “reach”.

Teacher: how to use the word “usable” or “reachable” and give examples

Students: something is usable or reachable, usable or reachable + noun (discussion)

This seat is usable. usable seat

The pen is usable. usable pen

The book is reachable

I’m reachable.

Teacher: based on the usage of “usable”, how should we use “available”

Students’ conclusion: it has the same usage as “usable”.

Teacher’s correction: seat available, pen available

Students’ examples: the book is not available in this city.

If I’m not available, please tell the news to my mother.

Is your cab available?

I’m sorry those shoes are not available in your size.

All the money available has been used.

Group Three:

Synonymy: distinguishing between the different shades of meaning that synonymous words have (e.g. extend, increase, expand). In certain contexts, synonymous words can not be exchanged. For example, while break out may have the meaning of start in a sentence like, "A fire broke out," it would be quite wrong to say, "Class breaks out at 7:30 every morning," even if it seems like it. So it's important for us to use the synonymous words in appropriate contexts.

For this group of words, Piaget's theory of Assimilation and Accommodation, interactionist approaches and humanist approaches are employed.

Example: estimate

Teacher: according to the explanation, what can you estimate?

Students: estimate the cost estimate the success of the training scheme
 estimate one's ability estimate the length
 estimate one's achievement estimate one's character
 estimate one's work estimate one's age

Teacher: "evaluate" carries the same meaning as "estimate" in Chinese, that is, "评估, 估计", but the English explanation of "evaluate" is to "find out, decide the amount or value of. Based on this, in which of the above contexts, "evaluate" can be used?

Students: evaluate one's achievement
 evaluate the success of the training scheme
 evaluate one's work

Teacher: In this kind of situation, you'd better use "evaluate" instead of "estimate".

Group Four:

Homonymy: distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form which has several meanings which are not closely related (e.g. a file: used to put papers in or a tool)

For this group of words, interactionist approaches are employed.

Example: skip

Teacher: pay attention to the Chinese meaning of the word "skip" and list the examples.

Students: [1] skip a river
 [2] skip the first two paragraphs

Teacher: let's look at the following examples and abstract the context out.

[3] skip the dull description [4] skip the unimportant details
 [5] skip a meeting [6] skip along the street

Students: [3][4]: leave out [5]: not attend [6]: jump (after discussion)

Teacher: If you get up late and you have classes in the morning, do you continue to have breakfast?

Students: no, just skip the breakfast.

Teacher: If you don't like the class, occasionally, you will-----.

Students: skip the class

Group Five:

Verb phrases: some verb phrases can be broken down into two parts. The meanings of some of the phrases are the combination of the meanings of the two parts. In this way, students can grasp the meanings and the usages of the phrases easily.

For this group of words, Bruner's theory of Learn How to Learn and interactionist approaches are applied.

Example: come up, choke up

Teacher: the meaning of the word up is "be present" "completely or totally".

Student: come up "出现" choke up "完全哽咽"

Teacher: guess the meanings of the following words.

[1] turn up [2] show up [3] use up [4] eat up [5] clear up [6] clean up
 [7] open up [8] build up [9] set up [11] bring up [12] grow up

Students: [1][2] 出现 [3] 用光 [4] 吃光 [5] 彻底清楚
 [6] 彻底打扫 [7] 全部打开 [12] 长大

Teacher: "up" also means "more and more" and "bigger and bigger".

Students: [8] 建立起来 [9] 树立起来 [11] 使-----大

Teacher: build up your vocabulary build up your body
 build up your strength build up the tension

Teacher: garbage can also refer to spiritual garbage such as crime, corruption.

In this kind of situation, how should "clean up the city or the country" be translated?

Students: 治理城市或治理国家

Group Six:

Collocations, typical of particular items, are another factor that makes a particular combination sound 'right' or 'wrong' in a given context. So this is another piece of information about a new item which it may be worth teaching. When introducing words like decision and conclusion, for example, it is noted that you take or make the one, but

usually come to the other; similarly, you throw a ball but toss a coin; you may talk about someone being dead tired but it sounds odd to say dead fatigued.

For this group of words, connectionist approaches, interactionist approaches, and Piaget's theory of Assimilation and Accommodation are applied.

Now take the word "unpack" as an example.

First, teachers list all the expressions concerned with the word "unpack" as follows:

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| [1] unpack the luggage | [2] unpack the door |
| [3] unpack the necktie | [4] unpack the bootlace |
| [5] unpack the bag | [6] unpack the window |
| [7] unpack the packet | [8] unpack the suitcase |

Next, divide the students into several groups and then let the students discuss these examples, and correct the negative examples in their own way. The corrections are like this:

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| [2] open the door | [3] open the necktie |
| [4] untie the bootlace | [5] open the bag |
| [6] open the window | |

Call one student to explain the correction.

The answer is that "luggage, packet, and suitcase" have the same attribute, that is, they can hold clothes and other things. So these three words can be used together with the word "unpack". Following this, the teacher gives the English definition: take out (things) from (a suitcase, etc). According to this explanation, students know that the word "bag" can also be used after "unpack".

Then the teacher listed the following collocations:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| [1] untie the necktie\bootlace | [2] unlock the lock |
| [3] unfasten the seat belt | [4] undress the clothes |
| [4] unload the truck | [5] unsay the words |

II The Analysis of the Data

(1) Data Obtained From the Pre-test

Testing Differences between Two Population Means

To test difference between two population means, we make:

Null hypothesis:

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

Alternative hypothesis

$$H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$

Suppose two populations are both normally distributed and their standard deviations are equal. The value of the common standard deviation (s) is estimated by

$$s = \sqrt{((n_1-1)s_1^2 + (n_2-1)s_2^2) / (n_1+n_2-2)}$$

This estimate is used in the calculation of the test statistic, t as follows:

$$t = (X_1 - X_2) / \sqrt{(s^2 / n_1 + s^2 / n_2)}$$

This statistic has a t -distribution with n_1+n_2-2 degree of freedom (df) whenever the null hypothesis is true.

GROUP DIFFERENCE IN VOCABULARY ABILITY AT THE PRETEST OF ONE LEARNING UNIT			
sample1		sample2	
\bar{X}_1	14.37	\bar{X}_2	12.77
s_1	3.26	s_2	4.23
n_1	30	n_2	30

$$(df=n_1+n_2-2=58, t=1.64, 0.05 < p < 0.1)$$

The probability of the two sample means coming from populations with the same mean is between 0.05 and 0.1. Hence we accept null hypothesis, that is, there was no significant difference in vocabulary ability between the two sample groups.

(2) Data Obtained From the Post-test

To test the effectiveness of the new approaches to vocabulary building, we designed an experiment.

Subject: two same-sized independent samples ($n=30$), with one being from a population under the new teaching guidance (sample 1) and the other coming from the traditional population (sample 2).

Problem: aiming to find out whether there was strong evidence to infer that the new method was superior to the traditional one in developing students' word-building ability in English.

Process: practicing two teaching methods independently and then holding an immediate quiz respectively at the end of one learning unit.

Tool: a paper quiz with 20 incomplete sentences, translation and writing. Students were asked to take a multiple choice to complete each statement.

GROUP DIFFERENCE IN VOCABULARY ABILITY AT THE END OF ONE LEARNING UNIT

New method		Traditional method	
\bar{X}_1	13.90	\bar{X}_2	11.86
s_1	3.09	s_2	3.26
n_1	30	n_2	30

(df=n1+n2-2=58, t=2.48, p<0.01)

From the collected data could be made a major interpretation: there was strong evidence to infer that the new method was superior to the traditional one in developing students' English active vocabulary acquisition ability. A minor discovery was that the new approaches would cause less discrete degree ($s_1 < s_2$), and therefore would be more accessible to students as a whole.

IV. CONCLUSION

The thesis has explored the scientific model of English vocabulary teaching and learning in view of the cognitive theories. Through the experiment, the conclusion is made that only when students' cognitive system is involved in learning, can students have a good command of English words.

The mistakes committed in students' compositions and translations reveal that students' active vocabulary is very limited. So it is necessary to renovate teaching approaches to vocabulary. And the result of the experiment shows the feasibility and the validity of the cognitive teaching model. The interaction is helpful for the students to construct their personal meaning of the words. Only when the students assimilated the words into their own schemata, can they use it freely.

This kind way of teaching can help students cultivate a proper learning habit. That is, they should learn the words in meaningful contexts and get rid of the habit of memorizing the words in isolation.

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Exploring the Effects of First Language Reading on Second Language Reading across Different Proficiency Levels

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Abstract—This study examines exploring the effects of first language reading on second language reading comprehension across different proficiency levels. The participants of this study are freshmen B.A students of English translation at Ramsar and Rudsar Payam nur university. In order to examine the focus of the study, different instruments were used. 118 students were selected out of 150 ones and divided into three groups based on their scores in NELSON test. This test was conducted to measure students' proficiency level and to homogenize them. Then the students were divided into three proficiency levels: beginner, intermediate and advanced. For the first part of the study, they received English cloze tests and after that, they received Persian cloze texts, which were the exact translation of English cloze tests. Paired-Samples T-Test and multiple regression were used to measure their cloze tests answers. The results showed no significant difference; hence configuring the null hypothesis of the study.

Index Terms—first language, second language, reading, reading strategies, reading comprehension, language proficiency, top-down processing, bottom-up processing

I. INTRODUCTION

Alderson (2000, p.28) explains reading as '...an enjoyable, intense, private activity, from which much pleasure can be delivered, and in which one can become, totally absorbed'. Reading is shown as an important source of intelligible input and as the ability that many strict learners would need. The second language (L2) reading process involves the interaction of two language systems. When readers read in a second language, they reach to their first language (L1) and often employ their L1 as a reading strategy, although L1 and L2 reading vary in many ways. (Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, & Kuehn, 1990; Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001). We still do not know whether L2 readers process a text similarly or differently in L1 and L2. What is needed is empirical research to investigate the matter of L1 and L2 reading comprehension processes. Those Information are needed which are about how the same readers afford with reading tasks in L1 and L2. Only empirical experiments on comprehension processes in L1 and L2 and the same individual readers provide the evidence. It is not clear whether L2 readers process a text similarly or differently in L1 and L2. There is a need for empirical research to explore the nature of L1 and L2 reading comprehension processes. Reading for general comprehension is, in its most obvious sense, the ability to understand information in a text and interpret it appropriately. However, comprehension abilities are much more complex than this definition suggests (Grabe & Stoller, 2012). The rejection or support of the hypothesis was justified by explaining the consequences of such rejection or support, i.e. what would happen if the hypotheses of the current study was rejected or supported.

In recent years, Iranian researchers have reviewed L1 reading skills and L2 reading skills and the relationship between them (Talebi, 2007, 2007, 2012; Birjandi and Marzban, 2012; Sheiei Ebrahimi, 2012; Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011; Nazary, 2008; Parvaresh & Nemati, 2008). In all these studies, Farsi language is considered as the first language and English language as the second language. In the study conducted by Talebi (2007), the participants were classified into intermediate and advanced proficiency levels. Results showed that the reading strategy knowledge can be the same in L1 and L2 at two proficiency levels of intermediate and advanced levels, however, L1 reading strategy order had different affect on the reading ability of students in L1 and L2 (Talebi, 2007). In a study of reading strategies that using a reading strategy questionnaire and a semi-structured interview, Shafiei Ebrahimi (2012) found in comparison to the other group of students, advanced proficiency students used more reading strategies in L2. There was an overlap in the types of strategies used for both L1 and L2 reading proficiency levels. The results of some studies show that the L1 reading and L2 proficiency cooperate extremely to L2 reading. Readers' L1 reading ability and L2 language proficiency contribute to L2 reading comprehension (Carrel, 1991). As cited in Cui (2008) the differences

between skilled and less skilled readers indicated that L2 reading ability could be predicted only by a difference in L2 proficiency. Research about the relationship between L1 and L2 is divided into two parts, process-oriented and product-oriented. It is of course known that L1 and L2 reading differs in many ways. We have to understand the role of L1 literacy in the development of L2 reading.

H1: The one who has a good L1 reading proficiency is more successful in reading a foreign/second language text.

H2: The proficiency of L2 influences on the L2 reading comprehension.

II. MATERIAL

The participants of this study were 150 students, both male and female, from the Payam Nour university (Rudsar and Ramsar Branches) majoring in English translation. They were between 20 to 22 years of age and they were randomly selected. One questionnaire was given to each participant to know how many languages they knew. The questionnaire was selected from NorthWestern Builingualism & Psycholinguistics Research Laboratory under the title of Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q). It was found that 118 of them were bilingual (Persian as their first language and English as their second language). The proficiency test of Nelson (section 300D) consists of grammar and vocabulary sections therefore, from among 150 students subjects, 118 subjects were chosen that each one having its own subsection. It was a 50-item test which its Grammatical section consists of sentence completion task and error recognition task. The vocabulary section consists of synonym task and Nation's vocabulary levels test. In Nation's vocabulary test, the students should find the more suitable word which matches the sentence. Then, the participants were divided into three subgroups, one beginner (n=37), one intermediate (n=43), and one advanced group (n=38).

III. INSTRUMENTATION

Each student received the same questionnaire consisting of some questions such as their name, age, and their age of access to English, their interest, etc. They would be required to answer the questions which were about their language knowledge, i.e. how many languages they know. The students which knew more than two languages, or those whose first language was not Farsi, would be removed from the sample. The questionnaire would be translated to Persian and the students would need to complete in two languages. The proficiency test of Nelson test administered to divide the participants into three groups of beginner, intermediate, and advanced. The test contained Grammatical and Vocabulary sections that each one has its own subsection. Grammatical section consists of sentence completion task and error recognition task. Vocabulary section consists of synonym task and Nation's vocabulary levels test. In Nation's vocabulary test, the students should find the more suitable word which matches the sentence. To measure L2 reading ability, English cloze test would be given to the students. Each passage was given to the students with a one week interval. The topic of the passages was according to students' interest. Persian cloze-test would be used here. It should be mentioned here that the passages use in this test were the translated versions of English passages. These passages were given to them two weeks after the last English cloze test, and each one was distributed after one week of interval.

IV. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

This study examined first and second language reading comprehension performance in relation to different proficiency levels. To achieve this goal, the subjects, were divided into three groups (beginner, intermediate, and advanced). The participants answered the questions of a questionnaire; then, the next step was answering the questions of the Nelson test as a proficiency test. Finally, the participants took the test of reading comprehension, the scores of which were compared in all three levels through statistical calculations.

A. *The Pilot Study*

In order to have essential modifications, the test have been piloted before administration of Language Proficiency Test (NELSON). The participants of the pilot study included 35 students from the same population but they didn't participate in the actual study.

B. *Design of the Study*

The methodology of this study contained a number of steps: first, 150 participants of the study were selected randomly from Ramsar and Roodsar PayamNur University and a questionnaire was given to all participants to know how many languages they could speak. 118 of them were bilingual. The second step was to administer a Nelson test as a proficiency test. The reliability of this test will be tested before. Via administering a proficiency test of Nelson, the participants were assigned into three groups (beginner, intermediate, advanced). The third step was giving three English and Persian reading comprehension texts to all three levels (beginner, intermediate, advanced). Finally, the participants' scores in both English and Persian reading comprehension texts were compared through statistical calculations.

The data obtained from testing the first and the second hypotheses of this study were analyzed via calculating the descriptive statistics as well as the inferential statistical method of Paired-Samples T-Test and multiple regression were used to measure their cloze tests answers.

Table (1) shows the descriptive analysis for the first reading and second reading in the elementary group of the study:

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA OF GROUPS

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Elemenpersian	33.84	37	1.236	.203
Elememenglish	32.11	37	2.354	.387
Secondarpersian	34.9070	43	1.44443	.22027
Secondarenglish	32.8140	43	2.35287	.35881
Advancepersian	43.6316	38	2.58291	.41900
Advanceenglish	45.5526	38	2.00940	.32597

Table (1) indicates that the number of participants in elementary (beginner) level is 37 (N=37), secondary (intermediate) level is 43 (N = 43), and the advanced level is 38 (N = 38). The means of elementary group are 33.84 and 32.11 (Xelemenpersian = 33.84) and (Xelemenenglish = 32.11); secondary group are 34.9070 and 32.8140 (Xsecondarpersian = 34.9070) and (Xsecondarenglish = 32.8140); advance group are 43.6316 and 45.5526 (Xadvancepersian = 43.6316) and (Xadvanceenglish = 45.5526). As for the standard deviations obtained for these groups, there seems to be more variability among the elementary English group scores than the scores of the elementary Persian group, more variability among secondary English group than secondary Persian group.

The following table illustrates the data for the inferential analysis of the study:

TABLE 2.
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF THREE GROUP OF THE STUDY

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	beginnerpersian	33.84	37	1.236	.203
	beginnerenglish	32.11	37	2.354	.387
Pair 1	interpersian	34.9070	43	1.44443	.22027
	Interenglish	32.8140	43	2.35287	.35881
Pair 1	advancepersian	43.6316	38	2.58291	.41900
	Advanceenglish	45.5526	38	2.00940	.32597

As is indicated in table (2), the number of participants of beginner group have been 37 (Nbeginnerpersian=37; Nbeginnerenglish= 37). The mean for the beginner Persian group is shown to be 33.84 (Xbeginnerpersian= 33.84) as compared to the mean for the beginner English group which is 32.11 (Xelemenenglish= 32.11). According to the current table, the mean of beginner group decreased from Persian reading comprehension to English reading comprehension. The number of participants of intermediate group have been 43 (NInterpersian=43; NInterenglish= 43). The mean for the intermediate Persian group is shown to be 34.9070 (XInterpersian= 34.9070) as compared to the mean for the intermediate English group which is 32.8140 (XInterenglish= 32.8140). The mean of intermediate group decreased from Persian reading comprehension to the English reading comprehension. The mean for the advance Persian group is shown to be 43.6316 (Xadvancepersian= 43.6316) as compared to the mean for the advance English group which is 45.5526 (Xadvanceenglish= 45.5526). As for the standard deviations obtained for these two advance groups, there seems to be more variability among the advance Persian group scores than the scores of the advance English group.

TABLE3.
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF GROUPS OF THE STUDY

PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF GROUPS OF THE STUDY								
	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower			
Pair 1	beginnerpersian-beginnerenglish	1.730	2.479	.408	.903	2.556	4.244	36 .000
Pair 2	Interpersian-Interenglish	2.09302	2.88522	.43999	1.20508	2.98096	4.757	42 .000
Pair 3	advancepersian-advanceenglish	-1.92105	2.75467	.44687	-2.82649	-1.01562	-4.299	37 .000

According to this table, Sig. (2-tailed) is .000 (less than .05), thus we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between the scores of beginner Persian and beginner English groups. Also, the t value is 4.244 and the degrees of freedom is 36 (df=36). The Mean decrease is 1.73 with a 95 percent confidence interval stretching from a lower bound of .903 to an upper bound of 2.556. Based on this table, Sig. (2-tailed) for the intermediate group is .000 (less than .05), thus we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between the scores of intermediate Persian and intermediate English groups. Also, the t value is 4.757 and the degrees of freedom is 42 (df=42). The Mean decrease is 2.09302 with a 95 percent confidence interval stretching from a lower bound of 1.20508 to an upper bound of 2.98096; Sig. (2-tailed) for the advanced group is .000 (less than .05), thus we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between the scores of advanced Persian and Advanced English groups. Also, the t value is -4.299 and the degrees of freedom is 37(df=37). The Mean decrease is -1.92105 with a 95 percent confidence interval stretching from a lower bound of -2.82649 to an upper bound of -1.01562.

TABLE 4.
MODEL SUMMARY OF GROUPS

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate
advanced	.136 ^a	.018	-.008	1.993
intermediate	.88 ^a	.008	-.017	2.359
beginner	.89 ^a	.008	-.020	2.378

According to this table, R Square of advanced group is .018. This means that our model explains just 1 percent of the variance in reading comprehension of advanced group and this value was too small; R Square of intermediate group is .008. This means that our model explains just 1 percent of the variance in reading comprehension of intermediate group and this value is too small; R Square of beginner group is .008. This means that our model explains just 1 percent of the variance in reading comprehension of advanced group and this value is too small.

To assess how much second language skills affect the second language reading comprehension, multiple regression was used. In table model summary, it is said that how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the model.

TABLE 5.
ANOVA^b OF THREE GROUPS

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1. Regression	1.735	1	1.735	.312	.580 ^a
Residual	222.670	40	5.567		
Total	224.405	41			
2. Regression	1.591	1	1.591	.281	.599 ^a
Residual	197.977	35	5.656		
Total	199.568	36			
3. Regression	2.768	1	2.768	.697	.409 ^a
Residual	146.925	37	3.971		
Total	149.692	38			

In this table the statistical significance is .580 (Sig=.580) and this value is larger than 0.05. So, this means that there is not any significant difference between current variables and the null hypothesis is supported. That is, in the current study the second language skills have no effect on second language reading comprehension in intermediate group. Significance of intermediate group is .599 (Sig=.599) and this value is larger than 0.05. So, this means that there is not any significant difference between current variables and the null hypothesis is supported. That is, in the current study the second language skills have no effect on second language reading comprehension in beginner group.

V. RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

The first hypothesis which targeted the effect of having a good reading proficiency on second / foreign language text was rejected. Evidence from the findings of the study could help to verify the rejection. The mean scores of the reading comprehension test in beginner and intermediate levels of the study were shown to be different (their mean was lower in English reading comprehension text than in Persian reading comprehension text). However, the advanced group outperformed in English reading comprehension than in Persian reading comprehension. As a result we can conclude that L1 reading comprehension affects more the L2 reading comprehension. The second hypothesis which targeted the effect of L2 proficiency on the L2 reading comprehension was rejected, too. According to the analyses done there was not a statistically significant difference between the current variables.

VI. DISCUSSION

Studies on reading strategies reflect a shift in attention from a focus on the product of reading, e.g., a score on a reading comprehension test, to process-oriented research which emphasise determining the strategies that readers actually use while they are reading. Reading strategies are of interest for what they reveal about the way readers manage their interaction with the written text and how these strategies are related to text comprehension (e.g., Carrell, 1989 as cited in Seng and Hashim, 2006).

As cited in Shafiei Ebrahimi (2012), The consensus among reading educators and experts is that reading is a complex, interactive process that involves features of readers, texts and tasks (Bernhardt 1995; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Maarof, 1998; Rumelhart, 1977 in Singhal, 1998). In the reading process, the reader is an active participant, constructing meaning from clues found in printed text (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Bernhardt, 1991, Carrell, 1991; Grabe, 1991; Rumelhart, 1980). In other words, meaning is not inherent in texts, rather texts have the potential for meaning (Widdowson, 1984). Reading is also an individual process that often entails different interpretations for different readers. Till now, the focus of research revolves on whether reading in one's first language (L1) is similar or different; If similar strategies are used in reading in L1 and L2. Researchers try to examine any relationship between L1 and L2 reading processes. Another hot issue is whether reading in L2 is a reading or a language problem (Alderson, 1984). If the strategies used by proficient L1 readers are transferable to reading in the L2. Both reading in L1 and L2 involve the use of various strategies that assist readers in understanding what is read (Carrell, 1991; Bosser, 1992). Studies show

that both readers' L1 reading ability and L2 language proficiency contribute to L2 reading comprehension (Carrell, 1991; Bosser, 1992).

The study is motivated by the need to make clear one of the main issues in TEFL, namely developing reading skill by removing difficulties which most teachers and students encounter in EFL classrooms. One of those obstructions has the root in text-based variables as existence of unknown and unusual words in a reading text. The second problem is related to the lack of the attention to the individual learners' wants, needs and inherent abilities in designing classroom reading activities. Pertaining to these issues, the study was set up to explore the effect of first language reading on second language reading as leading factors to overcome the problems and make the major advancement in reading comprehension achievement of the EFL learners. With regard to the correlation between scores in L1 reading and L2 reading, a few studies have shown a stronger correlation for advanced learners than for beginners (e.g., Bossers, 1991; Carrell, 1991). Other studies have shown no difference despite testing at various levels of L2 knowledge (e.g., Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Taillefer, 1996).

As Ahmadi gilani et al. (2012) had stated, the ability to recognize a text is based not only on the students linguistic knowledge, but also on general knowledge of the world and the extent to which that knowledge is activated during processing. The conclusion of all ESL/EFL investigations and the view of reading comprehension as an interactive process between the reader and the text lead to several implications for the teachers. If the unfamiliar content of a text has an effect on reading comprehension, then it must be considered as a criterion in the selection of reading materials and in the evaluation of reading comprehension.

As Cui(2008) concluded, the research into the existence of a language threshold points to pedagogical implications in a number of ways. First, this study underscores the importance of second language skills for efficient L2 reading. Second, teachers are advised to develop an awareness of students' potential reading problems in order to improve instructional process, given the complexity of the reading process per se. Third, the findings necessitated instructional endeavors to integrate reading skills and language development. L2 reading teachers must stress both the psychological and the linguistic factors. Teachers should develop a good understanding of the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and discourse cues of the target language before they attempt to teach students to utilize these cues. Meanwhile teachers should be aware that some students who know all the words and grammatical structures of a sentence or paragraph cannot comprehend what they read, which reflects the consequence of isolated learning of the language elements without understanding how to apply them to reading in a meaningful way.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study investigated exploring the effects of first language reading on second language reading across different proficiency levels. From the perspective of this study, the following field can be prospected further: 1) the time spent to read each text was not measured in each group. It showed that students reading English passages needed additional time than reading Persian passages. The reason is that some words or sentences were vague for some students and the process of the meaning of the message in the passages takes more time. The suggestion for further studies is to rate the time spent by students on reading comprehension and investigate how much this factor affects students' performance and result of the study.

2) Teachers can design different types of reading activities and materials to increase their students' understanding of these materials. In this study there was given just one kind of text was administered to students in each level with its Persian equivalent.

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Meaning in Context and Nature of Translation

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Abstract—The study of meaning is closely related to the research of context. One cannot understand the accurate meaning of a sentence without the study of context. Translation can only be conducted on the basis of right understanding of meaning in context. The paper explores culture from the aspects of context of culture (genre) and context of situation (register). Based on the ideas of functionalism, the paper tries to explain the term “equivalence” in translation in a more scientific way.

Index Terms—context, genre, register, equivalence

I. INTRODUCTION

Modern linguistics is characterized by two main directions of research: formalism and functionalism. Formalism focuses on the description of the formal features of language, while functionalism stresses the communicative function of the language form. Scholars who focus on the functions of language tend to make use of the intuitive, non-formal, and non-theoretical generalizations to explain the language facts, and avoid exact formalization. Functionalists try to analyze the base of its form, so the scopes of the interest and concerns of functionalists are much larger than formalists. The study of meaning cannot be satisfactory without the analysis of context, so this section will first explore meaning in context, and then make a study about the strategies of translation. In semantic communication, determined by the factors of context, meanings can be communicated in a ‘right’ and therefore most effective way, or in a ‘wrong’ and therefore ineffective way. If we want to make claims about the ‘acceptability’ of a sentence, a word or word order etc, we have to appeal to contextual considerations. Since the beginning of the 1970s, linguists have become increasingly aware of the importance of context in the interpretation of sentences.

II. CONTEXT

A. Genre

There are two levels of context, one is the context of culture, and the other is the context of situation. In order to understand how people use language, we need to consider both the context of culture and the context of situation. For example, we are able to communicate with the sellers when we buy things because we are familiar with what a buying and selling encounter should be like in our culture; the stages such an encounter involves, and the types of language used to achieve the stages. These particular stages are called context of culture, and in linguistics, we use the term “genre”. It can be thought as the general framework that gives purpose to interactions of particular types, adaptable to many specific context of situation that they get used in. Whatever language is being used to achieve a culturally recognized and culturally established purpose, there genre will be found. Speakers make different lexical-grammatical choices according to the different purposes they want to achieve. For example, the type of words and structures used in a translational genre will not be the same as those used in an exchanging opinion genre. Genres are realized through language, and this process of realizing genre in language is mediated through the realization of register.

B. Register

Generic considerations alone are not enough to explain how you identified the sources of the texts. Besides genre, language is mediated through realization of register. To understand what a specific word means, we should refer to the second level of context, context of situation. It is easy to recognize that language usages vary according to the different situations. Through the years, linguistic scholars have explored this field.

C. Ideas of the Three Functional Linguists

Malinowski's viewpoints

One of the first researchers to pursue this issue was the anthropologist, Bronislaw Malinowski. Malinowski is distinguished for his semantic theory, in which he illustrates context of situation and emphasizes that the meaning of the word is not related to features of the objects it refers to, but related to its function, that is: the meaning of an object is the correct use of the tool. The linguistic events are only interpretable when additional contextual information about the situation and the culture are provided. “Utterance and situation are bound up inextricably with each other and the context of situation is indispensable for the understanding of the words...a word without linguistic context is a mere figment and stands for nothing by itself, so in reality of a spoken living tongue, the utterance has meaning except in the context of situation.” (Malinowski, 1946. p307)

Firth's Viewpoints

One scholar who develops a more general theory of meaning-in-context, influenced by Malinowski, is the linguist of London school, J.R. Firth. Firth considers language as a social and signals, so he holds that the object of linguistics is language in use. According to Firth's view, expressed in an article he wrote in 1935, all linguistics was the study of meaning and all meaning was the function in a context. The mode of experience of people determines the mode of meaning. Firth studies language from a sociological point of view. Here meaning not only means lexical meaning and grammatical meaning, but also meaning in its social context. Firth maintains that the study of meaning is the center of linguistics and that meaning could be viewed in terms of what an utterance is intended to achieve rather than merely the sense of the individual words making up the utterance. Meaning could best be viewed in terms of "functions in context". According to Firth, "What I may call the total meaning of a text is the meaning in situation". (Firth, 1935. p53)

Halliday's Viewpoints

Another very influential figure is M.A.K Halliday whose influence has surpassed that of Firth. He takes over the use of "context of situation" and ultimately develops a sociologically and semantically oriented approach to linguistics. In the late 1950s and early 1960s, Halliday was working on what was then called "scale and category grammar". Since the 1970s, he has been advancing a "systemic-functional grammar" which reveals a much more overtly sociological or what Halliday has called a "social semantics" perspective. Halliday's theory emphasizes the functional aspects of language where language is seen as serving communicative purpose in society, and it emphasizes the intrinsic inter-relationship of language and society, so the study of language must be approached from a fundamentally social point view. In his "categories of the theory of grammar", he asserts that language has three primary levels: "substance", "form" and "context". "Substance" is the raw material, phonic or graphic; "form" is the organization of this material into meaningful events and context is the relationship of form to the non-linguistic features of the situations in which language operates and to those linguistic features of the situations in which language operates and to those linguistic features not immediately being scrutinized. The major contribution of Halliday's approach to context has been to argue for systematic correlations between the organization of language itself and specific contextual features.

Following the systemic-functional tradition, Halliday also asks which aspects of context are important. He is famous for introducing "register theory" which describes the impact of the immediate context of situation of a language event on the way language is used. According to Halliday "language varies as its function varies: it differs in different situations. The name given to a variety of a language distinguished according to usage is register" (Halliday. 2000, p132). It is by their formal properties that registers are defined. Halliday further classified field, mode and tenor. Mode is the amount of feedback and role of language; field is the focus of the activity; and tenor is the role relations of power and solidarity. The three factors are related to each other and mutually affect each other. Tenor is perhaps the most crucial factor on regulating the complex relationships between addresser and addressee. "Tenor" concerns the level of formality of the relation between the participants in the linguistic events. Halliday explains this with the following terms: "The language we use varies according to the level formality, of technicality, and so on. What are the variables under this type of distinction? Essentially, it is the role relationship in the situation in question. Who the participants in the communication group are, and in what relationship they stand to each other" (Halliday, 2000. p231). Tenor is closely related to interpersonal meaning, and in translation, it will affect the translation strategy.

D. *The Relation of Genre and Register*

Genre and register are at two different levels of abstraction. Genre can be seen as more abstract, more general than register. One register may be realized through many different genres, and conversely, one genre may be realized through a number of registers. Genres are traditional norms of language in use, each with its own functions and goals adopted by a given community of text users or socio-cultural groups to cater for a particular social occasion, so the features of different genres can be realized according to the context of situation-register. The relationship between genre and register can be expressed in this way: registers impose constraints at the level of discourse structure. Furthermore, genre specifies conditions for the beginning, structuring and ending of a text, and for this reason, genre, unlike registers, can only be realized in completed context. It is the register that confines the use of language directly. The more the analysts know about the features of register, the more likely they are to be able to predict what is likely to be said and in turn the more he will know how to transfer the meaning in translation, so register is a crucial factor to decide our translation strategy.

III. MEANING AND CONTEXT

Language has formal meaning and context meaning. The formal meaning of an item is its operation in the network of formal relations. The context meaning which related to extra-textual feature is an extension of the popular and traditional linguistic notion of item in its place in linguistic form. Context meaning is therefore logically dependent on formal meaning; so formal criteria are also important, taking precedence over contextual criteria, and in our study of context meaning, we could not deny the importance of "form". This paper will analyze how context affects translation strategy by analyzing how the "form" is transferred into another language.

The previous section has explained the three types of meaning defined by functional grammar. Halliday further suggests that these types of meaning can be related both "upwards" (to context) and downwards (to lexical-grammar). The upward link is that each register variable can be associated with one of these types of meanings. Thus, field is

expressed through patterns of experiential meaning in text; mode is expressed through patterns of experiential meaning in text; mode is expressed through textual meaning; tenor through interpersonal meaning; and these interpersonal meanings are realized through the mood patterns of the grammar.

Feature of the context	Functional component of semantic system
Field of discourse (what is going on)	Experiential meaning (transitivity, naming, etc.)
Tenor of discourse (who are taking part)	Interpersonal meaning (mood, modality, person, etc.)
Mode of discourse (role assigned to language)	Textual meanings (mood, modality, person, etc.)

In order to be clear, functional grammar uses this table. In fact, the three pairs mutually influence each other.

IV. NATURE OF TRANSLATION

A. *Equivalence*

All the analysis of meaning serves for the analysis of translation strategy in this paper, and now, we turn to the nature of translation. Because of the complexity of the nature of meaning, the definition and nature of translation has also puzzled many who are in and out of this field. For a long time, many scholars tried to dig into the equivalence in translation, but as we know, translation is a very complex activity, and there is no such thing as equivalence conceived as sameness across language. Besides, there is always a context in which translation takes place, which influences the decisions that the translators have to make, whereas equivalence is a static, result-oriented concept describing a relationship of “equal value” between two texts or, on lower ranks, between words, phrases, sentences, syntactic structures and so on. So using the static term “equivalence” cannot be satisfactory to describe the requirement of translation.

Through translation cannot reach the equivalence of the source and the target text, the equivalence should not be neglect entirely either. The previous chapter has examined meaning, genre, and register, and only on the basis of them, translation theory and practice can be studied scientifically. We all have the ability to predict accurately what language will be appropriated in our own specific context, but in translation which involves two languages, things become different, and the intuition may not work because one of the languages involved is not our native language. This requires us that when we translate, we have to be conscious of the context, and it is the context that helps us make acceptable decisions.

Though it is very difficult to give a satisfactory definition of translation, most translation theorists accept the main point that in translation, it is not word for word but meaning for meaning that we handle with, for words are not clear-cut and distinct entities, and each word normally does not have only one clear and distinct meaning. When we talk or write, we rarely use them in isolation, but use them in a certain environment, and this environment may cause the words to have different meaning from the meaning given by the dictionaries. As the vehicles of communication, words cannot be ignored in the research of translation, but they are not all that we should notice. We should study it in a wider range instead. According to the theories of functional linguistic, we have to study them from the inner side and outer side. What inner side emphasizes is “faithful”, and what the outer side emphasizes is the “acceptable”. It is the interpersonal meaning that is the center of the “acceptability”, and if we examine many bad translation works, we will find that the main problem is that the translators pay much attention to the form meaning, but do not pay enough attention the context meaning, much less to the importance of the interpersonal meaning.

B. *Context and Translation*

Translation theory is not only concerned with the mechanical, lower-level of the linguistic system, but also higher-order considerations of language in use and text in context. It is not the static entity that we are concerned with, but the wider environment which becomes the key factor to translation practice, understanding of translation work, and even translation teaching.

In his *Translatology*, Huang Long points out that there are three constituent ingredients in the original text: context, form and style. These three are closely interrelated and inseparably interacting. (Huang, 1987. p21-37). The relation between content and form has been discussed by many scholars, and in recent years, style aroused the interest of linguists and translation theorists. Style is the unity of the comment and the form reflecting the gusto and flavor. It is a complex term under which all kinds of factors, such as textual and contextual are involved.

Since translation involves two structures of languages, translators have to deal with the two entirely different forms on the one hand; on the other hand, they should not forget other features bound up with language of the translation, that is to say, the transmission of meaning in translation is determined by the differences of the two languages, the two authors, and two situations involved. More specifically, translation may deal with different types of works, for example, texts of economy, political essays, technical materials, legal documents and literary works, etc. the text type is at the center of contextual analysis. Translators cannot translate without the study of context, and the translation theory cannot be satisfactory without the analysis of text type. It is clear that the differences in style should be maintained in translation, and the stylistic interpretation is considered as one of the most important aspect of translation analysis in this occasion. In some sense, we can say that style is the meaning. In other words, style is an indispensable part of the message to be conveyed. Translation equivalence, therefore, can be adequately established only in terms of criteria

related to text type, and translation theory and practice has been shifted from the concern with equivalence between the source and target texts to the recognition of the need for adaptation to the target situation and purpose.

Style may be seen as the result of motivated choices made by text producers, and it is the different language usage in different situations by particular language users. To analyze different styles, the individual components must be analyzed, which together manifest certain characteristics. As Levy remarked, “we have to deal with details which are often hardly perceivable, yet are none the less significant, since they inform us about the artistic type not by means of themes, composition, and transformation of reality, but by delicate stylistic nuances”. Firth also argues this from the angle of meaning, “what I may call the total meaning of a text in situation is broken down and dispensed at a series of levels such as the phonological, the grammatical and the situational levels.” (Huang, 1987. p.18)

The analysis of translation must accompany the analysis of function, register, and style of the two languages involved. Among many different schools of translation theory, the “scopes theory” is most plausible which considers translation as a form of human interaction and, as such, determined by its purpose or scopes is the great achievement of Vermeer and Christiana Nord: the founders of scopes theory. In order to achieve a certain purpose in communication, the sender of the message has to choose certain strategies of text production considered appropriate for this purpose, so in translation practice, the translators should pay enough attention to the context of the original text, the relation between the roles, and the purpose the original text expects to achieve.

In the previous part, the paper has pointed out that it is not scientific to use the term equivalence in translation and here the scopes theory gives another term “adequacy” to displace “equivalence”. Compared with the static character of equivalence, adequacy is a dynamic concept related to the process of translation action and referring to the “goal-oriented selection of signs that are considered appropriate for the communicative purpose defined in the translation assignment” (Reiss, 1989. p.163). Equivalence at word rank does not imply textual equivalence. The scopes of translation determine the form of equivalence required for an adequate translation. In short, translation theory is conducted on the basis of contrastive linguistics and discourse analysis, and the development of translation theory can also add depth and breadth both to contrastive linguistics and discourse analysis. The following examples show that some lexical ways can express the different interpersonal meaning, and in translation, the translator must use the equivalent words in target language to express the meaning in source language. These are examples to show Lexical ways of expressing interpersonal meaning and their translation strategy:

The vocatives are a very potent area for the realization of interpersonal meanings, an area very sensitive to these contextual constraints of tenor. Now let’s look at the following examples. Although the different ways of vocative represent the same person, it is apparent that they can show quite different interpersonal meaning.

- (1) My dear baby, would you like to stop crying?
- (2) My little dear, would you like to stop crying?
- (3) My dear, stop crying, please.
- (4) Dear, don’t cry any more.
- (5) Stop crying, son.
- (6) Child, stop crying.
- (7) John, stop crying.
- (8) You little fool, stop crying.
- (9) You fool, if you don’t stop crying, I will beat you to death.

In the above examples, all the vocatives refer to the same person “John”, that is to say the ideational meaning is the same, but the communicative effect is quite different. In the first four examples, we can see the tender love of the parent to the child, and from the fifth example to the seventh one, the vocatives have the neutral meaning, but the last two examples show that the parent begins to lose his patience, and may even get angry at the baby’s crying. These examples show that we should use different vocative ways to correspond to different situations.

Translation of the 9 sentences should be:

- (1) 亲爱的宝贝，不要哭了好吗？
- (2) 小宝贝，不要哭了好吗？
- (3) 宝贝，请不要哭了。
- (4) 亲爱的，不要哭了。
- (5) 不要哭了，儿子。
- (6) 孩子，别哭了。
- (7) 约翰，别哭了。
- (8) 小傻瓜，别哭了。
- (9) 你这个傻瓜，还哭的话我揍死你。

Although the vocatives refer to the same child, the different vocatives express the feeling of the parent clearly. When translating these sentences, translators must imagine the situations where the sentences are said.

Compared with English, Chinese doesn’t have tense or inflection or finite elements, so we have to use the lexical ways to express meaning expressed by the grammatical ways in English, that is to say, we should often need to add some words when we translate from English to Chinese.

E.g. No hard feeling, I said I'm sorry, didn't I?

别生气啦，我不是说了对不起了吗？The two characters “啦” and “吗” has the feeling of soothing others, which is expressed by the tag question in English.

V. CONCLUSION

Meaning is probably the most complex term in linguistics and because of the complexity of meaning, the nature of translation becomes difficult to define. It has been proved through the history that the theory of meaning in functionalism is more scientific than that of other schools. It divides meaning in three parts and every part has its own system.

In functional linguistics, the study of meaning serves for the analysis of discourse. A successful discourse has to accomplish two tasks: one is to find the right form to express the meaning. As to the interpersonal meaning, it is to choose the suitable ways to express the sentiment or attitude of the speaker or writer. The second is that the choices should be defined by the context factors. The first task is the internal requirement and the second one is external requirement. The theory of functionalism is more scientific than the theory of formalism because it pays more attention to the contextual factors. Translation is closely connected to discourse, so a successful translation should also accomplish the two tasks: first, it should meet the internal requirement of meaning, and second it should also meet the external requirement of context. Translation is the transmission of language meaning in use, so the study of translation should adhere to the environment of language in use, context is one of the crucial factors to decide the translation strategy.

The nature of translation and the nature of the functional linguistics have some agreements on their attention of context. In recent years, many scholars have applied the theory of functional linguistics to the theory of translation. Theories of functional linguistics can provide scientific bases for translation practice.

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The Effect of Task Type on Iranian Advanced EFL Learners' Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the effect of teaching two types of tasks (multiple-choice item and sentence-writing) on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning. For this purpose, sixty students were selected out of ninety through the administration of a Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT). They were junior translator trainees with the age range of 22-26. They were then divided into two comparison groups. A pretest of vocabulary was administered to both groups. Then both groups were given a five-session treatment. One group was taught vocabulary based on sentence-writing task, and the other group was taught vocabulary through multiple-choice task. After the treatment, the same version of vocabulary test was given to both groups as posttest to check the effectiveness of the treatments. The results of paired-samples and independent samples t-tests revealed that the effect of sentence-writing task on learners' vocabulary learning was more than that of the multiple-choice task. The implications and recommendations will also be presented.

Index Terms—CELT test, EFL learners, multiple-choice task, sentence-writing, task type

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is central to English language teaching and learning because without sufficient vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. In most of the educational settings, it has been customized that language learners find it the easiest to learn new words by referring to their equivalent meaning in their own language, or resorting to antonyms or synonyms. Read (2004) states that these procedures are either time-consuming, or are considered as abstract ways of learning words, resulting in the non-durability of words. He notes that in EFL contexts, it would be effective for teachers to provide students with target vocabulary items through tasks and ask them to read only the texts that include the target words. Nation and Meara (2010) define English vocabulary as complex, possessing three main aspects which are concerned with meaning, form and use. It has also layers of meaning which are related to the stems or roots of individual words.

In a study on L2 vocabulary retention, Hulstijn (1992) concluded that using inferencing strategy to gain word meaning was much more effective than explaining it through synonyms. He noted that inferring the meaning of target vocabulary items had longer retention than when explained by their synonyms. Joe's (1995) viewpoint on the retention of unfamiliar words is notable, too. He claims that unfamiliar words are retained longer periods of time as learned through task-based activities, requiring higher level of generativity. On the importance of production-based task on vocabulary retention, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) assert that production task promote target words retention longer and better than reading comprehension or fill-in-the-blank task which is a sample of recognition task. This finding reveals that the learners who are engaged in production tasks of vocabulary learning are able to remember target words better than those who are involved in vocabulary recognition.

The main purpose and primary focus of the present study was to find out the effect of two tasks (i.e., multiple-choice-item as a recognition task versus sentence-writing as a production task) on learners' vocabulary knowledge as they encounter various contexts. These two variables and their potential interaction on each other have not been investigated thoroughly in the Iranian context yet. So the present study was going to fill this gap and shed more light on this by finding any possible effect of multiple-choice-item and sentence-writing tasks on the Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge development. Therefore, the following null hypotheses were formulated in this study:

H01: Sentence-Writing tasks do not affect Iranian advanced EFL Learners' vocabulary learning.

H02: Multiple-Choice-Item tasks do not affect Iranian advanced EFL Learners' vocabulary learning.

H03: There is no significant difference in the vocabulary learning of Sentence-Writing group and Multiple-Choice-Item group.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. The Importance of Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge is one of the merits which facilitate reading comprehension. Among EFL students, reading comprehension can be predicted to a large extent by vocabulary, letter recognition and phonemic awareness (McQuirter Scott, 2010). In addition, vocabulary knowledge promotes reading fluency, improves academic achievement and enhances thinking and communication. (McQuirter Scott, 2010). Furthermore, McQuirter Scott (2010) holds that effective vocabulary instruction, beginning in the early years, can have a significant impact on individuals' future academic field. Vocabulary instruction which is targeted at students must go beyond the level of simple word definitions.

Students can be provided multiple opportunities to examine and explore new words and concepts across the curriculum, and be encouraged to attend to word structure, the multiple meanings of words and the connotations often attached to words. Students can be trained to become critical readers in all subject areas and be aware of the influence of word choice on readers. Their achievement of vocabulary and sensitivity to word choice play a role in more efficient language processing. As learners do not have to labor over decoding and recognizing new words, they can interact with text at a deeper level, which is assumed to free them to connect with the writer's message in creative and thought provoking ways (McQuirter Scott, 2008).

Given the empirical studies carried out on EFL learners' vocabulary learning, there are some factors influencing learners' capacity and quality of vocabulary gain. In a study carried out by Dela Rosa and Eskenazi (2006), they emphasized that word complexity, on both the phonetic and semantic levels, affects L2 vocabulary learning. As Oxford and Scarcella (1994) stressed, some factors such as maturational constraints, attention, previous language background, and order of acquisition affect L2 vocabulary acquisition. Perfetti (2010) placed primary focus on the incrementing role of reading, pointing out that reading is beneficial to vocabulary acquisition. Pavlik and Anderson (2005), based on a study on the vocabulary pairs, confirmed that the number and frequency of time that a learner receives an item during learning activities could affect the durability of the words they were exposed to. Still there are some other factors which appear to affect the learnability of lexical items. Laufer (1997) indicated a specific linguistic classification that contributes to vocabulary learning. He pointed out some features such as pronounceability (i.e., phonological or supra-segmental features), orthography, length, morphology, comprising inflectional and derivational complexity that add to the vocabulary learning load, resemblance or similarity of lexical forms (like synforms, homonyms), grammar (part of speech, and semantic features).

Incidental and intentional modes of vocabulary learning are two modes of learning, each of which possesses its own characteristics. Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined incidental learning as a process by which learning items or items of information takes place without the intention of doing so. Learning takes place as the individual intends to learn another item. Studies which have been conducted indicate the relationship between incidental learning and extensive reading in that incidental learning motivates language learners to have extensive reading. Coady (2001) asserted that this kind of learning is achieved mostly through extensive reading in input-rich environments, but at a rather slow rate. Some researchers such as Day, Omura and Hiramatsu (1991), Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki (1984), and Nagy and Herman (1985) maintained that incidental learning is viewed as effective way of learning vocabulary from context. According to these researchers, incidental mode of vocabulary learning involves deeper mental processing and leads to better retention. Learners find themselves in a process in which they make attempt to grasp the meaning of words using the clues provided in the text. This kind of activity requires their cognitive process because they ponder on the new and unknown words, helping them to retain the words they are exposed to for a long period of time. In incidental vocabulary learning, since learners are involved in extensive reading, they get involved in the process of deciphering the meaning of the new words using the clues available in the text. Hulstijn and Laufer, (2001) maintain that the words that learners are exposed to in incidental vocabulary learning are retained in their long -term memory and can be used more confidently in different situations as they are needed.

B. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Stahl (1999) provided a notable suggestion, pointing out that the words that are new to students but represent familiar concepts can be addressed using a number of relatively quick instructional tactics. Many of these tactics are effective for pre-reading and oral reading. Stahl (1999) supplied a seven-component classification pertaining to strategies for vocabulary learning and development. This classification comprises word-based activities such as (a) working on synonyms, (b) working on antonyms, (c) examples provision, (d) non-examples provision (similar to using antonyms, providing non-examples requires students to evaluate a word's attributes. It gets students to explain why it is not an example), (e) constructing novel sentences (confirming their understanding of a new word, using more than one new word per sentence to show that connections can also be useful), (f) word sorting (providing a list of vocabulary words from a reading selection and have students sort them into various categories (e.g., parts of speech, branches of government), and (g) paraphrase definitions (requiring students to use their own words to define new words or state a word or an expression in more details).

Through their study, Paribakht and Wesche (1994) introduced a five-component classification of various types of L2 vocabulary exercises, comprising (a) selective attention, (b) recognition type of exercise, (c) manipulation, (d) interpretation, and (e) production exercises. They noted that the selective attention type of exercises is referred to the category of exercises designed to draw learners' attention to a particular vocabulary item. It includes presenting a list of words before a text, and asking the learners to read the words and pay attention where these words appear in the text. As

they showed, the recognition drills are designed to have learners to associate the word form and its meaning. To do this, the learners are just supplied partial knowledge of the words. The most common drills of this classification are matching a vocabulary item with synonym or definition of the word, and choosing the correct meaning of a word in a multiple choice test. Paribakht and Wesche (1994) explained that in manipulation type of exercise, learners are supposed to rearrange the elements of phrases by referring to their morphological and grammatical knowledge. One frequently-used sample of the exercise is using stems and affixes to make a complete and meaningful word. Interpretation involves making and establishing a sort of relationship between vocabulary items with other words or expressions represented in the text; the common examples of this assignment are synonyms and antonyms given in the text. As they state, Production exercises, like open cloze exercises, which are different from the previous ones, draw learners' attention to retain and reconstruct the vocabulary items, and then retrieve and make a suitable word in the text given. The extent to which, these different exercises culminate in productive gains of vocabulary knowledge and further vocabulary learning is not equal.

To infer and accomplish the meaning of unknown words, learners make use of two different types of tools which are termed word-guessing strategies and knowledge sources. Scholars such as Chern (1993), Morrison (1996), and Nassaji (2003, 2004) have identified the so-called tools that learners use in order to learn target words incidentally. Nassaji (2004) recognized and introduced three types of word-guessing strategies including Identifying, Evaluating, and Monitoring. He also establishes some certain knowledge sources which are viewed as effective in learners' process of incidental vocabulary learning and acquisition. These knowledge sources include grammatical, morphological, world, L1, and discourse knowledge.

Ahmed (2011), Khatib and Nourzadeh (2012) distinguished the concept of intentionally vocabulary learning and incidental mode of vocabulary learning. They viewed that intentional vocabulary learning can be justified based on some exercises, including word substitution, multiple choice, scrambled words and crossword puzzles, synonyms, and antonyms regardless of context. This mode of learning encourages learners to rote learning, enabling them grasp the meaning of the new words and expressions without resorting to cognitive process. They showed that intentional vocabulary acquisition involves straightforwardly memorizing terms and expressions along with their respective translations from a list. They were of the view that this sort of learning is quick and therefore usually preferred by learners, but it is also superficial. Learners encounter vocabulary in an isolated, often infinitive form and remain incapable of using it correctly in context.

C. Empirical Studies

On the importance of exercise types and their determining effect on L2 vocabulary learning, a variety of empirical studies have been carried out. The orientation of these studies has been into the context where the new or unknown words are represented. Some early researchers such as Dunmore (1989), Min and Hsu (1997), and Paribakht and Wesche (1994) emphasized the importance of applying exercises in L2 vocabulary learning. They pointed out that text-based vocabulary exercises and activities could be much more effective and efficient than the reading only the text on vocabulary learning. The findings of Amiryousefie and Kassaian's (2010) study on vocabulary retention supported the idea that vocabulary must be given in text-based exercises in that they would facilitate vocabulary learning. In addition, Llach (2009) supported the effect of vocabulary exercisers in promoting vocabulary knowledge. The ultimate goal of the findings was that using different exercises is essential and beneficial for vocabulary learning and retention.

Vosoughi and Mehdipour (2013) carried out and presented a study on the Effects of Recognition Task and Production Task on Incidental Vocabulary Learning of Iranian EFL Learners. Through this study, they investigated the effectiveness of two types of tasks (production and recognition) on Iranian EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning. In other words, the study investigated the effectiveness of each task on incidental vocabulary learning of the students. The findings of the study indicated that both treatments (production and recognition tasks) had significant effect on incidental vocabulary learning but this effect was greater in production group. Hashemzadeh (2012) conducted a study on the effect of exercise type on EFL learners' vocabulary retention targeting at elementary EFL learners' vocabulary retention. She examined the effect of recognition exercises versus production exercises in immediate and delayed vocabulary tests on English institute-level learners. The results showed that recognition exercises were more effective than production exercises in EFL vocabulary retention. Chen and Chen's (2009) study, which was concerned with investigating the effect of constructed responses and multiple-choice item types with cueing in students' vocabulary learning in a self-guided web-based language learning environment, suggested that constructed responses items had greater effect than the multiple-choice items on students' posttests (recall and recognition). Touti's (2013) research was an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of two types of tasks (fill-in-the-blank and writing) on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning. To this end, this study employed 64 Iranian intermediate EFL learners divided into two 32 experimental groups named as fill-in-the-blank and writing. The findings were in favor of the writing group, due to the laudably magnificent cognitive demand induced by such a task.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this study were sixty Iranian EFL students who were majoring in English Translation at advanced level at the Islamic Azad University, Tonekabon branch, Iran. They were junior translator trainees with the age range of 22-26. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, a model of CELT test was administered. The CELT test was given to ninety students out of whom sixty were selected based on the results of the test. That is, the students whose scores fell between one standard deviation below and above the mean were considered as participants of the study. Then, they were randomly assigned into the sentence-writing and multiple-choice-item groups.

B. Instruments and Materials

The instruments and materials used in the current study were as follows:

a) The CELT test: The CELT test for advanced level, which was administered to determine the participants' proficiency and homogeneity, consisted of two sections including vocabulary and reading comprehension. The test was in multiple-choice-item form.

b) Vocabulary pretest and posttest: The pretest included a vocabulary test consisting of 20 multiple-choice items (recognition type). The vocabulary test was determined and constructed based on the original vocabulary book entitled "Vocabulary for the High School Students" (Levine, 2011). It was a course-book on morphology that the students in the university had already passed during their course of study. The same version of vocabulary multiple-choice-item test, with rearrangement of some items, was administered as posttest to the both groups.

c) The material for the treatment: The material used in the treatment for both groups included eighty words extracted from the same native vocabulary book (Vocabulary for the High School Students) based on which the pretest and posttest were constructed. The selected lexical items were divided into five sections, each of which included 16 words.

C. Procedure

After the administration of the CELT and pretest in both groups, they underwent their treatments (sentence writing in one group and multiple-choice in the other group) for the same period of time through the same material and based on the same methodology. The material selected for this purpose included eighty words selected from a native vocabulary book entitled "Vocabulary for the High School Students" (Levine, 2011). The words selected for the purpose of the treatment were classified into five sections, each of which comprised exactly 16 words. Totally, five sessions of treatment was offered to the both groups, and each section of the words was taught in one session. The participants of the two groups were supposed to work on the material through the instructions provided to them.

The sentence-writing group was taught based on **sentence-writing** exercises as one of the independent variables. The students of this group were taught in five sessions within two subsequent weeks, including three sessions in one week and two sessions in the other week. Each session was completed by introducing exactly sixteen words which were taught to the participants of the group through a variety of sentence-writing exercises. The participants were asked to write one or more than one sentence using any of the single words given to them as the key word. They read their own sentences aloud in the treatment sessions, receiving their classmates' views and feedback. They were greatly encouraged to extract and find the meaning of the newly introduced words by referring to their definition in L2 or by resorting to their synonyms in Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary. The application of the participants' native language equivalents for the meaning of the words was strongly avoided.

The multiple-choice-item group was taught the same material but through **multiple-choice-item exercises** in exactly the same period of time like the sentence-writing group. To meet the requirements of this group, the meaning of the new words and expressions, like the other group, were clarified by definition provision or synonym replacement. The new words were offered and practiced through a variety of multiple-choice-item exercises. After the completion of treatment period for the both groups within five sessions, they were given the post-test, which was the same version of test on vocabulary administered as pretest, with a rearrangement of some items in the posttest.

D. Design

The study employed pretest-posttest comparison group design as one of the quasi-experimental designs. The independent variable of the study was task type including multiple choice and sentence-writing tasks and the dependent variable was vocabulary learning.

E. Data Analysis

The collected data were entered into the SPSS 16.0 for further analysis. An Independent-Samples t-test was used to test the null hypothesis of the study and the alpha level for significance testing was set at .05.

F. Results

This section is devoted to the description of the statistical analyses which were performed to test and answer the null hypotheses formulated for the purpose of this research.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' SCORES ON THE PROFICIENCY TEST (CELT)

N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Variance	Std. Error of Mean
60	98.68	23.00	166.00	143.00	2778.14	5.55

The proficiency test (CELT) was administered as a homogeneity test to 90 participants at advanced level, out of whom sixty were selected based on the results of the test. The mean score of the participants was 98.68 and those students whose score fell within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants of the study.

TABLE 2.
RESULT OF THE NORMALITY TEST

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Vocab. Equal Variances Assumed	.07	.78	2.94	58	.005	1.73	.58
Equal Variances not assumed			2.94	57.22	.005	1.73	.58

As given in the table above, according to the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, it can be inferred that the variance of participants has been normal ($F = 0.07$), $\text{Sig.} = .78 > .05$).

1. First Null Hypothesis

The first null hypothesis of the study suggested that sentence-writing tasks do not affect Iranian advanced EFL Learners' vocabulary learning. For this purpose, a Paired-Samples t-test was conducted. The descriptive statistics are represented in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (SENTENCE-WRITING)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PosttestSW	15.80	30	2.13	.39
	PretestSW	13.53	30	2.54	.46

Table 3 shows that the posttest mean score (15.80) of the sentence-writing group was more than their pretest mean score (13.53). The standard deviation for the posttest was less than the pretest. This may give an image of less variability among experimental group's posttest scores compared to their pretest scores. In order to find out whether there was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the sentence-writing group, the results of Paired-Samples t-test are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PAIRED DIFFERENCES (SENTENCE-WRITING GROUP)

Paired Differences						
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 PosttestSW - PretestSW	2.26	.69	.12	17.95	29	.000

As shown in Table 4, there is a significant difference, $t(29) = 17.95$, $p = .000$, between the pretest-posttest mean scores of the sentence-writing group. Therefore, the first null hypothesis of the study is rejected.

2. Second Null Hypothesis

The second hypothesis of the study was constructed on the supposition that multiple-choice-item task does not affect Iranian advanced EFL learners' vocabulary learning. To investigate this hypothesis, a Paired-Samples t-test was run for the multiple-choice group.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE COMPARISON GROUP (MULTIPLE-CHOICE-ITEM GROUP)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PosttestMC	14.06	30	2.40	.43
	PretestMC	13.16	30	2.62	.47

As the results clearly show, the mean score of multiple-choice group in pretest was 13.16 but in the posttest was 14.06. So the participants' vocabulary gain after treatment was really something to be taken into account. This clue is

considered an indicator of the rejection of the second null hypothesis. Furthermore, standard deviation (Std. Deviation) for the posttest in this group was less than that of the pretest. This may be indicative of less variability among multiple-choice group's posttest scores than that of the pretest. Likewise, the next table (Table 6) provides further clue concerning the rejection of the second null hypothesis.

TABLE 6.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST (MULTIPLE-CHOICE GROUP)

		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean		
Pair 1	PosttestMC - PretestMC	.90	1.91	.35	2.57	29 .01

As shown in Table 6, there is a significant difference, $t(29) = 2.57$, $p = .01$, between the pretest-posttest mean scores of the multiple-choice group. Therefore, the second null hypothesis of the study, which suggested that multiple-choice-item tasks do not affect Iranian Advanced EFL learners' vocabulary learning, is rejected.

Therefore, the second hypothesis is rejected.

3. Third Null Hypothesis

To examine the third null hypothesis, the researchers ran an Independent-Samples t-test. The descriptive statistics of the results are schematically represented in Table 7.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SENTENCE-WRITING AND MULTIPLE-CHOICE GROUPS IN THE POSTTEST

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SENTENCE WRITING AND MULTIPLE-CHOICE GROUPS IN THE POST						
		TaskType	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocab	SW		30	15.80	2.13	.39
	MC		30	14.06	2.40	.43

Based on Table 7, the mean of the sentence-writing (production) group in the posttest was 15.8, and that of the multiple-choice-item (recognition) group was 14.06. The results showed that the sentence-writing group outperformed the multiple-choice-item group. So, it is concluded that the sentence-writing task was more effective than the multiple-choice-item task. Furthermore, the standard deviation value for the sentence-writing group, according to the table, is less than the other group, meaning that there was less variability in the scores of the sentence-writing participants compared with those of the multiple-choice group. However, in order to find out whether there was a significant difference between the two groups' mean scores in the posttest, the results of the Independent-Samples t-test are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE SENTENCE-WRITING AND MULTIPLE-CHOICE-ITEM GROUPS IN THE POSTTEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference Std. Error Difference
Vocab.	Equal Variances Assumed	.076	.78	2.95	58	.005	1.73 .58
	Equal Variances not assumed			2.95	57.22	.005	1.73 .58

As Table 8 demonstrates, there is a significant difference, $t(58) = 2.95$, $p = .005$, between the sentence writing and multiple-choice-item groups. Therefore, the third null hypothesis of the study was rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of the study revealed that the sentence-writing task (as production task) had a significant effect on Iranian advanced EFL learners' vocabulary learning compared to the multiple-choice-item task (as recognition task). These findings seem to be in line with the research study carried out by Vosoughi and Mehdipour (2013) who investigated the effects of Recognition Task and Production Task on Incidental Vocabulary Learning of Iranian EFL Learners. Their findings indicated that production exercises had significant effect on vocabulary learning compared to recognition types of exercises. These findings are also in agreement with Chen and Chen's (2009) research whose area of study was investigating the degree of effectiveness of two modes of tasks (constructed responses versus multiple-choice item) as vocabulary learning tasks. The findings of their study confirmed that constructed responses items were more effective than the multiple-choice items on learners' vocabulary learning. In addition, the findings of this study are consistent with what Touti (2013) concluded in her study. Touti (2013) investigated the effect of fill-in-the-blank versus writing tasks on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning targeted at intermediate level. The findings of her study were in favor of the writing task; in other words, the writing task was found to have a significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning.

Therefore, the findings of this study, being in line with those of some other studies mentioned above, can be a good justification for putting more emphasis on teaching vocabulary through sentence-writing in EFL classes. As it can be inferred from the findings of this study, a production type of task like sentence-writing can be more effective than a recognition type of task such as multiple-choice in learning vocabulary in EFL classes.

V. CONCLUSION

The findings demonstrated that sentence-writing was more facilitating in the learning of vocabulary than just having learners read and learn vocabulary through recognition drills, namely, multiple-choice-item. The facilitating role of sentence writing in learning vocabulary may be somehow due to the fact that the meaning of words are not consolidated in the learners' mind unless they produce the new words in their own sentences. Requiring learners to write sentences of their own on the new words promotes learning vocabulary, as the findings of the present study show. The nature of some recognition exercises, especially, that of the multiple-choice-item drills is such that requires comprehension only, without any requirement to produce them, orally or in written form. Providing learners with production tasks (sentence writing) associated with other exercises, instead of the mere use of the exercises which rely on recognition, help learners with vocabulary learning in an effective way.

In this regard, the findings of this study can be helpful for teachers of English, syllabus designers and test designers. Teachers are supposed to provide their learners with more opportunities to practice and learn vocabulary by using sentence writing exercises rather than mere practice of multiple-choice-item drills in their classes. It will be useful that teachers provide opportunities by using different exercises in different contexts and by engaging learners in different activities and tasks to improve their vocabulary knowledge.

The importance of this idea is that learners naturally think about and practice some other contextually appropriate vocabulary while writing new and novel sentences of their own on the words. Likewise, learners are encouraged to build their vocabulary by being involved in production skills and benefiting from their already-learned vocabulary. Syllabus designers may find it as useful to provide EFL learners with curricula which rely upon production types of task in addition to recognition ones as a facilitating factor in learning vocabulary. The widely used approach for constructing and testing vocabulary in EFL contexts is multiple-choice-item type of exercise. The present study suggests that test constructors include sentence writing types of exercises associated with other exercises, rather than those with solely recognition exercises. It will be useful for test constructors to find out how well learners are able to seek for other contextually appropriate vocabulary.

This study was concerned with and conducted at Iranian advanced EFL learners. The future studies of similar nature can address other proficiency levels of the EFL learners such as intermediate or upper-intermediate learners. In this study, only sentence writing task (as production task) and multiple-choice task (as recognition task) were tested on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. The future experiments can investigate the effectiveness of other types of tasks.

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Don Quixote and the End of Knight Literature

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Abstract—Don Quixote, one of the most famous figures in world literature, was a humanist under the illusion about chivalry. This paradoxical figure combined tragic fate with comedic flavor. A chronic comment on Don Quixote by Cervantes was that it ended knight literature and started neoteric river novel. Although in the preface of this novel, Cervantes stated that his purpose of writing was to overthrow the medieval knight story, he actually held a complicated attitude toward medieval knight novel—satirized the old form of medieval knight story and discloses evil and corruption of the society, taking stereotypical chivalry as his carrier for burgeoning humanism.

Index Terms—knight literature, Don Quixote, humanism, critical theme

I. INTRODUCTION

A. A Brief Review of Knight Literature

Knight literature, also called “chivalrous man” literature, was formed from 11th to 13th century. It is the secular literature totally different from church literature. Being a special literature phenomenon of the Middle Ages, it is a product of chivalry and also the literature representing the context of its times. From 11th century to early 12th century, the feudal system was basically established in Europe and with chivalry being set up and the status of knights improved, there produced their own moral code and mental life. That has broken through Christian asceticism and birth ideas, needing to enjoy their lives, yearning for secular love, and pursuing the knight honor of individual heroism, chivalry of helping the weak and eliminating the strong and knight demeanor of being gentle and educated. “A new kind of elegant literature was formed in the heyday of knight society and the literature combined the noble spirit temperament together with the worship of love”, which is “knight literature” (Zhang, 2004).

Knight literature is most based on folklore and epic and most of its basic theme is about the determination, chivalrous adventure, noblewomen worship and supremacy of love in feudal knights, which can almost be divided into two types: one focuses on the love twists and turns between knights and noblewomen, which is often shown by lyrics. The other is about knights fighting, taking adventure and determining to be successful, which is often shown by the form of knight legend. “European Literature” says, “their poems tell about the real life and love, singing about knight’s adventure (Li, 2001).

B. The Literary Status of Don Quixote

Cervantes (1547 – 1616), the Spanish great humanist and outstanding realism writer, has been dead for 395 years, but such remarkable and typical characters as Don Quixote and Sancho Panza created by him still remain their brilliance now. When talking about their names, we will have the vivid and marvelous images in front of us. Once Belinsky said, “in all the famous literary works of Europe, the only one can combine the serious with the funny, the tragic with the comic and the trivial and vulgar in life with the great and beautiful so perfectly is “Don Quixote” of Cervantes” (Belinsky, 1952). Spanish people regard it as a national pride and all the people in the world regard it as the literary treasure. Until today, with its bitter irony, ingenious art design, funny exaggeration and profound philosophy, it still attracts lots of readers.

C. Outline of Don Quixote and Its Composing Significance

In a village of La Mancha, Spain, there lives a poor country gentleman whose original name was Alonso Quixano. He has become obsessed with books of chivalry that is popular, and wants to go out as a knight-errant in search of adventures. He, with a lance in his hand, dons an old suit of ragged armor which he found from antiques handed down from his forefathers and rides on his skinny horse named “Rocinante”, which means that it changes from an inferior house to a precious superior house when it is ridden by a chivalry. He renames himself “Don Quixote de la Mancha”. Besides, he designates a neighboring farm girl as his lady love and gives her a noble name, making his decision to serve for her all his life. He aspires to take great adventures and achieve splendid successes, helping the humiliated and the oppressed. The first time, he set out alone. He regards an inn as a castle and asks the innkeeper to hold an investiture for him. Along the adventurous journey, Don Quixote fights single-handed. As a result, he is soundly beaten and injured severely. Then he is found and brought to his home on a donkey’s back by a neighboring peasant.

The second time, he persuades a farmer named Sancho to be his squire, promising him governorship of an island if they win victory, then the pair sneak off. Don Quixote still act on his weird ideas, thinking windmills to be ferocious giants, flocks of sheep to be enemies, galley-slaves to be victimized chivalries, wine skins to be giant heads. He chops and kills them, doing many ridiculous things. His deeds are not only harmful to others but also incur much beating and trouble to himself. He doesn't end his second adventure until he is brought home in a lion's cage. A month later, Don Quixote and Sancho begin their third adventure. On their way to Zaragoza to participate in a joust competition, they have various adventures, being invited to a castle by duck and duchess, who play such cruel jokes on them that they are tired both physically and psychologically with injuries all over their bodies. But Don Quixote regards all of these as sufferings that a chivalry must undergo, unable to wake up to reality. Samson, Don Quixote's neighbor, in an effort to get him return home, jousts with him disguised as a rival knight. Don Quixote is defeated and has to return home as Samson requests. Upon home, he retires to his bed with a deathly illness and fully recovers his sanity just before death. He said to his niece in remorse, "The stupid shadow in my heart caused by reading novels of chivalry has disappeared. Now I know they are just absurdity and deception. I regret that it is too late that I have no time to read the mind-nourishing books to compensate my foolishness." He dictates his will, which includes that his niece will be disinherited if she marries a chivalry.

Cervantes lives in an unrest time when the Spain's national power is deteriorating, falling into a decline. The feudal system heads for collapse and disorder, but the feudal class and monks still live a luxurious and debauched life, trying to maintain superficial prosperity. The ruling class still publicizes politics and culture, beautifies feudal ruling and anaesthetize people's mind by using chivalry legends, which causes that although absurd chivalry legends has disappeared in western countries, novels of chivalry are popular and overflow in Spain. Having been cruelly prosecuted by feudal system, Cervantes is aware of cruelty of the ruling class and corruption of church institution, abhors chivalry system and chivalry literature that beautifies this system. He wants to wake up people to reality from endless illusion. Therefore, in the preface, Cervantes points out that the aim of this novel is to "remove the reputation and influence of chivalry in society and among the public". From the perspective of art and literature, *Don Quixote* is also successful. The creation of characters, the application of realistic techniques and satirical tongue are unprecedented, exerting a profound influence on the development of the whole literary history.

II. THE BLOOM OF HUMANISM: GETTING THE END OF KNIGHT LITERATURE FROM ITS IDEOLOGICAL CONNOTATION

A. Renaissance and Humanism

Renaissance is a cultural movement, taking place from 14th century to 17th century, which is also an ideological and cultural liberation movement with the banner of reviving the ancient culture against the feudalism and church. It is a great revolution period in European history, making vital and profound influences on Europe and even the development of social history.

The essence of Renaissance is humanism, with "humanity" against "divinity", "human rights" against "religious authority". They put forward the slogan that "I am a man, so I have all the characters of human beings". They are not so satisfied with the church control in spirit world that they ask for being human-oriented, not God-oriented, eulogizing people's wisdom and strength, praising the perfect and lofty human nature against the despotic rule of religion and feudal hierarchical system, advocating individual liberation, equality and freedom, and promoting individual personality. Therefore, the humanism concepts emphasize "man", giving play to the instinct of "man" and being a power for "man" to pursue the true, the good and the beautiful (Jiang, 2005, p.59).

B. Humanism Shown "Don Quixote"

1. Reflecting Humanism with Realism Creation Technique

Firstly, *Don Quixote* is a real picture of Spanish society. Living in Spain in the sixteenth century and seventeenth century, Cervantes uses his fifty-year experiences to compose this novel, which are the reflection of his life, thoughts and emotion as well as the panorama of the Spanish society at that time. The book creates about 700 characters with different professions and dispositions, including aristocrats, landlords, businessmen, monks, peasants, shepherds, actors, bandits, prisoners, performing artists, prostitutes and so on. It is proper to say that the characters range from noblemen to common people, who reflect all aspects of Spanish social political life and economic life in the sixteenth century from different angels. Cervantes is the pioneer in reflecting times and reality with such broad and vivid pictures and profound humanistic care. In this novel, Don Quixote and Sancho walk across Spain in their chivalry-errand adventures. Following them, the readers have mountains, forests, counties and villages of Spain before them. Don Quixote had access to different persons in society and especially experiences the ordinary life of people in low and medium class. What he experiences "like a giant picture, show a corrupted Spain dynasty, extravagant and dissipated government and the miserable life of people of lower class" (Chen, 2006). On the other hand, some details in this novel expose churches' darkness. For example, the clergy procession on the way to bury the dead is thought as monsters and ghosts in darkness by Don Quixote; the clergy tutor in the duke's is a foolish conceited fake gentleman. This novel describes in large number the miserable fate of the working people, disclosing that they suffer from grave exploitation and prosecution. For example, the landlord Aldudona refuses to pay the wages the shepherd Andris had earned and beats him. A paragraph in the novel describes the experiences of soldiers, "Soldiers are poorer than the poverty-stricken persons. The

few wages that they rely on are either delayed or in arrears. If they rob, it is inevitable for them to lose life and to lose consciousness. They even can not afford to buy clothes. The ragged jackets are used both as dresses and shirts; on cold winters, they sleep in bleak fields, defending against coldness only by breathing out, however, the air breathed out from hungry stomach equals with, contrary to physics, cold air that are gasped" (Yang, 1991, p.345), this paragraph not only denounces the cruelty of Spain monarchy but also expresses sympathy for soldiers in lower class.

Secondly, the characters in this novel are the medium through which Cervantes expresses humanistic thoughts. In *Don Quixote*, the author often comments on society and life with the protagonist Don Quixote's words, among which there are profound insights with sparkles of humanist thoughts. For example, when Sancho is going to take office, Don Quixote instructs him that he must care about the poor, be fair in handling affairs and merciful in executing the law and must not take bribes. In his opinion, civil officials should be honest and military officials should be brave and should not run away when facing dangers. He thinks that violence should be only used in just wars with the purpose of peace. Another example is that Don Quixote once said, "Mean persons are not those in low position while noblemen without knowledge are only common people" (Yang, 1991, p.300). All of these are author's expression of humanism. In the chapter 54 of part two, Cervantes, in this novel, tells an event that is closely related with the reality and draws the attention of the whole Spanish society banishes Morisque from its territory. On Sancho returns home in melancholy after resigning his position as "governor of the island", he comes across a group of pilgrims dressed up like Europeans, among whom there is a Morisque who ran away in the great banishment-Lichode (he is Sancho's old neighbor, running a shop in the village). Recognizing him, Sancho put his arm around Lechode's neck and says, "What weird clothes you are wearing. Who can recognize you? How dare you are to return to Spain. If you are caught, you will suffer." Sancho describes to him the scene where his daughter was banished, "Your daughter was so pretty that day that the whole villagers came out to see her, exclaiming her most beautiful in the world. She, crying, hugged her acquaintances, girl friends and all the villagers who sent her, and prayed to God and Goddess to bless us. She was so heart-broken that I, who don't weep usually, couldn't help crying. To be honest, any people wanted to rob her and hide her, but nobody dared to do that. Who dares to disobey the king's order?" in the end, Lechode and Sancho hug each other and said goodbye in tears (Yang, 1991, p.389). Obviously, in this scene, Cervantes obscurely expresses his protest against this inhuman deed and reveals us the complicated history of the banishment of a Morisque family in the times of great banishment, showing his sympathy and mercy for the deportees, which indicates the author's attention to social reality and strong humanism. The artist's consciousness is a part of the times' consciousness. The success of *Don Quixote*'s realism lies in that it reflects the ideological concept and social outlook of an extraordinary time. By describing the Spanish feudal society that seems to be strong but stops developing under the impact of Great Revolution, *Don Quixote* leaks out signals that Spanish royalty heads for collapse, reflecting the author's humanistic spirit in every detail of humanism (Zhu, 1994, p.80).

2. The humanistic connotation in the novel

From the ideological content of novel, "Don Quixote" seems ridiculous, but in fact it implies the author's deep understanding and summary toward Spanish realistic relationship and it also expresses the author's strong tendency to humanism. The works uses a lot to show the polarization between the rich and poor in the autocratic monarchy with the feudal being dominant. The upper class enjoys prosperity, while the working people live without clothes and food. Feeling bored in extravagant life, the duke couples spend a lot of money on strange clothes to play jokes on Don Quixote, arousing all the servants to act as noblewomen in misfortune, magicians and all sorts of evil-doers, so that Do Quixote and Sancho can be cheated. By contrast, there are lots of farmers and craftsmen who cannot support their families, struggling with death and living in despair. Sanchos have to work hard all day long, but they are still so hungry that they have to be rangers with hardships. When the noble indulge in hunting, drinking and amusement, the farmers have to pray for rain carrying a god sculpture. Describing the features of the times, the author relentlessly flays the social darkness and ugly rulers, deeply revealing the sharp contrast between luxury and poverty and between the imperious and powerless, and yearning for free and happy humanism.

3. The humanism shown by the character images in the novel

The novel contains the humanistic ideas not only in the ideological content, but also in the character images. Through *Don Quixote*, Cervantes explicitly expresses his humanistic ideals.

First of all, through the deeds of Don Quixote, the novel expresses the individual liberty, individual freedom and humanism advocated by humanists against the feudal monarchy and theocracy. In the novel, Don Quixote regards freedom as life. The reason why he sets the slaves free is his idea that "people were born with freedom and it was too cruel to make free people slaves" (Yang, 1991, p.174). Do Quixote was entertained by the duke once, but he did not like the duke's deluxe castle, feeling it like a dull prison. Finally, he left the castle, going to the suburb and feeling refreshed. He couldn't help saying, "Freedom is priceless given by God, while nothing under the ground and in the sea can be compared with it. Like freedom and dignity, it is worth fighting with our lives" (Yang, 1991, p.156). The duke's castle is like a social shadow of Spanish upper class being dark and killing human nature, but the wide natural world is the free world for humanists and the common pursuit for humanists in the Renaissance.

In addition, Don Quixote also often praises the equal thought and advocates that they should break the feudal hierarchy concepts, thinking that people's high or low status is not decided by their social positions or blood relationship, but by their own noble or inferior virtues; people's virtues depend on their own effort, which is inner, not

external. For example, in the novel, when Sancho is going to be a governor, he feels restless for having raised pigs and ducks. Don Quixote warns him, "Don't need to admire the born noble. The blood relationship being inherited, virtues are cultivated by themselves; the virtues have their own values, but the blood relationship is a favor done by their ancestors" (Yang, 1991, p.296). It is one feature of new ideas in humanism to emphasize the non-hereditary and important virtues.

The description of another character Sancho also reflects this novel's humanism. Sancho was a poor peasant and is forced by life to be Don Quixote's squire, hoping to free himself from poor life and make a fortune. Later, he suffered from a lot with Don Quixote. He notices his master's insanity and knows that his master's promise is not so reliable, but he is touched by his master's kindness and has sincere and real feelings for him. After conquering various tribulations, he becomes more and more broad-minded, gradually overcome selfishness. Especially when he is appointed as "governor of the island", his character has a quantitative leap. His desire for wealth is replaced by democracy that changes the situation. He is proud of being a peasant, stopping envying noblemen. During his short governorship, Sancho fully shows his wisdom and ability that he accumulated in practices. He, adhering to justice, protects the innocent people, helping the weak and eradicates the strong. Besides, he reforms misadministration, formulates new laws and abolishes brutal sentences. He is successful in achieving what Don Quixote strives to do. He is acute at observation and severely punishes spies. Once he sees through the traps set by duke and duchess, he immediately resigns. He says to the duchess, "I was born naked and leaves this position without taking anything. So I don't suffer any loss and don't gain extra advantage unfairly." "I didn't bring even a cent when taking the office and don't take a cent when I leave" (Yang, 1991, p.381) Obviously, he is totally different from those authorities that corrupt and bribe in Spain at that time.

From the above analyses, we can know that Don Quixote by Cervantes indicates humanistic thoughts in both content and molding of characters. Don Quixote reflects Cervantes' humanistic thoughts and the development and direction of the emerging bourgeoisie literature and shakes the ideological foundation of chivalry literature with humanistic thoughts. In this way, its publication "sounds a death knell to chivalry literature and creates an epic of declining chivalry system". The chivalry literature ultimately disappears from people's sight in the ideological tide of Renaissance.

III. THE USE OF IRONY AND THE END OF KNIGHT LITERATURE IN "DON QUIXOTE"

"Don Quixote", the novel is successful in using ironic narrative way in the means of literature and art. In the preface of the novel, Cervantes mentions explicitly: the purpose of his writing the book is to attack knight novel. By making the image of Don Quixote, the novel adopts parody and irony to satirize the popular knight novel at that time in Spain. Aiming to criticize by imitating the narrative way and contents of the knight novel, the works reaches the goal of ending the knight literature by denying the outdated feudal knight system.

A. *The Imitation of Narrative Ways of Knight Novel to Highlight the Ironic Effect*

Irony is used through the works, whose most outstanding reflection is the narrative model of "Don Quixote". Imitating the writing style of the knight novel, the works describes the "ranger history" of Don Quixote and his servant, Sancho Panza. The former is so addicted to the knight novel that he decides to imitate the ancient knight to travel all over the world, defending against an injustice. The structure and language of the whole novel is to imitate the knight novel which is opposed by the author. By imitating the narrative model of the knight novel, it highlights the ridiculous image and absurd behavior of Don Quixote, making a strong satire by overturning and contrasting the fate of heroes in the knight novel, so as to eliminate the infection and narcotism of the knight novel and to reach the goal of burying the knight novel in laughter. It can make readers wake up from illusion, facing up to Spanish history and fact. By imitating the narrative style of the knight novel on purpose, Cervantes makes the comic effect and by this kind of funny imitation, it creates the effect of being funny, ridiculous, ironic and absurd, which doubts the effectiveness and authenticity of the knight novel and which finally denies it.

B. *The Satire and Criticism of "Don Quixote" to the Content of Knight Novel*

It criticizes the trend of demonization in knight novel. The knight novel of the Middle Ages mainly reflects different adventures of knights, which is of legend. Being different from hero epic, it is not based on historical facts, so in order to exaggerate the bravery of knights, the knight novelists make up some nonexistent objects in the real life to test knights, such as some miraculous magicians, witches, super giants and fierce monster. These are often in the knight legend of the Middle Ages. It is influenced by demonization of the knight novel, so Don Quixote who used to be learned loses his head when facing the reality and doing a lot of ridiculous things when treating life not based on the reality. For example, he regards the windmills as giants. Relentlessly Cervantes criticizes and satirizes Don Quixote's illusion about demons. Cervantes expresses his antipathy to the demonization of the knight novel from the mouth of characters in the works, thinking that literature should imitate the reality.

IV. THE CONTRAST IN "DON QUIXOTE" TO HIGHLIGHT THE CRITICISM THEME

The novel, "Don Quixote" adopts a large number of contrast techniques from various views, which makes it

outstanding in the contrast of the criticism theme and unified in the theme, fighting strongly against the absurdity of the feudal system and against the psychoplegia and poison made by the knight literature. "Don Quixote" shows the contrast in four sides: the comparison between different people, the comparison of complex personalities caused by the characters' own conflicts, the comparison between illusory world and real world and the comparison between the realism creative skills and the illusion of traditional knight novel.

A. *The Comparison between Don Quixote and Sancho*

In the novel, Sancho is the opposite of Don Quixote and in essence he represents the real society against Don Quixote. Sancho is practical with a clear head. Being a servant of a knight, he does not want to achieve great, but he imagines that he may seek for a way to get rid of his poverty by adventures. Therefore, he stands on the real side generally, holding a sardonic attitude toward Don Quixote's "absurd" behaviors from an ironic view. This forms their opposite relationship between both of them, one being imaginative and the other real, one being foolish and the other smart, and one being idealistic and the other realistic. Through Sancho's clear head and wisdom, it exaggerates the foolish head and absurd behavior of Don Quixote. When Don Quixote regards a windmill as a giant, Sancho persuades Don Quixote not to believe it is a giant, but a windmill. The latter does not believe it at all. In this case, Sancho looks at Don Quixote mockingly. Sancho, the character is used to serve as a foil to the unrealistic Don Quixote, pursuing chivalry spirit, to criticize the absurdity of chivalry and knight literature, divorced from reality.

B. *The Comparison between the Dual Personalities of Don Quixote*

It is obvious that Don Quixote is featured with dual personality: he is a comic character, and meanwhile he is a tragic role, isolating the ideal from the reality, having a contradiction between noble motivation and unprofitable behavior and finally ending his life with harming himself and others; wearing a prevalent knight armor of the Middle Ages, his mind is full of equality, freedom and philanthropic humanism of Renaissance; the dual personality of Don Quixote is the best criticism of the knight literature, which is just like the description of the works, "if this person is wise but very stupid, so he may be stupid and wise" (Yang, 1991, p.118). Don Quixote is poisoned by the knight novel, acting as a lunatic and having a difficulty with the social reality. But without chivalry, he is very sober, not only knowing Latin, but also understanding Italian. He is good at the literature of Greek and Rome, knowing the ancient and recent history well, but as long as the chivalry is mentioned, the image of Don Quixote will become absurd and ridiculous when he thinks about the plots described in the knight novel. A series of his knight adventures only brings failure. His enthusiasm and noble ideals are destroyed by his understanding mistakes and absurd means. There is always a contradiction between subjective motivation and objective effect, while the contradiction is the conflict between his outdated knight spirit and reality.

As it is described above, the era mistakes of Don Quixote are trying to recover the outdated knight spirit, so it makes him a comic character. But the author highlights his feature of determining to wipe out all the sins in different situations, showing his noble quality in his personality, which is to sacrifice his life in pursuing the justice, ideal and society in spite of dangers. His ideal is noble as well as absurd. Therefore, different from other pure comic characters, he is also a role with the tragic, revealing his tragedy in absurdity and getting people's sympathy. Just like what the author wants to show, Don Quixote has a dual personality. According to the description in the novel, the reason why he can be mad and make mistake is the knight novel, so it can deepen people's abominations and disgust to the knight novel and feudal system.

C. *The Comparison between Vision World and Real World*

As the analysis above, the contradictory personality of Don Quixote is in isolating his idealistic illusory world from the real world. In his mind, the popularity of chivalry is a kind of ideal society, where there is no evil or no bullying, but just the fairness, justice and freedom. Therefore, he will do it going through hell without any hesitance. This seems to be his fantasy, in which he always lives and when there is a conflict with the reality, it is one of the roots causing the tragic fate of Don Quixote.

In Chapter 22 of Vol. 1, Don Quixote meets a group of prisoners under escort and driven by his chivalry, he asks the guard to set free the prisoners, "It is God who sends me to this world, implementing the chivalry I believe in, fulfilling my intention of robbing the rich and helping the poor... Now I calmly beg you. If you agree, I will reward you; if you refuse, I will use my gun, my sword and strength of my arms to make you listen to me". After helping the prisoner to scatter the guards, Don Quixote asks them to describe his heroic behaviors to a woman he loves, but it is refused by the prisoners, who think that "Don Quixote is so ridiculous to set them free and he must be mad" (Yang, 1991, p.174). Through the description, the author exposes the gap between the knight world imagined by Don Quixote and the real world, to highlight the fact that the outdated knight spirit is incompatible with the social reality and that the knight novel poisons Don Quixote's thought.

In Vol. 2, there are changes in character relationship and status, when Don Quixote and Sancho become the honored guests of the duke couple and the wise mentors of servants. Moreover, Don Quixote is the funny, lovely and respected friend. But by the noble and their wives, Don Quixote and Sancho are only regarded as dolls for their entertainment. In the farcical hardship made by the duke couple, the knight image in Don Quixote's ideal is collapsed and the chivalry spirit he wants to carry forward is heavily satirized. The reason why virtues and ideals of Don Quixote are destroyed is

that he wants to make the illusion of knight spirit and chivalry described in the novel becomes a perfect living way, but in the reality it must be rebuffed. The failure of Don Quixote really proves that the society has made great progress, in which the old chivalry and knight literature based on chivalry cannot continue to exist any longer in the real society.

V. CONCLUSION

Formed in the second half of 11th century, the Knight literature was popular in 12th and 13th centuries, declining in 14th century. It fully shows the spirit pursuit of the feudal noble, which is also a representative form of aristocracy literature. This kind of literary form is a product created in the special historical conditions of European the Middle Ages and it must disappear with the fall of its economic and class bases.

Being at the top of history, "Don Quixote" uses a humanist view to survey the whole Spanish society. With the real society being the background of characters, it creates this typical image of Don Quixote. The works confirms the lovely and respectable personalities, but it also criticizes that the remained feudalist ideas attached with literary forms poison the ordinary people in spirit during the social transformation. The author uses a comic tone to tell the tragic fate of characters, profoundly exposing the direct reason causing such a tragedy — the knight literature controls people's thoughts, to criticize the unreasonable social system and wish a future of brilliant human nature.

The reason why "Don Quixote" is regarded as a rarity in the world literature history is not only that it is a piece of excellent literary works, but that it is an encyclopedia reflecting the social reality of Spain and even the whole Europe, making an outstanding contribution in promoting the "metabolism" of literary forms.

By imitating the narrative ways of knight literature, Cervantes uses various techniques of expression, revealing the absurd chivalry and knight literature, laughing at the chivalry and knight literature ironically and ruthlessly and making a criticism about its reasonable existence in the new period to overturn the knight literature and complete the commission to end the knight literature. It is because the works owns these elements that it can be representative of humanism literature and also adds beautiful colors to the world literature.

In "Don Quixote", Cervantes connects different social cultures together, linking history with reality, revealing the distance between ideals and reality of the knights, satirizing and criticizing the knight novel, reaching the goal of cleaning the ways of knight novel and finally completing the mission to end the knight literature.

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