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Stages of Teacher's Professionalism: How Are English Language Teachers Engaged?

Saud Mossa Alsalahi
Exeter University, United Kingdom

Abstract—Teaching as a legitimate profession where teachers could practise their teaching and decide on their professionalism has been under debate over the last two decades. This study reflectively discusses the changing of building and developing teacher's professionalism in Saudi Arabia. It draws on my teaching journey as an English language teacher and the established theoretical framework. In order to gain in depth understanding of this issue, the study utilized small scale study to investigate teacher professionalism issues that disempower Saudi teachers from being legitimate in their profession to bring clear illustration about teachers' beliefs and practices of their professionalism. Three Saudi teachers reported that top down policy decisions regarding their professionalism, their supervisors as well as head teachers practices and cultures of teachers' education impacted negatively on their professionalism. They discussed in depth how the context of their teaching impacted on their professionalism. Specifically, the study aimed to explore whether teachers are able to practise their identity and agency as legitimate in their professionalism. Interviews were used to collect data then were transcribed, coded and thematically analyzed. One of its findings is teachers' visualizing their professionalism and they recognize themselves as legitimate teachers. The other findings were discussed and recommendations developed to help Saudi English Language teachers and Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia, as well as researchers in the future.

Index Terms—professionalism, teacher's agency, teacher's identity

I. INTRODUCTION

Professionalism in teaching English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia has been affected by the wide-ranging reforms in education such as curriculum, instruction, and assessments with the intention of achieving better education for Saudi learners to match the challenging educational demands of life and work in the 21st century. These contexts of rapid change are forcing many teachers to work hard in order to respond to such changes effectively and call for new styles of teaching which can be introduced to teachers through continuous professional programmes. Suffice it to say that for the purpose of this study, professionalism can be conceptualised as a mechanism or a strategy for empowering teachers' professional knowledge and pedagogy (Day & Sachs, 2004). Having defined the concept of professionalism, this needs careful preparation and decision making by authorities which are responsible for teacher education, where it can lead to either meeting teachers' needs or frustrating them through top down policies that do not match their wants (Dillon, 2010). The question that arises from this is what teacher preparation programmes are needed to prepare teachers who are ready to teach well in the 21st century classroom. This means that teachers are required to be qualified to have high-level of knowledge in education which in turn advances their own professional knowledge and could also lead to the development of their teaching as a profession. However, many teachers work without job security or benefits. Moreover, they view their situation of becoming teachers as accidental or because it is the shortest way to find a job (Alshahrani, 2010). Moreover, the discourse of professionalism is not obvious in the teachers' discursive culture where many of them drew on alternative identities (Thomas, 2005). This alternative identity where teachers view themselves as illegitimate teachers because of the aforementioned problems which make the profession difficult and live constrained by the imposed learning standards, prescribed theories and the top-down courses of training. All these pressures and pervasive authority from the position of head teachers and subjects' supervisors are leading the disempowered teachers to re-construct their professionalism, to make judgments about training courses and affect their beliefs about professional learning. These tendencies can be affected by many factors such as personal, educational and political discourses which shape the status of being a professional teacher.

Through the literature reviewed, it is clear that a plethora of research is needed to investigate teacher's professionalism from the perspective of teachers themselves. Therefore, and in light of this situation, the current study can be seen as a reflective enquiry which investigated two closely related issues. The first issue is the role of teachers, as I am one of them, in their professional development programmes offered by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia, while the second as a small scale study which looked to examine the sense of professional identity and teachers' beliefs about their professionalism. Finally, the study reflected on how this inquiry enhanced my awareness of teachers' role in the professional development programmes and the teachers' sense of professional identity, which should lead me to a better understanding of myself as a professional English language teacher and educator.

II. MY REFLECTION ON TEACHER'S PROFESSIONALISM

A. *Teachers' Role in the Professional Development Programmes*

Teacher's professionalism does not end with graduation from universities. It is an endless and continuous process which is aimed at making teachers more effective and efficient in their teaching. After graduation from university, I believed that teaching English is my best choice to get a job in my country since I have a bachelor degree in English with a qualification in Education. When I was appointed to be a teacher in a secondary school in my town, it was difficult to teach English which is not my mother tongue in front of students in their young adulthood. I remembered that the Directorate of Education in my city just sent me to that school without any induction courses or training programmes. This happened to me and to all the other teachers in my subject as English and the other subjects. This struggle let me think again and again and raised some theoretical and methodological issues to myself. For example, the following questions were the basis for such issues:

- Why did I choose TEFL as my profession?
- What are my plans about my profession?

Prior to the above issues, the issue of who I am and the beliefs, preconceptions and ideals that I brought to my teaching were of paramount concern to me. I thought that teaching is a job that can be done by a person who is qualified enough in his specialism since I see myself as that one who was among the three best students in my English department. This belief did not last more than the first six months after I was bounded with the spoon-fed theories and methods that I had been taught. These theories and methods constructed my beliefs which in turn affected my practices and strategies in both learning and teaching. Some of these beliefs relate to the nature of knowledge and affect the status of professionalism (Mori, 1999). Indeed, these beliefs can be considered crucial in the development of knowledge (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997). The rest of this section will consider the different stages of my professionalism as one of the English teachers in Saudi Arabia.

My early practical experiences that added to my professionalism could be the result of my teaching in the context of my classroom. Although, teachers are encouraged use their agency to develop their personal theories, theorize what they practice and practice what they theorize (Kumaravadivelu, 1994), this might not be the case for novice teachers as me. For example, my limited resources of knowledge make the situation full of difficulties, problems or dilemmas with my reflection practices. As a novice teacher in my profession, recitation, lecturing, apprenticeship and trial-error strategy can be the most used professional methods which can be seen as only full of "action[s] that is [are] merely repetitive, blind, and impulsive" (Dewey, 1933, p. 17, quoted in Fendler, 2003, p. 18). Therefore, the concepts of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action (Schon, 1987) were seen as my first attempts to understand the way I knew and acted in my teaching. Reflection-in-action links what I know and what I do simultaneously whereas reflection-on-action captures the moments following and preceding my classroom decisions. Although these reflective actions could lead to reflective professionalism where reflective teaching could help us as teachers to think deeply and challenge what we have learned during our schooling to "develop more informed practice, make tacit beliefs and practical knowledge explicit which in turn lead to new ways of knowing and articulating" (Crandall, 2000, p. 40). On the other hand, some other teachers who do not challenge their teaching practice "will be likely to teach as they were taught and, thus, ineffective teaching strategies will be replicated" (Braun and Crumpler, 2004, p. 61). In this stage of my career life, I would judge that reflective strategies were limited for me since I only would reflect on the techniques and the skills I had been taught during my learning journey as well as the theories and methods I had been taught during my bachelor degree journey which can be seen as outside influences. In addition, reflection in this stage can be seen as "a reflection of a retrospective nature, not paving the way toward creativity" (Akbari, 2007). This is not in line with Dewey who defined reflection as action based on "the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it" (Dewey as cited in Akbari, 2007). For him, reflection might take place if one can replace the personal actions with scientifically practices which in turn could lead to professionalism. On the other hand, for Schon, reflection is an intuitive and natural practice that does not need so much of scientific knowledge. Critically, what I did inside my classroom might not be called reflective actions where most of the actions were based on trial and error which I borrowed from my early taught principles or the studied theories. This is called impulsive action or routine action which is "based largely on authority in a passive, largely unthinking way" (Griffiths, 2000, p. 540). Wright (2010) also asserts that "this raises the spectre of a completely school or classroom-based experience, without the cognitive distancing that an institution-based programme can provide – an experience potentially theorised and possibly unreflective, too" p.288.

However, as a novice teacher, I could see that any reflection could be a positive activity because it gives me an opportunity to discover myself and my shortcomings in teaching because my theoretical knowledge which was seen as more important than the practical knowledge (Johnson, 1996). Thus, the ways to the knowledge and development in this stage were of retrospective character which deals only with what has gone before, not anticipatory reflection of what is going to happen in the future of my practices (Freese, 2006). This can assess the feeling I had that the gain of new knowledge was limited and might be rare. This might be because my knowledge is mainly propositional and conceptual knowledge, not perceptual and practical knowledge (Thiessen, 2000). Another downside of my early reflective experiences is my emphasis on myself. As a novice teacher, the initial preoccupation with self is the first stage that makes the start for teacher development (Burn et al., 2003). This is also stressed by Fendler (2003) who states that "when reflection is understood as a turning back upon the self, the danger is that reflection will reveal no more than

what is already known” (p.20). This means that I wanted to present myself as a practitioner who is an ideal teacher who can appear as professional in his teaching and behaviour. My practices of teaching at this stage were highly affected by my English teacher in the intermediate stage, who could be seen as the ideal teacher for me. This teacher was regarded as ideal as he was my model for teaching once I compared all the theories I studied in my learning journey with his practices.

In a nutshell, the early ways of my professional development were based on the followings: my early schooling beliefs and prescribed spoon-fed theories which were the basement for my reflection. These two channels shaped and constrained my reflective actions because they isolate my practices and treat each situation as similar to the other one and its dependence on reflection of limited resources. Although this enabled me to have the opportunity to exercise judgement in the classroom, this is not enough to qualify myself as having autonomous development for my professional learning. Another characteristic of this stage is the phase of professional identity which was mainly individual and classroom-based retrospective identity. It is based on individual experiences and the context of my teaching in my classroom. Thus, I did not feel any collective identity or collegial identity with other colleagues of my specialist or with the staff of my school. This kind of experience which is one-person communities experience affects our development and characterised by its isolated and fragmented professionalism as it is based on one's own knowledge and experiences. According to Hargreaves (2000), this age of professional autonomy does not help a teacher to cope with their daily practices of teaching. Indeed, this age of isolated and fragmented professionalism can be seen as ironic since the Ministry of Education, which is responsible for teachers' development which has updated and improved English language curricula, has done almost nothing for EFL teacher training and courses (Al Shahrani, 2010; Alhazmi, 2003). Teacher education programs and the needs of the daily classroom teaching still were not in harmony since these programmes depend mainly on top-down strategy in planning teachers' training courses and programmes. These courses are characterised by rigid curriculum and heavy workload sessions.

Beside the prescribed programmes, the ministry has the teacher's guide course book which is compulsory for teachers to follow its methods and strategies. This can show that emphasis here is on educators who were seen as experts and teachers as knowing little in education issues. These experts are the supervisors of English and the head teachers who practise their assessment and observation techniques and neglect teacher's needs and development. As a matter of evidence, I remembered the first day my supervisor visited me in my classroom. After the observation stage, we went together in a private room to discuss what I have done through my teaching stage in the classroom. The supervisor began introducing some theories and methods and advised me that these are the ones that suit the lesson being taught. He advised me also to read three educational books about teaching English. He went then to the head teacher office and wrote a report about his visit to the school. After three weeks, I received a hand-out from the head teacher regarding the training programmes of the English Department in my directorate which is based on programmes, teacher visits, workshops and lectures. I attended some of these sessions because they are obligatory sessions from the directorate. However, I discovered they were only repetition of what I studied during my bachelor study. It lacked any kind of practical-based issues that relate to these methods or theories. Another downside of this stage is the absence of my personality as a teacher in this development as being neglected from building of the materials of the training course based on our needs as the real professional in our classrooms. According to Akbari (2006) these beliefs and experiences could affect the practices and the ways teachers view themselves as professionals.

The policy of neglecting teachers from inclusion in their professionalism and training programmes is pervasive. The training department in my directorate treated teachers as illegitimate professionals who lack knowledge and need a lot of training programmes. These programmes are determined by the staff in the department without dealing with the teacher's needs. In this case, it is a top-down strategy where the department viewpoint of idealism outweighs that of realism (Liton, 2012). This means that they focus more on the methods and theories stage more than that of the practical issues which is the daily life of our profession as teachers. This top-down intervention only gives prescribed methods which can only be specific for some situations and may not be applicable to others. Thus, when teachers' needs are not conducted properly or ignored completely, then this is considered a top-down approach to teacher development. Although Osborne (2004) argues that "academics professional needs cannot always be met effectively on a collective or genetic basis" (p.8), he still advocates promoting professional growth and academics' need to negotiate with their teachers in order address their individual needs within professional development. Thereby moving from a top-down process towards a bottom-up negotiation of teachers' professional development needs is of an urgent importance for the development of the training courses and programmes. Nunan (1989) states that approach to professional development have been moving gradually from a top-down approach, where teachers are presented with a 'ready package' designed by experts to enhance their teaching in different areas such as curriculum plans, syllabus outlines, and methodological procedures. He also argues that although the top-down approaches have many forms, they are still quite easy to recognize as they have one thing in common, which is that only one way exists of learning a foreign language and if the teacher follows the principles and procedures implied by the experts, this way will definitely succeed. On the other hand, it could be argued that how we view professional development depends directly on how we view teachers; when we view teachers as professionals, we will consider their input when planning and designing the teacher development courses.

However, if the ministry does not recognize teachers as professionals then definitely their involvement in professional development programmes will be limited. So, as a summary, I want to argue that the ministry should involve teachers in the design and preparation of the teacher development programmes and should not tailor its professional development programmes solely on the teachers' needs because I believe that the needs of the organisation as well as the needs of the learners should also be addressed.

Actually, the issues behind not including teachers in their professional development programmes were not due to the lack of their theoretical knowledge, but rather to the "the constraints imposed on the teacher within the social, cultural, economic and educational context" (Johnson, 1996). This made the situation difficult in the case that it was difficult to connect the pedagogical and theoretical knowledge with the contextual and social knowledge. More importantly, I found it difficult to find a discourse of development among my colleagues as professionals in our subjects. Wenger (1998) asserts that individuals construct communities of practice by involving them and constructing their identity. This could help them to construct a collaborative identity that helps them to build powerful and reflective experiences. This refers to the process of social learning that happens when teachers collaborate together to share experiences, values and ways practices of development. Each one of them acts as "a member of a professional community who is ready, willing, and able to teach and to learn from his or her teaching experience" (Shulman, 2004, P: 263). Thus, professionalism can be redefined as "a process of learning how to put knowledge into practice through engagement in practice within a community of practitioners" (Schlager & Fusco, 2004, P: 4).

B. Pedagogy of Teacher's Professionalism

To return to the title of this article, the pedagogy of teacher's professionalism in teaching English are either the structured learning experiences provided for teachers, which is called by Leung (2007) the sponsored professionalism, and the more individual oriented education which is independent professionalism which might be termed as the core elements in teacher education.

1. The Sponsored Professionalism:

After the first year of my teaching, the Directorate of Education introduced a package of training courses to the teachers of English all over the Directorate. Among these courses are workshops, lectures, expert teachers-visit and some reading hand-outs. The strategy behind these courses was that one size fits all. The supervisors of English are the responsible figures who determine and control the contents of the training sessions and who are the participants. According to the policy makers of these programmes, this could help to frame the content of professional education programmes. Another goal behind setting such programmes is the strong policy of accountability. I can see that from a critical viewpoint, these programmes are tailored for the public schools in order to cap on the dominance of the use of this language as a lingua franca which is not welcomed by many people at that time.

In fact, the introduction of an extensive theoretical basis is the fundamental strategy in many teacher development programmes (McCullough, 1987; Hoyle & John, 1995). This is how teacher education became known as teacher training (Bullough & Gitlin, 1994). Schon (1987) critically called it the technical-rationality model. Ben-Peretz (1995) says:

The hidden curriculum of teacher education tends to communicate a fragmented view of knowledge, both in coursework and in field experiences. Moreover, knowledge is "given" and unproblematic. These views of knowledge are likely to become quite problematic as teachers gain experience. (p. 546).

This emphasis on expert-knowledge (Reiman and Sprinthall, 1996) is still dominant in the context of training in the ministry of Education. According to Hargreaves (2000) this stage which is the age of the collegial professional "teaching must be framed and informed by professional standards of practice that define what good teachers should know and be able to do and what qualities and dispositions they should possess to care for and connect with their students".

2. Independent Professionalism:

In teacher education, we cannot deny the importance of sponsored professionalism in the field of learning and teaching. Indeed, it can be the tool for accountability that provides measures for control (Broadfoot & Pollard, 2003). The counterpart of the sponsored professionalism is independent learning which is the more individual oriented education. It is a commitment to careful and critical examination of the assumptions and practices embedded in sponsored professionalism with reference to discipline-based knowledge and wider social values, and to take action to effect change where appropriate (Leung, 2007). This resource of professionalism is not noticed as a strategy by the Department of Training in the Ministry of Education as the responsible body for teacher development. Thus, it does not give much autonomy to teachers because the system tends to be a bit top-down, as stated by Pink (1989), and Fullan and Hargreaves (1992). I also did not notice any effort by the ministry of education to help teachers to improve themselves by their independent education by any appraisal system or rewards so far. The situation could be traced due to the pressures on teachers since they need to attend to school from 7:30 am until 2:30 pm. Each teacher should have at least 24 periods of teaching. This makes it difficult for teachers to find time for their development by themselves or in collegial meetings.

From the journey of my teaching and the literature, issues of professionalism both the affordances and the constraints should be addressed by the Ministry of Education in order to develop and build new era of teachers' professionalism where teachers can practice their education and learning in a social community of practice. This will have a positive

impact on Students' learning. To strengthen my reflective inquiry about Teacher's Professionalism in Saudi Arabia, I conducted a study with three English teachers from my Educational Directorate, Alleith.

III. A SMALL RESEARCH INQUIRY

This small scale study aimed to gain an in-depth insight about the practitioner teachers' beliefs and roles in the programmes provided to them for their development. I interviewed three teachers who have been working and still currently teaching English in my directorate. All of the three teachers are English teachers with bachelor degree in English. They are chosen as a purposive sample, who have been teaching for more than five years in order to gain a better perspective over the changes with regards to professional development. They are from three different intermediate stage schools. Pseudonym names were given to them as Ahmed, Ali and Mohammed for their privacy and anonymity. I used semi-structured interviews with my participants to give them space to interact more freely with the researcher (Brown & Dowling, 1998). These interviews were conducted over the Skype. In order to investigate their professional development programmes, I asked the following questions:

1. How do your beliefs affect your teacher education? Do you perceive yourself as a professional?
2. How do you professionally develop yourself as an English-language teacher?
3. Are you involved in any professional development programmes offered to you?

By analysing the data thematically, a large number of themes emerged such as low motivated students and teachers, disempowerment of teachers, weaknesses of teacher's education programmes and lack of teacher role in professional development programmes. However, due to the limited scope of this assignment, I will only cover the major themes that reoccurred in the data most frequently which are teachers' beliefs about their professional development, teachers' role in the programmes and teachers' professional identity.

A. Teachers' Beliefs about Their Professional Development (PD)

One of the ways of recognition and knowledge is the beliefs that one holds about the self as a practitioner. This can show the status of profession and the practices that are being used in their professionalism. The data in this study showed that all of the three participants believe they are always trying to develop themselves professionally and they mention the importance of professional development. This is clear in the following quote from Ahmed:

"I think that professional development is very crucial for me as a teacher. I believe that if I do not try to develop myself, I would not know the new English language teaching methodologies ... I develop myself professionally by attending workshops whenever I can in addition to attending the professional development courses which are held yearly in the department of training".

This sponsored professionalism might be not the only resource to teacher development in this context. By asking Ahmed if he has other ways to develop himself, he said:

"Sometimes I use the internet to find some material for my classes. In addition, I try to attend conferences like TESOL Arabia whenever I can... however; it's very difficult due to the fact that we need to take time off of work".

B. Teachers' Role in the Professional Programmes

The data revealed that teachers had no role in the content of the programmes available to them. They indicated that the top- down strategy of giving programmes is common. Mohammed stated that:

"We lack our voices on what is presented in the professional development. We are forced to attend. We were only told by our head teachers about these training sessions"

This is also indicated by Ali by saying that:

"Unfortunately teachers don't have any saying in the professional development material available to them ... Honestly speaking, if the teachers are not interested in what is presented, then they will not get any benefits from them and let then not attend in the future trainings".

C. Teachers' Professional Identity

Teachers in this study indicated during the interviews that they generally understand what it is to be a professional. All of them understood professionalism as having what it takes to perform a particular job. Ahmed stated that he definitely perceives himself as a professional as he clarified that he holds a degree in Teaching English and has been teaching for over five years. However, he complained that most of the time the training department does not treat him as one:

"I don't think they consider we have the necessary knowledge to continue in our jobs without continuously assessing and supervising us"

The same attitude was held by Mohammed who stated that:

"They treat all the teachers the same way; it doesn't matter how professional you are or what degree you hold".

IV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Professional development in Teaching English as a Foreign Language has gone through different ages in Saudi Arabia. However, it still concentrates on the sponsored professionalism with little room for independent professionalism

this is due to many factors that can be seen as barriers to its development. Simply put, independent development represents a shift from seeing teachers as individually stable and rigid, to seeing them as members of social and historical context who have the potential to reflect scientifically on their practices.

From the teachers' quotes, it can be clearly seen that teachers consider professional development to be important; however, their understanding appears to be limited to attending conferences, workshops, using the internet, or studying for a higher degree. According to the literature on professional development, this view is considered inadequate as there are many different ways for teachers to professionally develop themselves, such as, to name a few, peer observation and action research. Thus, these modules of professional development should be introduced and teachers exposed to them to enrich their knowledge of the different varieties of professional development that can be adopted.

The discourse of teacher professionalism needs to be carefully researched as it seems to affect the status of the members of the ministry as an official organisation which indeed could have pressures on teachers' identity as professionalism. The data showed that the issue of discourse inside the schools and the ministry as a whole has given evidence that the discourse of professionalism is still in its early stage to enhance teachers to develop their teaching and to reflect in their practices. This means that social relationships are crucial in how individuals are constructed by others or construct themselves. In the context of language teaching, language teachers may experience the everlasting tension between what they choose themselves to be (reflexive positioning) and what others position them to be (interactive positioning) (Pavlenko, 2000). However, although a teacher may be positioned by others in a particular way within a given discourse, the teacher's identity and agency can resist that position. By doing so, teachers investment in the discourse of positioning can be seen as a vital to the construction of identity with their colleagues to form a community of practice which in turn turn the same needs, values and practices (Wenger, 1998).

The finding of this small-scale study also showed that the Ministry of Education did not consider teachers' needs before designing and implementing the professional development sessions, which indicated that the ministry adopted a top-down approach to professional development. By doing this, it excluded the teachers from having any input with regards to the content or the timing of their professional development programmes. According to Glover & Law (1996), addressing the teachers' needs is an important stage in the designing of professional development programmes. Furthermore, as the data demonstrated, none of the teachers remember being asked to fill out any survey prior to the professional development sessions that were offered, which suggests that the ministry placed more importance on its needs than the teachers' needs. I am aware that sometimes it is not possible to address teachers' needs on a collective or generic basis; however, researchers such as Osborne (2004) argue that some negotiation should be conducted with the participants in order to address both the teachers and institutional needs. The literature also shows that when teachers' needs are addressed in many aspects of professional development programmes, such as the existing knowledge and experience of teachers, their input helps in tailoring the most beneficial PD programmes for the teachers (Starkey et al., 2009). Teachers mentioned that the Ministry of Education tends to treat them the same with regards to their involvement in the design and delivery of in-service professional development programs. This paper argues special consideration and more involvement of experienced and less experienced teachers in the design of those programs. A number of studies advocate for this notion of benefiting from experienced teachers' knowledge by involving them in teacher development programs (Darling-Hammond 1994).

The participants argued that prescribed sessions and programmes usually adopt a top-down approach to professional development in order to pressure their teachers to meet their institutional needs. I argue that not all professional development courses should be top-down. If the course introduces any changes to the syllabus or the methodology required, then it is suitable for attendance to be mandatory. However, it is important to negotiate with the teacher about the contents and the materials to be covered in the programme.

Furthermore, it can be seen that teachers believe that they are professionals, however, all for participants indicate that the ministry is not treating them as they deserve. Participants raised issues such as teacher evaluation, teacher monitoring, working hours, and financial issues as examples of instances which make them feel that the ministry is not viewing them as professionals. To me, it is not surprising to find there is little interest about raising the awareness of Saudi teachers' identity in the context of professionalism in teaching English since the ministry is still neglecting the teachers' voices and indirectly disempower them as being professional in their career.

In conclusion, it is important for the ministry to address these issues that are bothering teachers. Teachers then will feel unsatisfied if they are neglected, which will definitely affect their sense of professional identity and their overall professional development thereby also affecting the quality of teaching. It is also of paramount concern that the ministry of education should lead the transition of professionalism for their teachers in order to be highly reflective on their practices and to be independent professional who always seek to develop their practices and methods to improve their teaching styles and strategies.

V. CONCLUSION

During my teaching journey, sponsored professionalism were the resource for my professional development where my practices depended on my experienced supervisors and expert head teachers, I hold a quite clear belief about my teacher development status. Prior to starting work on this paper, my understanding and beliefs about professional development were affected by the behaviourist pedagogy. I viewed professional development to be attending

conferences and workshops and obtaining certificates or degrees in Teaching English. This is indicated by (Wright, 2010) who confirms that the concept of teacher education has been affected by the behaviourist and constructivist pedagogy and theory. In my case, professionalism is affected by the behaviourist theory where emphasis is on the outset of training and based on the institutional needs whenever needed. However, the constructivist theory where the engagement of teachers and colleagues in their professionalism as social identities who can afford and engaged in the training process seems to be of little practice in my situation. Thus, the literature review opened my eyes to the many different types of professional development and the resources available for acquiring and learning.

From a personal perspective, I believe that at the beginning of this assignment, I was fixated on the importance of teachers having a role and being involved in the designing of professional development programmes, only to realize that many other factors and stages are involved in ensuring the effectiveness of such programmes. Other factors, such as having activities that enable teachers to reflect on their own teaching, are also important (Day, 1997). In addition, the programme content should not consider teachers as empty jars to be filled with knowledge, but instead should be building on the existing teachers' knowledge experience and skills (Crandall, 2000). In addition, Richards (2001) mentions that teachers' needs must be highlighted and addressed when developing any PD programmes. Furthermore, I was initially advocating for a bottom-up approach instead of a top-down approach to professional development, where teachers would have a voice and saying in the planning and designing of such programmes; I was arguing that in the same way students' needs are addressed in the course design, when it comes to professional development course design, the teachers' needs should be addressed because I felt that those needs were being ignored and the programmes are prescribed and spoon fed to teachers. However, I realized that having a complete bottom-up approach to professional development may result in concentrating only on the teachers' needs and neglecting the institutional needs. According to Myers & Clark (2002), both individual and organizational continuous professional development can work together, when teachers would benefit from the programmes that institutions develop to meet their needs and aims.

In regards to teacher's identity in relation to their development, I realise that teachers' professional identities are formed based on their personal beliefs, feelings, values and understandings in addition to background and culture as well as the courses and discourses of teacher's development programmes. This understanding helps me in placing myself professionally, in which I believe that this can help me determine which group of people I would like to be part of during my professional career as an English Language Teacher an educator. Above all, the wide scope of literature about professionalism in teaching gives me depth and breadth in my teaching development and the beliefs I have about it. As regards the contribution of this study to my expertise about professionalism, it has widened my horizons by giving me the chance to practice the knowledge of the issues of different types of professionalism, methodologies, as well as critical awareness and knowledge about the whole professionalism process.

In a nutshell, this reflective study has revitalised both the beliefs that I hold about professionalism in second/foreign language as well as the philosophical and practical knowledge about it. More importantly, it opened doors for future research to implement the professionalism and identity construction as critical in second language teacher development.

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Saud Mossa Alsalahi is an EdD professional doctorate candidate at Exeter University, United Kingdom. His major is TESOL, teachers' professionalism and Education. He presented in many conferences inside the UK: Exeter, Cardiff and Bristol.

Image-based Basic Verb Learning through Learner-centred and Teacher-centred Approaches —A Case Study on Japanese EFL Junior High School Students

Satoshi Yamagata

Graduate School of Education, English Education, Osaka Kyoiku University, Japan

Haruyo Yoshida

Osaka Kyoiku University, Japan

Abstract—This pilot study made comparisons on image-based basic verb learning through learner and teacher-centred approaches. To this purpose, 121 Japanese EFL junior high school students participated. In a learner-centred activity, they just engaged in a card game in which they were able to pay attention to relationships between situational images and forms of the targeted basic verbs. In a teacher-centred instruction, the participants were explicitly taught how given definitions of another basic verb were motivated semantically from situational-images. Immediately after each treatment, post-tests were administered. A week after each immediate post-test, delayed post-tests were given. Analysis of the results found that only high proficiency learners were capable of image-based basic verb learning through either the card game activity or the explicit instruction alone. Considering the results and a SLA model, the authors concluded that image-based basic verb learning should be implemented through learner-centred activity first, followed by teacher-centred explicit instruction.

Index Terms—core images, image-based basic verb learning, EFL, teacher-centred approach, learner-centred approach

I. INTRODUCTION

Nobody will take issue with the importance of learning vocabulary nowadays. A famous example is that one can communicate with others if one knows a certain amount of words, but insufficient knowledge of grammar. On the other hand, even if one is relatively proficient in grammar, one can easily fail to communicate without a sufficient vocabulary because one cannot convey content information (Folse, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; McCarthy, 1990). The Japanese ministry of education (MEXT) increased the quantity of vocabulary words required in English classes for Japanese junior high school students in 2008. Behind this trend is the desire to improve students' communication competence. In addition, it must also be noted that this new course of study sheds light on practical expressions such as multi-word units and idioms. In fact, some multi-word units and phrasal verbs are shown in the MEXT guidelines as examples. However, in order to use them effectively, students should have appropriate lexical competence (Tanaka, 2012). Tanaka proposes that, with proper lexical competence, learners can properly use seemingly complex basic verbs such as PUT and SET. Though there are many definitions for lexical competence (Meara, 1996; Richards, 1976), Henriksen (1999) claims that the semantization process plays one of the most important roles in fostering lexical competence. According to her, the semantization process involves both mapping onto form and network building processes. The mapping onto form process is regarded as beginning with a "labelling stage": creating a link with a concept and a linguistic feature. Subsequently, this stage moves on to the "packaging stage" where learners obtain an appropriate range of meanings of a word: from central meanings to peripheral meanings. Finally, learners can categorize semantically related words in their word schema. This stage is called networking. Though basic verbs frequently appear in practical expressions, learners seem to have difficulties using them appropriately. Therefore, what Tanaka calls lexical competence is identical to the packaging stage defined by Henriksen (1999). The present study, thus, explores how Japanese EFL junior high school students can learn basic verbs effectively to take advantage of lexical competence in fluent communication in English.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES

Basic Germanic verbs, known as *bring*, *carry*, *sit*, *stand*, *cut*, *kick*, *give*, *get*, *make*, *let*, and so on describe motion events (Nieda, 2006). Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan. (1999) also propose that these basic verbs are frequently incorporated into phrasal verbs. Though these basic verbs are introduced to students at a relatively early

stage (Altenberg & Granger, 2001), mastering them has been regarded as a frequent source of difficulty because basic verbs generally tend to have multiple meanings according to given contexts (Akamatsu, 2010; C'sabi, 2004). To complicate matters, because learners often rely on mechanical memorization strategies for mapping L1 equivalents to L2 words, they cannot understand their meanings properly (Nesi & Meara, 1994).

Recently, however, many researchers have demonstrated the positive impact of a cognitive linguistic approach to teaching and learning polysemous words. Although native speakers of English do not have difficulty in understanding metaphorically extended uses of a word because they have been exposed to English since they were born, the same is not true of EFL learners; they often fail to interpret peripheral meanings of a word (Tomasello, 2003). Cognitive linguists revealed that metaphorically extended meanings of a word are not arbitrary in nature, but semantically motivated (Lakoff, 1987; Taylor, 1988). This means that cognitive linguistic insights could illustrate how seemingly unrelated definitions of a word are motivated through the underlying concepts, making learners obtain deeper memory traces. For instance, Csabi (2004) reports that his participants were able to learn polysemous verbs such as KEEP and HOLD by introducing their semantically schematized information. Additionally, current studies show us that such information can be consolidated with accompanying visual images. There is a consensus that second language words are firmly stored in one's memory when they are presented through both images and the forms of words (Paivio, 1986).

In the field of cognitive linguistics, schematic drawing (image schema) is known to be useful for describing how linguistic information is built on our cognition in general, such as human perceptual interactions and bodily movements in the physical environment (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Johnson, 1987). Similarly, Farsani, Moinzadeh, and Tavakoli (2012) mention that image schemas work to map real world structure onto conceptual linguistic structure (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002). From the perspective of language learning, Boers (2009) supports the use of mnemonic techniques in learning vocabulary because mentally processed images can create additional cognitive pathways for later recall of a word. Similarly, through vivid imagery, it is assumed that learners are able to understand the semantic range of given definitions of a word in more meaningful ways (Sökmen, 1997). Indeed, recently, Morimoto and Loewen (2007) investigated the effects of an image-elucidation technique for teaching the polysemous words BREAK and OVER, indicating the underlying potential of visual elucidation for vocabulary learning. Though the advantage of image-based instruction did not seem to be significant, they finally suggested that image-based instruction can be maximized through learner-centred activities. Therefore, the authors decided to compare the effects of image-based basic verb learning through both learner and teacher-centred approaches. This led us to the following three research questions:

RQ.1 Compared to both immediate and delayed post-tests on each treatment, do Japanese EFL junior high school learners show differential outcomes?

RQ.2 Compared to both the treatments on each post-test, do Japanese EFL junior high school learners show differential outcomes?

RQ.3 How does learners' proficiency influence the retention of basic verbs in each treatment?

III. THE STUDY

From February to March in 2014, 121 Japanese EFL junior high school students participated in the research. They had been taught English for a year in Japanese EFL junior high school classroom at that time¹. The number of boys and girls were about equal. To examine the RQ.3, the participants were divided into three groups according to their placement test scores². For targeted basic verbs, eighteen basic verbs which are describable by core and specific images³ cited from Tanaka, Takeda, and Kawade (2007) were selected. Below is the list (Figure 1).

break	give	leave	make	open	pass	put	see	take
carry	draw	hit	hold	keep	meet	miss	run	turn

Figure 1. Targeted basic verbs

The nine items above were allocated to each treatment. Also, thirty-six specific situational images were generated based on the core-images and the definitions of each basic verb (see appendix).

In the first class, the participants were explicitly taught that English basic verbs have core-images, referring to the nine basic verbs with their abstract visual stimuli (Tanaka et al., 2007). In the explanation, how the central sense of each verb is given according to a core-image was briefly explained. This short instruction was implemented to prompt participants' noticing (Schmidt, 1990), because noticing or apperceived input (Gass, 1997) is regarded to be a prerequisite for L2 learning to take place. Subsequently, with the simple explanation of a card game activity, the participants were divided into groups of four, and directed to enjoy a student-centred card game activity. During the activity, they had to guess appropriate basic verbs corresponding to the core-images and situational images of each verb depicted on both sides of picture-cards (p-card).

First, one of the members in a group drew a p-card on which a core-image and a situational image of a basic verb were depicted. Referring to the information on a card, they discussed which verb on the verb-list would suit to the card. After deciding a verb, one of the members drew another card on which a corresponding number with the p-card they drew was printed. By doing so, they were able to confirm simply whether their guess was successful or not. Finally,

they kept a record of whether their guess worked correctly or not by putting ○ or × on a recording sheet. Also, the discussion was carried out in Japanese because although they had experienced foreign language-learning activities in elementary schools for a few years, and a structural language course conducted mainly in Japanese for almost a year at the time, it seemed still difficult for them to talk about metalinguistic information in English, and discussion in English might have inhibited their deeper processing of the basic verbs. This was the sequence of the card game activity (Figure 2).

The procedure of the card game
• Explicit explanation of core-images of every basic verb
• Rule explanation of the card game
• Form groups of four
• Guess an appropriate basic verb from a list after watching a core and a situation of images described on a picture card
• Confirm whether their guessing was correct or not by drawing a feedback sheet on which the same number with the picture card was printed
• Put ○ or × on a recording sheet

Figure 2. Procedure of the card game activity

Immediately after the fifteen minutes card game activity, a post-test was administered. The test consisted of three parts: receptive, productive, and picture-form mapping tests. In the receptive test, it was required that participants isolate two appropriate definitions for the targeted basic verbs from distractors. The next section was a productive stage where they had to fill out blanks with correct basic verbs in sentences accompanied by Japanese translations. Taking participants' linguistic level into account, it was necessary to put the translations below the sentences. Finally they moved on to the picture-form mapping test in which they had to choose an appropriate basic verb which best described each image of definitions from three distractors. Also note that the maximum score of each test was 18, so the maximum score of the completed test ranged from 0 to 54. Two weeks later, at the beginning of the class, a delayed post-test was implemented to measure their retention of the targeted basic verbs. In order to avoid rote-memorization effects, the sequence of questions was jumbled. Both of the tests took around fifteen minutes to finish.

After finishing the delayed post-test, core-images of another nine basic verbs were instructed in the same fashion as the former session. Then the participants received explicit instruction of how other given definitions of basic verbs were semantically motivated through situational images. In this session, another eighteen situational images were explained, which also took fifteen minutes to go through. Note that the explanation was done in Japanese for the same reason as for the card game. To homogenize time on the task, participants were given three minutes as a memorization period. In this memorization period, the author gave them memorization sheets on which images and corresponding definitions were shown. Subsequently, they were given an immediate post-test in the same format as the tests they had already taken, and a delayed post-test followed two weeks later. Test materials will be shown at appendix. Below is the research design (Figure 3).

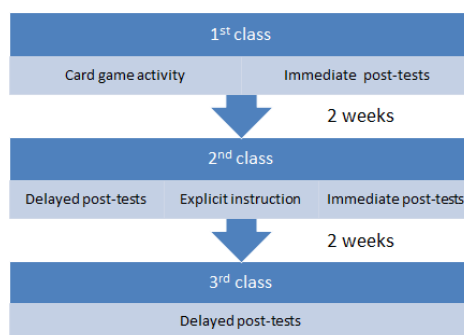


Figure 3. Overview of the research design

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSES

Due to a number of absences among participants, we analysed data which was derived out of the each test on 100 participants. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the scores and retention rates of each test.

TABLE 1
OVERVIEW OF EACH TEST AFTER THE CARD GAME ACTIVITY AND THE EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

Card game activity								
Test part	Immediate post-test				Delayed post-test			
	Overall	Receptive	Productive	Mapping	Overall	Receptive	Productive	Mapping
Mean	49.17	16.50	15.80	16.87	43.66	14.48	13.05	16.13
SD	4.78	1.43	2.57	1.43	8.62	2.68	4.74	2.29

Explicit instruction								
Test part	Immediate post-test				Delayed post-test			
	Overall	Receptive	Productive	Mapping	Overall	Receptive	Productive	Mapping
Mean	48.72	16.54	15.37	16.81	43.19	14.50	13.12	15.57
SD	6.27	1.79	3.12	2.17	10.11	2.94	4.59	3.57

n = 100

TABLE 2
RETENTION RATES OF EACH TEST AFTER BOTH TREATMENTS

Test type	Card game activity				Explicit instruction			
	Overall	Receptive	Productive	Mapping	Overall	Receptive	Productive	Mapping
Immediate post-tests	91.06	91.67	87.78	93.72	90.22	87.67	85.39	93.39
Delayed post-tests	80.85	80.44	72.50	89.61	79.98	80.56	72.89	86.50

The score on each test and retention rates from the card game activity and explicit instruction show a slight ceiling effect. Moreover, they are on a declining trend in an analogous way. For further analysis, the authors employed a repeated two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc tests to answer the following RQs.

RQ.1 Compared to both an immediate and delayed post-tests on each treatment, do Japanese EFL junior high school learners show differential outcomes?

RQ.2 Compared to both the treatments on each post-test, do Japanese EFL junior high school learners show differential outcomes? The descriptive statistics results are displayed in Table 3.

TABLE 3
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, NUMBER, MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SCORES OF THE TWO TESTS IN IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED POST-TESTS

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Immediate post-tests	Card game activity	49.17	4.78	100	32	54
	Explicit instruction	48.72	6.27	100	23	54
Delayed post-tests	Card game activity	43.66	8.62	100	21	54
	Explicit instruction	43.19	10.11	100	6	54

The ANOVA showed that there was no interaction between the treatment types and the tests, $F(1, 99) = .001$, $p = <.001$, $\eta^2 p = .000$. To answer RQ.1, post-hoc Bonferroni test showed that the scores on the immediate post-tests were significantly higher than those on the delayed post-tests in both the card game activity and explicit instruction based on the .05 probability levels, $p < .00$, $\eta^2 p = .552$ and $p < .00$, $\eta^2 p = .535$ respectively. Therefore, for RQ.1, one can conclude that Japanese junior high school students were unable to retain what they learned through both treatments.

Subsequently, for RQ.2, comparing both treatments on each post-test, Bonferroni post-hoc test results at .05 probability levels did not reveal any significant differences. Therefore, responding to RQ.2, it is clear that neither the card game activity nor the explicit instruction showed any superiority in this research.

Consequently, RQ.3 “Does learners’ proficiency influence the retention of basic verbs in each treatment?” demonstrates which levels of participants performed especially well with the card game activity and the explicit instruction on the other respectively. In order to answer this RQ, two-way ANOVA with repeated measures for both the treatments were conducted. The results of the card game activity are shown in Table 4 and Figure 4. The ANOVA showed the statistically significant interaction between the levels of participants and the tests, $F(2, 97) = 5.34$, $p = .006$, $\eta^2 p = .099$. At the same time, Bonferroni post hoc analysis revealed that significant difference was found between high and low proficiency participants on the delayed post-test at .05 probability level.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE CARD GAME ACTIVITY

		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Immediate post-test	High	50.55	3.70	33
	Intermediate	49.71	4.45	34
	Low	47.24	5.52	33
Delayed post-test	High	46.94	6.45	33
	Intermediate	44.24	8.28	34
	Low	39.79	9.54	33

Note. Max. = 54, Min. = 21.

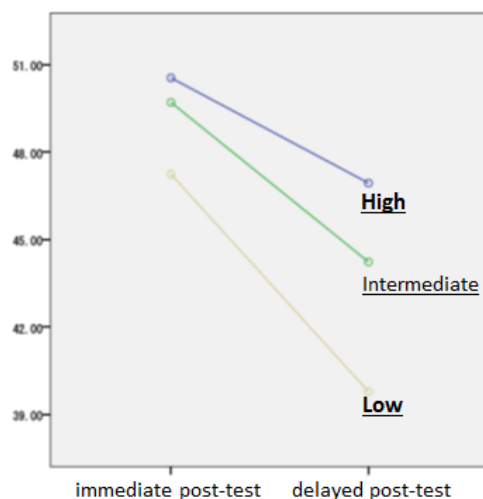


Figure 4. Retention shift from immediate to delayed post-tests on the card game activity

Subsequently, Table 5 and Figure 5 show also a statistically significant interaction between the levels of participants and the tests, $F(2, 97) = 5.34, p = .006, \eta^2 = .099$. Though Bonferroni post hoc analysis did not reveal any significant difference among the levels of participants at the immediate post-test stage, it turned out that there was a significant difference between high and intermediate proficiency participants on the delayed post-test at .05 probability levels.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

		Mean	SD	N
Immediate post-test	High	50.27	6.22	33
	Intermediate	47.56	7.35	34
	Low	48.37	4.83	33
Delayed post-test	High	47.06	9.32	33
	Intermediate	41.00	11.72	34
	Low	41.58	8.11	33

Note. Max. = 54, Min. = 6.

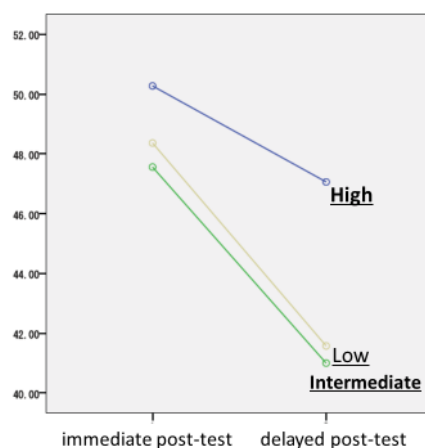


Figure 5. Retention shift from immediate to delayed post-tests on the explicit instruction

Data derived from the above analyses was interpreted by the authors to mean that the intermediate proficiency participants in particular could not benefit from the card game activity alone. Moreover, the explicit instruction saliently turned out to be beneficial for only high proficiency participants; intermediate and low proficiency participants did not profit. Though the statistically significant difference was only observed between high and intermediate proficiency participants, the tendency were remarkably similar to that of low proficiency participants as well. The next section will explain why such results were obtained.

V. DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Though seemingly sufficient lexical retention in whole was observed through both the learner and teacher-centred methods (Table 1 and 2), it was noted that only high proficiency learners showed a loosely-declined forgetting curve;

the rest experienced further decline on the delayed post-test as a result of engaging in both the image-based card game activity and explicit instruction. Going back to the card game activity, in spite of the fact that feedback information on whether their guessing was correct or not was available to the participants, the information must not be so qualitatively effective that especially low proficiency participants were unable to retrieve their lexical knowledge appropriately on both the immediate and delayed post-tests. At the same time, the image-based explicit instruction uncovered the weakness: intermediate and low proficiency learners were not capable of retaining through the instruction though they seemed to memorize the targeted verbs as well as high proficiency learners did at the outset. Therefore, one could conclude that image-based basic verb learning has only limited effects to relatively high proficiency learners. Directing our attention to the field of second language vocabulary learning theory, one can see that little consensus should have been met in this research.

The first factor is frequency. Nation (2013) points out that words generally requires more than single meeting so that they can be stored in learners' mental lexicons. Depending on a context, it is commonly-suggested that learners meet targeted vocabulary six to twenty times at least (Rott, 1999; Waring & Takaki, 2003).

The second factor is closely related to the first. File and Adams (2010) investigated whether vocabulary should be taught isolated, integrated, or incidentally, claiming that vocabulary learning should include various kinds of instruction. Their findings indicate that preparatory vocabulary instruction raises learners' awareness, and thus the effectiveness of subsequent instruction is strengthened. Based on the suggestion above, it could be hypothesized that EFL teachers might employ both types of the treatments used in this research, learner-centred activity and teacher-centred explicit instruction in tandem, especially for low and immediate proficiency learners to gain lexical knowledge more efficiently. However how to integrate both the treatments must be clarified.

As EFL teachers, what we should keep in mind is to stand firmly on SLA theory to elaborate daily classroom instruction. Gass (1997) proposed a model of cognitive perspective SLA theory. Though her original model seems to be based on grammar acquisition of second language learners, later, Gass (1999) restates that the model can be applied to vocabulary learning as well. Looking back at her original theory of SLA, the L2 learning process can be divided into five elements: apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integration, and output⁴ (Gass, 1997). As has been shown, language learning takes place only after some linguistic information is apperceived. After it is apperceived or noticed, according to Gass, learners try to analyse how a given meaning is expressed by a form through meaning comprehension. This stage is called comprehended input. Then, subsequently, by being exposed to various kinds of linguistic input, learners are able to move on to the next stage, intake.

During intake, it is agreed that psycholinguistic processes such as hypothesis formation, testing, rejection and confirmation for given linguistic data play crucial roles in second language development. Though starting a class with explicit instruction of how given meanings are semantically motivated from a situational image and formal information could make learners notice some linguistic information, it is not likely that they would move on to the intake stage because they do not have to analyse spontaneously the relationships between the given images and forms. There is no need to deeply process the lexical information anymore because learners are spoon-fed through teacher-centred explicit instruction. In light of Gass's theoretical account, as far as the basic verbs are concerned, it seems better that learners spontaneously process basic verbs within a learner-centred activity first, in which they need to process linguistic hypotheses related to targeted basic verbs deeply, and then be given qualitatively sufficient feedback through teacher-centred explicit instruction, rather than being instructed explicitly how given meanings with images of targeted basic verbs are semantically logical from the very first, followed by learner-centred activity later. What is important here is that giving linguistic feedback is integral because learners' linguistic hypotheses would often be imprecise regardless of how deeply they could engage in a learner-centred activity. Some participants could successfully induce underlying rules of the targeted basic verbs; however, most junior high school learners do not seem to be capable of inducing completely the embedded lexical rules only by themselves: what it takes is teacher-intervention for their misinterpretations for lexical regularity after all. Similarly, learners should have trouble in understanding why individual definitions of same basic verbs are related to each other during intake and integration processes. Gass (1999) suggests that learning be facilitated when learners' readiness is satisfied by their noticing the gap between their current inter-language and authentic L2 systems. Her account is that recognizable knowledge gap is necessary in spite of the facts that it is teacher or learner driven. In that way, teacher-centred explicit instruction works well as feedback information which strength learners' current language system by explaining how seemingly unrelated items are in fact connected to each other. As a consequence, strengthening knowledge should be fully utilized or internalized as acquired knowledge.

To conclude this section, the authors can propose one abstract pedagogical implication which teachers should keep in their mind (Figure 6). Firstly, learners' attention should be directed to the relationship between core and situational images as apperceived input stage. Secondly, during the sequence of comprehended input to intake stages, learners should form linguistic hypotheses for a situational image and a formal aspect of targeted basic verbs. Lastly, from intake to the integration stages, explicit instruction conducted by teachers should consolidate their current linguistic systems.

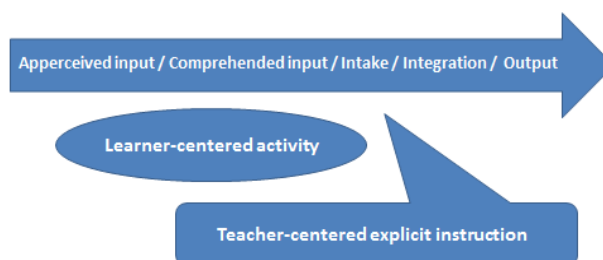


Figure 6. A model of basic verb acquisition in EFL classroom

VI. CONCLUSION

This study aimed at describing how teachers can empower developing Japanese EFL junior high school students' lexical competence. For that purpose, the authors compared the effects of learner and teacher-centred approaches of image-based basic verb learning. As a result of analyzing the retention rates on both the card game activity and the explicit instruction, only high proficiency participants were able to retain the basic verbs that appeared in both treatments. Given the findings and Gass's second language acquisition theory, it was indicated that image-based learning of basic verbs should be conducted through a learner-centred activity first where learners are supposed to process the relationships between situational images and formal aspects of basic verbs, and followed by teacher-centred explicit instruction through which learners are able to elaborate their second language lexical knowledge properly for low and intermediate proficiency participants to benefit. Finally, it is necessary to replicate this study within a structured curriculum.

Notes

(1) Even though students have experienced a certain amount of input in English while they were elementary school students at the time this research was implemented, most grammar and lexis are introduced just after they enrolled in junior high school.

(2) The placement test consisted of grammar and vocabulary, listening, writing, and reading sections. In telling contrast to mid-term and final examinations, the participants could not prepare for the test.

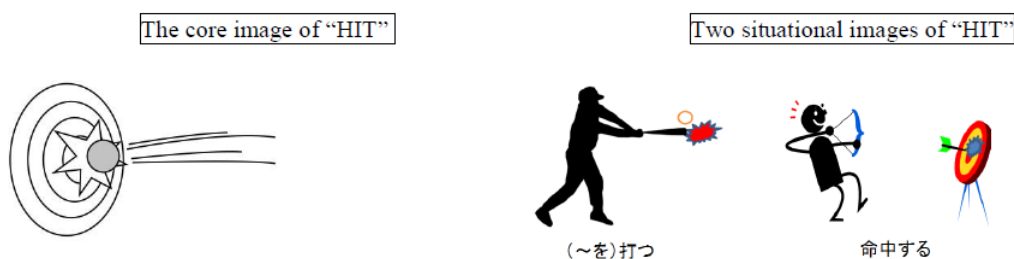
(3) Core-image reflects itself on an abstract schematic image that every basic verb or prepositions hold in it. All definitions are related to the core-image (Tanaka et al., 2007).

(4) Output can be two sides of the same coin. This means that learners are able to produce targeted items or structures at the output stage and it also functions as a bridge between the rests of the processing stages (Gass, 1997).

APPENDIX

An example material and every part of the tests are provided here.

The core image of "HIT" and the situational images employed in this research



An example of the receptive test administered in this research

hit

- 1) (～を) 買う 2) 叫ぶ 3) (～を) 打つ 4) (～を) 持つ 5) (～を) かぶせる
6) (～を) 売る 7) (～を) 狙う 8) (～に) 命中する

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An example of the productive test administered in this research

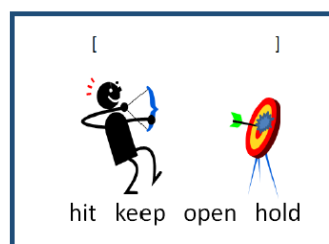
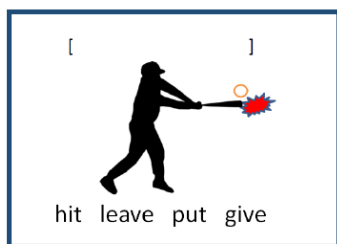
• The bomb _____ the target.

“その爆弾は標的に命中した”

• He always _____ home run at the end of the game.

“彼はたいていゲーム後半にホームランを打つ”

An example of the picture-form mapping test administered in this research



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Satoshi Yamagata is currently enrolled in the Graduate School of Education at Osaka Kyoiku University, Japan. His research interests cover second language vocabulary acquisition, cognitive linguistic approach to teaching polysemous words, and psycholinguistics.

Haruyo Yoshida works at the department of English Education, Osaka Kyoiku University, Japan. She received her doctoral degree in Vocabulary Acquisition: fMRI study from Kobe University, Japan. She teaches courses in Class Management Strategies and Applied Communicative ICT Methodology. She is currently involved in a project to develop university students' learning autonomy.

Pragmatics of Truth and Modality in Newspaper Editorials: An Example of the Punch and the Tribune

Lawal, Olarewaju Adesina

Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Lokoja, Kogi State, Nigeria

Abstract—In the contemporary newspapers, a large amount of report is based on speeches, statements, replies to questions and interviews. These formats therefore provide rich sources of personal utterance from the people who are perceived important in the society. The press represents what they say as news. Among the methods used by newspapers is modality. Modality has the insistence of a speaker who assumes the position of authority, including a claim to know what is inevitably going to happen. The modal auxiliary ‘must’; is a crucial word in editorials for instance, used to claim that the source has the right to specify obligations. However, because newspaper editors are steeped in the ideology of ownership and power, the modals used are not neutral or devoid of the subjective learning of the writer. Thus the writer may not be truly committed to the preposition made. This paper examines the pragmatic relationship between what can be termed truth and modality in language use, employing the Grice’s Co-operative principles for the analysis.

Index Terms—modality, newspaper reports, editorials, ownership ideology, truth value and pragmatics

I. INTRODUCTION

This centres on the background knowledge of language in use vis-à-vis the editorial house style which allows it to communicate with its readers, using the institutional power to influence attitudes of readers rather than projecting truth in most cases.

Linguistic communication is successful if the hearer recognizes the speaker’s communicative intention. But the speaker always faces the problem of getting the hearer to recognize that intention. This is perhaps why (Akmajian et.al, 2003, p.216) opines that in order to accommodate this basic problem, the speaker must choose an expression that will facilitate such recognition, given the context of utterance. The contents of newspaper have been held to wield a lot of influence over the mind and imagination, just as literature does. The press is seen as representation of the world in language, because, as (Fowler, 1991, p. 64)) observes, language is a semiotic code which imposes structure of values on whatever is represented. And so, news like every discourse, constructively patterns that of which it speaks.

A newspaper assumes that there is always only one reasonable point of view on any matter presented to the public. Editorial seems to affirm this point of view. This editorial represents the opinion of every newspaper. (Fowler, 1991, p.64) points out that what is even about newspaper editorial, apart from offering values and beliefs, is that they employ textual strategies which foreground the speech act of offering values and beliefs. It is of course these textual strategies adopted by the editorial that concern this study. And notable among these strategies is modality.

II. METHODOLOGY

In this section, we have attempted to analyse the extracts of two selected Nigerian newspapers’ editorial comments. The pragmatic analysis of truth and modality is the focus. In doing this, the researcher has made the extracts from the Punch and the Tribune. In the analysis, attempts have been made to determine the extent to which propositions of the editorials are true, especially when modality is employed as a linguistic device. Particularly, we have sought to analyse the text along the dimension of H.P Grice’s co-operative principles. According to Grice’ (1975; p.45), the word ‘true’ and ‘truth’ refer to properties of utterance, not state of affairs. This illustrates the view that writer’s proposition based on this study, is just to influence, not the belief, but the attitudes of his/her readers towards the reliability of whatever is expressed. In addition to these features of true and untrue propositions, the attempt is shown in every text examined, the attitudes of readers towards the verifiability of the editor’s comments. Added to this, the pragmatic effects of the propositions on readers are explicated therein.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Modal expressions signify judgment as to truth (correct) likelihood (certainty) and (might). Other modal usages stipulate obligations (should, ought to) and grant permission (‘may’). This linguistic device (modality) is an important means by editorial writers to have the insistence of a speaker who has assumed a position of authority, the authority here includes a claim to know what is inevitably going to happen. (Herndon, 1976, p.205) shares this view when she

points out that a sentence is made up of a modality constituent which includes tense and sentence modifiers such as negation. According to her, this proposition is a verb (or predicator) plus one or more noun phrases – each of which is associated with the verb in a case relationship. This modification is actually central to the work because it really shows the extent to which the writer is committed to any utterance made in newspaper representations.

This perhaps attests to the opinion of (Fowler, 1991, p.64) when he points out that anytime modal expressions are frequently high- lighted, subjectivity is enhanced but further opines that it is only in scientific reporting that modality expressions are fairly minimized. In his view, the significance of modality as far as the cueing of an oral model is concerned is that it suggests the presence of an individual subjectivity behind the printed text, who is qualified with the knowledge required to pass judgment, the status to grant leave or assign responsibility. Modality therefore becomes a useful device in the hands of journalist to blow issues out of proportion, thereby beclouding truths.

A proposition is either true or false, and it should be as exact as possible. This is evidently the sort of rationality that is useful in science. But when we stop to analyse the meaning of words, propositions tend to be meaningless in the true sense of meaning that is, they do not really tell us the truth. (Wilson, 1974, p.75) reveals that before one can be certain about the truth condition of any statement, three things must first be ascertained. The first thing, according to him, is knowing what the statement means, second, by knowing the right way to verify it and lastly, to have good evidence for believing it. Based on Wilson's opinion, if one says for instance that the 'earth is round but add either 'I don't know what that statement means, or I don't know how one could verify that statement, or 'I have no good evidence for that statement, any of these conditions makes the original statement absurd.

Wilson's argument sounds convincing but how do one account for some statements that are used often like 'I sleep all the time, doctor ;' Do we in real life judge the above mentioned statement to be 'false or ' meaningless' or do we try to make sense of it, in spite of the fact that it is really illogical? There is no way one can sleep all the time but in everyday conversation, it will trigger an interpretation by the listener which may reinstate the co-operative principles.

In the view of (Akmajian et.al, 1978, p.231) they differentiate truth relations from truth properties, arguing that both though fall within the scope of semantics, the most central truth relation for semantics is entailment. That is, one sentence 'S' is said to entail another sentence 'S' when the truth of the first guarantees the truth of the second and the falsity of the second guaranteed the falsity of the first, as in;

- a. 'The car is red entails the car has a colour'
- b. 'The needle is too short entails the needle is not long enough'

We can see that the first sentence in each example, if true, guarantees the truth of the second, and the falsity of the second sentence in each example.

(Papafragou, 2005, p.3) sees truth – conditionality from the epistemic modality view. She counters the epistemic position of modality that it does not contribute to truth conditional content, using Halliday's argument that modality is external to the content of any proposition and thus constitutes the attitude taken up by the speaker. This means of course that modality represents the opinion of any speaker or writer and not any total commitment to the truth of the statement.

Linguistic theory exists in several different models, which have divergent goals and terminologies. Language is a human function that pervades and shapes our daily lives. The complexity of English language, as any other human language, allows it to be analysed from different positions over the years. Notable among them are sociolinguistics, syntax, phonology, semantics just to mention a few.

Besides the aforementioned aspects of linguistic analysis, language comprises also a pragmatic aspect, to which are reckoned all those mechanisms that relate the language to its context of use, where this context includes the speaker, his audience, and the non-linguistic setting. Two general arrears of pragmatic function are well known: one is the area of speech acts, the other that of cooperative principles.

The central insight underlying the notion of speech act is that, in addition to meaning something, a sentence may also do something: it may assert, question, command, warn, and promise. Thus, as we are saying something, we are also doing something through speaking. This aspect of the interpersonal function of language has been studied particularly by linguistic philosophers, and notably by J. L. Austin – whose 'How to do things with words' (1955) sums up this perspective – and following him, J.R. Searle. To Austin and Searle we owe the notion of 'illocutionary act' or (a slightly more elegant label)' speech act 'A speech act is a form of words which, if spoken or written in appropriate conditions and under appropriate conventions actually constitutes the performance of an action. Austin calls them '*performatives*.' Consider the following utterances:

1. The dog is on the mat;
2. Dele drinks habitually;
3. I declare you man and wife;
4. I name this ship Bankole;
5. I promise to pay you ₦ 10.

Notice that sentences 1 and 2 above are quite different from those of 3 – 5 because 1 and 2 only describe states of affairs and sequentially conform to the true/ false criterion. Austin therefore names this class of sentences '*constatives*'. The other class of sentences (3- 5), he labels '*performatives*'. In the view of Austin, in uttering 3-5, the speaker does not report a state of affairs but performs an action, bringing into existence a new state of affairs.

Where the utterance literally affects the act referred to: Kola and Dupe are thereby married, the ship named, the speaker commits himself to pay the addressee ₦10. Thus speech acts are integrally enmeshed with the system of conventions that constitute a social and political world, and speech act analysis offers linguistics a direct point of entry into some practices such as newspaper editorials, which is the subject of this article.

As we rightly know, the illocutionary act possesses only one meaning, its illocutionary force, the reader of a text recognizes that the utterance of a particular utterance in any context counts as a certain action. This means that the presence of many directives, threats, advice which carries ambiguous and modified expressions in editorial columns only signify that the utterance stand for attempts by the writer to get his reader to perform future action and the reader will accordingly hold the editor responsible for the felicity conditions of asserting. This therefore qualifies speech act theory as a good candidate for the analysis of this study.

However, the application of speech act's concept of intentionality to newspaper discourse, especially on the editorial, may not hold enough water because the concept limits itself to those intentions specified by a writer's invocation of felicity conditions established by his linguistic community. The theory cannot handle unconscious intentions or conscious purpose not identifiable by the conventional procedures for making speech act work.

More so, the notion that only performative verbs could be used to perform actions seems unpersuasive because there is no formal (grammatical) way of distinguishing performative verbs from other sorts of verbs in any text, most especially on editorial pages. Similarly, the presence of a performative verb does not guarantee that the specified action is performed by the reader.

Based on the above, any attempt to adopt speech act theory to analyse this study shall be tantamount to pushing it beyond certain limitations. While Austin makes a distinction between what speakers say and what they mean, (Grice, 1975, p.45) also formulates a theory to explain how a hearer gets from what is said to what is meant, from the level of expressed meaning to the level of implied meaning.

Since Grice conceives of conversation as a purposive, rational behavior, he formulates rules that explain men's conduct in their talk exchanges. First of all, he says speakers and hearers assume a co-operative principle (CP), which he believes should be in force throughout their conversations.

According to (Grice, 1975, p.45), the rule states thus: "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." The CP encompasses four principles or maxims:

1. Maxim of Quantity

- i. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purpose of the exchange).
- ii. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2. Maxim of Quality

- i. Do not say what you believe to be false.
- ii. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

3. Maxim of Relation

- i. Be relevant

4. Maxim of Manner

- Super-maxim: Be perspicuous
- i. Avoid obscurity of expression
- ii. Avoid ambiguity
- iii. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)
- iv. Be Orderly

(Adapted from Grice, 45-46)

Just as speech theory has not provided a fool proof method of detecting authorial intentions in any text, critics also hold that Grice's CP and maxims fail to account for the following:

One, sometimes an utterance has a range of possible interpretations. How do we know when the speaker is deliberately failing to observe a maxim and hence that an implicature is intended?

Two, how can we distinguish between different types of non-observance (e.g., distinguish a violation from an infringement)?

And more in this purpose, Grice argued that there should be a mechanism for calculating implicature, but it is not always clear how this operates. For instance, the same words may convey, in different implicatures. The implicature so conveyed in one particular context is not random, however. Yet Grice's CP and maxim would be more attractive to the attention of this work than Austin's speech act theory in the sense that, two aspects of Grice's maxims are central to the concern of this study. For example, when the maxim of quality is flouted, Grice lists irony metaphor, meiosis, and hyperbole as the outcome whereas the flouting of the maxim of manner results in ambiguity and obscurity. In this light, the theory of conversational implicature is of use to this article. CP, which directs the conversational participants to follow the points of the talk exchange, is especially protected in the selection process for editorial writing. Based on this application, any text produced by the writer represents a conversation between the writer and reader.

Grice's formulation of the CP and the maxims, describes in particular the behavior of participants in a conversation whose purpose is to communicate efficiently. He does not however, rule out other purposes for other conversations.

Taking this hint therefore, the study proposes that the point of the interaction between the writer of an editorial and his readers is the assertion of modality as linguistic tool to reach out to the audience (reader).

Whenever a reader detects any violation of the two maxims by the editorial writer, it is interpreted as a deliberate attempt to flatter or necessarily appeal to emotion rather than presenting the truth. Our attitude to this pragmatic analysis is basically integrative. However, it is evident from the foregoing review of speech act and conversational analysis that a more suitable model for this study is the latter. Thus where it suits our purpose, we can add terms and concepts from other models particularly semantics, sociolinguistics, syntax, when they would do a particular job better

Texts

The study provides two Newspaper editorials- namely The Punch and Tribune for the analysis. 'The Punch' is labeled (A) while 'Tribune' is labeled (B). The two editorial columns are used to discuss the pragmatic impact they have on the writers and readers, using modality as the basis.

(A) *So far, the FG seems to have mismanaged the Niger Delta crisis by relying so much on the use of force instead of finding a lasting political solution to the problem. The 2005 National Political Reform Conference provided a good opportunity for the FG to resolve the matter politically, but it did not seize it. Now, if the FG listens to the hawks who want more troops deployed in the Niger Delta, a full blown armed confrontation may result, and the nation's economy mainly driven by oil wealth, may be grounded... The FG should be cautions not to plunge the whole nation into another civil strife through the Niger Delta conflict Punch; Monday, March 13, 2006 P.16.*

Ai

The first sentence of this text is governed by the illocutionary force admonition, adopted to accuse the government's stance on the resolution of conflict in the Niger Delta region. Moreover, the writer applies the technique of violating the Maxim of Quality by not stating or revealing the actual solution offered by 2005 National Conference to tackle the problem.

Very central to this work is the use of modality. In the first line, the lexeme 'seems to have mismanaged' is used and towards the end of the sentence, another modal verb, 'may result' and finally 'should be cautions...' One thing important in the use of modality is that the vocabulary is somewhat an ethical judgment which undeniably relates to the opinion of the writer. For instance, one can notice in the text that the degree of truth condition varies from one modal verb to the other in the way they occur in the text. While the truth condition in 'seems to' and 'may', elicit little confidence in terms of reliability that of 'should' is higher. Judged from the above, the writer is therefore led to violate the 1st part of Maxim of Quality (Do not say what you believe to be false.)

(A) *But the militants must eschew violence and embrace dialogue in the interest of their people who bear the brunt of the armed engagement with the standing military. They must allow the due process to prevail in the matters involving chief Alamiyeseigha and Mujahid Asari Dokubo. Also, the nine hostage should be released unconditionally, as a resort to terror in the Niger Delta, under any guide, is bound to fail and must be condemned. Monday, February 27, 2006. P.g.10*

(Aii)

The text begins with the voice of a speaker who has assumed a position of authority. The authority here includes a claim to know what is unfailingly going to happen; the effect of a full weight of military campaign on the militants. The modal auxiliary 'must' which is repeated twice makes more salient the cruciality of the language of editorials. They claim that the source has the right to specify obligation; 'the nine hostages should be released unconditionally...'

However, the whole utterance seems to appeal seriously to emotion rather than indicating fact or truth since no one is sure of the total commitment of the writer to the truth of the proposition. And in as much as modals go with the ethical judgment of the writer towards his proposition, the truth conveyed is unreliable because the major use of ethical judgment as observed by (Levinson, 1983, p.6), is not to indicate fact but to create influence.

Therefore, based on the use of these modals with strong opinions, it is plausible to infer that the writer uses the said modals to evince his attitude and thereafter exert own influence upon the attitude of the readers. Thus the modals are crucial enough to give appearance of consensus and solidarity with the people of the region. 'Must' is authoritative in nature but equally has a dialogic style of arousing the feelings of the audience. Due to the emotive nature of the comment therefore, the indication of truth in the utterance is far from being convincing and accordingly violates the two maxims- Quantity and Quality.

(B)

The reference to the Niger Delta region as "The underbelly of Nigeria" is definitely an apt metaphor describing both the wealth and the vulnerability of that region vis-à-vis the corporate existence of the country. If Nigeria were to be an immense, docile retille, the Niger Delta region would have been its soft, vulnerable underbelly, at which, for over a month now, darts and poisonous arrows of anger, discount- entment, abduction and subterfuge had been hunted by vicious, angry youth of that region.

Thursday, 10th February, 2006. Pg.10

(B)

This text responds to the basic story of the Niger Delta crisis and its attendant consequences. The writer of this text has violated the maxim of Quality by presenting falsehood. Looking at the text closely, the editorial dramatizes vocabulary that is generally emotive. And this leads to the common use of evaluative words such as 'definitely',

'immense', 'docile', 'its soft', vulnerable underbelly', darts', etc.. All these words have the purpose of modifying the attitudes of the readers towards his strong feelings on Niger Delta crisis. For instance, the last two lines couched in highly emotive terms really show his personal opinions about the issue at hand. The writer merely uses these words to evince his own attitude and thereafter exerts influence upon the attitude of his addressee. This is why the truth in the whole utterance is questionable because no one knows the extent of his commitment to the utterance made. For instance lines (5 and 6) seriously question the truth value of the utterance by the use of the modal verb 'would' have been its.....' The above mentioned agent of modality can just be regarded as comment or attitude ascribable to the writer. The uncertainty in the truth content of the utterance is not dependable.

(B) *We urge the lawmakers to be patriotic and honest, to put the tenure extension saga behind them and do what is right for the country by giving it a body of laws that would usher in peace and propel it towards growth and development. In essence, our advice is that our law makers should revisit the amendment bill and give the country a wholesome, workable constitution.*

Thursday, 9th February, 2006. Pg.10.

(B)

The editorial enters a dialogic relationship with its readership, starting this paragraph with pronoun 'we'. There is no doubt that readers are implicated in the ideological position of the 'we' to the extent that they almost accept the position of the writer. Striking in the text is the use of modality which concerns this study. We notice that the truth content of one modal varies from the other in the way they occur in the text. For instance, '...our law makers should' is definitely surer than "... that would usher in peace..." in line (3) this difference really attests to the points that modality is an ethical language which does not go with truth whenever it is employed in discourse. It is therefore plausible to render the text unreliable, thereby constituting a flagrant violation of the maxims of Quality as well as Quantity.

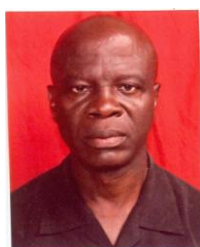
IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The work of art is generated as part of a communicative action system whereby the narrator (writer) who has been granted full audience by his readers does this communicative act to the fullest. Thus, a writer such as an editor newspaper, often creates a level of communication within the artistic framework between an assumed narrative personality and his idealized communicative partner, the astute reader. This is to say that the reader who picks up a work of literature (newspaper inclusive) of a given genre already has a predetermined idea of what the nature of the communication situation is. A writer equally addresses to an audience a narrative utterance whose point is to observe the CP and maxims as specified for such utterances; that is, he knows the story, provides all the relevant information, evaluates adequately, and succeeds in making the Audience-ship worth it. As far as communicative action game (CAG) is concerned, adequate communication cannot take place if the reader is not prepared to recognize and accept his role as the writer's partner within the fictional world. His narrative turn will therefore be accordingly judged by the co-operative principle, i.e a set of conventions agreed upon by all the participants in the narrative situation.

It is obvious from the foregoing that in newspaper representations, certain attitudes are displayed linguistically by writers but basically, the newspaper and its readers share a common discursive competence who know the permissible statements and even prohibitions. Therefore, any proposition is assessed by reader on the basis of this agreement. And this makes it very salient that the relationship which the editorial voice constructs with the readers seems to be dual in nature. One, the source claims the authority to explain an argument and to persuade the reader of its correctness. Second, the editorial claims solidarity by invoking consensus. This institutional power enables the writer to use words, using the 'journalese' to influence attitudes rather than pointing out what is supposed to be true.

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Lawal, Olarewaju Adesina, born on the 3rd of October, 1962 at Eruku in Ekiti Local Government Area of Kwara State of Nigeria. Primary – 1966-1972; Secondary 1973-1978; B.A (Hons) Linguistics 1990, M.A. English Language, Ph.D English Language.

He had worked in Kaduna Polytechnic as a Lecturer in the Department of Languages between 1995 and 2012 before moving to his present place, Federal University Lokoja as a Senior Lecturer in the Department of English and Literary Studies. He has published the following among others – 'An Analysis of Irony in Nigerian Newspaper Cartoons: Example of the Guardian and This Day' (Kaduna State University); 'The Impact of Pidgin on Political and Economic Discourses in Nigeria' (Kaduna State University) and Coping with Mother Tongue Interference in Phonology Class: The Example of Federal University Lokoja in Kogi

State Nigeria (2014).

Dr. Lawal is a member of Linguistic Association of Nigeria (LAN) and Nigeria English Studies Association (NESA).

The Effect of Teaching Experience on English Language Teachers' Perceptions of Learners' Listening Comprehension Problems

Ozgur Yildirim

Faculty of Education, Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey

Abstract—Most of the studies on listening in a foreign language focus on the learner perspective, whereas research on teacher perspective is quite limited. The purpose of the study reported in this paper was to focus on listening from the teachers' perspective and investigate the effect of teaching experience on English language teachers' perceptions of learners' listening comprehension problems. The participants of this study were 148 English language teachers in Turkey, 81 of these participants were pre-service teachers studying their final semester in the English language teacher education department of a state university, and 67 of them were English language teachers working at public schools for at least five years. The data collection instrument was a perception questionnaire, Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis was used as the main data analysis method, and Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients and independent-samples t-tests were also used in order to better interpret the findings. The results of the study suggested that pre-service teachers have more optimistic perceptions of learners' listening comprehension problems as they think learners experience problems less frequently when compared to their in-service colleagues.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, teacher perceptions, teaching experience, English teacher education

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening had been one of the most neglected skills in English language teaching, especially before the introduction of the communicative and learner-centered approaches to instruction. With the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching in the 1970s, teaching English for communicative purposes became a vital goal in most language teaching contexts around the world, and the importance of listening comprehension started to rise (Morley, 2001; Richard & Rodgers, 2001; Rivers, 1981). Vandergrift (2007) suggests that listening is now accepted as the heart of the language; and Richards (2005) states that "the status of listening in language programs has undergone substantial change in recent years. From being a neglected skill relegated to passing treatment as a minor strand within a speaking course it now appears as a core course in many language programs" (p. 85).

With the increased attention on listening in language teaching, many studies have been conducted on various aspects of this language skill. Some researchers specifically focused on the effective ways of developing listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 2007; Goh, 2002; Kalidova, 1981), whereas some others studied learners' listening comprehension problems (Butt, M. N., Sharif, M. M., Naseer-ud-Din, M., Hussain, I., Khan, F., & Ayesha, U, 2010; Graham, 2006; Yousif, 2006; Goh, 2000; Hasan, 2000).

However, most of these studies focused on listening from the learner perspective, and research on teacher perspective of this issue is limited (Yildirim, 2013). The purpose of the study reported in this paper was to focus on listening from the teachers' perspective and investigate the effect of teaching experience on English language teachers' perceptions of learners' listening comprehension problems. In other words, the study aimed at finding out whether there is a difference between English language teachers who have been teaching for more than five years and teacher candidates who were about to graduate from the English language teacher education department of a state university in Turkey in terms of their perceptions of language learners' listening comprehension problems. The results of the study were expected to provide guidance for English language teachers and teacher trainers.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As a language skill, listening has been defined by The International Listening Association (1996) as the process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages. Listening, unfortunately, is often regarded as a passive skill although it requires the listener's complete involvement as an active process in which individuals concentrate on selected aspects of what they hear and associate it with existing knowledge (Fang, 2008; Lindsay & Knight, 2006; Littlewood, 1981).

Wallace, Stariha and Walberg (2004) state that through listening students receive information and gain insights, and therefore, listening skills are quite important for learning purposes. Nunan (1998) suggests that listening is the basic skill in language learning, and Rost (1994) explains the importance of listening in language classroom as follows (p.

141-142): (a) Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner, learning cannot begin without understanding the input; (b) spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner, learners must interact to achieve understanding. (c) authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to understand language in the way it is actually used by native speakers; (d) listening exercises provide teachers with a tool for drawing learners' attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, new interaction patterns) in the language.

The importance of listening as a language skill makes teaching listening comprehension a crucial aspect of the English language instruction (Cahyono & Widiati, 2009; Morley, 2001). However, it was one of the neglected skills in the language classrooms for a long time, language teachers paid more attention to reading and grammatical skills and teaching listening was not accepted as a significant feature of the language learning process (Richards & Rodgers, 2001); instead it served as a means of introducing new grammar through model dialogues (Field, 2008).

In the 1970s, with the rise of Communicative Language Teaching, listening started to gain the importance it deserved. With increased emphasis on individual learners and individuality of learning, listening was started to be seen as a nonpassive receptive process and listening comprehension was started to be considered a fundamental language skill (Morley, 2001). Since then, there have been many improvements in teaching listening over the years as teachers and researchers have understood the significance of the listening skill in language learning and its role in communication, and as they have started to pay more attention to teaching this skill in language classrooms (Yildirim, 2013; Field 2008; Vandergrift, 2007; Rost, 2002; Vandergrift, 1999; Rubin, 1994).

With this increased attention on listening, some studies started to focus on the challenges students and teachers face during the process of teaching listening. Mendelson (1994) states three points that made teaching listening a challenging task: (a) listening was not accepted as a separate skill to be taught explicitly for a long time; (b) teachers felt insecure about teaching listening; and (c) there had been a deficiency of the traditional materials for teaching listening comprehension. Looking at the issue from the learners' perspective, some researchers suggested that listening is one of the most difficult skills for language learners (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011; Goh, 2000).

Learners encounter many problems while they are listening to texts in the target language (Hamouda, 2012; Graham, 2006; Goh, 2000; Hasan, 2000). Underwood (1989) states that speed of delivery, not being able to have words repeated, limited vocabulary, failing to follow signals and transitions, lack of contextual knowledge, and trying to understand every word are among the difficulties students encounter while listening in the target language. Ur (2007) adds the following items to that list: hearing sounds, understanding intonation and stress, coping with redundancy and noise, predicting, understanding colloquial vocabulary, and understanding different accents. In another study, Goh (2000, p. 59) investigated the listening comprehension problems of a group of Chinese students leaning English as a foreign language and identified the most common problems as follows: quickly forget what is heard, not recognizing words already known, understanding words but not the intended message, neglecting the next part when thinking about meaning, and being unable to form a mental representation from words heard.

One of the ways of providing solutions to English language learners' listening comprehension problems can be focusing on teachers' perceptions of listening comprehension problems. The number of studies focusing on the teacher perspectives of listening comprehension problems is quite limited. In one of the studies that focused on the issue from that perspective, Yildirim (2013) investigated teachers' perceptions of university level students' listening comprehension problems and compared them with the learners' perceptions. The study reported in this paper focuses on pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions related to English language learners' listening comprehension problems.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 148 (F = 97, M = 51) English language teachers in Turkey. 81 (F = 56, M = 26) of these participants were pre-service teachers studying their final semester in the English language teacher education department of a state university, and 67 of the participants were (F = 41, M = 26) English language teachers working at public schools for at least five years. Pre-service teacher participants of the study had been teaching as a requirement of their program for one year at public schools at least one hour a week under the supervision of the university instructors and mentor teachers. The data for the study were collected towards the end of the second semester, which indicates that the pre-service teacher participants were about to graduate and become in-service English language teachers soon.

B. Instrument

The data collection instrument used in this study was adapted from a perception questionnaire developed by Hasan (2000) for investigating English language learners' perceptions of listening comprehension problems. The instrument was adapted and used in the Turkish context for investigating English language teachers' perceptions of listening comprehension problems by Demirkol (2009) and Yildirim (2013).

There are 30 items in the questionnaire and the participants answer the questions by using a five-point scale of frequency ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The questionnaire has five sections named as message, task, speaker, listener, and strategy. The message section includes items focusing on message related listening comprehension problems (e.g. interpreting the meaning of a long spoken text, unfamiliar words); the task section is related to task related listening comprehension problems (e.g. predicting what is going to be said, filling a chart or graphic while

listening); the speaker section is about speaker related problems (e.g. pronunciation, varied accents); the listener section includes items related to listener based comprehension problems (e.g. feeling nervous, quickly forgetting the words); and the strategy section focuses on strategy related listening comprehension problems (e.g. predicting the words, paying attention to the topic markers).

The validity of the instrument for this particular research context was ensured by taking expert opinion from six university professors in the field of foreign language teacher education, and six English language teachers working at Turkish public schools for more than ten years. For reliability, Cronbach's alpha was computed and found as .783, which indicates good internal consistency (reliability) for this administration of the instrument.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The data for the study were collected at the end of the spring semester in 2013-2014 academic year. The participants were instructed that they should answer the questions by considering an intermediate level listening class. The pre-service teacher participants of the study answered the questionnaire in their class time whereas the in-service teachers answered it in the schools they work. Only the volunteering participants answered the questionnaire; to ensure anonymity, the participants were not asked to give their names.

For data analysis, first, mean scores were calculated for the overall instrument and for all five sections. Then, Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis was used as the main data analysis method. Six different multiple regression models were used for analyzing the data, one model for each calculated mean score from the questionnaire. The dependent variables used in the regression models were the overall mean score from the questionnaire, and the mean scores from five sections. The independent variables used in each regression model were the same, and they were entered into the model in the same order: gender, GPA, and teaching experience. In each regression model, experience was entered into the model as the final independent variable in order to see the unique effect of teaching experience above and beyond the other independent variables. Gender, and teaching experience were dichotomous variables and the following dummy codes were used when the data related to these variables were being entered into the statistical analysis software (SPSS, version 20): 0 was used for female, and pre-service teacher; 1 was used for male, and in-service teacher. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients and independent-samples t-tests were also used in order to better interpret the results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression analyses.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 presents the correlation coefficients among the dependent variables used in the study and the independent variable of teaching experience.

TABLE 1:
CORRELATION MATRIX – DEPENDENT VARIABLES AND EXPERIENCE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Instrument Overall	-						
2. Message	.583*	-					
3. Task	.775*	.273*	-				
4. Speaker	.653*	.425*	.474*	-			
5. Listener	.857*	.386*	.579*	.342*	-		
6. Strategy	.701*	.328*	.407*	.247*	.542*	-	
7. Experience [#]	.876*	.490*	.706*	.583*	.755*	.582*	-

* – significant at the .01 level
– 0 = pre-service; 1 = in-service

As Table 1 indicates, there was a significant strong positive correlation between experience and overall mean score from the instrument ($r = .876$), which indicates that, as compared to the perceptions of pre-service teacher participants, the in-service teacher participants of the study tended to think that English language learners experience listening comprehension problems more frequently. The results were similar for the subsections of the questionnaire, for each subsection there was a significant strong positive or moderate correlation between the subsection mean score and the experience variable.

Presenting the results of six different Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses, Table 2 draws a better picture in terms of understanding the effect of teaching experience on English teachers' perceptions of learners' listening comprehension problems.

TABLE 2:
MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS FOR OVERALL INSTRUMENT MEAN SCORE AND MEAN SCORES FROM SUBSECTIONS

Dependent Variable	R Square (Model) ^a	F (Model) ^a (df: 3, 144)	R Square (Change) ^b	F (Change) ^b (df: 1, 144)
Instrument Overall	.772	162.651*	.744	470.304*
Message	.240	15.188*	.236	44.691*
Task	.530	54.196*	.461	141.447*
Speaker	.342	24.954*	.327	71.550*
Listener	.571	63.915*	.562	188.792*
Strategy	.341	24.792*	.335	73.128*

* – significant at the .01 level

a – independent variables (in the order entered in the model): gender, GPA, experience

b – independent variable: experience

According to Table 2, in the first regression model, which had the overall mean score from the instrument as the dependent variable and age, GPA, and teaching experience as the independent variables, the R Square was found as .772, and the R Square change was found as .744, both significant at the .01 level. These results indicate that the independent variables of the study altogether significantly explain 77.2 percent of the variation in the mean scores, and teaching experience itself, controlling for gender and GPA, significantly explains 74.4 percent of the variation of the mean scores. The same tendency has been observed for five multiple regression models designed for the subsections of the instrument. In each model, R Square for the model and R Square Change value for the teaching experience variable were found to be significant at the .01 level. The highest R Square Change value (.562) was found for the Listener section of the questionnaire, indicating that 56.2 percent of the variation in the Listener subsection mean scores can be explained by teaching experience. Listener subsection was followed by the task, strategy, speaker, and message subsections, respectively. These results from the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses indicate that teaching experience had a significant and a big effect on the participants' perceptions of English language learners' listening comprehension problems.

Results from the independent-samples t-tests corroborate the results of the multiple regression analyses. Table 3 presents the mean score differences of the two participant groups according to overall instrument score and scores from subsections of the instrument.

TABLE 3:
MEAN SCORE DIFFERENCES

	Pre-service (n = 81)		In-service (n = 67)		df	t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Instrument Overall	2.75	.22	3.63	.26	146	-21.989*
Message	2.95	.81	3.75	.54	146	-6.785*
Task	2.72	.50	3.87	.65	146	-12.029*
Speaker	2.71	.48	3.35	.39	146	-8.676*
Listener	2.76	.44	3.72	.38	146	-13.929*
Strategy	2.68	.55	3.57	.69	146	-8.464*

* – significant at the .01 level

As Table 3 indicates, there was a significant mean difference between pre-service and in-service teacher participants of the study for the overall instrument score and the scores of the subsections. In each of these differences, in-service teacher participants' mean scores were significantly higher than those of the pre-service teacher participants. These results indicate that in-service teachers' perceptions of English language learners' frequency of experiencing listening comprehension problems were higher as compared to pre-service teachers. In other words, as compared to in-service teachers, pre-service teachers think that English language learners experience listening comprehension problems less frequently.

All in all, the results of this study suggest that pre-service teachers have more optimistic perceptions of learners' listening comprehension problems as they think learners experience problems less frequently when compared to their in-service colleagues. However, the related literature on language learners' listening comprehension problems corroborates the in-service teachers' perceptions. Goh (2000) found that language learners frequently experience problems in the three phases of listening process: perception, parsing, and utilization. In the perception phase, learners experience problems like not recognizing words they know, neglecting the next part when thinking about meaning, or concentrating too hard or being unable to concentrate; in the parsing phase they quickly forget what is heard, are unable to form a mental representation from words heard, or do not understand subsequent parts of input; and in the utilization phase they understand words but not the intended message, or feel confused about the key ideas in the message. In another study, Hasan (2000) explored learners' perceptions and beliefs about their listening comprehension problems and found that ineffective usage of listening strategies, the listening text itself, the speaker, the listening tasks and activities, the message, and listeners' attitudes were the sources of the frequently experienced listening comprehension problems. Finding similar results, Graham (2006) revealed that dealing with the delivery of the spoken text and trying to hear and understand the individual words were the frequently experienced listening comprehension problems reported by the learners. In addition, Hamouda's (2012) study indicated that the students' frequently experienced

listening comprehension problems were pronunciation, speed of speech, insufficient vocabulary, different accents of speakers, lack of concentration, anxiety, and bad quality of recording.

In addition, recently Yildirim (2013), using the same questionnaire used in the current study, conducted a study which focused on Turkish university instructors' perceptions of English learners' listening comprehension problems. Although Yildirim's study reports only item-based mean scores, not the subsection mean scores, the results show that in 21 of the 30 items in the questionnaire, the instructors' mean score was over 3.5, and in seven of the remaining nine items the mean score was over 3.0. These results corroborate the in-service teacher participants of this study whose mean score from the overall questionnaire was 3.63, and mean scores from four of the five subsections were over 3.5; on the other hand, in the current study, pre-service teachers' mean scores from all the subsections (and therefore from the overall instrument) was under 3.0.

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teaching experience on English language teachers' perceptions of learners' listening comprehension problems. The study compared a group of pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of English learners' listening comprehension problems with those of in-service teachers who had been working as English teachers for at least five years. The results of the study indicated that as compared to in-service teachers, pre-service teachers think that English language learners experience listening comprehension problems less frequently.

Although it can be considered normal for in-service teachers to have more realistic perceptions than the pre-service teachers because of their experience in the job, the large and significant mean score differences may suggest that English language teachers graduate with very optimistic perceptions about listening comprehension problems, which may affect the quality of their listening classes negatively in the future. In order to address this potential problem, one of the strategies English language teacher education programs can use may be to increase the number of hours student teachers teach during their teaching practicum process. Spending more time in a real language classroom, teacher candidates can have better and more realistic perceptions of the real language teaching environments they will start teaching in very soon. In addition, the effect of listening comprehension problems on listening comprehension should be emphasized in the methodology courses teacher candidates take during their teacher education process. Putting specific focus on the types of listening comprehension problems experienced by language learners, and the strategies for teachers to address those problems would make future English language teachers more aware of and better prepared for these problems.

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Ozgur Yildirim is an EFL teacher trainer at Anadolu University, Faculty of Education in Eskisehir, Turkey. He holds an MA degree on Teaching English as Foreign Language from Anadolu University, and a PhD degree on Second and Foreign Language Education from State University of New York at Buffalo. Some of the courses he teaches are Using Statistical Methods in Foreign Language Education, Language Acquisition, and Testing and Evaluation in Foreign Language Learning. His research interests include learner autonomy in second and foreign language education, EFL teacher training, listening comprehension problems, dynamic assessment, second language family literacy, and international education.

Specific Consonant Sounds of Kazakh and English Languages

Sultagubiyeva Aigul

Kh.Dosmukhamedov Atyrau State University, Atyrau, Kazakhstan

Avakova Raushangul

Turcuk and Indology Department, al-Pharabi Kazakh National University, Almaty, Kazakhstan

Kortabayeva Gulzhamal

Turcuk and Indology Department, al-Pharabi Kazakh National University, Almaty, Kazakhstan

Andabayeva Dina

Turcuk and Indology Department, al-Pharabi Kazakh National University, Almaty, Kazakhstan

Abstract—The consonant sound production play an important role in learning of the speech skills, as well as in other varieties of linguistic communication. Incorrect pronunciation of the English sounds is not only accents, but also to a breach of the meaning of words. It is discussed about comparison of the consonant sounds structure of English and Kazakh languages and they allow brighter to reveal their characteristic features and how people use language to communicate each another.

Index Terms—language communication, Kazakh and English consonants, pronunciation, letters

I. INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of learning a foreign language is the development of the child's personality, his way of thinking, imagination, hearing (intonation, distinguishing sounds), and creating conditions for the adaptation of students to use the foreign language in speeches.

Questions of pronunciation productions play a huge role in mastering the skills of speech, and in other varieties of language communication. Incorrect pronunciation of English sounds leads not only to accent, but also to a violation of the meaning of words. Distortion of speech intonation also leads to an incorrect understanding of the utterances. Without appropriate explanations and exercises Kazakh students will read and speak in English with Kazakh intonation. Every language community has its own social dialect, and consequently, its own social accent.

Kenesbayev said that speech sounds are divided into vowels and consonants. The main difference between vowels and consonants is as follows. The stream of exhaled air passing through the vocal cords conviving and resulting from vibration goes through the mouth freely and encounters no obstacle (Kenesbayev, 1962, p. 173).

The sounds uttered in such a way are called vowels. At the same muscle tension of the speech organs distributed throughout the speech unit. According to the effects on us, the vowels are the sounds of musical tone, that is, they are based on vibrations of the vocal cords, which produce the basic tone of the vowel. The vowel sound is not only the pitch, but the overtones (higher tones), which creates a tone. These are the general conditions for the formation of vowel sounds.

Isengeldina used the metaphor like “in the pronunciation of consonants in the air stream meets epiglottis cavities or that obstacle, the overcoming of which causes noise. At the same muscle tension is concentrated in the place of obstruction. From the acoustic point of view, consonant sounds are the noise, i.e. They are formed as a result of non-uniform air temperature fluctuations arising in creating obstacles for the jet of exhaled air. However, there are also so-called sonorant (sonants), in which the musical tone of voice dominates the noise” (Isengeldina, 1960, p. 11).

II. METHODOLOGY

When teaching English pronunciation in Kazakh class each group of sounds and intonation structures should be considered separately by teacher depending on the difficulty of their perception and articulation, as well as depending on the similarity of their sound phenomena of the Kazakh language.

For Kazakhs, who learns English language, is a big challenge that cases of progressive and regressive voicing assimilation more frequent and systematically in Kazakh than in English language. For the correct pronunciation of English consonants possible need to extend the obstacles of the first consonant in order to hear and feel of voiced and unvoiced pronunciation.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

For the English language, unlike from the Kazakh, characterized by a syllabic consonants [m, n, l] - «sonant," as well as the vowels can form a syllable (e.g., in syllables *people*, *garden*, *prism*). These sonants are more sonorous than the adjacent noisy consonants and act as syllabic.

Students are usually difficult to perceive the role of these syllabic sonants, because this phenomenon is alien to the Kazakh language. To clarify it, you need to give an idea of the relative sonority of speech sounds (the most voiced - the vowels, then sonoristic, then unvoiced consonants and the less sonority have voiceless consonants).

Unlike from English, syllables in the Kazakh language split into hard and soft. Hard and soft of speech depends on the presence of the word of soft (front) or hard (back) vowel. Pairs of hardness and softness comprise (*a*) – (*ə*), (*o*) – (*ə*), (*u*) – (*i*), (*ʏ*) – (*ʏ*). Only the sound (*e*) is deprived of hard species. Vowel in a syllable is not only determined the hardness or softness of it, but also determines the hardness or softness of consonants, which involved in the formation of the syllable. For example, the word *осы* (*it*), *ал* (*take*) consist of hard syllable. The sounds (*h*), (*l*), under the influence of hard consonants are pronounced firmly. Words *өс* (*grow*) *ал* (*force*) consist of soft vowels are pronounced softly.

Referring to the consonant in one syllable we observe large differences between the compared languages. English admits at the beginning of a syllable of two, three or more consonants (*strange*, *twelve*). In the Kazakh language there is not syllabic at the beginning of words more than one consonant: *жан* (*soul*), *сән* (*decoration*). At the end of the English word is possible endings of four and even five consonants, that is totally alien to the Kazakh language (*twelfths*, *sixths*).

In the vast majority of Kazakh words there is not more than two consonants at the end of a syllable and there is only limited varieties at the end of a syllable combination of two consonants: sonorant consonant + voiceless consonant *pt*, *lt*, *nt*, (*жұрт*, *бұлт*, *қант* and etc.). As for loan words, most of them appear outside of the law (atheist, litre, Omsk).

Shevyakova shows, that “the English language allows a more varied of consonant sounds than the Kazakh language, so the students are under the influence of phonetic law of the native language, they put vowels before the first consonant, or between two consonants: stand - (i) stand, ask - ask (ə) s , plan - p (i) lan, blame - b (i) lame”. (Shevyakova, 1968, p. 76).

It should indicate that the syllables with consonant at the beginning and end are gradually turning to the norm of Kazakh syllable.

When mastering English pronunciation Kazakhs students naturally resort to articulating the basis of the native language. Only later, when the conscious assimilation (taking into account peculiarities of the phonetic system of the two languages and through continuous training), they acquire new articulating base, typical of the language study.

IV. DISCUSSION

Education sounds of the language, which control the communication between people is exercised by the question. Speech organs are divided into active and passive. By actively include the lips, tongue, soft palate, rear panel throat, vocal cords. These organs produce speech or other movements necessary for the formation of sounds.

The passive organs of speech are the lips, the alveoli, bumps on the upper teeth, hard palate. These organs of speech sounds in the formation of self-study do not produce, but are used for the active support of the speech organs.

All these bodies are involved in speech sound production in carriers of the Kazakh and English languages. The only difference is that each of them has its articulation database (a system of pronunciation and stacking skills).

At mastering English pronunciation students, Kazakhs, of course, resort to articulating the basis of their native language. Only later, when the conscious assimilation (taking into account features of the phonetic system of the two languages and through long-term training), they acquire a new articulating base, typical of the studied language.

Due to differences in articulation base learners basically two types of mistakes.

1. Errors lead to a confusion of words (phonological error).
2. Errors that do not cause mixing of words, but giving particular emphasis speech (phonetic errors).

In the first case, a sound is replaced with another sound and therefore disturbed sense of the word, for example:

Cap – cab

Man – men

Sit – seat

Theme – seem

Bed – bird

Faced with errors of the first type, the teacher must pay special attention to the difference of sounds that are similar in sound (within the target language [w] - [v], [i:] - [i] and others, as well as between the studied and their own language learners [a:] - (a), [ə] - (s) [i]; - (s), etc. In this type of learning the pronunciation errors is subject to priority correction.

In the second case, the pronunciation of the English word instead of the correct color (usually shade like the sound of the native language students), which is a distortion of the rules of pronunciation of English.

For consonant in one syllable, we see large differences compares of languages. English admits at the beginning of a syllable of two, three or more consonants (*strange*, *twelve*). In the Kazakh language does not happen at the beginning of a syllable more than one consonant, *жан* (*soul*) *сән* (*decoration*).

At the end of the English word may be the end of four or even five consonants, which is quite alien to the Kazakh language (twelfths, sixths). In the majority of Kazakh words at the end of a syllable is no more than two consonants, and at the end of a syllable combination of two consonants only limited variation: sonorant + voiceless *п*т, *л*т, *н*т, (*жұп*т, *бұлт*, *қант*, etc.). As for loan words, most of them outside of the scope of the law (an atheist, a liter, Omsk).

Thus, the English language allows for a variety of combinations of consonants than the Kazakh language, so students are under the influence of phonetic law of the native language is inserted before the first vowel or consonant, or between two consonants: stand - (i) stand, ask - ask (ə) s, plan - p (i) lan, blame - b (i) lame.

It should be mentioned that the syllables with consonant clusters at the beginning and at the end they are gradually becoming the norm of Kazakh syllable.

In both languages, damages caused pronunciation of sounds in the word and at the junction of words can cause more or less assimilated (assimilation) of one sound to others. For Action, we usually distinguish between assimilation progressive, regressive, and mutual. The law of progressive assimilation (assimilation subsequent sound of the previous) operates in the Kazakh language within a single word (at the junction of the root and affix, at the junction of two components of compound words) and between words: *сөз-сөзге*, *төс-төске*, *жас гүл – жаскүл*, *малға сақ бол – малға сақпол*, *кино көрді – киногөрдi*).

An example of progressive assimilation of English pronunciation can serve it's this instead of it is this, where [s] under the influence of the preceding stunned unvoiced consonant [t].

When pronouncing the consonant [t] in the word *team*, tip of the tongue concerns the alveoli, the middle part of the tongue to the hard palate is not raised. Thus, the preceding consonant is hard. Acquiring the appropriate pronunciation skills presents some difficulties for Kazakh students.

Regressive assimilation (the assimilation of previous sound subsequent) in the Kazakh language takes place both in a single word, and between separate, adjacent to each other in words (*Аманкүл*, *ақ ешкі*, *сөзшең* are pronounced: *Аманкүл*, *ағешкі*, *сөшшең*).

In English, you can find only a limited number of cases of regressive assimilation (horse – shoe, newspaper и др.).

Most of these words refer to the obsolete vocabulary. In English, more often than not is regressive assimilation by voicing between words.

The tendency to keep unchanged the final consonant of the root, probably due to the fact that the root morpheme different English words can be different is the final consonant, which fall semantic weight. In the Kazakh language, these trends are not necessary. Despite of semantic weight or root morpheme final consonant, it is easy to like the subsequent sound.

Mullina used the metaphor “for Kazakhs, English language learners, greater difficulty is the fact that the incidence of progressive and regressive assimilation by voice in the Kazakh language and system are more frequent than in English” (Mullina, 1958, p. 49).

Therefore, students should learn to enunciate final consonants, especially calls to not to be subject to the phonetic laws of the native language to English.

As vowels, Kazakh and English consonants regards the number of members, which are not different: in the Kazakh language there are 25 consonants. In English there are 4 (without diphthongs).

When teaching pronunciation, as well as the classification of consonants in both English and Kazakh languages are usually taken into account three moments:

- 1) the place of formation of consonants
- 2) a way of the formation of consonants
- 3) work of vocal cords.

Consonants fall into labial, lingual and guttural in both languages.

English consonants are coincided with the Kazakh education by the number of the main ways.

According to a method of forming consonants of both languages are divided into: 1) slit-occlusive (affricates), 2) gap.

Stops are formed by pressing the active voice to the passive body and opening of the barriers to the passage of air, for example: [p], [b], (n), (b), and other occlusive-gap (affricates) are different from the simple. Occlusive that they bow ends slot element, which is formed by the same bodies at the same place. These include [tʃ], [dʒ], (c), (h). Pronunciation by forming a slit between the active and passive bodies slit through which the outside air is, for example: [s] [z], (c), (s) and etc.

Consonants are noisy and sonority, depending the presence or absence of voice consonants in English and Kazakh languages are divided into voiced and unvoiced. There are several consonants in Kazakh language, there are not similar the sounds of English. These are (ғ), (к), (х), (и).

Kazakh consonants (ғ), (к), (х), (и) is pronounced in contact of the back parts of tongue and soft palate. There are no soft palate in English consonants. These sounds differ in the method of formation and participation of voices (ғ) – fricative and voiced, (к) – occlusive and deaf, (х) – fricative and voiceless. All of them are combined only with back (hard) vowels and never softened (*ғасыр* – century, *қап* - bag, *халық* - people).

English sound [h] in the initial position is often mistakenly replaced by Kazakh consonants (к), (х). This is due to the fact that in Kazakh language the consonant (h) is never used at the beginning of the word. Consequently, students tend to pronounce (к), (х) instead of the English [h].

Tursunov and Hasanov used the metaphor of the “sound (и), as well as (в), (ф), (х), (ч), came into the Kazakh language from Russian language. It meets in all positions of the word. Affricate (и) belongs to the category of voiceless and consists of two elements: (т) + (с). These elements are firmly fused together, why they appear in the pronunciation of a single integral unit. This is the sound of the Kazakhs, which is instant cast and formed by the tip of the tongue to the upper incisors (circus workshop, hundredweight). There is no such consonant the sounds of the English language” (Tursunov, Hasanov, 1967, p. 56).

Specific consonants of English are [w], [θ], [dʒ]. [w] - they are double lips, fricative, sonorous sound. There is not such sound in the Kazakh language. It is formed by the work of both lips during the vibration of the vocal cords. To pronounce it correctly, you need to round lips strongly, not to push front apart and leave small lumen between them. Then corners of the mouth move quickly and energetic, as it is done in the pronunciation of the Kazakh (y) in conjunction уа, уә (уақыт – time, Уәли - Uali (the name of a person)).

To avoid replacement of the [w] Kazakh sonorous (y) should be narrowed labial hole and make a sound instantaneous. [w] can be long (the latter characteristic Kazakh y) as speech authorities immediately move to your next vowel as [w] may be pronounced only before a vowel.

In English, [w] is found only in the initial word position (what, when). Kazakh (y) occurs in all positions of words. In the absolute beginning of the word sound (y) clearly pronounced and may have overtone (ʏ) (before hard - y) and (ʏ) уәде (the promise). This overtone before the English [w] is not valid.

When setting [w] must see to it that the lower lip does not hit the upper teeth. This way of life is characteristic of the English sound [v]. It can lead to a confusion of words, such as wheel (дөңгелек), veal (бұзай), vain (босқа), wain (арба – поэтич.)

Testing of contrasting exercises creates the necessary skills to distinguish clearly these sounds, for example:

[v]	[w]
vent	went
very	wary
vest	west
vie	why
verse	worse
vain	wine

In the phonetic system of the Kazakh language sounds [θ, ð] are not available. [θ, ð] are forelingual, interdental consonants with a flat slit. Sound [θ] - voiceless, and the sound [ð] - voiced.

Tursunov emphasized about “in the pronunciation of [θ], [ð] lips slightly stretched, the lower lip slightly drawn down, language is flattened and tense. The tip of the tongue is compressed teeth, forming with the upper incisors slot. Lower teeth in the formation of cracks are not involved. They can only serve as a support for the language. The most common mistake is to replace [θ], [ð] Kazakh tooth (с), (з). Sounds (с), (з) are formed by bringing the tip of the tongue to the lower incisors. English [θ], [ð] have “lisp” character, and (с), (з) - “whistling” (Tursunov, Hasanov, 1967, p. 56).

Replacement of lisp interdental [θ], [ð] whistling for dental [s], [z] in Eng. or (с), (h) in Kaz. is a mistake that can lead to a confusion of words: thill (оглобля) - sill (подоконник).

Since these English consonants are among the most difficult to digest, it should be carefully work out the interdental articulation characteristic of them. As an exercise, this is offered below a list of words that contain these sounds.

[s] - [θ]	[z] - [ð]
sill – thill	laze – lathe
sin – thin	close – clothe
sink – think	breeze – breathe
saw – thaw	baze – bathe
sigh – thigh	size – scythe
seem – theme	seize – seethe

Another error is to replace the slot [θ], [ð] occlusive explosive [t], [d] eng. or (м), (д) penalty.

Compare	
[t] - [θ]	[d] - [ð]
till – thill	day – they
torn – thorn	die – thy
taught – thought	dare – there
boat – both	bade – bath
pit – pith	breed – breathe
toot – tooth	eider – either

Kenesbayev expressed that in setting up the pronunciation should be aware that the correct setting for a single sound can be a support for learning the correct pronunciation and other languages. For example, the correct setting for the English [t], [d] can be a support for mastering the entire group of alveolar consonants (Kenesbayev, 1962. P. 172).

Such errors may include, for example, replacing the alveolar English [t], [d] Kazakh tooth (т), (д) or alveolar slit [r] Kazakh alveolar vibrating (р). Replacing the right shade of sound wrong distorts the sound is not only the sound, but in

a measure and the familiar sound image of the word as a whole. This in turn may make the speaker's speech, distract the listener from the content of the statement.

The realization of this goal is related to the formation of students' communicative skills of the following:

- a) the correct pronunciation of words.
- b) a correct statement of letters and syllables.
- c) the ability to use a familiar language as a component of foreign language teaching.

The purpose of training the voice pronunciation in the language class is the formation of such language skills that would enable the student to use them in non-academic speech practice at the level of conventional everyday communication. Also it is important the development of students' general language, intellectual, cognitive, mental processes that is the acquisition of foreign language communication, as well as the emotions and feelings of students, their willingness to communicate, communication culture in various forms of collective interaction.

V. CONCLUSION

Процессы которые происходят в современном мире создают мощный смысл для изучения иностранного языка. Значение иностранного языка сегодня не только культурная, но и экономическая потребность. В современном обществе любому специалисту, желающему преуспеть в своей области, владение хотя бы одним иностранным языком жизненно необходимо. That's why the correct pronunciation of the sounds of the studied language is only achieved when the teacher corrects errors not only of the first type, but do not put up with obvious errors in shades of sounds, the language is spoken (the second type of error).

English methodist G. Palmer attached great importance to the initial period of learning a foreign language: "Take care of the first two stages and the rest call take of itself" (Palmer, 1992, p. 72). A basis for the study of a foreign language at beginner stage is phonetics. To achieve good results in the pronunciation and for the explicit understanding of sounds and their origin is necessary to use different ways of easy learning. One of which is to study by means of comparison and the native language. There are some similarities between languages, which is not a little important way of learning a foreign language in this research paper.

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Sultangubiyeva Aigul was born on the 5th of 1976, in Atyrau city in Kazakhstan. She graduated from Kh.Dosmukhamedov Atyrau State University, in Atyrau city, Kazakhstan on the specialty Foreign Languages between 1993-1997. She defended her candidate dissertation work in 2009, now she is a candidate of philological science.

Sultangubiyeva started her work experience from 1997, she worked at school from 1997-1998 as a teacher, from 1998 to 2009 she worked at Atyrau Institute of Oil and Gas as a senior teacher, from 2009-2012 she worked as a head of the Theory and Practice of Translation Studies Department in Kh.Dosmukhamedov Atyrau State University, 2012-2013 she worked as a head of International Relations of the University. And from 2013 she works as a Head of Theory and Practice of Translation Studies Department. As a part-time job, she works in Language Centres as an English teacher. She passed summer teaching training "English Language professional Development Course for teachers" in Hilderstone college, Kent (2013) and "Teaching and learning" in the University of Scotland, Edinburgh (2011), "International Teaching and Training Centre" in "BEET" language school, Bournemouth, UK (2010), Methodology of foreign language teaching in Abylaikhan Kazakh International Relationship and Foreign Language University (2001). She participated in 46th Annual International IATEFL Conference and Exhibition in Glasgow, Scotland. She published her book "English for students of engineers" (2008), "Kazakh traditions and customs" (2007). She wrote about 30 articles in native and international issues. Such as: Learning English Pronunciation in Comparison with Kazakh Language, American Journal of Linguistics (2013), Functioning of Turkic elements in modern Hindi, Paris, 2012, Ways To Use Phonetic Sounds In Pronunciation comparing of Kazakh and English languages, IJESIT, (2013).

Mrs. Sultangubiyeva is a member of Editorial Council of the International Scientific Journal "Science". A medal for the development of Scientific Research in the Republic of Kazakhstan. Currently Mrs. Sultangubiyeva is a member of international research project "Turkic linguistic world picture".



Avakova Raushangul was born in the city of Almaty, Kazakhstan on 24th of April 1963. From 1981 to 1986 she studied at Al-Farabi Kazakh National University at the Department of “Kazakh language and literature” (Almaty), from 1988 to 1991 got doctoral degree at Al-Farabi Kazakh National University (Almaty), in 1991 defended her dissertation work “Semantic and morphological characteristics of verbal phraseological units in Modern Uigur language” on the specialty 10.02.02 - the languages of peoples of USSR (Moscow), in 2003 she defended doctoral thesis “Semantics of Kazakh phraseological units” on specialty 10.02.02 - Kazakh language (Almaty). The main science field – Turkic studies.

She worked as Kazakh language teacher at Sh. Valikhanov Kokshetau Pedagogical Institute in 1986-1988; 1991- 2001 as an Associate Professor, since 2002 she has been working as a professor at Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, in 2006 as a Professor in Linguistics; 2005-2007 as a professor of Moscow State Linguistic University, head of the Center of Kazakh language and culture; Professor of M. Lomonosov Moscow State University. Currently she is a professor at the Department of Turkic and Indian Studies of Al-Farabi Kazakh National University. She has over 200 scientific publications, including 3 monographs, 7 work books, 3 training development, 2 training dictionary, over 10 programs in fundamental courses of general linguistics and Turkic Studies. Publications are Learning English Pronunciation in Comparison with Kazakh Language. / American Journal of Linguistics. p-ISSN: 2326-0750 e-ISSN: 23260769.2013; 2 (3): 33-36 <http://article.sapub.org/10.5923.j.linguistics.20130203.01.html> ; The theory of Phraseology (monograph). Almaty, Kazakhstan: Kazakh University, 2013; Psychological Aspects of Phraseology in Kazakh Language and Hind / Journal of World Applied Sciences <http://www.idosi.org/wasj/wasj.htm>. Research interests include the problems of general and Turkic linguistics, cultural linguistics, bilingual lexicography, and the problems of cultural identity of phraseology of Turkic languages.

Professor Avakova is a grant holder of “Best teacher of the Republic of Kazakhstan” in 2007 and also a winner of the International President’s scholarship “Bolashak” programme in 2013. She is a member of the International Association of Teachers of Russian Language and Literature (MAPRYAL). Currently Professor Avakova is the head of international research project “Turkic linguistic world picture”.



Kortabayeva Gulzhamal was born in Mangistau region in 1962. In 1986 she graduated from Al-Farabi Kazakh National University (Almaty, Kazakhstan), with the qualification of philology, teacher of Kazakh language and literature. PhD in Philology. In 2007 she defended her dissertation work “Kazakh onomopoeitics: the poetonyms in Kazakh satirical works” (Almaty, Kazakhstan).

She hold a position of senior lecturer of Kazakh language in 1986-2007. In 2008-2010 she was Head of the Department of Oriental Languages at the University of Foreign Languages; since 2010 was senior lecturer at the University of Foreign Languages and Business Career; since 2012 to the present is associate Professor at the Department of Turkic and Indian Studies at Al-Farabi Kazakh National University.

She is author of over 70 scientific publications and one monograph “Kazakh onomopoeitics: ethnolinguistic characteristics of poetonyms”. Major publications:

1. Psychological Aspects of Phraseology in Kazakh Language and Hindi // World Applied Sciences Journal. 25 (11), 2013.– ISSN 1818-4952. 1661-1663 pp. SCOPUS.
2. Turuskaya onomastika: kypchakskie imena v russkikh letopisyah // 10th International Conference on the Crossroad of Civilizations: aspects of Language, Culture and Society. Tsukuba, Japan, 2013.
3. Miphological cognition: semantics of the word “man” // Strategic issues of the world science. – Materi ály X mezin árodn í vëdecko-praktick ákonference // Prada.

She worked for a long time on the topic of “Cognitive linguistic-cultural methodology of foreign language and multilingual education” that provides an innovative approach to the modeling of language of the educational process in the creation of domestic international adaptive models of language education in terms of three languages (Kazakh, Russian and English) to the level of achievement of the final results of training and significantly changes the practice of organizing the educational process.

Currently she is a lecturer at the Department of Turkic and Indian Studies at Al-Farabi Kazakh National University.

Kortabayeva is an expert of Association of Higher Education Institutions of the Republic of Kazakhstan and Member of International Kazakh Creative Association «Word of Peace». Currently is a member of international research project “Turkic linguistic world picture”. She passed several internship: 2011 - University of Mugla (Turkey), 2012 - Kastamonu University (Turkey), 2014 - University of Leiden (Amsterdam).

In 2009, for the strengthening of cooperation between two countries by the Embassy of the Republic of Turkey, Mrs. Kortabayeva got a gratitude, and in 2010 she was awarded with medal “Kosay ata”. For her contribution to science and education in 2010, she was thanked by the Minister of Education and Science, by the rector of the University of Foreign Languages and also by the rector of al-Farabi Kazakh National University.



Andabayeva Dina was born in Almaty region, Kazakhstan in 1988. In 2009 graduated from the Faculty of Oriental Studies, Al-Farabi Kazakh National University and got Bachelor Degree in “Foreign philology” (Almaty). In 2011, graduated from Al-Farabi Kazakh National University and got Master Degree in Oriental Studies (Almaty). Currently she is going to get PhD Degree in Turkic Studies at Al-Farabi Kazakh National University. The theme of the doctoral dissertation is “The national-cultural concepts in phraseological units of Turkish, Kazakh and English languages”. The main science field is Turkic studies.

From 2011 to present she is a lecturer at the Department of Turkic and Indian Studies of Al-Farabi Kazakh National University. Main publications are “Phraseological units with general typal meaning “Express intelligence”, “Experience impact of external environment”, “Perception””. She participated in conferences like “Celebration of the 20th Anniversary of the Establishment of Diplomatic Relations between the Republic of Korea and the Republic of Kazakhstan. Korea, Hanyang University, 2013. “Language picture of the world through the prism of Turkish and English

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Ms. Andabaeva passed 2 research internships: Bilkent University (Ankara, Turkey), Summer Course for Teachers “Methods of teaching of Turkish language and literature” and University of Wisconsin-Madison (USA), summer school in frames of writing a doctoral dissertation. Currently she is a member of international research project “Turkic world linguistic picture”.

A Mixed Methods Study of Teachers' Perceptions of Communicative Language Teaching in Iranian High Schools

Seyed Mohammad Jafari

English Department, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran

Nasrin Shokrpour

English Department, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran

Tim Guetterman

College of Education and Human Sciences Mixed Methods Academy, the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, USA

Abstract—This mixed methods research study explored Iranian high school English teachers' perceptions of the CLT approach and the problems that may hinder teachers from implementing CLT in classes. In addition, this study investigated the relationships between teachers' backgrounds and their beliefs towards CLT approach. In the quantitative phase of the study, 70 teachers responded to the Attitudes toward Communicative Approach Scale and the Perceived Difficulties of Communicative Language Teaching Implementation Questionnaire. In the qualitative phase of the study, six teachers, three inexperienced and three experienced, participated in semi-structured interviews concerning their beliefs about CLT approach and their perceptions of barriers in implementing CLT in the Iranian EFL setting. The quantitative results of the first questionnaire indicated that teachers had favorable attitudes towards CLT in general and group/pair work in particular. The results of the second questionnaire showed that teachers considered the problems created by educational system as the major hindrance in applying CLT in classes. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation analyses revealed a significant and positive correlation between teachers' CLT scores and their professional training but no significant relationship was found between teachers' CLT scores and their teaching experience. The qualitative results indicated that selected teachers yielded a better understanding of teachers' beliefs towards CLT.

Index Terms—communicative language teaching, EFL, English language teaching, language teaching, teachers' beliefs

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid expansion of global communication in recent decades has made the learning of the main international language, English, more accessible and salient than ever before. In the globalization era, English is the undisputed language of technology, science, medicine, education, business, and the Internet. Therefore, in order to accelerate the process of joining “a globalized village” and competing in a global economy, governments have made an extensive attempt to increase the number of their workforce who can communicate effectively and efficiently in English (Littlewood, 2007).

In response to this necessity, educational authorities have made fundamental reforms in English language education policies and syllabuses at national levels, which have led to a change in attitudes towards communicative language teaching (CLT) (Ansarey, 2012; Littlewood, 2007; Ozsevik, 2010). CLT advocates the development of communicative competencies a primary goal of language teaching through the extensive use of the target language as a vehicle of communication during classroom sessions (Chang, 2011; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Therefore, it accentuates language in use rather than language per se (Duff, 2013).

The economic reforms carried out by the Iranian government in the last two decades have resulted in an explosion of interest in learning foreign languages in the society. An increasing demand for English language learning and teaching as a foreign language, therefore, has been gaining momentum across the country. Despite the fact that ELT has long been the center of attention and is a mandatory subject in the national curriculum, many Iranian high school graduates could not communicate in English effectively after studying it for seven years (See Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006). In an attempt to solve the existing problem and to help students develop communicative competence in English, in the mid-2000s, Iran's ministry of education developed new English language curricula and syllabuses, which encouraged the use of CLT in English language classrooms (Ministry of Education, 2006 as cited in Dahmardeh, 2009).

It has been more than eight years since the introduction of CLT into the Iranian national curriculum, with the hope of improving the quality of English language teaching and learning. However, the application of CLT approach in Iran has

not necessarily led to desirable outcomes of improvement in students' English communicative competence. Many ELT scholars and researchers state that 'traditional' methods are still prevalent in Iranian high schools (Kiyani, Mahdavi & Ghafar Samar, 2014; Sadani & Abdolmanafi-Rokni, 2014). Research on the appropriateness and efficacy of language teaching methods reveals that implementation of a method depends on such factors as the context in which it takes place, the institutional restrictions and demands, the local and culture-specific needs of students, and teachers' beliefs (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Carless, 2003).

Among these factors, teachers' perceptions play a vital role in employing CLT in classes (Karavas-Doukas, 1996 as cited in Chang, 2011). Carless (2003) states that "If teachers' views are not sufficiently taken account of, the already challenging nature of implementing something new may be exacerbated" (p. 485). Similarly, Yin Wong and Barrea-Marlys (2012) argue that the instructional practices and the decisions that instructors make concerning teaching methods are largely influenced by their own beliefs.

In order to uncover teachers' beliefs about the implementation of CLT in classrooms a great deal of research has been conducted in different EFL settings (e.g. Lee, 2014; Ahmad & Rao, 2013; Ansary, 2013; Raissi et al., 2013; Ngoc & Iwashita, 2012). In addition, researchers found that teachers' teaching experience and professional training are among the significant criteria that can influence teachers' beliefs about implementing CLT (Suk-Fun, 1998; Chang 2011; Al-Mekhlafi, 2011).

However, there is a paucity of research examining teachers' beliefs about CLT as well as the effect of EFL teachers' demographic factors on the construction of their beliefs about CLT in the Iranian context. In addition, the literature in Iranian EFL setting shows that previous research mainly used quantitative research methods (Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006; Rahimi & Naderi, 2014), which are "not very sensitive in uncovering the reasons for particular observations or the dynamics underlying the examined situation or phenomenon" (Dö rneyi, 2007, p. 36). Thus, quantitative methods may yield basic information regarding teachers' beliefs about CLT, but qualitative inquiry is needed to understand the context and hear teachers' voices about this complex issue. However, mixed methods research can "provide a depth and breadth that a single approach may lack by itself" (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009, p. 136).

Therefore, the aim of this mixed methods study is to obtain an in-depth understanding of Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions about CLT and of the challenges and difficulties that impede them from implementing CLT practices in language classes.

Research questions:

Based on the aforementioned objectives, the following research questions are posed:

1. What beliefs do Iranian high school English teachers hold about CLT?
2. What are the barriers to implementing CLT in Iranian high school English classes?
3. How do teachers' backgrounds affect their attitudes towards CLT?
4. How do interviews with teachers help to explain their attitudes towards CLT and the barriers that impeded them in implementing CLT in classes?

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Developing L2 students' communicative competence through interaction and communication is the central target of CLT (Brown, 2006; Canale & Swain, 1980 as cited in Yin-Wong & Barrea-Marlys, 2012). The term *communicative competence* was first coined by Hymes (1971). He criticized Chomsky's theory of *linguistic competence*, a speaker's underlying knowledge of grammatical structure, for not taking into account the social aspects of language. Hymes (1972 as cited in Chang, 2011) states that acquiring communicative competence consists of the following aspects. First, "whether something is formally possible" which is to some extent similar to Chomsky's notion of grammatical competence. It is concerned with whether a particular structure is grammatical or not in a language. Second, "whether something is feasible" means that a sentence is grammatical but not useable in a language. In other words, because of the limited capability of human beings' information processing, a sentence cannot be said to form part of our competence. Third, "whether something is appropriate" means that a sentence can be grammatical and feasible but inappropriate for the context in which it is employed. Fourth, "whether something is in fact done" indicates that a sentence may satisfy the previous aspects but does not actually occur (Hymes, 1972, p. 14).

In summary, communicative competence includes not only knowing a set of lexical, grammatical, and phonological rules but also the ability to use the knowledge in a variety of communicative situations. It deals with "both social and cultural knowledge that speakers are presumed to have which enables them to use and interpret linguistic forms as well as meanings" (Dahmardeh, 2009, p. 36).

III. METHODOLOGY

Integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods, a mixed methods approach, in a single study has recently gained momentum in applied linguistics research projects (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013). In designing a mixed methods research, three main characteristics need to be taken into account: 'timing', 'emphasis', and 'mixing' (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). Timing refers to the sequence of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis in the study. Emphasis refers to which method, either qualitative or quantitative, is given importance or priority in the study. Mixing

refers to the phase in the research process where the two methods, qualitative or quantitative, are integrated (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009).

This study employed an explanatory sequential mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), which is used frequently in applied linguistics research. It consisted of two distinct phases. In the first stage, the quantitative, numeric data were collected, using a questionnaire, and were then analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The results of the analysis were teachers' attitudes towards CLT, the influence of teachers' demographics on their beliefs about CLT, and the barriers that impeded them in implementing CLT in classes. To explain these results, qualitative data then were collected using semi-structured interviews and analyzed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) in order to provide a fuller understanding of the quantitative data. Equal emphasis was given to the quantitative and qualitative data. With respect to mixing aspect, connecting across stages was used. In other words, the results of the quantitative data were employed to select participants for qualitative data gathering in the follow-up phase. Figure 1 presents the mixed methods procedural diagram for the study.

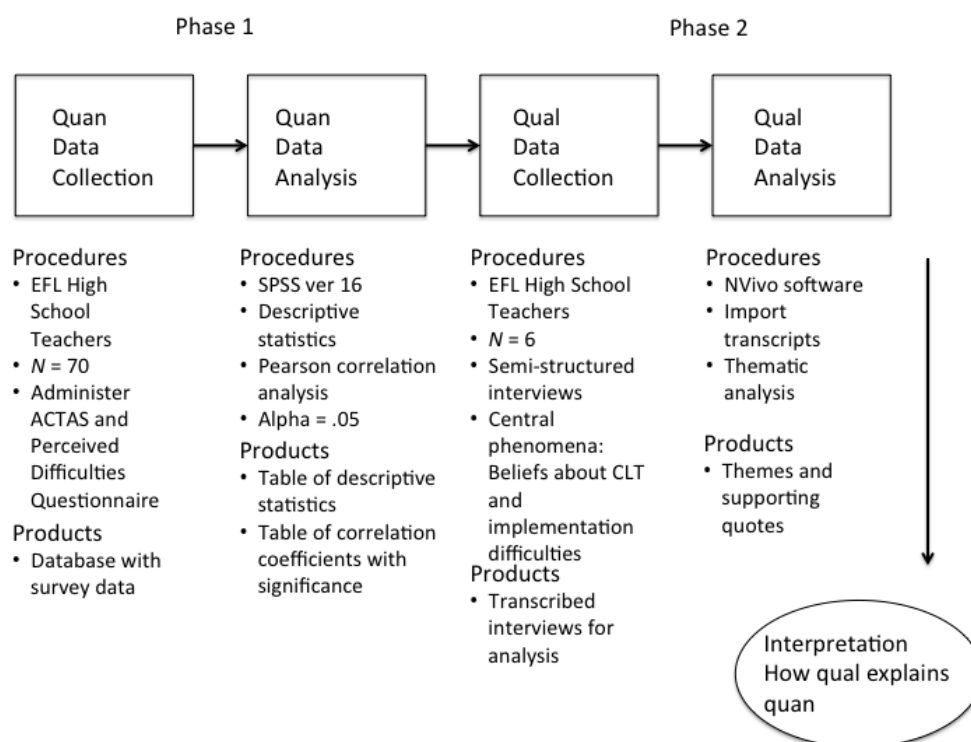


Figure 1. An Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design of Teachers' Perceptions of CLT in Iranian High Schools

A. Quantitative Phase

a. Participants

Seventy EFL high schools teachers (50 males and 20 females) took part in this study. To select the samples, the researchers used 'convenience sampling' and chose Shiraz city since it met practical criteria: 'geographical proximity' and 'availability at a certain time'. Then, because the high schools in this city were widely dispersed and in order to raise the sampling representativeness of Iranian English high schools, the authors adopted cluster random sampling to select the participants of this study. According to Dörnyei (2007) cluster sampling includes the random selection of "some larger groupings or units of the population and then examining all the individuals in those selected units" (p. 98). In this study, the selected unit is public high schools in Shiraz. On the basis of a list of the Fars province department of education, there are 123 public high schools in Shiraz of which 20 were selected from the four educational districts randomly. Then, all the teachers in 20 public high schools were recruited for the survey through simple one-stage cluster sampling. They ranged in age from 30 to 53 with a mean age of 38. Sixty had a B.A degree, and 10 held an M.A degree in TEFL, English language and literature, and English translation. The teaching experience of the participants ranged from 6 to 25 years with an average of 12 years.

b. Instruments

1. Attitudes toward Communicative Approach Scale (ATCAS)

The first instrument, the 24-item ATCAS, originally designed by Karava-Doukas (1996), was employed to measure the participants' beliefs about CLT. It includes five sub-categories: the place and importance of grammar (six items), group/pair work (four items), the role of the learners in the process of language learning (six items), the role of the teacher in class (four items), and the quantity and quality of error correction (four items). The ATCAS items are rated by a five-point Likert scale, ranging from five points (*strongly agree*) to one point (*strongly disagree*). A score of 120

indicates the most favorable attitude towards CLT, 24 indicates the least favorable perception of CLT, and 72, the middle point of the continuum, indicates uncertainty in all 24 items. In the original study, Karava-Doukas (1996) reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88. The ATCAS has been extensively adopted in various EFL contexts, such as in Pakistan (Ahmad & Rao, 2013), Oman (Al-Mekhlafi, 2011), Taiwan (Chang, 2011), and all of them demonstrated a reasonable level of reliability of the questionnaire. The questionnaire has also been used in the Iranian context (Rahimi & Naderi, 2014; Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006). In the two studies the reliability of the questionnaire was 0.78 and 0.81, respectively. In this study, the reliability of questionnaire as calculated on Cronbach alpha was 0.86, which reveals a reasonably high internal consistency. To ensure the validity of this measurement, all items of this questionnaire were reviewed by experts in EFL language teaching methodology for content validity. This panel of experts reached a consensus that the ATCAS items were appropriate. Regarding construct validation, factor analysis (Principal Axis Factoring) was run to determine the underlying structure of ATCAS. The results showed that the questionnaire measures the five following constructs as "the place and importance of grammar" (six items), "group/pair work" (four items), "the role of the learners in the process of language learning" (six items), "the role of the teacher in class" (four items), and "the quantity and quality of error correction" (four items). The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) revealed the same categorization of the questionnaire items as the original one designed by Karavas-Doukas (1996).

2. Perceived Difficulties of CLT Implementation Questionnaire

The second questionnaire was on the perceived difficulties of CLT implementation, originally designed by Ozsevik (2010) and consisting of two parts. The first part was designed to elicit the respondents' demographic and background information including gender, age, educational background, and years of teaching. The second section assessed the difficulties that Iranian English high school teachers encounter while trying to implement CLT in their classes. This section consists of 18 items. The respondents were asked to rate each item on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 4 (major challenge) to 1 (not a challenge at all). The questionnaire measures five broad categories of difficulties in implementing CLT in classrooms: namely, teacher-related difficulties, student-related difficulties, difficulties related to the educational system, and CLT-related difficulties. In the original study, Ozsevik (2010) reported the Cronbach coefficient alpha as 0.80. The reliability calculated in this study was 0.84 using the Cronbach coefficient alpha. To assess the content validity of this questionnaire the researcher asked the same panel of experts to evaluate the items. This panel of experts reached a consensus that the items were appropriate. Then, factor analysis (Principal Axis Factoring) was run to determine the underlying structure of the questionnaire to establish initial evidence of construct validity. The results revealed that the questionnaire measures the four following constructs as "teacher-related difficulties" (six items), "student-related difficulties" (four items), "difficulties related to the educational system" (three items), and "CLT-related difficulties" (five items). The confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated the same categorization of the questionnaire items as Ozsevik (2010).

c. Data collection procedure

Quantitative data collection from all of the participants took place over approximately two months (from 5th December to 10th February, 2013-2014). First, the researchers contacted the principals of the selected high schools in Shiraz by phone to ask for permission to carry out the study. After the researchers had obtained permission from the principals, the researchers distributed the consent form showing the goal of the study to 70 English teachers of the selected high schools. They all agreed to participate in the study. Before the distribution of the instruments, directions and procedures were explained to the participants by the researchers. The researchers assured participants of strict confidentiality of the information and data gathered and explained that that only aggregated results would be public. Then, the researchers distributed the two questionnaires to the teachers. They first completed ATCAS, which took 20 minutes, and then the second questionnaire, perceived difficulties for implementing CLT, was completed, taking 15 minutes. The questionnaires were in English. During the survey sessions, the researchers responded to all of the questions that the participants had about the questionnaires.

d. Data analysis

The data were analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 16. Descriptive statistics (mean, and standard deviation) were computed for demographics and answering research questions one and two. For research question three, Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficients were conducted to find out whether teachers' background factors including qualification and teaching experience had an effect on their attitudes towards CLT. Statistical significance was set at $p < .01$.

B. Qualitative Phase

a. Participants

Before gathering the qualitative data, and consistent with the explanatory sequential mixed methods design, the researchers made a connection between the two phases of the study. Based on the quantitative collection performed earlier, the researcher purposefully selected six teachers based on maximum variation sampling, three inexperienced and three experienced, for semi-structured interviews in order to explain the results of the survey. According to Dö nyei (2007) maximum variation sampling "allows [the researchers] to explore the variation within the respondents" (p. 128).

b. Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used to obtain in-depth understanding of the results of the quantitative analyses concerning teachers' beliefs about CLT and the difficulties that they encounter in implementing it in classrooms. The researchers used semi-structured interviews to explore topics in depth (Kajornboon, 2005). Gillham (2000 as cited in Dörnyei, 2007) urges "survey researchers to conduct semi-structured interviews to accompany questionnaire results ... [because] interview data can both illustrate and illuminate questionnaire results and can bring your research study to life" (p. 82).

As described in the previous section, the researchers deliberately selected six participants. Each interviewee was asked seven open-ended questions according to a semi-structured interview protocol. The interview protocol with the six teachers, which was developed based on the results of the survey, was divided into two dimensions. They were: (1) exploring teachers' attitude towards the five principles of CLT (sample question: what roles do you consider for teachers in language teaching?); and (2) exploring factors that impeded teachers from implementing CLT in language classes (sample question: how do you feel about employing CLT in an EFL context like Iran?).

c. Data collection procedure

On the interview day, the participants were asked to fill in the informed consent forms. All six agreed to participate. They were Kazem, Jamal, Rahim, Sara, Sahar, and Elham. For the purposes of confidentiality, pseudonyms were used. The semi-structured interviews took place in the teachers' offices. The language of the interviews was Persian (the participants' mother tongue) to create a rapport with the participants (Susan Gass, personal communication, June 22, 2012) and to expedite communication and avoid misinterpretation. The researcher began each interview by concisely explaining the purpose of the study and asking the participant to be sincere, honest, and communicative during the course of the interview. Each interview lasted for 35 to 40 minutes. All of the interviews were audio-recorded.

d. Data analysis

The transcripts were analyzed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is a "method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It organizes and describes your data set in rich detail" (p. 79). Employing thematic permitted "flexibility". In other words, this method is independent of theory and epistemology, and can be applied across a wide range of theoretical and epistemological approaches (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Hence, it is ideal for a mixed methods research (Querstreet & Robinson, 2012 as cited in Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012).

Thematic analysis included six steps. First, the interviewees' responses were transcribed verbatim and the transcripts were read multiple times to identify text related to teachers' beliefs about CLT and the difficulties implementing it in their classes. Second, the researchers coded the data by dividing and labeling the data. Third, the codes were analyzed and combined to form themes. Themes were developed on the basis of an inductive interpretation of the individual texts, as well as being theoretically influenced by conceptual underpinnings of CLT. Fourth, the themes were reviewed and refined to develop a satisfactory thematic "map" of the data. Then, the researchers defined and further refined each theme and generated definitions and names, followed by the sixth phase, which was writing the final report of the analysis. The qualitative data were analyzed via NVivo, qualitative analysis software.

e. Qualitative Validation Strategies

Prior to performing the interview sessions, the same panel of experts validated the content of the questions of the interviews. To ensure accuracy of the data, the researcher analyzed some excerpts twice. In addition, the researcher trained a second coder who specializes in applied linguistics. The coder engaged in independent coding and worked on all excerpts. At the end, the results were compared and any discrepancies were discussed. For all coding units, the level of intracoder agreement was found to be sufficient (.85 for rater 1 and .79 for rater 2).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Quantitative Research

Q.1: What beliefs do Iranian high school English teachers hold about CLT?

Descriptive statistics were used to address the first research question. The descriptive statistics provided means and standard deviations.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' OVERALL PERCEPTIONS OF CLT

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Score	76	118	88.44	6.54

As Table 1 shows, EFL teachers' average scores for the whole questionnaire ranged from 76 to 118, with a mean of 88.44 and a standard deviation of 6.54. This means that the participants had positive attitudes towards CLT in general. This finding is in line with other research on teachers' attitudes towards CLT in other contexts (e.g. Lee, 2014; Ahmad & Rao, 2013; Ansary, 2013; Raissi et al., 2013; Ngoc & Iwashita, 2012; Chang, 2011; Ozsevik, 2010). This finding sends a positive signal to educational authorities and policy makers who design and prepare curriculum for high school students since the implementation of an innovation partly depends on teachers' beliefs towards it.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS' BELIEFS ABOUT THE FIVE SUB-SCALES OF CLT

Scale	Mean	SD
The role of the teacher in the classroom	3.72	.49
Place/importance of grammar	3.38	.48
Group/pair work	3.82	.52
The role and contribution of learners in learning process	3.52	.58
Quantity/quality of error correction	3.31	.55

Table 2 displays the overall mean scores for the five principles of CLT. The average scores of each principle of CLT were 3.72 for "the role of the teacher in the classroom", 3.38 for "place/importance of grammar", 3.82 for "group/pair work", 3.52 for "the role and contribution of learners in learning process", and 3.31 for "quantity/quality of error correction". As shown in Table 2, "group/pair work" was the highest mean, while "quantity/quality of error correction" was the lowest mean. In general, EFL teachers as a cluster concurred with the five categories since the average scores of none of the principles is lower than 3. The results are consistent with Ngoc and Iwashita's (2012) findings that teachers had most favorable attitudes towards the role of pair/group work activities than the other CLT principles. These results suggest that facilitating students' autonomy and training them to be responsible for their own learning are the main concerns of teachers. As students need to experience or practice communicating in the target language through negotiating meaning with others (Duff, 2013) to develop communicative competence, pair/group work provides students the chance to practically experience the language.

Q.2: What are the barriers to implementing CLT in Iranian high school English classes?

Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were used to address research question two.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PERCEIVED DIFFICULTIES IN IMPLEMENTING CLT IN IRANIAN CLASSROOMS

Scale	Mean	SD
Teacher-related difficulties	3.46	.49
Student-related difficulties	3.52	.51
Educational system difficulties	3.63	.45
CLT-related difficulties	3.23	.52

As Table 3 illustrates, the mean of each category reported shows that Iranian English high school teachers face obstacles in implementing CLT in their classrooms. The most challenging difficulties that the participants reported were "educational system difficulties" ($M=3.63$), followed by "student-related difficulties" ($M=3.52$), "teacher-related difficulties" ($M=3.46$), and "CLT-related difficulties" ($M=3.23$). These results are consistent with Rahimi and Naderi's (2014) study. These findings suggest that some reforms should be done in the educational system of Iran. One of the changes that seem necessary in this area is a reform on the current examination system. High-stakes English language examinations in Iran assess linguistic competence rather than communicative competence, and do not involve listening, writing, and speaking skills. This is true of all examinations held in guidance schools and high schools and of nationwide university entrance examination. Generally speaking, the predominance of grammar-centered examinations in Iran does not provide a basis for the student-centered, fluency-focused, and problem-solving activities required by CLT.

Q.3: How do Iranian high school English teachers' backgrounds affect their attitudes towards CLT?

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTION SCORES ON THE BASIS OF THEIR TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Year of teaching experience	Number	Mean	SD
0-6	7	74.2	8.88
7-12	18	71.16	8.34
13-17	25	68.23	6.43
18-25	20	66.17	7.56
Total	70	71.12	7.89

As Table 4 demonstrates, the mean of the participants with 0-6 years of teaching is the highest among four groups ($M=74.12$, $SD=8.88$). However, teachers with more than thirteen years have relatively lower scores than other groups.

Pearson Product-moment correlation analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between teachers' attitude scores toward CLT and teaching experience. No significant relationship was found between Iranian high school English teachers' attitude scores towards CLT and their teaching experience. This finding is inconsistent with Suk-Fun's (1998) study.

TABLE 5:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES SCORES TOWARDS CLT

	Years of teaching practice	CLT practice
Years of teaching experience	1	.225
Sig. (2-tailed)	70	70
CLT practice	-.141	1
	.225	70
	70	

Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations for attitude scores based on the number of Iranian high school English teachers' professional training programs, are summarized in Table 6.

TABLE 6:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ATTITUDE SCORES BASED ON CLT PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

Number of workshops attended	Number	Mean	SD
0	11	68.23	3.45
1	16	73.15	2.65
2	12	79.56	4.34
3	14	82.11	6.36
4 and more	17	84.23	6.05
Total			

As can be seen in the Table above the participants participating in four or more seminars and workshops obtained the highest average attitude score towards CLT ($M=84.23$, $SD= 6.05$), while the participants who never participated in seminars and workshops obtained the lowest average attitude score towards CLT ($M=68.23$, $SD=3.45$).

Pearson Product-moment correlation was computed to investigate the relationship between the number of teachers' professional training and their attitudes towards CLT. The correlation coefficient is significant ($r = 0.634$, $p \leq 0.01$; see Table 7). Thus, the more professional training courses (e.g. conferences, seminars, and workshops) the participants attended, the more positive the teachers' attitudes were inclined towards CLT. This result is in line with Chang's (2011) study, who found a positive relationship between the teachers' professional training and their attitudes towards CLT in Taiwan. Generally, these results back this idea that teachers' in-service training influences teachers' perceptions of language teaching and develops their positive attitudes toward a teaching approach (Ellis, 1994; Karavas-Doukas, 1996 as cited in Chang, 2011).

TABLE 7:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHER PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND ATTITUDES SCORES TOWARDS CLT

	Professional Training	CLT practice
Professional training	1	.634**
Sig. (2-tailed)	70	.000
		70
CLT practice	.634**	1
	.000	
	70	

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

B. Qualitative Research

Q.1: What beliefs do Iranian high school English teachers hold about CLT?

To gain deeper insight into high school English teachers' attitudes towards the five principles of CLT mentioned in the questionnaire, the researchers conducted follow up interviews. Based on interviewees' responses, the themes and sub-themes under each principle are discussed below.

1. The role of form and grammar instruction in CLT

(a) *Paying attention to form and the capability to utilize grammar for communication*

All of interviewees believed that CLT emphasizes the need to include grammar instruction and considers it as one of the components of 'communicative competence'. From their point of views, the place of grammar in CLT is considerably different from that of in traditional methods since in CLT students learn grammar in order to use it in real communication. On the other hand, grammatical structures are learnt out of real contexts in traditional methods such as GTM and ALM. Kazem explained his ideas about grammar in CLT:

I think grammar plays a pivotal role in language learning process. That is true that language is communication, but without having grammatical knowledge the message would be imperfect. Given this point, CLT advocates the inclusion of grammar instruction in its teaching practices

Elham explains the benefits of teaching grammatical points in CLT classes:

In our context, when we teach grammatical points through traditional methods we see that students are able to explain them clearly but are unable to use them in real contexts. However, when we follow CLT techniques and

principles for teaching grammar the students are able to apply their linguistic knowledge in their conversations. Therefore, we see how CLT contributes in effective learning of grammatical structures

2. Pair/group work

(a) *Creating opportunities for authentic interaction*

The general consensus among interviewees was that pair/group work activities in class are useful. They believed that such activities provide the students with sufficient opportunities to use the target language in the classroom, as it is used in real and authentic situations. They endorsed the interactions between students-students and teacher-students. For example, Rahim said:

In my opinion pair/group work activities assist students to find themselves in real communication. As such they create a chance for social interaction. In these activities, students initiate to interact with their teacher and their classmates as well so the atmosphere of interaction is closer to communications that occur outside of the class.

Another interviewee, Sahar, said:

Student-student interaction is an important activity in language learning process. In such activity, students not only receive input but also produce output, the situation that occurs in an authentic communication. They also try to rectify each other's misunderstanding through the negotiation of meaning.

3. Quality and quantity of error correction

(a) *Fluency and accuracy are both important goals to pursue in CLT*

All of six interviewees believed that fluency and accuracy have equal importance in learning process. In contrast, they asserted that in some activities like pair/group work, the teacher should be aware of not interrupting students' communication. They also explained that in skills like writing teachers need to correct students' errors immediately. For example, Jamal said:

I think we should be patient about students' errors in pair/group work activities. In these types of activities we need to put more emphasis on fluency and let students to express their ideas and opinions. But in a skill like writing, where the writer does not receive immediate feedback from the reader, expressing ideas through inappropriate forms causes negative outcomes. So, students first need to learn grammatical forms and how to organize their ideas and opinions.

4. The role of teacher in class

(a) *Create authentic situations in class*

All of the interviewees believed that teachers can assist learners learning the target language through creating authentic situations. They asserted that the role of the teacher is to promote communication in class through creating environments that are close to situations outside the class. Sara, for example said:

As a teacher in CLT class we should establish contexts that students are likely to experience outside the class. In this type of class teacher is a person who is aware of the phases that would occur in real communication situations and plan class activities based on them. He/she can use techniques such as role play, pair/group work to reach the goals.

5. The role and contribution of learners

(a) *Learners are independent learners at the end*

Interviewees stated that in CLT class, the focus should be on learner's autonomy. In other words, learners should take the responsibility of their own learning. They supported learner-centered approach because it gives them more 'initiative and responsibility'. Kazem argued that:

I strongly approve learner-centered approach since in a teacher-centered approach the learners are under the power of the teacher and they have not any role in their learning. Teachers' role in CLT class is to help learners the necessary skills for becoming independent learners.

Q.2 *What are the barriers to implementing CLT in Iranian high school English classes?*

Based on the early data analysis, three main themes emerged: constraints caused (a) by the teacher, (b) by the learners, (c) and by the educational system in Iran. The data were revisited in order to identify sub-themes for each main theme.

1. Teacher-related factors

(a) *Deficiency in spoken English*

Nearly all of the interviewees expressed that they do not have the proficiency to teach speaking skills. Most of them blamed the way that they were taught English as students. They reported that they were taught based on traditional methods, so they are highly competent in reading and grammar. Sara said:

I learned English at both school and university based on traditional methods. My teachers never provided opportunities for us to interact with our classmates. They just asked us to memorize vocabulary and grammatical items. There were no speaking activities at all.

Similarly, Jamal said, "I'm quite good at grammar and reading. But, I'm not good at speaking. So, how can I run my class based on CLT principles".

(b) *Deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence*

All of interviewees reported that they do not have acceptable level of strategic and sociolinguistic competence. Because teacher's strategic and sociolinguistic competence should be much greater in a CLT class than in a traditional grammar-based class, the interviewees were reluctant to implement CLT in their classes. For example, Elham said:

I feel comfortable when my students ask questions about grammar. I do not have any problem in answering them. But when they ask me questions about sociolinguistic features of the target language, I'm not able to answer them. In the Iranian culture when you are unable to answer your students' questions, it means that you are not a competent teacher.

2. Difficulties caused by the learners

The second main category of limitations was related to the students' low English proficiency and lack of motivation.

(a) *Students' low English proficiency*

The interviewees identified students' low English proficiency as one of the main obstacles that prevent them from implementing CLT in class. They believed that students have low English proficiency because they begin to learn English from guidance school, and they have only one, 60 minute English class each week. For instance, Rahim said:

Iranian high school students have low vocabulary repertoire. They are also not competent in grammar. So, they cannot express themselves clearly. The problem is that they do start to learn English from guidance school and the amount of time that spend in class in order to learn English is just one and hour which is not enough for preparing students to speak and understand English.

(b) *Lack of motivation*

Four of the interviewees reported that students do not have enough motivation to learn English for the purpose of communication. Although students know they need to become fluent in English to become successful in both education and business, they have little motivation to acquire it. In this regard, Sahar said:

Although Iranian high school students know that they need to improve their communicative competence, they still stick to mastering grammatical points since national university entrance exam is just based on grammar and reading comprehension. In other words, they prefer to obtain this goal rather than the primary goal of language learning - communication.

3. Difficulties caused by educational system

Based on the interviewees' opinions the difficulties and challenges related to the current educational system in Iran are large classes and grammar-based examinations.

(a) *Large classes*

All of the interviewees reported that all of the classes in public schools are a large size, which causes difficulties in organizing groups and oral communicative activities. They also stated that dividing students into groups takes quite a long time. They further reported that they could not motivate all students to focus on studying particularly students at the back rows. This factor might therefore be one of the other barriers that impede application of CLT in the classroom. Jamal said:

Working with a large class is extremely difficult. Dividing them into groups is time-consuming. I also cannot manage such large groups. It is not possible to give equal attention to each group as required in CLT. Some students do not participate in group activities since they understand that I cannot monitor them.

(b) *Grammar based examinations*

All of the interviewees reported the discrepancy between what the curriculum goals are and what is actually evaluated on the national university entrance exam. The national English curriculum designed in the ministry of education clearly states that it is based on the principles of CLT. However, these standardized tests assess the students' grammatical and vocabulary knowledge. There are also a number of reading comprehension questions. However, speaking, listening, and writing skills are not assessed in those multiple-choice tests. As Kazem said:

One of the biggest problems in implementing CLT in class is the discrepancy between the goal of teaching English speculated by the ministry of education and those of the national university entrance exam. There is a strong mismatch between these two equally important elements and this leads to a very big challenge. I myself simply cannot teach students speaking skills since it is not assessed in this exam. The course books include listening and speaking activities. However, the nationwide university entrance exam concentrates on grammar, vocabulary, and reading skills only, all assessed through multiple-choice questions.

C. *Mixed Methods Integration*

Q. 4: *How do interviews with teachers help to explain their attitudes towards CLT and the barriers that impeded them in implementing CLT in classes?*

To address the final research question, the researchers reexamined the integrated interview findings and considered the value of mixed methods in explaining the statistical results. Table 8 summarizes how mixed methods led to a better explanation. The table aligns the quantitative results with the related qualitative findings that account for those results. The integrated analysis focused on the first two research questions related to teachers' beliefs about CLT and barriers to its implementation. As previously noted, the third research question related to teacher experience. Experience differed among the participants although the instrument analysis indicated experience was not correlated with CLT attitudes. The experience level, however, was key in selecting representative participants for the follow-up qualitative phase. Thus, the results regarding experience served to connect the quantitative and qualitative phases.

TABLE 8:
A MIXED METHODS JOINT DISPLAY OF THE INTEGRATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA TO EXPLAIN CLT

A MIXED METHODS JOINT DISPLAY OF THE INTEGRATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA TO EXPLAIN CLT		
Quantitative Results	Qualitative Findings	Mixed Methods Integration
Beliefs about CLT principles		
1) Group/pair work ($M=3.82$)	-Group work is important because it gives opportunities for authentic use of the target language	Mixed methods yielded a better understanding of the beliefs. The qualitative follow-up explained beliefs about CLT by identifying the reason principles are or are not important in the view of teachers. For example, the mean teacher belief was lowest for error correction. However, the qualitative interviews indicate that teachers were only concerned with error correction in interrupting communication.
2) Role of teacher ($M=3.72$)	-Teachers see their role as creating an authentic learning situation	
3) Role of learners ($M=3.52$)	-Teachers felt learners are ultimately responsible for their own learning	
4) Place/importance of grammar ($M=3.38$)	-Teachers believe CLT emphasizes grammar for real communication	
5) Error correction ($M=3.31$)	-Teachers cautioned that error correction in group work can interrupt communication	
Barriers to implementing CLT		
1) Educational system difficulties ($M=3.63$)	-System-related barriers include large class sizes and examinations that focus on grammar. The exams are inconsistent with CLT goals.	The use of mixed methods provided a better understanding of the barriers. In addition to identifying barriers, the integration of data indicated the specific details (e.g., low motivation with students). Scholars can then use this knowledge to make recommendations.
2) Student-related difficulties ($M=3.52$)	-Learners' low English proficiency and lack of motivation among students tended to impede CLT.	
3) Teacher-related difficulties ($M=3.46$)	-Teachers felt their own English proficiency was lacking and felt they needed stronger sociolinguistic skills	
4) CLT related difficulties ($M=3.23$)		

V. CONCLUSION

Iranian ministry of education required Iranian high school English teachers to implement CLT approach in teaching English by designing a new curriculum in the mid- 2000s; however, the traditional teaching methods are still prevalent in English classes in Iran. Therefore, this mixed methods study aimed to examine Iranian high school English teachers' perceptions of CLT, the barriers that impede them from implementing CLT, and how their backgrounds affect their attitudes towards CLT. Concerning the goals of this study, the following results were obtained.

1. Iranian high school English teachers held favorable attitudes towards CLT. Teachers' favorable attitudes indicate strong potential for applying CLT in the Iranian context, since its core principles including learner centeredness, learner autonomy, and the role of teacher as a facilitator appear to be accepted in the context of this study.

2. The survey results revealed that Iranian high school English teachers had positive attitudes towards the five principles of CLT. Among these principles, "group/pair work" was the highest mean, while "quantity/quality of error correction" was the lowest mean. However, the qualitative interviews revealed that teachers were only concerned with error correction in interrupting communication. Such views might be due to the importance of accuracy in students' examinations. Therefore, textbook designers should integrate explicit instruction of grammatical points into the books.

3. The most challenging difficulties that the participants reported were "educational system difficulties". To remove such obstacles, some micro and macro changes need to be taken by the ministry of education. For example, a reform should be made on the current examination system, which is grammar oriented.

4. The more professional training courses (e.g. conferences, seminars, and workshops) the participants attended, the more positive the teachers' attitudes were inclined towards CLT. Therefore, special attention should be paid to teachers' training. In other words, in-service teachers need opportunities to retrain themselves in CLT approaches.

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Seyed Mohammad Jafari received his MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran, in 2008. He is currently a lecturer in English department at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran. His research interests include: ESP, SLA, learner strategies, and contrastive rhetoric.

Nasrin Shokrpour is a professor lecturing in English Dept., Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran. She has an MA in TEFL and PhD in applied linguistics from Sydney University. She is highly published and coauthored many ESP books. She has attended many international conferences.

Tim Guetterman is an applied research methodologist in the University of Nebraska-Lincoln's College of Education and Human Sciences Mixed Methods Academy. His professional interests, teaching, and research writings are in research methodology, namely mixed methods and general research design, particularly as applied to assessment and evaluation. His extensive professional experience is in the field of evaluation with a focus on education and healthcare programs.

A Contrastive Analysis of Mandarin Chinese and Thai: Suggestions for Second Language Pronunciation

Yi-Wen Cai

National Institute of Development Administration, Thailand

Hugo Yu-Hsiu Lee

National Institute of Development Administration, Thailand

Abstract—This study investigates the differences between consonants and vowels of Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems which are considered to create the difficulties in L2 pronunciation, according to the contrastive analysis hypothesis. As well, this research aims to re-check the accuracy of contrastive analysis's predictive power by comparing the differences of Mandarin Chinese pronunciation performance by native Thai speakers. Research findings show that, first, it is possible to find out the similarity and difference between L1 and L2 by contrastive analysis. Second, L2 pronunciations are influenced by L1. Third, some differences between L1 and L2 do not cause difficulty in L2 learning, while some similarities do. In other words, the difficulty of L2 learning is not merely the sum of its differences. Fourth, there are other factors influencing the pronunciation of a L2 learner. As a result, the accuracy of a contrastive analysis's predictive power is not as high as it has been claimed.

Index Terms—Mandarin Chinese, Thai, contrastive analysis, second language learning, second language pronunciation

I. INTRODUCTION

Contrastive Analysis (henceforth CA) is one of the compelling and controversial issues in theory and practice of language studies. It was initially mentioned by Lado (1957) in his influential book, *Linguistics across cultures*. It was accepted by numerous linguists in 1950s and 1960s. However, by the end of '60s, its heyday had passed. CA began to be attacked by criticism particularly from the perspectives of feasibility and usefulness. Notwithstanding, these criticisms did not make the proponents of CA relinquish their efforts and CA still developed gradually over the subsequent several decades. In fact, it returned to the linguistic stage and is back in the contemporary spotlight.

It was widely accepted that one of the major contributions of CA is in second language (L2) pedagogy. According to the contrastive analysis hypothesis, the difficulties that learners would confront during L2 learning could be predicted by the differences between the native language and the target language of the learners. In other words, the central issue that determines CA's practical application in the language teaching field is the predictive power of CA. With the purpose of re-examining the accuracy of CA's predictive power, this paper compares the sound systems of Mandarin Chinese and Thai to find out the differences between these two aforementioned languages. The results of this comparison are checked with the actual pronunciation performance of five native Thai-speaking participants who have learned Mandarin Chinese for several years and have different proficiency levels.

A. Research Questions

The researcher pursues answers of the following questions:

- 1). What are the differences between Mandarin Chinese and Thai consonants and vowels?
- 2). Do the differences predict the difficulties in the Mandarin Chinese learning of native Thai speakers who learn the Mandarin Chinese as a second language?

B. Objective of the Study

This study re-examines the accuracy of CA's predictive power and explores its contribution to language pedagogy.

C. Scope of the Study

The researcher examines the differences between consonants and vowels of Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems, and re-checks these differences with the Mandarin Chinese pronunciation performances of five native Thai speakers who learn the Mandarin Chinese as L2.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. First Language Interference

Commonly, when one learns a L2, s/he has already learned the same meanings in his/her L1. The fact that learners have learned these meanings in their L1 already assures that the elements of L1 are likely to be grafted on to L2 (Beebe 1988). The learner's L2 could reflect traces of the learner's L1. Errors that occur frequently in L2 because of the distinctly different structures of L1 and L2 indicate an interference of L1 on L2 (Dechert, 1983 and Ellis, 1997).

L1 interference is defined by Weinreich (1953) as 'instances of deviation from the norms of either language.' Lado (1957) took Weinreich's descriptions and developed a contrastive analysis which is considered to be one of the utilitarian research methods in language studies. This method connects interference from L1 with difficulties learners have in learning L2. Due to Lado's consideration that language learning is a habit formation issue, he takes it for granted that mastering a language needs extensively repetitive drills (Geroge, 1972). Within the behavioristic theoretical framework, Lado (1964) provides definition to interference as 'added difficulty in learning a sound, word, or construction in a second language as a result of differences with the habits of the native language' (p. 217). He regards language interference as the transferred L1 habits which are incompatible in L2.

Numerous studies in language interference exerted on L2 learning have been conducted since Lado. Linguists have posited various definitions of the notion of language interference. Dulay et al. (1982) define language interference as the process of automatic transfer from the surface linguistic features of L1 to the surface features of L2. Lott (1983) defines it as errors that occur in the learner's production of L2, which can reflect the characteristics of learner's L1. On the other hand, Skiba (1997) defines it as the transfer of elements, such as phonological elements, grammatical elements, and lexical elements and so on, in specific language(s) to L2 learning. Ellis (1997) defines language interference as transfer. In other words, it is the influence of L1 exerted over an L2 acquisition. Besides, Ellis believes that learners are able to perceive which elements are transferable and which are not on the basis of their L2 developmental stage. Namely, the transfer is ruled by an L2 learner's inner perceptions.

Beardmore (1982) states that in L2 learning, the phonological difficulties, vocabulary difficulties, and grammatical difficulties (that L1 interference has troubled L2 learners) stems from the differences between the structures of L1 and L2. Furthermore, since language interference seems inevitable, it is valuable to research the differences between specific languages to find out the interference points. Hence it can be stated that CA, as developed by Lado, is a utilitarian research tool to map out possible interference between languages. Researchers have conducted extensive studies on the differences between specific languages with the help of CA.

B. Contrastive Analysis

CA is one of the intriguing and controversial issues in theory and practice of language studies. The assumption it raises, namely that difficulties in L2 learning could be predicted by a comparison of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2, has been initially bolstered by numerous linguists and attacked by language teachers (Altenberg and Granger, 2002). CA has been surrounded by long-term and complex debates throughout its history in linguistics. Indeed, a good number of conflicting points of view on the feasibility and usefulness of CA have been made.

Benjamin Whorf (1941) was the first to utter the term 'contrastive linguistics' in his article '*Language and logic*.' After that, the term has been gradually inducted into a new dimension, foreign language teaching pedagogy, particularly through the works of Charles Fries (1945), Uriel Weinreich (1953) and Robert Lado (1957). It has played a significant role on the stage of applied linguistics since 1950s.

Fries (1945) argues in his book, *Teaching and learning English as a foreign language*, that efficient teaching materials stem from a cautious comparison and contrast between the scientifically described target language and the native language of the learner.

In his influential work, *Linguistics across cultures*, Lado (1957) writes on the assumption that difficulties in learning L2 could be predicted by systematically comparing the target language and culture and the native language and culture of the learners. He claims that difficulties could be avoided in mature teaching situations and teaching materials should be developed based on this kind of comparison.

At the time these classical works were published, the facilitative function of CA in the L2 learning is taken for granted by numerous linguists. In 1960s, several contrastive studies were published under the initiative of the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington. These studies were conducted with the conviction, developed by Fries and Lado, that the difficulties met by learners in L2 learning derive from the interference caused by the differences between the target language and the native language of learner (Aarts, 1982).

Rahimpour and Dovaise (2011) hold that the phonological difficulties Kurdish native speakers meet in learning English can be predicted by a contrast between Kurdish and English phonological elements. They suggest that the results could be applied in the preparation of English teaching materials for Kurdish people. However, they emphasize 'neither all differences cause problems, nor all problems happen because of the differences.'

C. Assumptions of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Aarts (1982) distinguishes 10 assumptions underlying the contrastive analysis hypothesis held until the middle of 1960s. The details of these assumptions follow:

1. Language learning is a habit formation issue.
2. L1 transfer phenomena means learner's old habits obstruct their L2 learning.

3. Interference occurs at each aspect of linguistic structure (phonological, syntactic and semantic) and influences both language production and perception.

4. Both similarities and dissimilarities between the target language and the native language of the learner could be pinpointed by comparison.

5. A systematic comparison could not be reached unless the target language and the native language of the learner are scientifically described within the same theoretical framework.

6. Only equivalent sub-systems can be compared.

7. Dissimilarities between the native language and the target language cause difficulty in L2 learning, while similarities do not. The difficulty is the sum of the dissimilarities.

8. With the results of CA, L2 learning difficulties could be predicted.

9. Difficulties could be positioned in hierarchies according to how divergent the two languages are.

10. To discover dissimilarities is the task of linguists, and to develop efficient teaching materials is the task of textbook writers.

Jansen van Rensburg (1983) summarizes that the principle of L2 learning is built on an assumption that 'the major problem was caused by inter-lingual identification and that the differences between the source language and the target language once they had been predicted could be diminished by exposing the learner to drills specifically designed to change his linguistic behavior at the relevant points.'

During a later development period of CA, these assumptions were attacked by numerous linguists, applied linguists and language teachers.

Before the emergence of a mentalist theory of L1 acquisition in 1960s, proponents of behaviorism considered language learning as a habit formation issue. However, mentalists believe that there is a preprogrammed language acquisition device in the human mind which is a determinant of language acquisition (Ellis, 1997). For example, Ritchie (1967) claims that 'the only way for a learner to gain a fruitful, simple, revealing intuition of the structure of a given foreign language is to rely on his innate knowledge of general linguistic structure' (p. 129), instead of doing an impossible comparison between languages. Newmark and Reibel (1968) state that the solution of a language interference problem is to receive more training in L2, instead of drills at points which are summarized from a contrast between the languages.

Mentalists criticize the second assumption of CA, which is based on behavioristic theories. This assumption considers a language as a unity comprised of a number of habits, and considers the difficulties as the unmatchable points between the habits of L1 and those of the L2. As a result, CA mainly focuses on a comparison of the surface linguistic features between the languages (Aarts, 1982).

As to the third assumption regarding the influence of interference, Whitman and Jackson (1972) state that CA does not play an important role in language learning due to that the influence of language interference is so small. In other words, it is not worthy of much attention.

The fifth assumption holds that contrast cannot be conducted unless languages are described within the same theoretical framework. Twaddell (1968) notes that there are two issues which are not addressed herein. The first issue is, 'What do we understand by the scientific description of a language?' The second issue is 'How do we carry out a systematic comparison of two languages?' (p. 197). Besides, Di Pietro (1978) claims that the theoretical framework on which languages are described should be able to be adopted to integrate the difference between the surface structures and the deep structures of the languages. However, in existing linguistic theories, the notion of deep structure is controversial. It holds that it is considerably difficult to explain similarities and dissimilarities between languages. Therefore, the establishment of comparability or equivalence between languages is a complicated issue.

The seventh assumption underlying contrastive analysis hypothesis, that different features between specific languages are difficult and the similarities are easy for language learners, is under attack as well. Corder (1973) refutes this view with two statements. The first is that no connection should exist between differences and difficulties in language learning. He claims that difficulty is a psycholinguistic issue. In other words, it is hard to measure a degree of difficulty. The second statement Corder makes is that not only the dissimilarities between languages should be known by learners, but also the similarities (Chapter 10). According to the research results of some linguists, a situation of this assumption could be more complex. Albert and Obler (1978) find that languages with more similarity in linguistic features have more difficulty in lexical learning, while languages with fewer similarities have fewer problems. However, on the overall performance of L2 learning, languages with less similarity have much more difficulties in learning. By and large, learners would rely on their knowledge of L1 to help L2 learning due to the reason that L2 is a completely new system for them. Mackey (1966) criticizes the seventh assumption that is wrong to claim that all the mistakes and errors made by L2 learners are caused by his/her L1. Furthermore, according to Mackey, predictions summarized by experienced language teachers are much more reliable than linguist's predictions that are verified through CA method. Aarts (1982) claims that some interlinguistic differences have never created any problems, while some similarities frequently create problems for learners. Besides, there has been much criticism that CA focuses only on the difference between the target language and the native language of the learners. In other words, the difference focuses on interlingual interference. However, there are many other factors influencing a language learner's performance, but CA does not pay attention to them.

The eighth assumption is premised on the predictive power of CA. It believes that the difficulties learners will have in L2 learning can be predicted. However, it is found that linguists cannot predict many mistakes or errors with which language teachers are familiar (Corder, 1967). Without a doubt, after they conducted a study with a group of Japanese students, Whitman and Jackson (1972) claim that CA cannot precisely predict difficulties learners would have in learning an L2. According to the results of extensive studies on CA, some linguists have reached the conclusion that errors are not only caused by a learner's L1 interference, but also from other factors. In other words, not all the mistakes or errors in L2 learning are predictable with the CA method (Aarts 1982). Additionally, Lee (1972) states that developmental errors which are common in the production of learners' L2 do not stem from the L1 interference but depend on the learners' degree of mastery of L2 and their learning strategies. Richards (1974) studied developmental errors and found that many errors are caused by extralinguistic influences which have nothing to do with L1 interference. Since the errors in L2 learning are caused by various factors, it becomes obvious that CA cannot cover all difficulty-making sources, let alone predict all possible errors.

Lastly, the tenth assumption underlying contrastive analysis hypothesis states that the main purpose of CA has been that it facilitates L2 teaching and learning; for example, improving L2 teaching materials, and highlighting focal points in L2 teaching and learning. However, this major contribution has been questioned by many linguists and language teachers, as well. Saporta (1967) claims that linguists have no idea how to convert the results of contrastive studies into efficient teaching methods. As well, Corder (1967) notes that teachers well understand what are the difficult points in language teaching and learning from their teaching experiences. In other words, what teachers essentially need is effective ways to cope with these difficulties, not merely identifying them. Nemser (1971) states that CA has little practical value in language teaching. Widdowson (1979) writes that an appropriate teaching model should derive from the language users instead of linguistics with the reason that language teaching is a participant orientated activity.

In spite of these criticisms, proponents of CA, particularly those in European countries, do not relinquish this utilitarian tool. They still have confidence in the application and future development of CA, albeit they have an increasing worry about whether CA contributes to language teaching (Aarts, 1982). Pietro (1978) recommends that it is necessary to continue utilizing CA for the reason that it makes contributions to pedagogy. The proponents of CA feel impelled to optimize CA continuously. They pay more attention to the theoretical and methodological aspects of CA, instead of devoting all efforts to the comparisons between specific languages (Aarts, 1982).

Moreover, CA proponents continue to defend it with more cautious claims. For instance, Politzer (1972) notes that performance in L2 may sometimes reflect competence in L1 and that 'The interference in performance in L2 which can be associated with competence in L1 can be counteracted by exercises which are specially designed to reduce the influence of competence of L1 on performance in L2.' It is compelling to note that these statements are much more moderate than earlier ones.

The fact that CA has been primarily targeted as language pedagogy makes it suffer due to that it has no clear supporting theoretical framework. To resolve this problem, River (1968) divides CA into two aspects, theoretical CA and applied CA. Theoretical CA works along general linguistic theories and language universals to provide descriptions of similarities and dissimilarities between languages. Meanwhile, applied CA induces research results of theoretical CA into a pedagogical field. Its proponents believe that CA could make contributions to various fields of linguistics, not only to the language pedagogy of applied linguistics, but also to translation theory, language typology, and language universals in theoretical linguistics (Altenberg and Granger, 2002). However, this division raises a difficult question for CA: how can a research result of theoretical CA be converted into a pedagogical language method?

Currently, with increasing theoretical and methodological discussions, CA has revived as an active field in linguistics. It has also expanded into other disciplines, particularly in areas concerned with computer science. However, the predictive power of CA is still a center issue that attracts intense debate among scholars from different fields. The present research aims to determine the accuracy of the prediction function of CA by contrasting the sound systems of Mandarin Chinese and Thai, and checking the contrast results with the authentic performance of native Thai speakers who learn Mandarin Chinese as a second language.

According to James (1992), it is impossible to do an all-around contrast between two languages. This paper focuses on the phonetic transfer between Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems. Despite there are various output channels in communication, such as writing, body language, sign language, and so on, speech is a basic and natural medium of communication. As a result, phonetic transfer is considered the most obvious in language transfer studies. One example is that people could easily point out where a speaker comes from by listening to his/her speech accent.

III. METHODOLOGY

The sounds in Mandarin Chinese and Thai derive from different phonetic systems. Thai native speakers as learners of Mandarin Chinese are likely to embed unconsciously their mother tongue in their Mandarin Chinese pronunciation. This paper examines the different elements between Mandarin Chinese and Thai adopting the CA method, and checks the different elements against authentic performances of Mandarin Chinese pronunciation by five native Thai speakers who learn Mandarin Chinese as L2. The aim of this exercise is to retest the accuracy of the predictive power of CA. To conduct a parallel contrast, Thai and Mandarin Chinese sounds are described and transliterated utilizing the same model of sound description which is referred to as the international phonetic alphabetic (IPA) system.

To examine the accuracy of the predictive power of CA, two steps are employed. In the first step, Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems are described by the IPA system to fulfill the requirement of equivalence. Next, both sound systems are carefully contrasted. The purpose of the first step is to explore which Chinese sounds are different from Thai sounds and which ones do not exist in the Thai sound system. According to the contrastive analysis hypothesis, those different and nonexistent sounds are the difficult points for native Thai speakers when they are learning Mandarin Chinese pronunciation.

In the second step, five Thai participants were required to read out loud a piece of Mandarin Chinese material. The researcher recorded their reading of this material. All the participants are native Thai speakers who learn Mandarin Chinese as a second language, but with different years of learning and proficiency levels in Mandarin Chinese. The contrastive results of the first step were adopted as a check list to examine the pronunciation of each participant. This step distinguished whether the predicted difficulties in fact exist in the pronunciation by each participant; hence, the accuracy of predictive power could be ascertained.

A. Recording Material

The recording material is comprised of three parts: Pinyin (Mandarin Chinese phonetic system) reading, individual word reading, and short story reading. The first and second parts include every sound that exists in the Mandarin Chinese sound system, while the short story is selected from a question bank of the Putonghua (Mandarin Chinese) Proficiency Test, an official oral test held by the State Education Commission of the People's Republic of China. It is modified slightly to cover every sound that exists in the Mandarin Chinese sound system.

B. Participants

The participants recruited are five native Thai speakers who learn Mandarin Chinese as L2 (they differ in their respective proficiency levels of Mandarin Chinese). All participants come from central Thailand. In other words, there is no obvious difference in speech accents of their native language (note that Central-Thai accented speech is distinctive from Northern Thai-, Northeastern Thai- and Southern-Thai accented speeches). They were required to read aloud the Mandarin Chinese material. The researcher recorded their pronunciation and compared this with the results stemming from the first step of the research. An individual Chinese language teacher at a Chinese university was invited to listen to the recording once again to recheck the correctness of the comparison.

Each participant received the recording material a week in advance to familiarize with the contents. There was no presence of others except the individual participant in the recording room, in order to reduce anxiety of the participants and to assist in the naturalness of the reading. All participants finished the recording alone by themselves respectively.

TABLE 1.
PROFILES OF FIVE PARTICIPANTS

	Age	Gender	Place of Residence	Majored in Mandarin Chinese	Years of Learning	Frequency of Use
A	29	Female	Nontaburi (Central-Thai Speaking Region)	Yes	8	1-2 hours per week
B	36	Male	Bangkok (Central-Thai Speaking Region)	No	9	1 hour per week
C	24	Female	Bangkok	Yes	9	Everyday
D	39	Male	Bangkok	Yes	15	Weekdays
E	44	Female	Bangkok	Yes	25	Everyday

IV. FINDINGS

A. Consonants

There are 22 consonants in the Mandarin Chinese sound system. They are divided into two groups, 21 initial consonants and two final consonants. The sound [n] could be utilized as both an initial consonant and a final consonant.

Initial consonants: [p], [ph], [m], [f], [t], [th], [n], [l], [k], [kh], [x], [tʂ], [tʂ h], [ʂ], [ts], [tsh], [s], [tʂʰ], [tʂʰ h], [ʂʰ], [ʐ].

Final consonants: [n], [ŋ]

The Thai language is consisted of 44 basic consonant characters, but only 21 sounds. Besides, there are 11 complex consonants in the Thai sound system, which would not be considered in this research due to the reason that complex consonants do not exist in the Mandarin Chinese sound system. As a result, 21 consonant sounds are divided into two groups as well, 21 initial consonants and six final consonants. Sounds [k], [p], [t], [m], [n], and [ŋ] could be utilized as both initial consonants and final consonants in the Thai sound system.

Initial consonants: [p], [ph], [b], [t], [th], [d], [k], [kh], [ʔ], [m], [n], [ŋ], [f], [s], [h], [ts], [tsh], [r], [j], [w], [l]

Final consonants: [k], [p], [t], [m], [n], [ŋ]

Drawing on a comparison table of Mandarin Chinese and Thai single consonants, summarized by Chen and Li (2008), the researchers compared all the above-mentioned consonants in Table 2 outlined below.

According to the contrastive analysis hypothesis, the difficulty that learners would meet in L2 learning is the sum of the dissimilarities between the native language and the target language. It could be predicted that native Thai speakers would not have any difficulty in pronouncing the two final consonants of Mandarin Chinese due largely to the fact that there are same final consonants in the Thai sound system, as well. There are eight Mandarin Chinese initial consonants which are non-existent in the Thai sound system. These are [tə], [təh], [ə], [tʂ], [tʂh], [ʂh], [ʐ], [x]. In other words, these initial consonants are supposed to be the difficult points in the learning of Mandarin Chinese for native Thai speakers, for the reason that there is no corresponding sound in the Thai sound system to help the pronunciation.

TABLE 2.
COMPARASION BETWEEN MANDARIN AND THAI CONSONANTS

COMPARISON BETWEEN MANDARIN AND THAI CONSONANTS												
		Plosive			Nasal	Fricative		Affricate		Lateral	Trill	Approximate
		voiced	Voiceless			voiced	voiceless	voiceless				
			un-aspirated	aspirated	voiced			un-aspirated	aspirated	voiced	voiced	voiced
Bilabial	MC		p	p ^h	m							
	T	b	p	p ^h	m							
Labiodental	MC						f					
	T						f					
Dental	MC						s	ts	ts ^h			
	T						s	ts	ts ^h			
Alveolar	MC		t	t ^h	n					l		
	T	d	t	t ^h	n					l	r	
Retroflex	MC					ʐ	ʂ ^h	tʂ	tʂ ^h			
	T						ʂ	tʂ	tʂ ^h			
Palatal	MC						ɕ	tɕ	tɕ ^h			j
	T											
Velar	MC		k	k ^h	ŋ		x					w
	T		k	k ^h	ŋ							
Glottal	MC			ʔ			h					
	T											

B. Vowels

There are 35 vowels in the Mandarin Chinese sound system. These comprise eight monophthongs, nine diphthongs, and four triphthongs.

Monophthongs: [A], [o], [ɤ], [i], [u], [y], [ə]

Diphthongs: [ai], [ei], [au], [ou], [iɛ], [yɛ], [iA], [uA], [uo]

Triphthongs: [uei], [iou], [iau], [uai]

The Thai phonetic system is consisted of 41 vowels. These include 18 monophthongs, 20 diphthongs, and 3 triphthongs. Thai is one among the group of languages in which the duration of a vowel could change the meaning of a word. As a result, there are short vowels and their corresponding long vowels in the Thai sound system.

Monophthongs: [a], [a:], [i], [i:], [u], [u:], [e], [e:], [ɛ], [ɛ:], [o], [o:], [ɔ], [ɔ:], [ə], [ə:]

Diphthongs: [ia], [i:a], [ua], [u:a], [ai], [a:i], [ɔi], [ɔ:i], [əi], [o:i], [ui], [au], [a:u], [ɛu], [ɛ:u], [e:u], [iu]

Triphthongs: [i:au], [u:ai], [u:ai]

The above-mentioned monophthongs of both Mandarin Chinese and Thai are compared by distinguishing the places of articulation (tongue and lips) in Table 3 below:

TABLE 3.
A COMPARASION BETWEEN MANDARIN CHINESE AND THAI MONOPHTHONG

		Front		Central		Near Back		Back	
		round	unrounded	rounded	unrounded	unrounded	rounded	unrounded	
High	MC	y	i				u		
	T		i, i:			u, u:	u, u:		
Mid	MC						o		ɣ
	T		e, e:			ə, ə:	o, o:		
Mid-low	MC		ɛ						
	T		ɛ, ɛ:				ɔ, ɔ:		
Low	MC				A				
	T			a, a:					

According to the comparison, Table 3, there are four Mandarin Chinese monophthongs corresponding to Thai monophthongs which have the same position of articulation. These are the sounds of [i], [u], [o], and [ɛ], while the

remaining three Mandarin Chinese monophthongs are non-existent in the Thai sound system. These are the sounds of [y], [A], and [ɣ].

The contrast between diphthongs in the Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems is more complex than that of monophthongs. This complexity is summarized below:

1. There are two similar diphthongs in Mandarin Chinese and Thai. They are sounds of [ai] and [au].
2. There is no corresponding sound in the Thai sound system for the other Mandarin Chinese diphthongs, namely [ei], [ou], [iɛ], [ye], [iA], [uA], and [uo]
3. There are two triphthongs in the Thai sound system, [i:au] and [u:ai]. These are similar to the two Mandarin Chinese triphthongs [iau] and [uai]. However, the first sound of the Thai triphthongs is a long vowel sound. In the Mandarin Chinese sound system, there is no long vowel sound.
4. The other two triphthongs of Mandarin Chinese, [uei] and [iou], do not have corresponding triphthong in the Thai sound system.

All the discrepancies between the Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems are summarized as below:

Eight consonants: [tə], [tə h], [ə], [ʃ h], [tʃ], [tʃ h], [z], [x]

Twelve vowels: [y], [ɣ], [A], [ei], [ou], [iɛ], [ye], [iA], [uA], [uo], [uei], [iou]

With the contrastive analysis hypothesis, it is predictable that Thai L1 speakers who learn Mandarin Chinese as L2 will have difficulties to learn the consonants and vowels mentioned above. To check the accuracy of CA's predictive power, the researcher listened to the recorded pronunciation of the participants. The results were checked by a Chinese language teacher at a university in PRC.

As mentioned earlier, participant A, who majors in Mandarin Chinese, has been learning it for eight years. She utilizes it for 1-2 hours per week to sing songs and to teach it for Thai children. It was found that participant A clearly pronounces [tʃ], [tʃ h], [ʃ h], and [z]. However, she cannot pronounce [tə], [tə h], and [ə] well. Instead, she pronounces these three sounds employing a dental voice which renders the sound the same as [ts], [tsh], and [s] in Mandarin Chinese. She pronounces [x] as [h], a glottal voice in the Thai sound system.

TABLE 4.
PRONUNCIATION PERFORMANCE OF FIVE PARTICIPANTS

		A	B	C	D	E
Con- sonants	tə	Dental voice	Dental voice	Dental voice	√	Dental voice
	tə ^h	Dental voice	Dental voice	Dental voice	√	Dental voice
	ə	Dental voice	Dental voice	Dental voice	Dental voice	Dental voice
	tʃ	√	Dental voice	√	Dental voice	√
	tʃ ^h	√	Dental voice	√	Dental voice	√
	ʃ ^h	√	Dental voice	√	Dental voice	√
	z	√	Alveolar voice	Alveolar voice	√	√
	x	Glottal voice	Glottal voice	Glottal voice	Glottal voice	√
Vowels	y	√	√	√	√	√
	ɣ	√	Near back sound ə:	Near back sound ə:	Near back sound ə:	Near back sound ə:
	A	Central rounded a	Central rounded a	Central rounded a	Central rounded a	√
	ei	Long near back ə:	Long near back ə:	Long near back ə:	√	√
	ou	√	Mid-low back rounded ə:	√	Mid-low back rounded ə:	√
	iɛ	i is pronounced as i:	i is pronounced as i:	i is pronounced as i:	i is pronounced as i:, e is pronounced as a	√
	ye	√	√	√	√	√
	iA	i is pronounced as i:, central rounded a	i is pronounced as i:, central rounded a	i is pronounced as i:, central rounded a	Central rounded a	√ (sometimes)
	uA	u is pronounced as u:, central rounded a	u is pronounced as u:, central rounded a	u is pronounced as u:, central rounded a	Central rounded a	u is pronounced as u:, central rounded a
	uo	u is pronounced as u:	u is pronounced as u:	u is pronounced as u:, o is pronounced as a occasionally	Back rounded ə	√
	uei	√	u is pronounced as u:, near back ə	u is pronounced as u:, e is missing	√	√
	iou	i is pronounced as i:	i is pronounced as i:, ou as u	i is pronounced as i:	i is pronounced as i:, Mid-low back rounded ə	√

On the other hand, participant A can correctly pronounce [y], [ɣ], [ou], [ye], and [uei].

However, the sound [A] is pronounced as sound [a], a central rounded sound in the Thai sound system. Regarding the diphthong [ei], its first part is pronounced as [ə:], a near back unrounded long sound in the Thai sound system. The first part of the sound [i] in Mandarin Chinese sounds like [iɛ], but [iou] is pronounced by participant A as a long vowel [i:]. For [iA], the first part of the sound [i] is pronounced as a long vowel [i:] as well, while the second part of the sound [A] is pronounced as [a], a central rounded sound in the Thai sound system. A similar problem happens with the pronunciation of [uA]. The first sound [u] is pronounced as a long vowel [u:], while the second [A] is pronounced as [a], a central rounded sound in the Thai sound system. The first part [u] in the diphthong [uo] is pronounced as a long vowel [u:] by participant A.

Participant B, who has not majored in Mandarin Chinese, has learned it for nine years. He commonly utilizes it for 1 hour per week to sing songs. In his consonant demonstration, participant B pronounces [tə], [tə h], [ə], [tʂ], [tʂ h], and [ʂ] as dental voices which sound the same as [ts], [tsh], and [s]. He pronounces [z] as an alveolar sound [l]. Similar to participant A, participant B pronounces [x] as [h], a glottal voice in the Thai sound system. In the vowel demonstration, participant B correctly pronounces [y] and [yɛ]. However, the vowel [γ] is pronounced as [ə:], a near back unrounded long sound in the Thai sound system. Participant B pronounces [A] as a central rounded [a], which is a Thai vowel. The first sound in the diphthong [ei] is pronounced as a near back unrounded long sound [ə:]. The diphthong [ou] is pronounced as a monophthong [ɔ :]. Participant B pronounces [iɛ] as [i:ɛ]. He pronounces the first sound [i] as a long vowel [i:]. The first parts of the sounds of [iA] and [uA] are pronounced as long vowels [i:] and [u:], while the second part of [A] is pronounced as a Thai vowel [a]. In addition, the [u] in [uo] is pronounced as the long vowel [u:]. The first sound [u] in [uei] is pronounced as the long vowel [u:] as well, and [ei] is pronounced as [əi]. As to the triphthong [iou], participant B pronounces it as the diphthong [i:u] which has a long vowel [i:].

Participant C who majors in Mandarin Chinese has been learning it for nine years (note that both participant B and C spent nine years to learn Mandarin Chinese). She has the opportunity to speak it with her Chinese boyfriend. In her consonant demonstration, participant C pronounces [tʂ], [tʂ h], and [ʂ] perfectly. However, she pronounces [tə], [tə h], and [ə] as dental voices which sounds the same as [ts], [tsh], and [s]. The consonant [z] is pronounced as an alveolar voice [l], while [x] is pronounced as a glottal voice [h] in the Thai sound system. In the vowel demonstration, participant C clearly pronounces [y], [ou], and [yɛ]. However, [γ] is pronounced as [ə:], a near back unrounded long sound in the Thai sound system. The vowel [A] is pronounced as the central rounded [a] in the Thai sound system. The diphthong [ei] is pronounced as [ə:i]. The [i] sound in [iɛ] and [iou] is pronounced as the long vowel [i:]. In addition, [iA] is pronounced by participant C as [i:a] which has a long vowel [i:] and a central rounded [a]. The same problem exists in the pronunciation of the diphthong [uA] which is pronounced as [u:a] by participant C. As to the diphthong [uo], occasionally participant C pronounces it as [u:o], and at times pronounces it as [u:a]. The triphthong [uei] is pronounced as the diphthong [u:i].

Participant D who majors in Mandarin Chinese has been learning it for fifteen years. He utilizes it during the weekdays when he contacts with Chinese-speaking people and Chinese documents in his workplace. In the consonant demonstration, participant D pronounces [tə], [tə h], and [z] correctly. However, [ə] is pronounced as a dental voice [s]. Consonants [tʂ], [tʂ h], and [ʂ h] are pronounced as dental voices [ts], [tsh], and [s]. Participant D pronounces [x] as the glottal voice [h] in the Thai sound system. In the vowel demonstration, participant D pronounces [y], [ei], [yɛ], and [uei] perfectly. However, he pronounces [γ] as the near back long sound [ə:], a Thai vowel. [A] is pronounced as the Thai central rounded vowel [a]. The diphthong [ou] is pronounced by participant D as the monophthong [ɔ :]. The diphthong [iɛ] is pronounced as [i:a] which has a Thai long vowel [i:] and the Thai central rounded vowel [a]. In the pronunciation of [iA] and [uA], its second part [A] is pronounced as the Thai central rounded vowel [a]. The diphthong [uo] is pronounced as the monophthong [ɔ]. The triphthong [iou] is pronounced as the diphthong [i:ɔ].

Participant E who majors in Mandarin Chinese has learned it for twenty-five years. Similar to participant C, she utilizes it everyday as her work duties include editing Chinese-Thai books and she constantly watches Chinese TV series on the weekends. In her consonant demonstration, participant E pronounces [tʂ], [tʂ h], [ʂ h], [z], and [x] perfectly. However, [tə], [tə h], and [ə] are pronounced as dental voices [ts], [tsh], and [s], the same difficulty demonstrated by participants A, B, and C. In the vowel demonstration, participant E clearly pronounces [y], [A], [ei], [ou], [iɛ], [yɛ], [uo], [uei], [iou], and from time to time [iA]. [γ] is pronounced as the near back sound [ə:] which is a Thai vowel. The diphthong [uA] is pronounced as [u:a] which has the Thai long vowel [u:] and the Thai central rounded vowel [a]. Participant E occasionally pronounces [iA] correctly, while at times pronouncing it as [i:A].

To summarize the performances of the participants, participant B revealed the most pronunciation problem, while participant E, the least. There is no significant difference among the pronunciation performances of participants A, C, and D.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Summary

Numerous noteworthy observations are reflected in the research findings of the earlier outlined demonstrations conducted for the pronunciation of both the consonants and vowels of Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems.

1. It is possible to discern similarities and dissimilarities between Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems with the help of CA. This result confirms the fourth assumption of the contrastive analysis hypothesis, both similarities and dissimilarities between L1 and L2 of the L2 learner could be pointed out by a comparison exercise.

2. The compound vowels [iA], [uA], [iɛ], [uo], and [iou] are pronounced differently by the pronunciation of Chinese L1 speakers. A Thai L1 speaker is likely to pronounce the first sound much longer than the second sound, while a Chinese L1 speaker's pronunciation of compound vowels is quite short and pronounced quickly. This aforementioned phenomenon shows that the Chinese pronunciation of Thai L1 speakers is influenced by their L1 due to that commonly the first sound in Thai compound vowels is much longer than the second (and third) sound. This indicates that interference occurs at the phonological aspect of linguistics, and influences language production. Again, this observation is in accord with the third assumption of the contrastive analysis hypothesis, that interference occurs at each aspect of linguistic structure (phonological, syntactic and semantic) and influences both language production and perception.

3. However, not every difference between the Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems causes a learning difficulty. E.g., all participants pronounce the vowels [y] and [yɛ] correctly. In other words, with regard to the aforementioned aspect of phonological learning and at least for the learning of Mandarin Chinese by Thai L1 speakers, the difficulty is not merely the sum of differences. The vowel [y], as well as [yɛ], does not have any similar sound in the Thai sound system. According to the contrastive analysis hypothesis, these are supposed to be obstacles in Chinese pronunciation for Thai L1 speakers. However, both of these vowels of Mandarin Chinese were pronounced perfectly by five participants who are Thai L1 speakers, while other Mandarin Chinese vowels that have similar sounds in the Thai sound system were pronounced inaccurately. It is thus evident that dissimilarities between L1 and L2 do not always cause difficulty for L2 learning, while similarities may cause difficulty. These results are contrary to the seventh assumption of contrastive analysis hypothesis, that dissimilarities between L1 and L2 cause difficulty in L2 learning while similarities do not, and the difficulty is the sum of the dissimilarities.

4. Since the results of this research show that the dissimilarities between L1 and L2 do not always cause difficulty in L2 learning and similarities occasionally do cause difficulty, the eighth assumption of the contrastive analysis hypothesis, that the difficulties which the learners will have in L2 learning could be predicted, is accordingly refuted.

5. This research finds that different Thai L1 speakers have different difficulties in regard to Mandarin Chinese pronunciation. E.g., participant D pronounce [tɕ] and [tɕh] correctly, while participant E who performed the best in the Mandarin Chinese pronunciation demonstration exercise cannot pronounce these two consonants correctly. Hence, it is evident that pronunciation difficulty is a psycholinguistic issue in which individual difference plays an role. As a result, the ninth assumption, that difficulties could be positioned in hierarchies according to the divergence of two languages, is refuted by the research results of the present study.

With the abovementioned observations of the contrast between Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems, the predictive power of CA has been re-examined and findings of the present study question the practical application and contribution of CA in language pedagogy. The results of the present research show that the predictive power of CA is not as accurate as its proponents claim.

B. Discussions

According to the contrastive analysis hypothesis, the learning difficulty is the sum of the differences between the learner's L1 and L2. To examine the accuracy of CA's predictive power, this paper compares Mandarin Chinese and Thai sound systems. The differences between these two systems are outlined and the supposition made that these differences pose difficulties during L2 learning. A check of these predicted difficulties was then made with the Mandarin Chinese pronunciation performance of five native Thai speakers who have different levels of proficiency in Mandarin Chinese.

The results of the present research are contrary to a number of assumptions of the contrastive analysis hypothesis and they question the accuracy of CA's predictive power. The results show that, at least for the five participants involved in this research, some differences may not cause any difficulty in the Mandarin Chinese pronunciation of native Thai speakers, while some sounds with similar pronunciation may cause great difficulty during the learning process of the Mandarin Chinese sound system. As a result, the accuracy of CA's predictive power is not as efficient as has been strongly held by the proponents of CA.

C. Recommendations

All participants in the present research have been learning Mandarin Chinese for longer than eight years. The longer they have in their learning, the more external factors may have influenced their Chinese pronunciation. To explore the contribution of CA to L2 learning, the performance of a beginner who has recently learned a L2 is recommended as one future research focus. Besides this, the pronunciation data collected and analyzed in the present research were not of natural speech. Such may not reflect the authentic pronunciation performance in natural conversations carried out by participants studied. It is, therefore, recommended that future researchers adopt recordings of the language from natural speech settings (whereby spontaneous and conversational speeches are naturally carried out) as data.

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Yi-Wen Cai has studied in the Graduate School of Language and Communication in the National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) since 2012. She is awarded with the Prize for Outstanding Students. She is interested in phonology, media content analysis and sociolinguistics.

Hugo Yu-Hsiu Lee (PhD, Indiana University, USA), theoretical and applied linguist, holds the Assistant Professor designation in Applied Linguistics at the National Institute of Development Administration, Bangkok, Thailand. He is an award-winning researcher and his most viewed articles including *Bargirl Style of Language Choice and Shift: A Tale from the Land of Smile* and *Losing Chinese as The First Language in Thailand*.

Constructive or Obstructive Features of Teacher Talk in Iranian EFL Classes

Fatemeh Poorebrahim
Maragheh University, Iran

Mohammad Reza Talebinejad
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Esfahan, Iran

Farhad Mazlum
Maragheh University, Iran

Abstract—The present study was an attempt to investigate classroom discourse from the vantage point of the SEET (Self-evaluation of Teacher Talk) framework which has resource to conversation analysis as its underlying powerhouse. In addition, it aimed at exploring how teacher talk can lead to more learner involvement in EFL classes. This study was carried out on advanced EFL classes in a private language school in Maragheh, Iran. The audio and video-taped classes were transcribed and analyzed based on pre-defined modes of the SEET framework with special focus on *teacher talk*. Results indicated that *confirmation checking*, *scaffolding*, *direct error correction*, and *content feedback* constituted the constructive whereas *teacher interruptions* and *turn completions* made up the obstructive sides of teacher talk respectively. Findings are used to maintain that there is a greater need to highlight the significant relationship between teacher talk quality and learner contributions in EFL contexts; and, to argue that through reflective teaching EFL teachers' verbal behaviors can gradually enrich and flourish in terms of teacher talk and learner contributions standards.

Index Terms—conversation analysis, teacher talk, SEET framework, learner contributions

I. INTRODUCTION

A currently well-documented view in the field of second language acquisition gives credence to *talk* which is co-constructed by teacher and learners in a goal-oriented context of classroom discourse. Social constructivist theories of learning reject the singular nature of classroom contexts and advocate plural and multi-layered contexts. Interactions between teachers and learners are assumed to be the building blocks of these contexts. An attempt to understand such interactional patterns entails a thorough understanding of talk itself and, more importantly, of the pedagogic goal behind it. In other words, teaching/learning goal at a given moment determines teacher talk and is well presented in it. As demonstrated by Walsh (2003, p. 125): "An understanding of the 'interactional architecture' (Seedhouse, 1996) of the L2 classroom may not only enhance understanding of the teaching and learning processes at work- it would arguably result in a wider range of opportunities for learning".

Furthermore, the interrelatedness between teacher talk and pedagogical role smoothes the way for a scrutiny of the quality of teacher talk in the form of constructive or obstructive talk in order to decide whether teachers hinder or facilitate learner contributions by their use of language. The fact that Iranian EFL classes seem to have failed in bringing out learners competence to full capacity is undeniable. Teacher centeredness which is manifested in teachers' excessive talking time, topic control, and interaction management is the prevailing feature of Iranian EFL contexts. Learners' contributions are largely restricted to one word or too short turns. This is mainly due to the fact that teachers do not have a clear understanding of the relationship between their talk and pedagogical goals related to their talk. If such an understanding is gained, teachers can enhance the quality and quantity of learners' output by their careful use of language.

Our knowledge about the effective use of talk in classroom has increasingly been informed by research in cultural settings other than those of the UK and the USA (which hitherto dominated the field). This has fed into an appreciation of the potential variety of effective ways of teaching and learning (Mercer, 1997, p. 181). Mercer has argued that "one of the principle aims of education should be enabling children to become confident users of 'exploratory' talk: that is, talk in which partners reason together, engaging critically and constructively with each other's ideas" (Mercer, 1997, p. 182).

Anyone concerned with evaluating the 'effectiveness' of talk in educational setting is likely to find difficulties in reaching a satisfactory definition of what constitutes 'effectiveness', and in measuring it. While there might be a general agreement about the aims of education, any measure of how effective the use of talk is in any actual situation must move from generalizations to particular and observable features of talking and learning. For some researchers, a satisfactory measure of the effectiveness of teacher-pupil talk may be a 'process' measure--such as the relative extent to

which a teacher is able to elicit enthusiastic, extended contributions from students. Others (e.g. Brown & Palincsar, 1989 as cited in Mercer, 1997) find it necessary to make some 'outcome' measures--that is, to assess what students appear to have learned as a result of interacting with their teacher.

A. *Teacher Talk and Learning Opportunity*

An EFL class is a social context in its own right, worthy of study and scrutiny. Any attempt to understand the nature of classroom discourse should focus on quality rather than quantity by recognizing the relationship between language use and pedagogic purpose. The point is that appropriate language use is more likely to occur when teachers are sufficiently aware of their goal at a given moment in a lesson to align their teaching aim and pedagogic purpose to their language use. Where language use and pedagogic purpose are at one, learning opportunities are facilitated and increased; conversely, where there is a significant deviation between language use and teaching goal, opportunities for learning and acquisition are diminished (Walsh, 2002). Walsh (2002) invokes teacher's deep concerns to include the following activities in teacher-fronted classes:

- Engage learners in the classroom discourse;
- Encourage interactional adjustments between teacher and learners;
- Promote opportunities for self-expression;
- Facilitate and encourage clarification by learners.

Teachers have a vital role to play in understanding, establishing and maintaining patterns of communication which will facilitate second language learning. In the words of Johnson (1995, p. 9) "teachers control what goes on in classrooms primarily through the ways in which they use language".

In an attempt to discover an order in classroom context, one must take account of the uniqueness and complexity of communications in that context. The first step in gaining such an understanding is familiarization with the features of language classroom discourse (Walsh, 2006). According to Walsh (2006, p.62), "class-based L2 learning is often enhanced when teachers have a detailed understanding of the relationship between teacher talk, interaction and learning opportunity". Therefore, admitting the versatility and fluidity of communications in every L2 classroom is a vital prerequisite for a sound analysis of it. This is in chief due to the asymmetrical nature of classes in terms of relationships, backgrounds, expectations and perceptions of learners.

B. *The Central Role of Interaction in Language Classrooms*

What impact might an understanding of "interactional architecture" (Seedhouse, 2004) have on learning efficacy? There exists a substantial body of research evidence highlighting the interdependence of interaction, input, output and the need for meaning negotiation. Ellis (2000, p.209) maintains that "learning arises not through interaction but in interaction". As such, interaction needs to be understood if learning needs to be promoted.

Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996 noted in Walsh, 2006) takes account of the importance of meaning negotiation in feedback learners receive on their contributions from teachers. In her Output Hypothesis, Swain (1995) highlights the importance of teacher-learner dialogues in promoting acquisition. Successful teaching stems from "successful management of the interaction... the sine qua non of classroom pedagogy" (Allright, 1984, p. 159). Walsh (2006, p. 16) strongly believes that "interaction does not simply happen, nor is it a function of the teaching methodology; interaction, in an acquisition rich classroom, is both instigated and sustained by the teacher". Owing to teachers' special status, L2 teachers control most of the 'patterns of the communication' (Johnson, 1995), primarily through the ways in which they restrict or allow learners' interaction' (Ellis, 1998) and facilitate or hinder learning opportunity.

Under this view, terms such as high and low teacher talking time (TTT) become meaningless; teacher talk is understood and adjusted according to teaching/ learning goals at a given moment and by acknowledging the fact that any lesson is made up of a number of contexts, not one (Walsh, 2003, p. 122).

C. *Classroom Modes*

The most original and central position which Walsh (2006) adopts is that single classroom context does not exist; contexts are locally constructed by participants through and in their interactions in the light of overall institutional goals and immediate pedagogic objectives. Pedagogy and interaction team up through talk: pedagogic goals are manifested in the talk-in-interaction. The term 'mode' (Walsh, 2006, p. 62) encompasses the interrelatedness of language use and teaching purpose. Mode is defined as an L2 classroom micro context which has clearly marked pedagogical goals and distinguishing interactional features determined largely by a teacher's use of language. The definition is intended to portray the 'interface' (Seedhouse, 1996) between the actions and words, behavior and discourse which are the very essence of classroom interaction (Walsh, 2003)

D. *SEET Framework*

According to Walsh (2006, p.1), the SETT framework has been constructed around three key stands:

1. "The argument that L2 classroom interaction is socially constructed
2. The proposal that an understanding of classroom interaction must take account of both pedagogic goals and language used to achieve them
3. The suggestion that any lesson is made up of a series of locally negotiated micro contexts (Modes)".

The aim is to provide a descriptive system which teachers can use to extend an understanding of the interactional processes operating in their own classes. Walsh (2003) further explicates in detail that the modes do not claim to account for all features of classroom discourse, nor are they sufficiently comprehensive to take account of each and every pedagogic goal. The main focus is on teacher-fronted classroom practice. Those interactions where learners work independently of the teacher are not described.

The SETT framework is identified by four patterns, four micro contexts which are characterized by specific patterns of turn-taking, called modes, which is defined as an L2 classroom micro context that has a clearly defined pedagogic goal and distinctive interactional features determined by a teacher's use of language (ibid).

Pedagogic goals represent the minute-by-minute decisions teachers make, their objectives and intended learning outcomes. Pedagogic goals are based on the goal-orientedness of all interactions in an L2 classroom which are demonstrated in the talk-in-interaction of the lesson. Interactional features can be regarded as language functions of teacher and learner talk, derived from a conversational analysis of turn-taking and sequence, and topic management (ibid).

By analyzing the corpus, four patterns of modes have been identified by Walsh (2006, p.67), namely, *managerial mode*, *material mode*, *classroom context mode*, *skills and system mode*. The pedagogic goals of managerial mode are: To transmit information related to the management of learning, to organize the physical conditions for learning to take place, to refer learners to specific materials, and to introduce or conclude an activity. The interactional features that characterize managerial mode are: A single, extended teacher turns, frequently in the form of an explanation or instruction, the use of transitional markers, confirmation checks, and the absence of learner contribution.

E. Materials Mode

The principal pedagogic goals are as follows: To provide language practice around a specific piece of material, to elicit learner responses in relation to the material, to check and display answers, to clarify, and to evaluate and extend learner contribution. The principle interactional features are: The predominance of IRF (Initiation, Response, Feedback) sequence, closely managed by teacher, display questions to check understanding and elicit responses, form-focused feedback to "correctness" rather than content, repairing to correct errors, and scaffolding.

F. Skills and System Mode

Pedagogic goals of this mode are: To enable learners to produce correct utterances, to enable learners to manipulate the target language, to provide corrective feedback, to provide learners with practice in essential sub- skills, and to display correct answers. Interactional features are as follow: The use of direct repair, the use of scaffolding, extended teacher turns, teacher echo used to display responses, clarification requests, and form-focused feedback.

G. Classroom Context Mode

Pedagogic goals include: To enable learners to talk about feelings, emotions, experience, attitude..., to establish a context, to activate mental schemata (MacCarthy, 1992), to promote oral fluency practice. Interactional features are as follows: Extended learner turns, relatively short teacher turns, direct repair, content feedback, extended use of referential questions, rather than display questions, scaffolding to help learners express their ideas, and requests for clarification and confirmation checks.

Since the framework is intended to be representative rather than comprehensive, identifying deviant cases are inevitable to maximize the reliability of research, which are as follows: Mode Switching: movements from one mode to another; Mode Side Sequence: brief shifts from main to secondary mode and back, and Mode Divergence: where interactional features and pedagogic goals do not coincide.

II. METHODOLOGY

This part expands on research questions, the methodology and the design employed in this study, detailing the outline of study, characteristics of participants, data collection and analysis, and interpretation of findings. First, a need is felt to touch upon the objectives of the study once again:

1. To evaluate the applicability of SEET framework to the Iranian EFL context
2. To identify the modes, mapped out within the SETT framework and to observe their operation in Iranian advanced EFL classes
3. To specify whether interactional features of the interactions coincide with or deviate from the pedagogic goals of each mode of the SETT framework being used
4. To identify the obstructive or constructive use of teacher talk in advanced classes.

A. Participants

Two groups of subjects partook in this study namely teachers and EFL learners.

1. Teachers

The proficiency level of teaching and the willingness to participate served as two leading and prime criteria for the researchers in choosing teachers. The teachers were approached and asked about their inclination in the study. A general explanation of the research objectives was given to the teachers. The objective was explained as being a mere

investigation of the interactions between teachers and EFL learners. One of the benefits of such an approach was the opportunity to observe and investigate naturally occurring classroom interactions (Van Lier, 1998). The teacher participants were all female, non-native speakers of English with B.A or M.A degrees in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), with 3-6 years of teaching experience at different proficiency levels.

2. Learners

Four intact EFL classes were observed. There were around 50 participating female language learners with a variety of motives for learning English including preparation for academic study, professional development or immigration. The age range was between 19-35 years and their proficiency levels were measured by a placement test.

B. Instrumentation

Instrumentation included a TV set for observing the classes, small wall-mounted cameras installed on the upper corner of each class, a headphone for receiving the voice, a video set for recording, and a high tech voice-recorder.

C. Materials

Based on a multi-skills syllabus, the course books covered in advanced levels were *Passages 1* and 2 (Richards & Sandy, 2000) and some complementary books such as *Vocabulary for High School Students* and *VOA (Voice of America) Listening*. These books include activities designed to develop fluency and accuracy in four skills and sub skills.

D. Procedures

In conversation analysis, the investigation starts with making an audio and/ or video recording of naturally occurring interactions. These recordings are carefully transcribed according to specific conventions. This was also taken into in this study. Next, only the episodes containing interactions between teachers and learners were identified and separated from the whole. Data were transcribed based on a transcription system adopted from Van Lier (1988) and Johnson (1995). (Appendix 1). Data analysis came next. Based on the SETT framework, the interactional features as well as the underlying pedagogical goals fostered the identification of the Modes and paved the way for spotting the obstructive or constructive type of teacher talk.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

At this point, we will be bringing out what modes emerged from the analysis and what set of insights and implications flow from them.

Before Skills and System Modes, Managerial Mode was again put to use by teachers. The pedagogical goal was to transmit information about grammatical points. The teacher did not go beyond the decontextualized self-standing gloss of grammar acting upon the assumption that being on top, as it were, and in charge, would be enough to contribute to learning. The intriguing point was the absolute absence of confirmation checks; simply put, the teachers never inquired whether the learners have understood the general drift of the language point or the lexical, discoursal or lexicogrammatical point being implicitly or explicitly taught during the classroom.

There was a scattered use of discourse markers which seemed to have been deployed to attract learners' attentions and guide them towards the new activity. All in all, since learners' profuse bewilderment and mistakes in making out the grammatical points or the circumstances of carrying out tasks were repeatedly observed, it can be claimed that there was not an absolutely aligned agreement between teacher talk and pedagogical purpose.

Material Mode:

The interactions that symbolized this mode revolved around the topics concerning *Different ways of Shopping* and *The Power of Advertisement*. By contemplating the various interactions, the teacher's principal pedagogic goal proved to be eliciting learners' response through checking, evaluating and extending their responses.

There were a number of features of interest in data after applying the SETT framework. Loose *interactional space* and boundless choice of topic were observed. Display and referential questions which functioned to stretch and alter topics were used quite infrequently. Where subtopics commenced in the light of the main topic, the use of three types of scaffolding by teachers acted to provide more scope for learners' extended and prolonged contributions. Learners had been given more interactional space and more freedom to self-select and shift the topic. Direct repair with the least possible obstructive impact on the flow of interactions occurred in turns.

The IRF sequence no longer lingered as the only prevalent form of progressing classroom discourse and where a close-knit IRF structure existed, teachers turned feedback move to clarification requests, through which precise and explicit productions were turned up.

Negotiation of meaning occurred in conducting tasks. High proficiency level of students prevented teachers from being the exclusive and mere managers of interactions; however, the extended teacher turns were observed only in three cases.

Surprisingly enough, the occurrence of *form-focused feedback* and *content-focused feedback* was subtle and imperceptible. In some respects, the discourse looked like that of ordinary observation in that the learners were offered

more scope to self-select topics and discuss. In the same vein, symmetrical and equal roles for participation were observed; this was where a number of *extended learner turns* showed up.

TABLE1.
MATERIAL MODE

Feature of Teacher Talk	Frequency
Scaffolding	12
Direct repair	4
Content feedback	2
Extended wait- time	0
Referential questions	3
Seeking clarification	11
Extended learner turn	6
Teacher Echo	1
Teacher interruptions	0
Extended teacher turn	3
Turn completion	4
Display questions	8
Form focused feedback	0

Skill and System Mode

The extracts in which teachers taught grammar demonstrated the skills and system mode. The pedagogic objectives lying behind the interactional features included: to enable learners to produce correct forms, to help them to manipulate the target language, to display correct answers and, when necessary, to provide corrective feedback. Most of the features were in line with the ones specified in SETT framework. Nevertheless, some features overrode others and the occurrences of some others were few and far between. The approach teachers adopted to teach grammar was the tightly controlled deductive one which strongly influenced the pattern of turn-taking and pushed it towards a narrow confined channel of grammar practice. The interactions unfolded through the use of tight question-answer routine that typically used lots of display questions.

There was some evidence showing how teachers prompted the learners to produce accurate and exact responses by providing some cues. Having got the cues, learners changed the form of their responses to match with the corrective feedback. Finally, the contributions resulted in longer and precise responses which Swain (1995) calls *pushed output*. Scaffolding as "feeding in" (Walsh, 2006, p. 82) the essential and needed language, played a faint role in pushing learners towards producing the correct form. The sporadic occurrence of scaffolding manifested itself in the form of modeling.

In some interactions teachers' turns took up less evaluative form and were not indicative of pupils' satisfactory contribution. Teacher echo as a kind of feedback was only noted in one case which seemed inadequate for an advanced class.

It can be claimed that, although the expected interactional features were almost observed, the infrequent occurrence of each might be attributed to the fact that teachers spent a great deal of class time in explaining grammatical points and devoted less time for providing practice for the points taught.

TABLE2.
SKILLS AND SYSTEM MODE

Feature of Teacher Talk	Frequency
Scaffolding	4
Direct repair	3
Content feedback	0
Extended wait- time	0
Referential questions	0
Seeking clarification	4
Extended learner turn	0
Teacher Echo	1
Teacher interruptions	0
Extended teacher turn	0
Turn completion	0
Display questions	5
Form focused feedback	2

Determining Constructive or Obstructive Nature of Teacher Talk in Advanced Classes

EFL teachers choose, control and shift the topics of classroom discussions; they direct the flow of interactions and lead the whole scenario to desirable and preplanned results. These all, give rise to classes where teacher- learner role is asymmetrical and unequal. As a result, the quality of teacher talk gains greater significance. Since extended and complicated teacher talk is needed to accomplish most of EFL classroom tasks (teaching grammar) and teacher talk time occupies most of class time, it becomes evident that there is an immediate need for a profound and substantive understanding of the vital role brought off by teacher talk aligned with the pedagogic goal in question at a given

moment of the lesson. Learning opportunities would be far better facilitated and expedited when and if such alignment and harmony exists. Teachers' choice of language can assist or impede learning opportunities. By comparing advanced classes, the features of construction and obstruction became evident. Learner involvement differed in classes under comparative analysis, precisely due to variations and contrasts in teacher talks. In both classes, evidence of construction and obstruction was noticeable, but the occurrence of each differed fundamentally in different classes. Once the teacher produced constructive talk, she established a good context, maximized learners' involvement and led to precise linguistic strings on the part of learners.

Constructive Features of Teacher Talk

Direct error correction

As it occurs in follow-up turns, this type of error correction is time-saving, less intrusive and is favored most by learners since it brings minimal interruption in interaction flow.

Content feedback

In classroom context mode, where the teacher drove the topic of the lesson towards genuine and real life topics, the use of content feedback by the teacher helped foster a conversation-like language and was appropriately conducive to keeping pedagogic purpose and teacher language at one.

Confirmation check

The two-way checks for confirmation between teachers and learners paved the way for meaning negotiation which was clearly of great benefit for expediting language acquisition.

Scaffolding

Scaffolding is defined as feeding in essential language when a breakdown happens. This is a skill which requires good listening skills and predicting what might be needed before a breakdown occurs. Scaffolding appeared in different forms.

The features which foisted the least intrusion on communication flow are as follows: Latched modeling, alternative phrasing and prompting. These all furthered the learners' contributions and pushed them towards more extended ones. Since teachers' talk and their goal are in tune, other features of naturally occurring conversations (e.g. learner self-selecting the topic and overlapping) were also observed.

TABLE 3.
OBSERVED CONSTRUCTIVE FEATURES

The observed features of construction	Class 1	Class 2
Direct Error Correction	2	6
Content Feedback	3	1
Checking confirmation	12	6
Scaffolding	7	10

The Observed Features of Obstruction: Blocking learning opportunities

Depending on the quality of teacher talk, obstruction may happen which subsequently hinders learning opportunity and changes turn-taking mechanisms, length of learner turns and the quality of their contributions. What follows are some of the observed features that reduced learning potential.

Turn Completion

The profuse latching indicated that the teacher fills the gaps to further discussions. Perhaps the main reason is the shortage of time in EFL classes, but teachers miss the chance for meaning negotiation. This seems to confirm Walsh's argument that, "There is a sense of the learner being 'fed the lines' instead of being allowed time and space to formulate her responses" Walsh (2002, p.18).

Walsh (2002) asserts that turn completion should not be equalized with scaffolding. Turn completion is deemed as an inadvisable factor in classroom settings. It limits the recurrence and alters the quality of learner contribution. Learners are not afforded a chance to explicate their contributions and make the meaning plain.

Teacher Interruptions

Interaction flows are frequently cut off by teacher's inadvertent interruptions. It was noted that whenever the smooth continuity of learners' contribution was disturbed by teachers, learners lost the thread of ideas and arguments and this resulted in flawed production and reluctance to participate further. Sometimes, the efficient recourse to silence on the part of teachers culminated in learners' longer and more complex linguistic productions. This is in line with what Walsh (2002, p.19) lays emphasis on: "learning potential would have been increased by a more judicious use of silence, by reducing or eliminating teacher echo and by resisting the temptation to interrupt, unless absolutely necessary".

TABLE 4.
THE OBSERVED CONSTRUCTIVE FEATURES

The observed constructive features	Class 1	Class 2
Turn completion	5	0
Teacher Interruptions	20	2

Although the occurrence of constructive features does not differ starkly in number, the obstructive features in first teacher's talk outnumber those of her colleague. Put simply, the first teacher, knowingly or not, hinders the long and

extended contributions on learners' part, which might be attributed to her verbal behavior. If an awareness of the importance of teachers' choice of language is well established, it may well be conducive to enhanced learning opportunities.

IV. CONCLUSION

The paper aimed at investigating the potential contributions of the SETT framework in Iranian EFL context. It was found that the SETT framework can be an appropriate means through which one could access and study classroom discourse. The SETT finely highlights the role of language in education, not to mention the support it lends to the standpoint on conversation analysis. It is a fact that conversation analysis is a rigorous method geared to describing the intricate and multi-faceted interactions in the classroom by means of determining and analyzing turn-taking mechanisms.

The present study made an attempt to delineate the actual operational applicability of the SETT in Iranian EFL classrooms. Steps were taken to trace workings and functions of all the specified modes within the framework.

The results of this paper are not intended to imply that some teachers come to make more apt and masterful use of language than others. Nor do they imply that certain teachers are, by extension, more conscious of their language use than others. However, one might safely argue that the rich deployment of some features by some teachers and the infrequent or no use of such features by other teachers is certainly ascribable to teachers' verbal behavior rather than the methodologies they have recourse to.

Once such awareness is established, teachers themselves will come around to the substantive significance each feature carries in order to meet relevant pedagogic goals, and the importance attached to the features in question will be brought home for them.

In terms of the perspective on *construction* and *obstruction*, the transcripts bring out the fact that teachers displayed no tendency to assume a "back seat" role or more to be a mere observer of the unfolding classroom scenario. They constantly and conspicuously ended up imposing their presence by cutting across the smooth flow of communicative interactions.

It is not difficult to argue that where the obstructive factors reached their minimal deployment, learning opportunities flourished and the classroom discourse assumed a conversational dimension not to say, an appearance, although this was seen to be fleeting.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The need for fostering awareness about the link between the appropriate and constructive teacher talk and pedagogic goal is being felt even more acutely than before. Such awareness can be reached more easily if teachers attempt to record and transcribe their own classes on organized bases and engage themselves in grasping what sort of talk on their own part culminate in long, extended and more comprehensible learners' contributions or conversely in meager, short and cursory ones.

The SEET framework also lends itself to critical reflective practices through which teachers can evaluate the interactional opportunities that present themselves in their classes. The point of departure would be the modifications that teachers bring to bear on their verbal behaviors rather than their methodologies. It would be optimally desirable if language schools develop guidelines with emphasis on the importance of qualitative aspects of teacher talk. Such guidelines can be effectively included in their Teacher Training Programs.

APPENDIX. TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEM

T	teacher
L	learner
L1:L2:etc.,	identified learner
LL	several learners at once or the whole class
Ok/ok/ok	overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one learner
Do you understand ?	overlap between teacher and learner
(I see)	
=	turn continues, or one turn flows another without any purpose
...	pause of one second or less marked by three periods
(4)	silence, length given in seconds
?	rising intonation- question or other
Correct	Emphatic speech: falling intonation
((4))	unintelligible 4seconds: a stretch of unintelligible
Paul, Peter, Mary	capitals are only used for proper nouns
To organize groups	editor's comments (in bold type)

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Fatemeh Poorebrahim is a Ph. D. student and the teacher of EFL at Maragheh State University, E. Azerbaijan, Iran. Her research interests include improving EFL textbooks and teaching methods using cross-cultural materials, teacher evaluation, discourse analysis, and ESP. She has published articles in foreign/second language teaching and ESP, and is the corresponding author of this article: She can be reached at: Dept. of English, Maragheh University, Iran

Mohammad Reza Talebinejad is a professor of applied linguistics at Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Esfahan, Iran. He has published articles in foreign/second language teaching.

Farhad Mazlum is an assistant professor of applied linguistics at Maragheh University. He has published articles in foreign/second language teaching and ESP.

A Network Text Analysis of *Fight Club*

Starling Hunter

Tepper School of Business, Carnegie Mellon University Qatar, Doha, Qatar

Saba Singh

Tepper School of Business, Carnegie Mellon University Qatar, Doha, Qatar

Abstract—Network Text Analysis (NTA) involves the creation of networks of words and/or concepts from linguistic data. Its key insight is that the position of words and concepts in a text network provides vital clues to the central and underlying themes of the text as a whole. Recent research has used an inductive or bottom-up approach to the question of theme extraction. In this paper we take a top-down or deductive approach in that we first establish prior expectations as to the key themes to be found in the text. We then compare and contrast the results of our network analysis with the results of literary and cultural analyses of the film *Fight Club* as reported in over four dozen other peer-reviewed publications. While our results are remarkably consistent with and complementary to results in those studies, our analysis permits something the others do not—an analytical framework for relating those underlying and central themes to one another.

Index Terms—network text analysis, social network analysis, *Fight Club*, Chuck Palahniuk, film criticism, semantic network

I. INTRODUCTION

Network text analysis (NTA) involves the identification of important lexical relationships among words and concepts in a text and their subsequent representation in the form of a network or map (Popping, 2000). Like other methods of content analysis, NTA operates on the assumption that the structure of a text encodes its meaning (Fischer-Starcke, 2009). Its major point of differentiation—perhaps its defining difference—is how it defines that structure. The most widely employed methods of content analysis—ones employed in corpus linguistics, corpus stylistics, and computational linguistics—establish structure from the frequency with which certain key words appear in the text and/or the frequency with which those words co-occur (Stubbs, 2005; Popping & Roberts, 1997). Several approaches to NTA have been developed in the last five decades. These include *mental models* (Collins & Loftus, 1975), *knowledge graphs* (Bakker, 1987), *concept maps* (Novak, 1990), *map comparison/analysis* (Carley & Palmquist, 1992), *word network analysis* (Danowski, 1993), *semantic networks* (Sowa, 1992), *functional depiction* (Popping & Roberts, 1997), *sociocognitive networks* (Carley, 1997; Diesner, 2013), *semantic grammars* (Roberts, 1997), *centering resonance analysis* (Corman, Kuhn, McPhee, & Dooley, 2002), *semantic webs* (van Atteveldt, Kleinnijenhuis, & Ruigrok, 2008), and *morpho-etymological networks* (Hunter, 2014a, 2014b). While each of these methods defines textual structure in a different manner, they all share two explicit assumptions. The first is that otherwise invisible properties of texts can be identified when words and concepts are represented and understood as networks (Diesner & Carley, 2005). The second is that a text's key themes are associated with the words and concepts that occupy the most influential positions in the network. Despite sharing these foundational assumptions, approaches to NTA vary along at least two key dimensions. The first concerns the specific lexical or conceptual item to be studied, as well as the nature of the relationship that joins them. Variation in the choice of item and relationship is what produces variation in the definition of the text structure. A second concerns the level of automation or computer-support (Diesner & Carley, 2005). Despite these differences, the four fundamental steps in all network text analyses are the same (Diesner, 2012). They are the *selection* of certain words or concepts in a text for subsequent analysis, the *abstraction* of these words or concepts to higher-level conceptual categories, the identification of a *relationship* that can be used to connect the conceptual categories to one another, thereby forming a network, and the *extraction* of meaning and key themes from the most influential nodes (concepts) in that network.

Several recent studies have focused on the latter of these four stages, i.e. the extraction of key themes. These include network text analyses of *screenplays* (Hunter, 2014a), *mission statements* (Grbic, Hafferty, & Hafferty, 2013), *newspaper articles* (Tambayong & Carley, 2013), *presidential inaugural addresses* (Light, 2014; Chung & Park, 2010), and *extremist propaganda* (Morris, 2014). Despite the wide variety of texts and research questions, all of these studies derived the themes inductively, i.e. from the bottom-up. That is to say, the analysts approached the texts *without* strong prior assumptions or expectations as to what the themes would or should be. Typical of the bottom-up approach is Hunter (2014a) who created text networks for seven recent, Academy-Award winning, best original screenplays—*Little Miss Sunshine*, *Juno*, *Milk*, *The Hurt Locker*, *The King's Speech*, *Midnight in Paris*, and *Django Unchained*. In five of the seven networks he reported that key themes of the story were clearly associated with the most influential nodes in the network. For example, in the text network of the Iraq-war-themed *The Hurt Locker* he found the following words

and concepts associated with the most influential nodes in the network—*army-issue*, *body armor*, *fireball*, *gunfire*, *gunshot*, *HUMVEE*, *IED (improvised explosive device)*, *machine gun*, *shell-shocked*, *suicide bomber*, and *USA*. In the screenplay for *Milk*, biopic about the openly-gay mayor of San Francisco who was infamously assassinated by a fellow politician, words and concepts associated with the most influential nodes in the network included *AIDS*, *elected official*, *public office*, *city council*, *city hall*, *city-wide*, *civil rights*, *town hall*, *manslaughter*, *congressman*, *human rights*, *right wing*, *nationwide*, and *statewide*. Similarly, while Grbic, Hafferty, & Hafferty (2013) hypothesized that the mission statements of public and private medical schools, as well as those of social-mission vs. research-focused medical schools, would have different text networks, they did not specify *a priori* the content of those differences or the network positions of key differentiating concepts. The current study is the first of which we are aware that takes a deductive or top-down approach. That is to say, unlike the aforementioned studies, we first develop strong priors about the key themes that should be found in our text, the screenplay of *Fight Club* (Uhls & Palahniuk, 2000). Those expectations are developed by a review of over four dozen published, peer-reviewed journal articles that analyzed the movie *Fight Club* and/or the novel from which the screenplay was adapted (Palahniuk, 1996). We then perform a network text analysis on the screenplay and see whether the results match our expectations.

II. TALKING ABOUT FIGHT CLUB

Fight Club was the first published novel by American Chuck Palahniuk and it appeared in 1996. In 1999 a film by the same name was released starring Brad Pitt as the antagonist, Tyler Durden, and Edward Norton Jr. as the unnamed Narrator and protagonist. According to director David Fincher, Norton's unnamed character is an "everyman" who we discover is very discontented, even "emasculated" by his white collar job and consumerist lifestyle (Smith, 1999). To escape these doldrums, he eventually forms a club with a soap-maker partner (Tyler Durden) where men fight recreationally. The novel earned moderate critical acclaim garnering its author both the Pacific Northwest Booksellers Association Award and the Oregon Book Award for Best Novel in 1997. The film adaptation initially disappointed at the box office, earning only \$37 million during its U.S. and Canadian theatrical run versus a production budget of \$63 million. The film did eventually turn a profit because foreign box office receipts pushed the total to just over \$100 million (Box Office Mojo, 2014). But despite the initially poor box office showing, imagery and dialog from the film leapt immediately into the mainstream of popular culture. Perhaps the most famous—or infamous—line from the film concerns the club's rules—"The first rule of fight club is you do not talk about fight club."

And if the measure of performance of the film and novel was the degree to which people have ignored that rule, then both the novel and film—but especially the latter—have been an enormous success. Debates began in earnest shortly after the film's world premiere at the Venice Film Festival and continued unabated through its US theatrical release. The film also became somewhat notorious for its influence in the popular culture with many fight clubs being formed around the US (Crowdus, 2000). Academics and culture critics have done their fair share of talking about *Fight Club* too. Perhaps as a result of its cultural impacts of the film, critics of popular culture and the arts were among the first in academia to analyze both *Fight Club*. Our research identified over 100 articles about the film and/or novel that were published in peer-reviewed academic journals between 1999 and 2014. Of those written in the humanities, subject matter of the journals includes literature, film studies, gender, religion, popular culture, social theory, psychology, post-modern studies, Gothic studies, the sociology of sport, and race, media and culture, communication, and trauma.

III. METHODS & DATA

A. Identifying the Key Themes

The first task in the analysis was to determine the major themes of the novel and film, as articulated by academic analysts and critics. The authors met four times to make these determinations. The first meeting concerned reconciling our selection of the peer-reviewed journal articles that would form the basis of our subsequent analysis. Prior to this meeting each author separately used the *Google Scholar* search engine to generate a list of citations using search terms that include the phrase "Fight Club" plus the name of either the film's director (David Fincher), the screenplay's author (Jim Uhls), or the author of the novel (Chuck Palahniuk). The first author separately saved all citations to journal articles to his own Google Scholar library. The second author saved all relevant citations directly to her hard drive. When we met we discovered that the major differences in our selection concerned three issues: whether or not to include book or movie reviews that appeared in peer-reviewed journals (we decided not to); whether and how to treat articles that did not have abstracts; and whether and how to accommodate articles that analyzed the film or book from the standpoint of film or narrative theory. Concerning the second issue, we decided to use only the text that appeared in the first paragraph of article. In those cases where it was not possible to obtain a copy of the paper, the article was excluded from consideration. Concerning the latter, we opted to eliminate all articles that were not expressly cultural or social analyses or critiques of the film. At the conclusion of this meeting we ended up with the 52 peer-reviewed articles listed in the Appendix. As shown in Table 1, several major and inter-related themes are evident in the academic literature over the fifteen years since the theatrical release of *Fight Club* and the nearly twenty years since the novel's publication.

At the second meeting the authors reconciled the first version of the categories of themes that were to be later used to code statements contained in the abstracts or lead paragraphs. Prior to the meeting each author separately reviewed different halves of the aforementioned 52 abstracts or lead paragraphs and created their own lists of major themes that were present therein. Specifically, each author highlighted key phrases and words used to describe the protagonist, the antagonist, the film, the novel, and/or the major themes of those works. Examples include phrases like “the films *Fight Club*... and *Memento* revolve around similar themes...the individual’s struggle with late capitalism in order to establish identity in a de-centered world” (Kravitz, 2004) and “...the *Fight Club* ethic...is rooted in guerilla-type resistance to commodity culture” (Del Gizzo, 2008). Each author separately abstracted all relevant terms in these statements and converted them into nouns, e.g. capitalism, identity, guerilla, resistance, commodification. When we met, we discussed the overlap and the differences in the two lists which contained a total of 41 such nouns. After agreeing on common names for highly similar terms the list was reduced to 26 nouns.

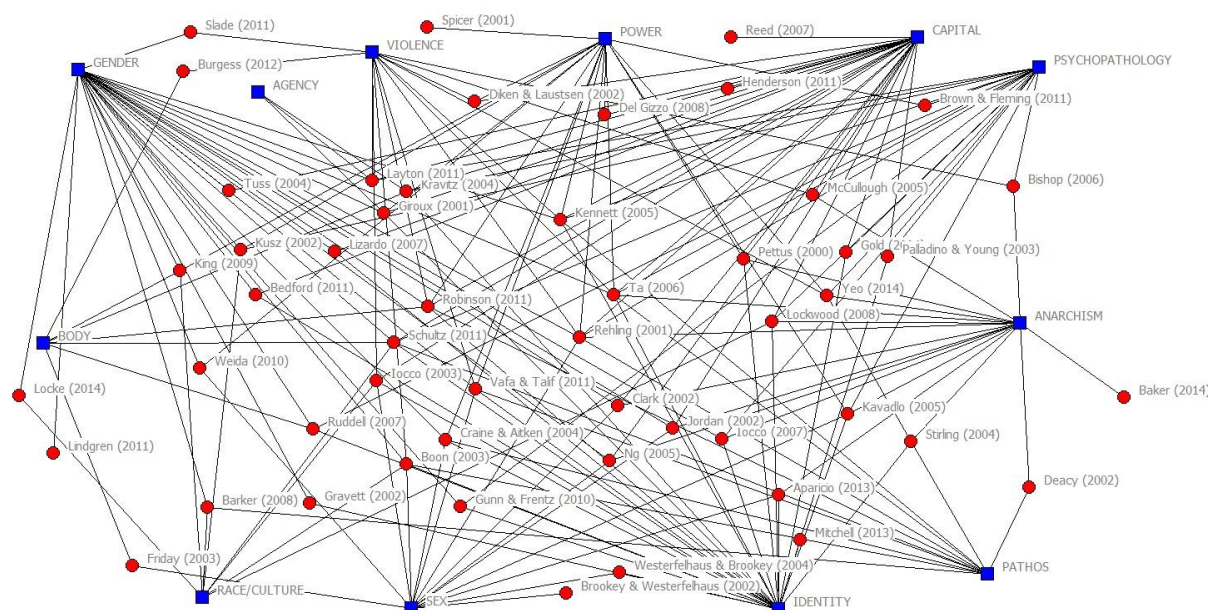
At the third and fourth meetings we jointly reviewed every statement that either author had previously identified and re-assigned each one to one or more relevant noun-themes. When and where it seemed appropriate, we reduced the number of noun-themes to create conceptually broader categories. Of course, this often necessitated re-naming of existing noun-themes. After several iterations we ended up with the following 12 noun-themes which, order alphabetically, are AGENCY, ANARCHISM, BODY, CAPITALISM, GENDER, IDENTITY, PATHOS, POWER, PSYCHOPATHOLOGY, RACE/CULTURE, SEX, and VIOLENCE. These appear in the first column of Table 1. The second column contains the noun forms of typical terms abstracted from the relevant phrases that we found in the abstracts and first paragraphs. The third column contains examples of the actual phrases contained in those abstracts and paragraphs.

The third and final step of the thematic analysis was to identify the most dominant themes in the literature. Rather than rely on the frequency with which the themes appear, we created a concept map of authors and themes. The result is shown in Fig. 1 where squares represent themes and circles represent authors. When a circle (author) appears between two squares (themes) it indicates that the author mentioned both of these themes in the abstract or first paragraph. For example, in the upper left corner we see that Slade (2011) is represented by a circle that is located between the themes GENDER and VIOLENCE whereas Burgess (2012) appears between the squares representing BODY and VIOLENCE. A view of the map as a whole reveals that the themes can be ordered from greatest number of links to the lowest as follows: GENDER, IDENTITY, CAPITAL, POWER and PSYCHOPATHOLOGY (tied), ANARCHISM, SEX and VIOLENCE (tied), PATHOS, RACE/CULTURE, BODY, and AGENCY. It is this ranking that we subsequently use to test whether the position of concepts within the text network can accurately ascertain key themes of the story as found in the adapted screenplay of *Fight Club* (Uhls & Palahniuk, 2000).

TABLE I.
KEY THEMES IN *FIGHT CLUB*

Theme	Terms	Example Phrases
AGENCY	self-help	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “it is...rebelling against a consumerist culture that dissolves the bonds of male sociality and puts into place an enervating notion of male identity and agency” (Giroux, 2001)
BODY	body, bodies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “two identities inhabiting the same body” (Ta, 2006) • “the splitting of both the psyche and the body” (Ruddell, 2007) • “the film’s retrograde version of a violent masculinity rooted in the male body” (Robinson, 2011).
CAPITAL	capitalism, consumerism, globalization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Fight Club appears to offer a critique of late capitalist society” (Giroux, 2001) • “to reevaluate Fight Club’s representation of capitalism, to develop a value-theoretic account of trash” (Henderson, 2011) • “...its logic implies that action is required against the effects of globalized capitalism...” (Jordan, 2002)
ANARCHISM	anarchism, dystopia, nihilism, post-modernism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “most people in the world...are attracted to dystopic stories about the end of capitalism” (McCullough, 2005) • “The characters in Fight Club avoid nihilism by acquiescing to love without fixed definition” (Aparicio, 2013) • “Fight Club tells the story of an unnamed narrator and the nihilistic Tyler Durden (Rehling, 2001).
GENDER	gender, masculinity, femininity, paternalism, virility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Fight Club tends to emphasize its relevance for the study of contemporary representations of gender and masculinity (Lizardo, 2007) • “Fight Club has provoked a great deal of theorizing about gender...” (Robinson, 2011) • “Fight Club was one of many contemporary films depicting masculinity in crisis...” (Rehling, 2001) • “Race and the Construction of White Masculinity in David Fincher’s Fight Club” (Locke, 2014) • “Fight Club as a foil against which we try to pin larger issues of masculinity and urban life” (Craine & Aitken, 2004)

IDENTITY-INDIVIDUAL	identity, identification doppelganger double self-consciousness self-help	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Fight Club’s narrative logic and its complex, imaginative imbrication of identity and historical self-consciousness (Friday, 2003) • “Chuck Palahniuk’s <i>Fight Club</i> (1997) addresses the identity crisis of white, heterosexual, American men...” (Boon, 2003) • “Fight Club reflects the protagonist’s inability to establish an identity for himself” (Gunn & Frenz, 2010) • “...an extraordinary film that explores an often-violent intersection between the conditions of late-capitalist consumer society and contemporary masculine identities” (Iocco, 2003) • “...(he) is revealed as an individual who suffers from the actual medical disability, Dissociative Identity Disorder. (Ta, 2006)
IDENTITY-SOCIAL	male bonding homosocial relations class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “the homoerotic attraction that lies just beneath the film’s celebration of homosocial bonding” (Westerfelhaus & Brookey, 2004) • “identifying himself as a product of consumer society” (Pettus, 2000) • “(the) protagonist will attempt to use his body to escape the control of society and re-establish his identity and will” (Kravitz, 2004) • “Through examining examples of “fighting” in <i>Fight Club</i>, the article will discuss male bonding through homosocial (and somewhat homophobic) relations” (Iocco, 2003) • “Fight Club provided a point of identification for its embattled white, middle-class, target audience” (Bedford, 2011)
PATHOS	anxiety, crisis, pain, suffering, distrust, malaise, disaffection, Gothic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Palahniuk dramatizes a situation in which contemporary culture is made responsible for a crisis in masculine identity” (Jordan, 2002) • “These people experience the real physical and psychological pain of approaching death where the protagonist does not...” (Schultz, 2011) • “Fight Club reworks the Gothic topos of the Doppelgänger in a twentieth-century American urban context (Stirling, 2004) • “In his attempt to heal himself of his malaise, (the narrator) encounters Tyler Durden...who seduces (him) into co-founding <i>Fight Club</i>” (Ta, 2006).
POWER	power, hegemony, domination, exploitation, victimization, resistance, persecution, fascism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “...in Palahniuk’s <i>Fight Club</i>, the narrator is in a certain crisis of manhood as a result of his contradictory experiences of power under the impositions of hegemonic masculinity” (Vafa & Talif, 2011) • “...the film recommends violence as a solution to a perceived crisis in the lives of a generation of American men who lack the power to find meaning in the wastes of consumer culture” (Robinson, 2011) • “...(the club) rebels against a seemingly impersonal and feminized dominant culture by blowing up that very world...(Ta, 2006) • “All three movies exhibit a sense of victimisation, persecution and distrust...” (Yeo, 2014)
PSYCHO-PATHOLOGY	mental health, psychosis, schizophrenia, paranoia, narcissism, psychopathology, perversity, sado-masochism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “...we argue that the film <i>Fight Club</i> can be understood as a mediation of a larger, cultural psychosis.” (Gunn & Frenz, 2010) • “Fight Club well represents the violent effects of capitalism on psychic structure ... (and)... the damaging effects of capitalism on the male psyche.” (Layton, 2011) • “...the narrative fits perfectly with the psychopathology model of cult recruitment” (Lockwood, 2008) • “...the Art/Politics of White Male Victimization and Reflexive Sadomasochism” (Kusz, 2002) • “...the Gothic movie renders its protagonist, the viewer, schizophrenic and paranoid as well” (Yeo, 2014) • “It was argued that Fincher’s version suffers from the same sense of schizophrenia as its protagonist.” (Bishop, 2006)
RACE-CULTURE	white, western, Asian, race, racism,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Offering a critical interrogation of white masculinity within David Fincher’s <i>Fight Club</i>” (King, 2009) • “This white, male, white-collar, and well-paid protagonist...” (Schultz, 2011) • “Palahniuk’s <i>Fight Club</i> (1997) addresses the identity crisis of white, heterosexual, American men...” (Boon, 2003) • “...issues raised in <i>Fight Club</i> about fighting are...powerfully relevant in white western industrialised context” (Iocco, 2003)
SEX	sexuality, homosexuality, homophobia, homoeroticism, heterosexuality, love	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “...the film’s narrative is structured around a quasi-religious ritual that reaffirms heterosexuality at the expense of homosexuality...” (Westerfelhaus & Brookey, 2004) • “Fight Club is clearly one of the films that are most often addressed by researchers and cultural critics wanting to probe the relationship between sexuality, politics and popular culture” (Lindgren, 2011) • “Fight Club’s DVD “extra text” dissuades the viewer from acknowledging the film’s homoerotic elements as representing homosexual experience” (Brookey & Westefelhaus, 2002)
VIOLENCE	violence, aggression, militarization, terror, terrorism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “As a response, the narrator sets out a nostalgic backlash to grapple with the outlets of the crisis—buried feelings, homophobia and aggression” (Vafa & Talif, 2011) • “...a divided subject that seeks release in brute, regressive masculinity” (Ta, 2006) • “...it is about a man with multiple personality disorder who tries to fight his disillusionment by turning to violence and anarchy” (Bishop, 2006) • “...academics debated whether the film recommends violence as a solution to a perceived crisis in the lives of a generation of American men...” (Robinson, 2011) • “Initially panned by many critics for its violent content, David Fincher’s <i>Fight Club</i> may seem like the most unlikely film to incorporate the tenants of Zen Buddhism” (Reed, 2007).



B. The Selection of Words for Subsequent Analysis

TABLE II.

Type	Selected Multi-Morphemic Compounds in <i>Fight Club</i>
Abbreviations, Acronyms	TFM (task force man), SE (south-east), AR (automatic rifle), yuppie (young urban professional), IBM (international business machine)
Blend Words	laundromat (laundry + automatic)
Clipped Words	Microsoft (microcomputer + software), email, cybernetting
Closed Compounds	Jackhammer, headquarters, handgun, uppercut, airport, breadcrumbs
Conversion	Star-sixty-nined
Copulative	Walkie-talkie
Hyphenated Compounds	self-destruction, born-again, Psycho-boy,
Multi-word Compounds	Out-of-court, cry-for-help, death-warmed-over, merry-go-round
Open Compounds	Office park, orange juice, phone number, rock star, army surplus
Prefixed	Overhanging, overlap, overturned, underground, understand

A second routine in Automap called “Suggest N-Grams” was next employed to identify open compounds words in the text. The output of this routine contains a list of selected multi-word combinations which in our case consisted of 1511 n-grams. As above, both of the authors reviewed the list separately and later reconciled their selections. The result

was a list of 79 open compounds such as *bulletin board*, *dining room*, *parking lot* and *third world*. With the addition of these n-grams the total number of unique MMCs rose to 395. Table 2 contains examples of each type of 11 relevant categories of MMCs appearing in the screenplay of *Fight Club*.

C. Abstraction of Selected Words into Higher Order Conceptual Categories

Abstraction is Diesner's (2012) second stage of a network text analysis. One of the most widely-employed methods of abstraction is stemming, i.e. the reducing of words to their stem, base, or root forms (Stemming, 2014). In this study, we used etymological stemming. Specifically, each morpheme in a multi-morphemic compound is assigned to a category defined as its etymological root. Where possible, that root is Indo-European, as defined in the *American Heritage Dictionary of Indo-European Roots* (Watkins, 2011). Because no software exists for etymological stemming, the mapping had to be done manually. As previously, both authors mapped all morphemes separately and then later reconciled our coding. At the conclusion of this process the 395 MMCs were traced back to 384 unique etymological roots, 80% of which were Indo-European.

D. Connecting the Concepts

The third stage of a network text analysis involves establishing linking relationships between nodes. In the morpho-etymological approach, a pair of nodes is deemed connected when they co-occur in the same MMC. As shown in Figure 2, in our network the etymological roots **wer-2** (to raise, lift, hold suspended) and **pele-2** (flat; to spread) are connected because they co-occur in the compound *airplane*. Because the words *plastic* and *floor* also descend from the root **pele-2**, then it is also connected to the Indo-European roots **kae-id-** () and **de-** (to), and the Old English **bagge**, shown below as BAG. As shown in Figure 2, those nodes are connected by the multi-word expression **floor-to-ceiling** and the open compound **plastic bag**. Similarly, the words *mid-air*, *airline*, *airway*, and *airport*, link the root **wer-2** to four other Indo-European roots—**medhyo-** (), **lino-** (line), **wegh-2** (way, weight), and **per-2** (). Among the 384 nodes in the network, there were 441 such connected pairs. Although that may seem like a lot, the number of possible pairs is 97020 and 441 represents only 0.45% of that number—a mere fraction. That number is so small because MMCs comprise only about 2% of the number of words in the document and because *only* MMCs can create such connections across nodes in the network when those nodes are etymological roots. One implication of the choice to focus in etymological relationships is that many words that convey important information about the content of the story are necessarily excluded from the analysis.

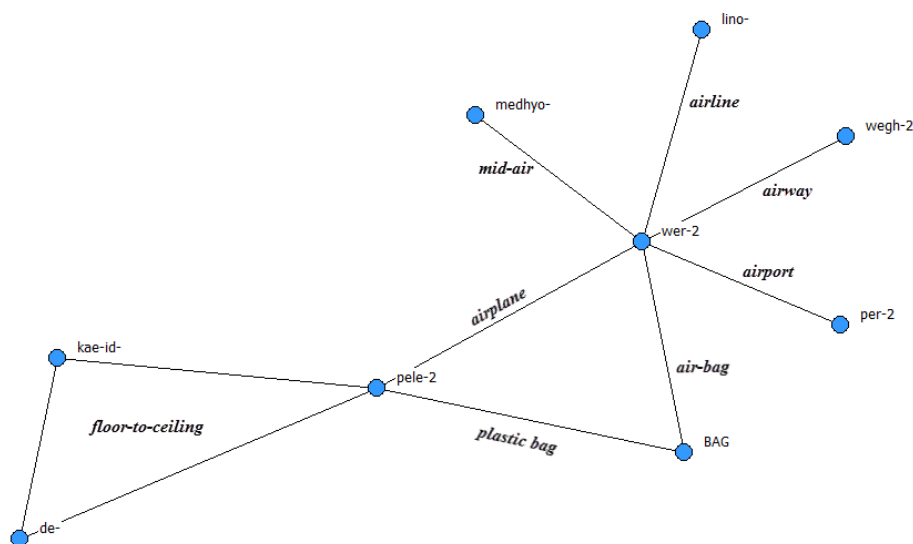
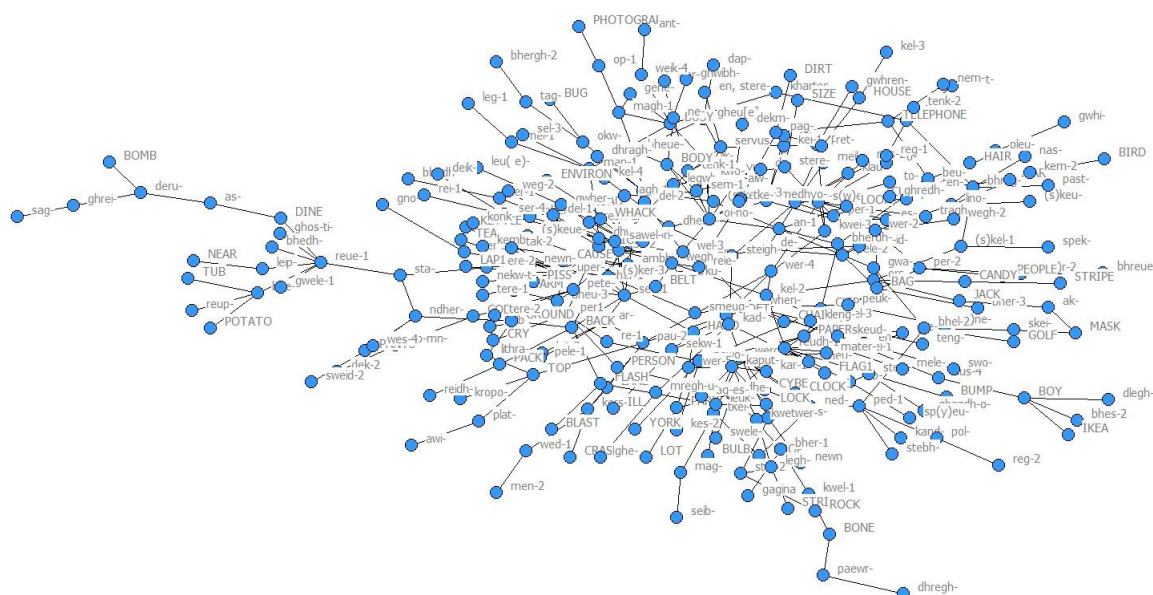


Figure 2. Sub-graph of the morpho-etymological text network for *Fight Club*

In social network analysis, the term “main component” is given to the largest portion of the network wherein all nodes are mutually reachable (Reachability, 2014). Of the 384 nodes in the text network for *Fight Club*, 296 were mutually-reachable. That is to say, there were one or more paths of varying lengths connecting every node (etymological root) to every other node. This network is presented in Fig. 3.

Figure 3. Main component of the morpho-etymological text network for *Fight Club*

E. The Extraction of Meaning

The last stage of a network text analysis involves the *extraction* of key themes from the text. As noted previously, this is typically accomplished through an analysis of the network's most influential nodes. In small networks this can often be done with visual inspection. But with 296 nodes and 387 ties, this network is quite clearly too large and complex to analyze visually. To further reduce the complexity we identified a subset of the most influential nodes among those in the main component. This was accomplished by calculating two measures of network influence—degree centrality and constraint. The first is simply a measure of the number of links that a node has in a network (Wasserman, 1994). The second is the degree to which a node links otherwise disconnected segments of a network. The measure of this propensity is called constraint, and the lower a node's constraint, the greater is its degree to serve as a connector between disparate sub-branches of a network (Burt, 2000). Fig. 3 below contains a reduced network of the one displayed in Fig. 2. It is comprised only of those 23 nodes that were in the top 10 in the whole network with regard to degree centrality and/or the bottom 10 with regard to constraint. The names and definitions of those nodes are displayed in Table III, along with examples of MMCs associated with those roots. The roots in the first column are order from the lowest to the highest value of constraint.

TABLE III.
SELECTED MULTI-MORPHEMIC COMPOUNDS ASSOCIATED WITH THE MOST CENTRAL
AND THE LEAST CONSTRAINED NODES IN THE MAIN COMPONENT OF THE TEXT NETWORK

Node (Definition)	Selected Multi-Morphemic Compounds
s(w)e- (self)	self-destruction, self-improvement, security guard
apo- (of, off)	show off, out-of-court settlement,
ud- (out)	whacked-out, burnt-out, outrage
werg- (to do; work)	Home Shopping Network, paperwork, sex organs, cyber-netting
wegh- (way)	freeway, superhighway, runway
uper- (over)	death-warmed-over, overnight, overturned
se-2 (side)	sidelong, sidewalk, broadsides, passenger side
sed-1 (seat)	out-of-court settlement, seat back, seatbelt
oi-no- (one, unity)	everyone, anyone, someone
upo- (up, over)	uppercut, upright, mixed-up, sit-ups
reudh-1 (red)	lipstick red, red blood cell, red-and-blue, red-faced, red flags, redhead
kaput- (head)	redhead, dickhead, headache, headlock, headquarters
bysig- (busy)	businessman, business card, business trip, IBM, BusinessWeek
an-1 (on)	onboard, one-on-one, onlookers
sem-1 (some)	single-serving, something
reue-1 (room)	stockroom, ballroom, hotel room, bedroom
gwhen- (to strike, kill)	chain-link fence, gunshot, gunpoint, handgun
dhwer- (door)	doorbell, doorframe, doorman, side door
medhyo- (middle)	mid-air, middle-aged, mid-town
wi- (with)	wide-eyed, goodbye (God be with you)
hand (hand)	second hand, handkerchief
wer-2 (to raise, lift)	airbag, airline, airplane, airport
per1 (prime, first, for)	cry-for-help, first person, doorframe

objective has been squarely met. We used 52 peer-reviewed journal articles about *Fight Club* to establish very clear, prior expectations about the themes that should be present in that text. The top three themes that we identified were GENDER, IDENTITY, and CAPITAL. Our network text analysis applied a novel approach—Hunter’s (2014a) morpho-etymological method. The contribution of the present study stems from the fact that this method—like many similar ones—has previously only been applied using a bottom-up approach, i.e. to identify and extract themes from in a text rather than to verify them. The results of the analysis conducted herein found the expected relationship between themes and influential nodes. In particular, we found that the most influential node—as measured by degree centrality and constraint—was **s(w)e-** which essentially means “self” and which is associated with the reflexive pronouns, e.g. *myself*, as well as several hyphenated compounds like *self-improvement* and *self-destruction*. These multi-morphemic compounds (MMCs) clearly spoke to the second most important theme that we identified—IDENTITY. We also found that two other highly influential nodes—**werg-** (to do) and **bysig** (busy)—were associated with a number of MMCs that were consonant with the third most prominent theme—CAPITAL. Notably, we found that none of the most influential nodes and related MMCs emphasized the most prominent theme—GENDER. But that is not as disconfirming of the method as it appears. Even though GENDER was the dominant theme, it was not identified in all of the studies—just a little over half (27 of 52). The remaining 25 that did not identify GENDER had IDENTITY and CAPITAL tied for the most prominent theme while ANARCHISM was the most influential. This indicates something very important. It shows that the method has revealed a major fault line in the academic literature, one that sees the story through the lenses of gender roles, masculinity, paternalism, virility and feminization, and another which emphasizes anarchism, nihilism, post-modernism, and a dystopian ethos. In short, one sees a crisis of masculinity while another sees men in crisis. But cultural criticism is inherently subjective, and so network text analysis can’t determine whether either of these perspectives is the correct one. What it can do—although we had not *planned* to do so—is show that differences exist even in the face of substantial agreement. What it allows is for an analyst to ascertain—in a quantitative and objective sense—what are the underlying dimensions of the field of study.

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APPENDIX. JOURNALS OF THE CORPUS

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Starling Hunter was born in California, USA, in 1963. He received his PhD in Organization Theory from Duke University in 1999. He is current an Associate Teaching Professor at Carnegie Mellon University's Tepper School of Business in Doha, Qatar. His research interests include organizational and text network analysis.

Saba Singh was born in New Dehli, India in 1991. In 2014 she received her Bachelors of Science in Business Administration with a major in marketing from the Tepper School of Business at Carnegie Mellon University in Doha, Qatar. She is currently employed as a business coordinator at the 60Degrees Creative Advertising Agency in Doha, Qatar.

Managing Emotions in the Self & Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Size

Fatemeh Behjat

English Department, Abadeh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Abadeh, Iran

Hamta Ghasemi

Honar Higher Education, Shiraz, Iran

Abstract—Emotional intelligence as a general ability is increasingly relevant to organizational development as its principles provide a new way to understand and assess one's attitude, management styles, personal and interpersonal capabilities. The present research basically aimed at finding out whether managing one's thought as a subscale of emotional intelligence has any relationship with vocabulary achievement of EFL learners or not. For this purpose, a total number of 45 Iranian EFL learners participated in the study. An achievement pre and posttests of vocabulary along with a questionnaire on emotional intelligence were administered. Then, the relationship between vocabulary gain scores and emotional intelligence, as a total entity, and managing one's thought, as one of its subcomponents, were obtained through Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient formula. The results revealed that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and vocabulary gain, on one hand, and managing one's thought, on the other hand for Iranian EFL learners. This implies that the more an individual is emotionally intelligent and can manage the self, the more his vocabulary achievement in language classes would be.

Index Terms—emotional intelligence, managing the self, vocabulary size

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to perceive, understand, and manage one's emotions is perceived as Emotional Intelligence (EI) (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Social intelligence can be considered as the origin of EI. EI was first viewed through the lenses of social intelligence, which is the ability to express empathy with others and behave properly in human relationships (Goleman, 1998), but the social relation-related view was not taken seriously for many years. Gardner (1983) is a pioneer in introducing eight different types of intelligences. One of the categories of intelligence as mentioned by Gardner is the personal intelligence, which actually was the first prompt for the extensive development of EI. Goleman (1998) mentioned that through IQ, one can classify people before they start a career; it signals which fields or professions they are more successful in. To learn who will perform to the top or whose work will turn out to be a failure, however, he said EI proves to be a stronger predictor of success.

According to Shields (2002, p.2), though there are varieties in defining intelligence, most people have come to the same idea that intelligence is basically related to abilities of learning through experience and adapting to the environment. Legg and Hutter (2006) stated that intelligence refers to one's possession as it can have any kind of interaction with the environment; it correlates with one's ability to be a success or reach some objectives; and this is quite related to how capable the person is in confronting different situations and how he can adapt to different situations and environments.

The early Emotional Intelligence (EI) theory, sometimes referred to as emotional quotient, was originally developed during the 1970's and 80's by the work of psychologists Howard Gardner, Peter Salovey, and John Mayer (Lall, 2009). Definitions and models of emotional intelligence conceptualized it as a mixed set of perceived abilities, properties, skills, and personality traits.

As for kinds and models of emotional intelligence, some are explained by Lynn (2002). The first one is referred to as self-awareness and control. This kind of EI consists of two separate skills. One of its components is self-awareness which refers to intimate and accurate knowledge of one's self and emotions. Moreover, this component refers to the recognition of one's emotional reactions to situations. The other dimension from which Lynn (2002) looks at the phenomenon is empathy. Empathy implies one's capability to understand how others feel in different situations. It involves having a strong understanding of people's feelings toward particular events or circumstances. Another factor which has taken into consideration is called social expertness. This is the ability to produce and get engaged in natural relationships and connections with others, based on the assumption that human beings have a uniform life. This component, in fact, gives people the chance to express emotions freely, even conflict, in order to build relationships instead of destroying them.

Being interested in emotional intelligence and its possible components, Salovey and Grewal (2005) proposed a model known as the ability-based model which states that people are different in their ability to process emotion-related

information and in their ability to have it linked to a more complex cognitive processing. This ability can then be observed in various behaviors and learning situations. The model classifies the total emotional intelligence as consisting of four subclasses. The first category is referred to as perceiving emotions, which is an individual's ability to first diagnose and then analyze emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts. It is also the potential to discover one's own emotions. The second subclass is 'using emotions' which refers to the ability to control emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities. On this basis, an emotionally-intelligent individual is able to capitalize fully upon changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand. The next type is 'understanding emotions' which means the ability to comprehend others' emotions and solve their emotional problems and understand the similarities and differences between different people's emotions. They, then, talk about the last subclass of EI known as 'managing emotions' or the ability to regulate emotions in both oneself and in others. If a person is emotionally intelligent, he is able to change even negative emotions and manage them to achieve his intended goals. According to Salovey and Grewal (2005), if an individual can control his own emotions, he can be predicted as a success in different stages of his life, not only interpersonal relations but self-related processes also including learning and cognitive abilities.

The present study was an attempt to explore whether Iranian EFL learners are able to increase their vocabulary knowledge if their ability to manage their self is high. This study also seeks the relationship between EI as a total entity and vocabulary gains for Iranian EFL students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Learners vary enormously in learning a second language. Everybody agrees that there are many people who learn a second language with that much ease and some others, on the other hand, have difficulty doing this. From among a long list of many factors which have direct or indirect relationship with second language learning success such as internal, personality factors like motivation, attitude or personality types, one can predict that the most influential component which can be accounted for success in learning a second or foreign language is the degree of intelligence that an individual has. To be successful in all eras of life, in addition to scientific intelligence, one needs emotional intelligence, too. From the time Darwin proposed his well-known theory to date, most of the definitions and explanations of intelligence, whether emotional or social, consist of a number of major concepts including the ability to discover, understand and to describe one's feelings and emotions, the ability to recognize and interpret other individuals' feelings and finding a reasonable relationship in between, and also the ability to handle one's emotions and to direct feelings in a special route. It additionally implies the ability to take control of, change and find a solution to problems which are in connection with a personal and interpersonal behavior. Finally, it refers to the ability to set and generate positive interpersonal relations and be self-motivated. At present, many language scholars and researchers have defined it as the ability to take control of emotions and feelings along with those of others, to properly distinguish them and to tell them apart in order to guide personal behavior, ideas and opinions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

There are many psychologists who have agreed that emotional intelligence is the issue which has come about through a number of research results and findings in many scientific areas done on the effectiveness of intelligences in the success of human life. The ideas about the outcomes of all these studies confirm that the abilities like empathy, sharing feeling, being optimist, and having self-confidence will result in satisfactory consequences in making relations and having a social life within families, other people and different aspects of the life (Goleman, 1995).

Bar-On (1997), who is a prominent psychologist in the field offered a definition for emotional intelligence stating that it consists of a number of unobservable non-cognitive capabilities and skills that have influences on an individual's potential in managing social problems. He asserted that emotional intelligence is made up of five general components related to an individual's potentials and skills. They include emotional quotient of intrapersonal and interpersonal relations, adaptation and change, stress management, and general mood and feeling.

According to Bar-On (2000), EI is a combination of abilities, potentials and non-cognitive skills that can play a significant role in an individual's capabilities to be successful when he faces environmental pressures. To put it differently, he stated that EI refers to one's ability to diagnose emotions and understand how these emotions can affect interpersonal relationships. He added that, emotional intelligence is "a range of non-cognitive capabilities and skills that affect one's ability to succeed in the coping with environmental needs and pressures" (Bar-On, 2004, p. 111). In fact, he can be considered as the first scholar who used the term emotional quotient (EQ) for the first time as a counterpart to IQ, which is a part of one's cognitive ability. Bar-On considered EQ as a set of social and emotional capabilities that can help people manage the demands of their daily life. He also confirmed that EI can address dimensions of intelligence including personal, social and emotional aspects. EI and emotional skills can, of course, be developed over time and even change along life. They can be connected to any individual's abilities to perform, be process-oriented, and improve through training and practice.

According to Goleman (1998), a noticeable and knowledgeable psychologist in the field of emotional intelligence, is one that can attribute eighty percent of the causes and reasons for any success to the emotional intelligence. He revealed that general intelligence (IQ) normally predicts only about twenty percent ($r=0.45$) of the variance that determined various areas of life success, leaving about eighty percent to other factors.

Regarding the relationship between intelligence and L2 learning, Brown (2000) stated that it is a common idea that a smart and intelligent person is capable of learning a second or a foreign language more successfully because he enjoys

higher levels of cognitive abilities. If a student does not forget something that he or she has seen or heard before, that student would be a successful in learning a language as simply intelligence has traditionally been defined in terms of linguistic and logical capabilities linked to mathematics.

A great number of studies which have done previously indicated that the more intelligent an individual is, the better his professional and academic performance will be. Goleman (1998) suggested a theoretical framework of emotional intelligence that showed an individual's capability for learning and success correlates with intelligence. He added that intelligence is closely tied with self-awareness, self-management, and social competencies such as social awareness and relationship management.

With the aim of understanding whether or not there were any gender differences in students' intelligence ability in relation to their gender, Legg and Hutter (2006) did a study on ninety English language learners and concluded that males showed higher preferences and interests in logical mathematical intelligence.

On the other hand, Razmjoo's (2008) study on intelligence revealed that the use of interpersonal intelligence by females was higher than that of males, and also there were no significant difference between male and female participants regarding language achievement and types of intelligences.

Besharat, Rezazadeh, Firoozi, and Habibi (2005) showed the influence of EI on mental health and academic success. They did the study on a group of 220 Iranian university students at Isfahan University. They highlighted that EQ was negatively correlated with psychological stress. According to Ciarrochi, Chan, and Bajgar (2001), Emotional Quotient (EQ) is about the intelligent use of emotions and using the power or information included in emotion to make effective decisions. Based on this definition, emotional intelligence supplies the principle for the development of a large number of competencies and abilities that help learners do activities more effectively. Studying intelligence in a second or foreign language context, Pishgadam (2009) studied the relationship between EQ and second language success. His sample group consisted of 528 Iranian students at Tehran University. He found that second language skills and their school average scores could interestingly be related to stress management and intrapersonal skills in the emotional intelligence questionnaire.

All in all, more work is needed to establish the conditions where EI could show the potential to predict an individual professional and academic success. It is possible that skills related to emotional intelligence can be considered useful specially when students attend the university. This context typically involves leaving home, having less emotional support from parents and family, dealing with new friends and managing stress or anxiety associated university studies. Yet, it may become less salient once this transition is done with a considerable success (Austin, Evans, Goldwater, & Potter, 2005).

Following Salovey and Grewal (2005) and Pishgadam (2009) who confirmed the positive role of emotional intelligence as a general entity and intrapersonal skills as a part of EI in language success, the present research was an attempt to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge enhancement and their ability to manage their self?

2. Is there any relationship between EI as a total entity and vocabulary gains for Iranian EFL students?

On the basis of the above-mentioned questions, two null hypotheses were formed.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A total number of 45 students at the Zand Institute of Higher Education in Shiraz took part in this study. They were sophomore students of English translation and literature who had already passed their comprehension course (I), and they were assumed to be at the same level of English vocabulary knowledge. To further check this homogeneity, the descriptive statistics for their performance in the vocabulary test was obtained, investigated and presented in a distribution curve.

B. Instruments

In order to answer the research questions, two instruments were used in the present study. To check the students' vocabulary achievement, a vocabulary knowledge test was developed and piloted before the actual administration of the test. The test consisted of 45 multiple-choice vocabulary items selected from the students' reading comprehension book. As it was an achievement test, the content was confirmed by two of the university professors teaching reading courses and was assumed to be valid as far as the content was concerned. The reliability of the test was obtained through Cronbach Alpha and turned out to be .81, which is a high level of reliability.

The second instrument used in this study was the Schutte's Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (1998). This test consisted of 33 items on a five-point Likert scale, the items of which had values ranging from 1 to 5. The test items were related to three aspects of emotional intelligence, out of which those related to managing one's self and thought were focused in this study. Also, the total EI score for each participant was considered for further analysis. The test was previously reported as being standard and thus reliable and valid.

C. Procedures

In order to answer the research questions, a total number of 45 sophomore students majoring in English at the Zand Institute of Higher Education were selected based on availability non-random sampling method. To observe the research ethics, all the participants were informed of the purpose of the research before they actually took part in the study. At the beginning of the academic semester, the participants took the vocabulary achievement test. The purpose was two-fold: in the first place, the researcher intended to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects before the instruction; in the second place, the test was assumed to function as a pretest, the results of which were to be compared with those of the posttest later. They also filled out the EI questionnaire in about fifteen minutes.

Then, the treatment started. It took two one-and-a-half hour sessions per week for approximately three and a half months. The students learned the words in the context of reading comprehension passages and did the related comprehension exercises and word checks at home. After the instruction, the participants took the same vocabulary test which was administered at the beginning of the term. The results of the two tests along with the students' scores in the EI questionnaire were considered as the data for this study.

IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

In order to see if the participants were homogeneous or not regarding their lexical knowledge, a vocabulary test was administered. The results of the descriptive statistics for subject selection are presented in Table 1 below:

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SUBJECT SELECTION

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vocab pretest	45	8.00	19.00	14.0000	2.92326

In order to see the scores on a diagram, the distribution was converted into a histogram. According to Figure 1, the participants' vocabulary mean score falls in the center and the shape looks like a normal curve.

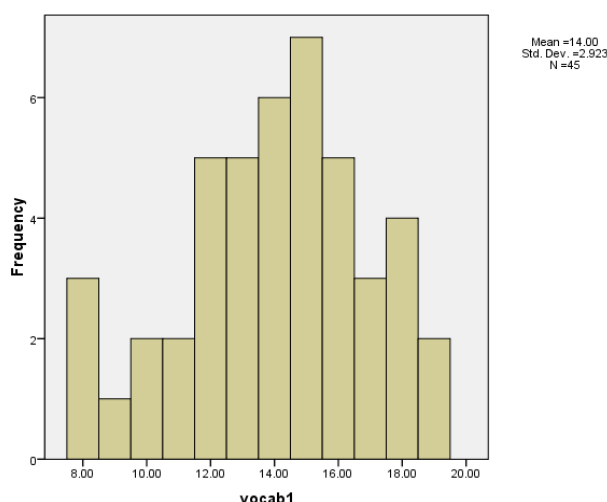


Figure 1 Distribution of Participants' Vocabulary Pretest Scores

Based on Figure 1, the participants' vocabulary knowledge before the treatment was considered homogeneous. In order to answer the first research question, the students' vocabulary gain scores were computed by subtracting each individual's vocabulary posttest from pretest scores. Then, using Pearson Product-Moment correlation, the possible relationship between students' managing-the-self scores and vocabulary gain scores was obtained. Table 2 indicates the results.

TABLE 2.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MANAGING-THE-SELF SCORES AND VOCABULARY GAINS

	Vocabulary gain scores	
Managing the self	Pearson correlation	.752**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	45

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

As Table 2 reveals, the correlation between students' gain scores and their scores on the subscale of emotional intelligence, managing the self, is significant with the magnitude of .752 at the significance level of 0.01. This implies that the more a student's score in managing one's thought, the higher vocabulary gain score will be. Therefore, the first research hypothesis stating that there is not any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary gain scores and their ability to manage their self is rejected.

To answer the second research question, the total EI scores were calculated. Then, Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was obtained for the relationship between total EI and vocabulary gain scores. The results are shown in the following table.

TABLE 3.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TOTAL EI AND VOCABULARY GAINS

Total EI Scores	Pearson correlation	Vocabulary gain scores
		.759**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	45

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

As Table 3 indicates, the correlation coefficient for the relationship between students' total EI and vocabulary gain scores was .759, which exceeds the significance level (sig.=.000). It can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between total EI and vocabulary knowledge development. Therefore, the second null hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between EI as a total entity and vocabulary gains for Iranian EFL students is rejected here.

In line with the present research, Saklofske, Austin, and Miniski (2003) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, linguistic intelligence, and vocabulary learning and found a correlation between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge, and between first language and vocabulary knowledge. The results of the present research are also in support of Aki (2006), who confirmed that language learning is a concept that depends upon both the learner himself as with regard to inter and intrapersonal communication.

Concerning learners' emotional intelligence level and vocabulary knowledge, the results support Asadollahfam, Salimi and Pashazadeh (2012) who argued that "while both groups with high emotional intelligence outperform in their vocabulary tests, females with high EI show high vocabulary knowledge in comparison with males" (p. 836). According to these findings, emotional intelligence is a good predictor of success in learners' attainments. "Learners with higher emotional comprehension", they stated, "they have good self-respect; they are able to manage situations, have positive relationship with others, and they can control their stress, have flexibility in new situations, and are aware of their feelings" (p. 836).

This study also supports Shakiba and Barani (2011) who showed that there is a reliable and meaningful relationship between emotional quotient, its components and language proficiency. The findings are in line with Karimi (2011) as it indicated that managing one's own emotions and being aware of and responsive to others' emotions would contribute to the L2 productive skills for Iranian EFL learners.

On the other hand, the results of this study are in contrast with Lotfikashani, Lotfiazimi, and Vaziri's study (2012) who found that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the students' end-of-the-term scores. In their study, Nesari, Karimi and Filinezhad (2011) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and vocabulary learning. *T*-test analysis of the findings indicated that "the observed *t*-value was -1.57 at the confidence level of $p < .05$ " (p. 903). In other words, there were no significant differences between high and low emotionally-intelligent learners' mean scores and their vocabulary learning. Therefore, the results of their study are in contrast with what was gained in the present research. This, of course can be due to many factors including the context of learning and general intelligence level of the participants.

V. CONCLUSION

The main objective of the present study was to see if the amount of vocabulary a foreign language student can learn can be related to his ability to manage his thoughts. It was also an attempt to find any possible relationship between Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary gains as their emotional intelligence as a whole. The results of the analyses indicated that there exists a significant positive relationship between EI, the ability to manage one's thoughts and the vocabulary achievement of Iranian EFL learners. The findings of this study are both theoretically and practically significant as it provides teachers with opportunities to look differently at their instruction and assessment. The results can help materials designers prepare instructional materials which can provoke learners' to make use of their abilities to manage their thoughts and foster their ability to involve both personal and interpersonal skills. As for the students themselves, the results help them become aware that knowing about their emotions and being able to control them is a way to language success.

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Fatemeh Behjat holds a PhD in TEFL and is a full-time faculty member at English Department, Abadeh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Abadeh, Iran. She is also a lecturer at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz branch and the Zand Institute of Higher Education. She has so far presented papers at international conferences in Iran and abroad, published books and a couple of articles in language journals. Her main area of interest is teaching and language acquisition.

Hamta Ghasemi Holds an MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University of Abadeh, and has worked as an English teacher and translator since she started studying at BA level at Shiraz Islamic Azad University in 2005. At present, she is an English instructor at Honar Institute in Shiraz.

Critical Literacy: Performance and Reactions

Nizar Kamal Ibrahim

Languages Department, Faculty of Pedagogy, Lebanese University, Beirut, Lebanon

Abstract—This study examined how the socio-political and socio-cultural backgrounds of Lebanese university students affected their critical engagement with texts and how these students reacted to critical reading. It also investigated the effect of critical reading instruction on the participants' performance in critical text analysis. It was a part of a broader research that employed the mixed research method. Twenty one participants majoring in Teaching English to Elementary Students at a university in Lebanon received instruction based on a critical reading model for three months. All the participants filled out a questionnaire. Eleven participants were interviewed, before which they filled out a survey. Also some class interaction was documented. Moreover, the One-group, Posttest Pretest design was employed. The data showed how the participants' socio-political and religious backgrounds affected their critical engagement with texts. Some participants were less critical or more critical depending on their ideological positions towards the topics of the texts. Interestingly, most participants said that they enjoyed questioning the texts' assumptions although it annoyed them that this questioning made them contemplate their long-held beliefs. In addition, T-test and Mann-whitney test showed a significant improvement in critical text analysis at the end of the course. However, a few participants resisted critical reading

Index Terms—critical reading in ESL contexts, reading with a questioning mind, exploring ESL texts from a critical viewpoint, Lebanese students engage texts critically

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical literacy scholars view texts as culturally, historically, and politically situated, —malleable human-made works that reinforce stereotypes and marginalization. Thus, students should learn how to read critically, challenging the texts' authority and questioning the views they present (Luke & Dooley, 2011). Wallace (2003) and Zhang (2009) argue That EFL/ESL reading textbooks mainly repeat the same pattern of drills and exercises in every lesson, which frustrate students. This is due to the inappropriate implementation of the very famous “pre-reading, during reading, post-reading” formula, which addresses a narrow range of objectives and which certainly excludes critical literacy. While the study of English in native contexts has taken a critical turn, ELT has been characterized by a lack of criticality. Material developers in ELT, in their quest for neutrality, censor topics that initiate people to think (Wallace, 2003). Thus, some scholars call for adopting critical literacy approaches in L2 programs and have started exploring the impact of their implementation. However, there is little research in this area in Lebanon. It is particularly interesting to explore how Lebanese students engage texts critically and how they react to critical reading because of the several group identities the Lebanese have developed. Most of these identities, which transcend the national one, are formed on religious grounds although secular groups also exist. Major sectarian groups possess a strong influence on education in Lebanon in order to promote their conflicting interests. With these circumstances in mind, one asks: How would Lebanese students approach texts in a critical reading course? What role do their beliefs and ideologies play in critical text analysis? How would they perform in this kind of analysis? As a part of a broader research funded by the Lebanese University, the present study explores these questions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Perspectives

Critical literacy has originated from Critical Pedagogy, which is rooted in the work of Paolo Freire. Its advocates view reading and writing as politically and culturally influential social acts that tremendously impact the social and material conditions of the learners and their communities (Freire, 1972; Luke & Freebody, 1997, as cited in Zhang, 2009). Criticality here does not only refer to critical thinking skills used in evaluating the credibility of texts or in problem solving, but mainly involves critical analysis of social, economic, and political implications of texts to promote a more just world (Gregory & Cahill, 2009; Pennycook, 2001; Wink, 2000). In this sense, critical reading is less concerned with specific strategies than with an overall stance or position, an orientation to the reading task. “If asked to verbalize their responses to texts, readers may reveal not just their strategies as readers at the micro level of response to individual utterances, but their stance both critically, conceptually and affectively, influenced by their personal and social histories as readers” (Wallace, 2003, p. 23). Thus, critical literacy capitalizes on schema not just as a cognitive structure that stores knowledge, but as a socially and culturally formed one. For example, the Brother schema differs among cultures and communities. While this concept shares core universals cognitively speaking across cultures, it differs in terms of social responsibilities and social advantages. For instance, in some Middle East cultures, the eldest

male in the family is given a degree of authority over his siblings, especially the females, while this is not the case in many Western cultures. Such cultural differences circulate in the discourses of different socio-cultural groups and lead to stereotypical ideas of what “the other” expects of brothers. This, according to Wallace, makes schemata stereotypical, reinforcing prejudices, unexamined judgments, and stock responses to the unfamiliar. The author contends that critical literacy aims to disrupt the functions of schemas so that readers do not conform to schema mandated stock responses. This invites “diverse interpretations of the same text in a social setting like the classroom. This does not mean that consensus will not emerge over time, but it will be rationally-based, reflected upon and open to critique, not founded on a given, unanalyzed common sense” (Wallace, 2003, p. 23).

Schema changing rather than schema confirming constitutes an essential principle in critical reading. This happens through reading socially, economically, and politically coded texts, knowing how codification takes place, and gaining some critical distance from them as objects to be talked and written about. The process requires giving students the training and the opportunity to deconstruct and reconstruct texts, to question the authors’ stances and subject their motives to critical analysis, and to explore the under-represented or marginalized views (Hawkins & Norton, 2009; Luke & Dooley, 2011). It aims “to equip readers for demystificatory readings of ideology-laden texts” (Fowler, 1996, p. 6, as cited in Wallace, 2003, p. 27), and it includes analysis, multiple interpretations, and moral reasoning (Kanpol, 1998).

B. Models and Research

The theoretical underpinnings of critical literacy have given rise to several critical literacy models. Wallace has developed a Critical Text Analytic Approach that consists of three phases. Wallace cites two other models developed by the New London Group (2000) and Lankshear (1994). The two models are similar except that the NLG attends to all modes of meaning, embracing spatial, gestural, and visual design, while Lankshear’s model maintains a print literacy focus (Wallace, 2003). Luke and Dooley (2011) summarize other models with different pedagogical foci. Some of them work on analyzing community issues and political events and movements as well as engaging in political activism. This also “(has been) extended to include a focus on critical “media literacy”, the analysis of popular cultural texts including advertising, news, broadcast media, and the internet” (Luke & Dooley, 2011, p. 892). Others focus on analyzing ideologies through lexicogrammatical text features, on uncovering gender discrimination, and on student empowerment. Although these different foci share the concept of critical analysis (Wallace, 2003), they have led to diverse pedagogical and research directions.

Studies done by Canagarajah (2004), Huang (2011), Moreno-Lopez (2005), Norton and Vanderheyden (2004), Jewett and Smith (2003), Sunderland (2004), Wallace (2003), Zhang (2009), and others illustrate the different research and pedagogical orientations in critical literacy. Most of these studies employ qualitative approaches, but none of the studies I am aware of explores critical literacy practices in the Lebanese context. The present study uses qualitative data supported by quantitative indicators to fill this gap.

C. The Lebanese Context

The Lebanese population consists of many ethnic and religious groups. Arabs constitute the major ethnicity, but Armenians and Kurds exist as minority groups. However, the Arab identity is contested among Lebanese due to complex political reasons that are intricately linked to the socio-political and religious conditions in the Middle East. In addition, three major religious groups exist in Lebanon and each one has several sects. Actually, the Lebanese Constitution officially acknowledges eighteen different sects. However, two or three main sects in each religious group form the majority and dominate the Lebanese socio-political life. Muslims are estimated to be the largest religious group in the country and are mainly divided into Sunnis and Shi’as. Christians form the second largest group and are mainly comprised of Maronites, Greek Catholics, and Greek Orthodox. The Druze makes the third religious group. The presence of Palestinian and recently Syrian refugees adds to this diversity. Since Lebanon’s Independence in 1948, a sectarian political system dominates the country. For instance, the governmental and parliament posts are blocked for the different major sects, and this extends to most public posts and jobs. This political system has been causing political conflicts and wars along religious lines in the country since its independence. See “A House of Many Mansions” by Salibi (1988) for more on this.

The sectarian formation of the political system of Lebanon influences most social and economic walks of life and has a strong grip over both public and private education. Actually, it has strengthened the influence of religious educational institutions that had existed and enjoyed power long before the establishment of the Lebanese State. This influence is, for instance, evident in the history curriculum that has not been updated since 1968 because of the sectarian and political dispute about what history to teach. So schools use textbooks that suit their sociopolitical contexts. This, alongside the effects of the 1975-1990 Civil War, has weakened public education. Consequently, private schools of all kinds have flourished in all Lebanese districts. Although these schools follow the general guidelines of the Lebanese Ministry of Education, most of them have their own policies and curricula that promote their sectarian and political interests. Frayha (2009/2004) discusses in detail the divisive consequences of this sectarian educational system in the Lebanese society. The domination of sectarian, conservative education in both the private and the public sectors has led to the exclusion of critical approaches in all areas.

Children in Lebanon start learning either English or French as the main second language in kindergarten. Thus, parents decide on the second language they want their children to learn and choose the school accordingly. The English Language textbook developed by the Lebanese Ministry of Education and used in public schools is mainly dominated by comprehension questions, fill-in and matching activities. It occasionally includes some interesting authentic reading activities, but it certainly does not target critical literacy.

III. PURPOSE

This study explored the roles that the Lebanese students' socio-cultural and socio-political backgrounds play in engaging texts critically as well as these students' reactions to critical reading. It also examined how well the participants performed in critical text analysis. For this purpose, the study employed a Critical Reading Model I have developed.

The Critical Reading Model

The Critical Reading Model employed in the study consists of four phases:

1. Accessing the text. In this phase, students do authentic tasks and pedagogical activities that involve them in meaning construction. These tasks are selected purposefully so that students practice a variety of micro skills and modes of reading set as lesson objectives in authentic situations.

2. Direct instruction. Mastering the micro skills of reading and possessing control over the linguistic features of texts constitute, besides critical reading, major objectives in the Model. This requires, in addition to reading for authentic purposes, direct instruction. This phase provides learners with strategy training, vocabulary activities, and grammar instruction. It aims to support them in accessing texts in order to read these texts critically.

3. Problematizing the text and responding to it. In this phase, teachers and students raise issues related to the text or embedded in it. These issues can be highlighted through questioning the perspectives that the texts assume, the stance of the authors, the credibility of the arguments, and the relationship of the texts to real life. In this phase, students express their responses, in which they will reveal how they connect to the text.

4. Going beyond the text. This refers to a critique of the text through analyzing and synthesizing. If we want students to read critically, we need to help them distance themselves from the initial reactions and from the claims that a text makes. In this phase, students examine the social, economic or political implications of ideas and/or reasons of events and situations that a text presents. They explore what and whom the text represents and what and whom the text marginalizes. And they analyze whether or not the values embedded in the text promote a better life.

Principles of the critical reading model.

- The Model is non-linear. The different phases of the Model are not meant to be performed in sequence. Sometimes direct instruction should be provided before accessing the text or during the process. Students might need modeling after or before the Going Beyond the Text phase. Problematizing the text might take place after accessing it, or it might be a stimulus to access the text. These phases are passed through depending on some factors including the objectives of the lesson, the nature of the tasks students have to accomplish, and the students' needs to perform these tasks.

- The ultimate goal of the Model is to help students become autonomous, critical readers. Students of all ages and at all levels can do critical reading activities of different kinds on the basis of:

- Visionary incorporation of transactional, entertainment, and intellectual purposes in teaching. Transactional purposes refer to reading in order to use the ideas and information in performing a certain activity. For example, people in marketing read information about a movie in order to use it in advertising. Intellectual purposes include analyzing, synthesizing, etc... Entertaining purposes include things like reading poetry for enjoyment. These purposes can be employed in accessing the text, in problematizing it, or in going beyond it.

- ▶ The use of authentic tasks and pedagogical activities should be systematic and enjoyable, taking into account the students' cognitive maturity and reading proficiency, the complexity of the skill to be targeted, the topical familiarity and linguistic difficulty of the texts, task demands, and the degree to which the targeted objectives empower learners to become independent, critical readers. A skill that has already been mastered does not need to be targeted in instruction or to be set as an objective for a lesson. Higher-order skills need more practice than lower-order ones. Consequently, critical reading should be given appropriate instructional time.

- ▶ Instruction should gradually and simultaneously enable students to produce sophisticated and well-developed analysis and synthesis as well as to make them proficient strategic readers. This demands the inclusion of critical reading as a major objective for instruction, the specification of the micro skills of critical reading, the design of instructional plans to address these micro skills, the incorporation of critical reading in assessment, and the use of assessment data in planning for instruction.

- Time spent in any phase of the Model depends on the students' cognitive maturity, degree of mastery of the targeted micro skill, and the pre-determined objectives.

This Model shares with other critical literacy models (see Wallace, 2003 and Luke & Dooley, 2011) the idea that helping students access the text and comprehend it is important for critical reading. However, the Model incorporates comprehension strategies in its instructional cycle and gives them more space than the other models do. For example, Wallace stresses that she is not concerned with reading strategies and that her interest in her research was less in

comprehension as shown in cognitive and meta-cognitive responses than in the nature of stance taken in scrutinizing the text and materialized in critical and meta-critical responses. The Model used in the present study aims at developing students' critical responses to texts, but it also assists them to solve comprehension problems through cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Thus, it incorporates both criticality and proficiency.

IV. PARTICIPANTS AND CONTEXT

Twenty one female students majoring in teaching English as a Foreign Language in elementary classes at a university in Lebanon participated in the study. The participants were enrolled in a course titled "Rhetorical Analysis" of which I was the teacher/researcher, and they were diverse in terms of their socio-political backgrounds. They also included strictly religious, moderately religious, and non-religious persons. However, most of them belonged to low income families. Their ages ranged between 19 and 22 years old. All of them started learning English in kindergarten, but evidently, some of them had difficulties expressing themselves in English. Most of them pursued a degree in teaching because it is a socially accepted job for females in their communities. Rhetorical Analysis, one of the required language courses for the participants' major, aimed to develop the students' analytical reading and writing skills. After data collection was over, I gave the same group of students other courses, including how to teach critical literacy.

V. METHODS

The study employed the mixed method (qualitative and quantitative). The participants read texts about global warming, political texts including texts about the Investigation of Hariri assassination (Lebanese ex Prime-minister), texts about religious issues, and texts tackling economical problems. I selected these texts because they tackle issues of concern to the participants and could be looked at from a variety of angles. Instruction aimed to enable students to produce critical text analysis characterized by what Wallace calls "intellectual inquiry". The participants practiced critical analysis with several texts and received feedback before they finalized their two critical analysis papers about the texts they chose.

In intellectual inquiry, students should make a fairly tightly constructed argument that moves beyond observation to a consideration of implications. They need to justify their claims, support their points of view through elaboration and clarification, and make the grounds of opinions and judgments explicit. Their reasoning should be clearly visible, coherent, and systematic (Wallace, 2003). These characteristics have formed the criteria for assessing the participants' performance in the graded analysis assignments.

Data Collection Tools

In the qualitative part which constituted the bulk of the study, all 21 participants filled out a questionnaire at the end of the course, explaining how the approach used affected them positively and negatively. Ten participants were interviewed for an hour each, during which they explained their performance in the posttest. Towards the middle of the semester, a class discussion about critical reading employed in the course was documented. In addition, two volunteers assisted me in documenting class interaction during five critical analysis sessions. These qualitative data were categorized according to themes that emerged from them. These categories had been reviewed several times before they were finalized. A thematic analysis examined the implications of the participants' responses.

The quantitative part utilized the One-group Pretest Posttest Design (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). The pretest aimed to assess the participants' ability to analyze texts critically. On the basis of the pretest, the participants were divided into less skilled readers and more skilled readers. They also took a posttest that aimed to determine the effectiveness of instruction in critical literacy. The T-test and The Mann-Whitney test were used to analyze the quantitative data.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The participants did well in critical text analysis at the end of the course, as the data shows later on in the discussion, and most of them reacted positively to critical reading. In their responses to the open-ended questionnaire, nineteen students said that they enjoyed and benefited from critical reading. Fifteen said that analytical reading and reading for debates taught them "how to read with a critical eye". Many participants emphasized that critical reading motivated them and helped them develop their reading skill. The participants gave insightful detailed accounts about how critical reading influenced them.

A. A Critical Stance

Most participants stressed that critical analysis made them develop a critical stance towards texts. For example, Participant 1 stated that training her in analysis impacted her approach to texts significantly. In her own words: "Analyzing opened doors for thoughts we never might think of." Many participants shared this idea with Participant 1, implying that they developed a critical position and a new orientation towards reading, which constitutes one of the main goals of critical literacy (Wallace 2003). Many participants referred to "a new way of thinking" that they acquired in the course. For example, Participant 10 explained: "This course access me to a new way of thinking while I read any article." Participant 19 elaborated on this idea saying: "What I liked about the course is that it is thinking stimulus. It is

something new that taught us how to read critically and think as well. It revealed for us that there is a certain aspect in our way of thinking towards many aspects of life is still unrevealed.” As these participants’ comment that critical reading incurred “a new way of thinking” imply, many participants transformed their ways of approaching texts. This critical orientation led not just to understand the writers’ perspectives, but also to question these perspectives, as Participant 3 asserted. This questioning stance made many participants look at texts from different angles, as they stated.

Questioning was used in the course to involve students in critical analysis. The questions were exploratory and interactive and aimed to make students share their views about texts as a community of readers (see Wallace (2003) for an explanation of categories of questions). In an informal, oral evaluation of the course in the first quarter of the semester, some participants mentioned that this type of questions created some confusion. Some attributed confusion to the idea that raising critical questions about their understanding of texts made them reflect about their long-held beliefs, which was unusual in the least to some of them and disturbing to others. It annoyed some participants that questioning the assumptions made in the texts caused them to change their minds regarding the views that these texts adopt. One of these texts was an investigation report about Hariri’s assassination, the Lebanese ex Prime-minister. This report was issued by “the International Tribunal Special for Lebanon” formed by the United Nations. The Hariri assassination in 2005 was a critical turning point in Lebanon’s political life. It sharpened sectarian divisions in the country and led to drastic events, including the withdrawal of the Syrian army from Lebanon after a long period of occupation. During a critical analysis discussion of the investigation report, one of the participants expressed her discontent because she felt she needed to change her views about the investigation. She felt that what was solid ground was made shaky when she explored how the language of the investigators’ report guided the readers to believe in what might not be true. Exploring questions concerning marginalized groups versus over-represented ones as well as the underlying assumptions of the report caused her to rethink what was firm evidence. She started questioning the texts related to the assassination and started reading them from different angles. This caused her to be disturbed because she wanted to have confidence that she could find the truth. She did not feel comfortable to find out that institutions have interests and assumptions that guide their work.

Moreover, many participants were annoyed because they wanted straightforward answers to questions they ask. They did not like it that the instructor was asking questions about which they had to think, and that every time they answered, they were faced with additional questions. Yet, others said that they were confused because they were not used to analytical reading, during which the instructor was just the facilitator. They wanted the instructor to tell them whether their ideas were correct or incorrect. However, this resistance to questioning as a stimulus for critical reading changed drastically in many participants at the end of the course. Actually, in their responses to the questionnaire, many participants stressed that they enjoyed this same questioning strategy that annoyed them at the beginning. Some participants stressed that they started raising questions about what a text presents. Participant 1, for example, stated: “Simply, this course made us ask how and why. While reading, I always ask myself: Why? Why did this happen? For what reasons? What are the advantages and disadvantages? As you have taught us to always ask ourselves questions.” The participant added that critical reading caused her to explore new dimensions of questions about texts. Participants 2 and 3 also maintained that they started questioning the truthfulness of information and ideas in the texts they read and dissecting the arguments presented to them. Questioning engaged the participants in the process of meaning construction, as explained by Participant 3: “scratching our brain to know every single detail written in the articles we have discussed in class”. This constructive process involved “searching” or scanning the text and “thinking” about its weaknesses and strengths”, as Participant 12 confirmed. These participants’ idea that questioning initiated a different way of thinking about texts implies that Analytical and thought-provoking questions enabled many participants to scrutinize the texts from different perspectives and made them feel that they are independent readers able to challenge the authority of the writers.

B. Resistance and Appreciation

Critical reading brought competing stances towards texts to the forefront, especially with the religiously-committed students. The religious backgrounds of some participants created conflicting feelings towards critical reading. These feelings were strongly voiced by some religious students. They expressed an appreciation of critical text analysis when the text did not deal with a religious issue, but they had strong reservations when the topic of the text was religious or was religiously banned. One of these texts was about Islamic legislation regarding women’s rights. Also the text in the posttest discussed egg-freezing about which some students had religious reservations. One of the analysis questions in the posttest required students to discuss the social implications of a portion of the text which stated that any woman has the right to egg freezing irrespective of any medical case. While many students developed interesting implications of this part of the text, a few participants did not do well. Three of them, who happened to be religiously committed, included stereotypical judgments in their analysis. For example, Participant 6 wrote: “so the women in 20s freeze their eggs to another time such as which is the suitable time to have children of their own, but this technique maybe used for women who has problem not for women who can give birth.” This judgmental answer was caused by the religious views of the participant. In the interviews, Participants 6 and 7 clarified that what they believed about the topic influenced their analysis unconsciously. Participant 6 explained this influence stating: “Maybe because I am not with this idea of egg freezing, that’s why my points are judgmental.” However, both Participant 6 and Participant 7 insisted that they enjoyed critical reading because it made them think differently. Participant 6 clarified the conflict between her

interest in critical reading and her religious commitment as follows: “The discussions which happened give me how to think in some issues far from religious.” This highlighted the idea that we cannot speak of critical or uncritical readers, but we could rather describe less critical or more critical readers. The degree of personal commitment to a certain idea determined how critical some participants were in approaching the text. Participants 6, 7 and 8 rejected taking a questioning stance in reading any text or discussing any idea related to their religion, but their religious reservations did not spoil their interest in critical reading. Participant 6 emphasized this in the following quote: “Really, I liked the topics and the debatable issues happen in the class. Group work its also something good. Moreover, the thing that I did not suffer from it is I never feel boring.” The participants’ religious ideology shaped their approach to reading religious texts and texts about topics on which religions have a say. They even misunderstood some ideas in the text about egg freezing because of what their religion says about the issue. However, a critical stance was more present in approaching texts about political or social issues that did not bear a clear relationship to their religious beliefs. For example, Participant 7, who resorted to silence during a discussion of a text on women in the Islamic legislation and who expressed her anger at the end of the discussion, was actively involved in questioning a report about the Hariri crime although she was pro-Hariri. She could shift her stances based on the strength of her commitment to the ideas discussed.

Participant 8 illustrated the process of changing stances depending on one’s belief system. After a class discussion around a story that narrates what happened to Satan from different perspectives which challenge the religious version, she approached me and objected to raising religious issues in class. During the conversation with me, she wondered whether analysis of religious stories was allowed at the university. It was hard for her to question a religious text. However, in the interview, she said that she started analyzing critically when reading magazines and commercials. Interestingly, Participant 8 justified her weak analysis in the posttest in that it was the first time that she did this kind of analysis. She said: “after several works on several texts, we would be able to analyze more ... we need more exercise on analysis.” This implied her readiness to develop her critical orientation in reading texts to which she is emotionally attached with more exposure to such an orientation. Although it was difficult for her to critically analyze texts about religious matters, she could apply critical analysis in voluntary reading of other types of texts. This reflected her ability to shift her position from more critical to less critical, depending on her attitude towards texts and on her ideological views. Adopting a critical stance in voluntary reading or in reading for other courses was also mentioned by other non-religious participants. For instance, Participant 2 emphatically twice repeated the sentence: “I do really now analyze when I read.”

C. Views on Reading Improvement

Many participants asserted that critical reading did not only develop a new approach to texts, but it also improved their reading skill. Seven participants explained that critical reading provided them with an interesting purpose that “made (them) search for details” to support their analysis, which led to thorough understanding of some texts. Participant 3 supported this conclusion stating: “This course was based on our analysis and thinking in a critical way, or in other words scratching our brain to know every single detail written in the articles we have discussed in class.” According to her, critical analysis improved her reading skill, for she now knows how to determine the main ideas and to analyze the author’s purpose. Interestingly, this participant talked about varying her mode of reading and shifting her attention to details to get what she needed for analysis. She said that she now knows how to read and when to re-read certain texts. Critical analysis provided the participants with a purpose that helped them determine how to read and what to focus on. Participant 7 illustrated this process saying that reading between lines made her “focus, concentrate”. Participant 12 agreed saying: “(It) made us search and think, and find the weak and strong points in every article, and put notes on what we are reading in English.” In addition, some participants considered analysis as the basis for a skilled reader. For instance, participant 2 clarified: “if a learner isn’t able to analyze a text, he/she won’t be reading and all the reading strategies will be useless.” She added that this is because critical analysis makes the reader understand the text and conclude the purpose behind it. She described a long-term effect of training in critical reading as follows: “for the final, I didn’t study anything because during the semester, I have worked (effectively), and I have in mind a good idea about the whole course.” In a study about the effectiveness of training in critical reading, Fahim, Barjesteh, and Vaseghi (2012) found a positive correlation between critical thinking and reading comprehension, supporting the participants’ remarks in the present study that critical reading made them read better. In the present study, reading for intellectual purposes (analysis and debate) required the students to read in a connected way, to engage in comprehensive detailed reading when needed, to skim and scan when the purpose calls, etc... Because the participants read to achieve intellectual and transactional purposes, the appropriate micro-skills were used in the unitary process of reading. Many interviewees preferred this kind of reading to answering skimming, scanning, or other comprehension questions the purpose of which is only to practice one micro skill at a time. The interviewees’ explanations implied that critical reading helped them use different strategies necessary to access the texts and critically analyze them in a flexible manner.

D. An Interest in Critical Reading?

Many participants developed a positive attitude towards critical reading because, as they said, the course challenged them to think and reflect on the texts and on their beliefs. Participant 1 viewed it as “one of the best courses (she) enjoyed (because) it is a challenging course”. She added: “we really enjoyed the essays we wrote that we have to prove

whether the writer is credible or not. We really enjoyed working on that.” According to her, this enjoyment made her and two other mates work hard and cooperate on their analysis project. She explained: “When Lara and I worked on the essays, it took us like a whole day to do the 1st draft and used the internet to look for synonyms of words and hard vocabulary, and we really enjoyed it.” Participant 2 raised the same point, saying: “I really enjoyed working, and especially it really was a challenge because we really analyzed and used our brains.” This enjoyment resulted from the critical stance that students developed when they practiced critical reading. Participant 2 referred to this point as follows: “We enjoyed it because it really depended on me. On how can we analyze understand not only that we have a booklet and copy paste.” She complained “...that the hours were short and every time we used to discuss an issue, it was cut in the middle of the discussion.” Participant 3 recognized one of the reasons that made the “discussions very interesting: The topics were new and debatable”. She added that she liked a lot “that even though the topics were too debatable, we end our debate in a respectable way, and every one respect the counter view point”. This “respect” came about by critical analysis, which made the participants’ language less emotional. They started contemplating alternative explanations of issues and events and began to distance themselves from their immediate reactions that are usually overloaded with emotions and stereotypes. The participants’ comments emphasized that they enjoyed critical analysis because it initiated reflective thinking not just about texts, but also about their world views that are shaped by what they read and hear. A few participants, however, did not show any interest in critical reading. Participant 9, for instance, was very clear that critical reading did not mean anything to her. In the posttest, she did not analyze at all. She just copied the ideas or paraphrased them. When asked why she did not analyze, she replied “Why bother? The writer knows more than I do.” She added: “maybe I didn’t find something to analyze. I understood it, so I felt there isn’t a need to analyze. I felt it was the answer and it was clear, I understood it. When you see the answer in front of you, you think this is it. You don’t need to think of it. You just copy it. It’s there.” Participant 9 was one of the very few students who resisted thinking beyond the text and challenging the authority of the writers. This did not only show her lack of motivation, but also indicated a habit of accepting every thing a writer says. However, many participants started to disrupt being oriented to texts by their authors and enjoyed deconstructing and reconstructing these texts.

E. The Test Performance of the Participants

Statistical analysis shows that students benefited significantly from training in critical analysis. The table below presents the mean difference between the pretest and the posttest.

TEST RESULTS OF CRITICAL ANALYSIS			
Groups	Pretest average (total 30)	Posttest average (total 30)	Mean difference
The whole class	6.5	13.5	7
More skilled readers	9.5	19.5	10
Less skilled readers	5.5	10.5	5

The T test critical value is:

T critical value (Df 20) = 2.84 at P 0.01

The obtained T value for analysis (4.6) significantly exceeds the critical value at $p < 0.01$. This means that the participants have improved significantly in analysis at the end of training.

The Mann-Whitney U-test is: Obtained U = 27.50, Z = 1.615, P = 0.1064. This shows that there are no significant differences between less skilled and more skilled readers. Thus, both groups have improved to similar degrees in critical analysis.

F. The Participants’ Interpretation of the Results

Most participants got lower grades in the posttest than in the pretest on comprehension questions although they received training in answering such questions. Many interviewees compared this poor performance with their good performance in critical analysis. Some of them attributed the weak performance in answering comprehension questions to the purposeless, discrete manner of identifying isolated pieces of information, while referring the good performance in analysis to the holistic reading it requires. Participant 5 explained this contrast as follows: “you do not do well in comprehension questions if you misunderstand something, but in analysis, you may have some wrong and (some right ideas).” Similarly, Participant 6 stated: “Comprehension needs more specific ideas from the text, but analysis depends on what we had understood as a whole.” Participant 4 agreed clarifying: “Comprehension needs specific idea from text. Analysis depends on what we have from whole reading.” Some participants explained that the disconnected reading operative in answering comprehension questions caused their poor performance in this part of the posttest. For instance, Participants 1 and 4 stressed that the answers to such questions depended on a small portion or one idea in the text that they get either right or wrong. Participant 7 explained how this differed from meaning-making in text analysis as follows: “In comprehension, you have certain ideas that you should be stuck to. In analysis questions, you can analyze and write what you understood.” The participants’ insights indicated that, unlike comprehension questions, critical analysis involved them in meaning-construction.

The participants’ comments above imply that questions that target bits and pieces of information do not reflect the students’ understanding of the text while analysis questions provide strong evidence of their comprehension. Critical

analysis provides readers with an intellectual purpose that, like other authentic purposes, makes the identification of relevant details more significant. Students skim, scan and read certain portions of the text in detail for their purposes, and they know when to use each of the sub-skills. Bell (2003) has found similar results in a study that compared working on short texts through comprehension questions and other pedagogical activities and working on long texts for aesthetic purposes. She stresses that the latter approach led to significantly better results in reading comprehension and reading speed. In the present study, most participants have indicated that challenging them intellectually stimulates them to dialog with the text and indulge in the comprehending process, while questions that require finding isolated bits and pieces of information for no clear purpose limit them to a small portion of the text and do not help them to establish overarching connections among its ideas (Leki, 2001). In other words, they fail to recognize the significance of textual details to the text's overall meaning because of the purposeless, mechanistic fashion of locating them.

VII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Although a few participants resisted critical reading, most said they enjoyed questioning the texts' assumptions and arguments and thinking differently about them. Some of them could shift stances from less critical to more critical depending on their social and religious views towards the raised issues.

Although this is a small-scale study and relatively new in the Lebanese context, the results have serious implications for education in Lebanon. Critical literacy can help the ideologically diverse Lebanese students approach divisive issues in their communities analytically and react to each other's views with less tension. Critical analysis can make them see issues of concern to their communities from a variety of angles, which may contribute to a more cohesive society. For education to play this role, critical literacy should be implemented systematically and with a clear vision about its aims. This requires considerable changes in the Lebanese educational policy, curricula, teacher-training etc.. Moreover, critical literacy should be explored on a large scale in Lebanon because class dynamics change from one setting to another.

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Nizar Kamal Ibrahim was born visually impaired in 1965. Professor Ibrahim has earned the following degrees: (1) Ph.D. in second language acquisition and teaching (SLAT), The University of Arizona (U of A), Tucson, Arizona, U.S., August 2002. (2) Masters in teaching English as a foreign language, The American University of Beirut (AUB), Beirut, Lebanon, July 1995. (3) Bachelors in English Literature, AUB, Beirut, Lebanon July 1991. (4) Teaching Diploma, AUB, Beirut, Lebanon, July 1991.

He is currently an associate professor of TESL at the Lebanese University, Faculty of Pedagogy, Beirut, Lebanon. He also has occupied the following positions: (1) Project Manager in disability NGOs, (2) Researcher in disability NGOs, (3) Trainer in quality education, (4) Program Developer Specialist, leading a team that developed a textbook to teach Arabic as a foreign language at U of A, (5) Writing Instructor At U of A.. In addition, he published a book entitled *Children's literature for second language learners* (Beirut: The Lebanese University, 2008) and two articles: (1) The effect of whole-class conferencing on Revision (*Feuilles Universitaires* 36, Beirut: Lebanese University, 2011). (2) Dynamic Diversity: Some New Dimensions to Mixed Composition (*ELT Journal* 59. 3, Oxford University Press, 2005), as well as a few other publications. His research interests currently are in critical literacy and in feedback to ESL writing students.

Prof. Ibrahim is a member in the Program Development Committee at the Lebanese University. In 2012-2013, he was elected as a member in the League of Professors at Lebanese University. He also was a member in TESOL, U.S. and AAAL, U.S. In addition, he received 2 research grants from the Lebanese University in years 2011 and 2013, 1 research grant from U of A in 2002. Besides, he got from the U of A The Outstanding Awards (SLAT, 2001), The Herbert Karter Award (2001), and PEEL grant for faculty development (2001).

CALL-assisted Enhancement of Grammatical Accuracy: Iranian EFL Learners Studying in Rural Settings

Mahsa Salmasi

Department of English Language Teaching, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Urmia, Iran

Alireza Bonyadi

Department of English Language Teaching, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Urmia, Iran

Parviz Alavinia

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities and Literature, Urmia University, Valfajr 2 Blvd, Urmia, West Azerbaijan, Iran

Abstract—The current study intended to investigate the extent to which using two types of instructional materials—computer-based vs. print-based materials—may affect Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy. At the outset of the study, thirty homogenous high school EFL learners were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Subsequently, a pre-test was administered to the participants to gauge their familiarity with the targeted grammatical structures before the treatment. During the treatment, the researchers used a grammar textbook to teach the learners in the control group, whereas for those in the computer group the very grammatical points were taught through computer-based materials in a language lab. After the treatment phase, a post-test was administered to measure learners' achievement. The results revealed that utilizing computerized instruction within experimental group led to highly positive gains. However, using computerized materials was not found to be that much effective, as the obtained results were in favor of control group. Accordingly, it can be concluded that integration of computerized instructions in the EFL classrooms might help motivate and enhance learners' mastery of English grammar, though the findings of the current study were a bit contradictory in this regard.

Index Terms—CALL, computer-based materials, print-based materials, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching grammar is a contentious area of language teaching. Celce-Murcia (2001) stated that teaching grammar means enabling language students to use linguistic forms accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately. Traditional grammar teaching used to employ a structural syllabus and lessons composed of three phases: presentation, practice, and production (or communication), often referred to as 'the PPP' approach. These days, however, most teachers embrace a more communicatively oriented approach, starting with a communicative activity such as task- or content-based materials (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

Since time and technological progress go hand-in-hand, human beings need to follow, and grow, as well. Besides, technology has spread considerably and traces of its application can be found even among social sciences and humanities. Nowadays, technology can be seen in language learning and teaching context and computers can be used in language learning settings where the main aim is improving students' language skills. In the light of this, both teachers and students alike are required to learn how to use computer-based materials in order to handle the various teaching and learning situations.

Over the past decades, dramatic changes have taken place in the way technology has been tailored to different perspectives of English language teaching and learning. Ellis (2003) is of the view that conventional language teaching practices can at times turn to a demotivating and monotonous type of endeavor and learners exposed to learning in such circumstances are likely to lose their interest and motivation. Christopher (1995) argues that computerized methods are more beneficial and effective for learners than traditional ones, and hence application of computerized materials is being referred to as one of the major factors underlying learners' motivation and positive attitudes in EFL context (Rahimi & Hosseini, 2011).

Based on what Zhao (2007) puts forth, it is more and more accredited that creating opportunities for language learners to use technology in their learning can be useful in different ways (cited in Rezvani & Ketabi 2011). Instructors and teachers around the world are looking for ways to enhance learners' motivation in using computerized materials in order to improve learners' language skills. In this regard, it has been stated that computers, in general, and language software, in particular, play a significant role in learning a second/foreign language.

The application of computerized teaching materials and online courses is not yet commonplace in Iranian EFL settings, especially in rural areas due to poor socioeconomic condition, poverty among rural families, authorities' inattention to computerized facilities, inaccessibility of broadband internet, paucity of trained instructors, and lack of administrative support. In such circumstances, scant research seems to have been allotted to investigating the potential impact of computerized teaching methods on Iranian EFL learners' achievement. Thus, this ostensible gap in the literature provided incentive for the researchers in the current study to embark on a probe into the effects of computer-based instruction on learners' grammatical enhancement.

A. Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

In spite of the fact that English language is being taught in Iran from sixth to twelfth grade in public schools, the output does not always meet the demands of higher education, and complaints have often been expressed regarding students' poor proficiency in English. Therefore, it is deemed worthwhile to investigate the effectiveness and usefulness of computerized methods and instructional software on the performance of English language learners. In an attempt to meet the objectives of the current study, the following research questions were put forth:

1. Does the use of computer-based materials have any significant effect on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy?
2. Does the use of print-based materials have any significant effect on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy?
3. Is there any significant difference between the use of computer-based vs. print-based materials for the enhancement of grammatical accuracy among Iranian EFL learners?

B. Significance of the Study

In light of the revolution occurring in information technology and the scientific challenges of the 21st century, there has emerged an unprecedented amount of interest in applying computers in all aspects of individuals' (educational) lives. A large body of international research has been conducted to measure the effectiveness of computer usage in the process of language instruction (e.g., Abu-Seileek, 2004; Al-Qumoul, 2005; Rezvani & Ketabi, 2011). Yet, the application of CALL in rural contexts still seems not to have received the attention it deserves.

Furthermore, as far as the researchers in the current study are informed, there is a noticeable paucity of research concerning the effect of computer-based instruction of grammar, particularly in Iran's EFL learning context. Thus, informed by these gaps in the literature on the issue, the current study strives to reunite the theoretical and practical concerns in computer-based education via focusing on one of the key components in language learning, i.e. grammar. After all, the findings of the current study are thought to be functional for various groups of people, including curriculum developers, course book designers and other educational stake-holders and policy-makers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Technology in language teaching is not a new concept; it has been around for decades. As Dudeney and Hockly (2007) claim:

Computer-based materials for language teaching, often referred to as CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) appeared in the early 1980s. Early CALL programs typically required learners respond to stimuli on the computer screen and to carry out tasks such as filling in gapped texts, matching sentences halves and doing multiple-choice activities (p. 7).

In what follows, a brief overview of the studies dealing with the efficacy of CALL in furthering educational outcomes is provided.

Several studies have been conducted to evaluate the impact of utilizing computer-based materials on EFL learners' enhancement in terms of English language proficiency. In general, the findings obtained by the majority of previous studies point to language learning gains among EFL learners resulting from the implementation of computer-based materials (e.g., Abu-Seileek, 2004; Al-Qumoul, 2005; Rezvani & Ketabi, 2011). Yet, most of the studies with such a focus have been conducted in urban settings and it, therefore, appears that the effectiveness of computers in rural settings still remains an underresearched area.

Abu-Seileek's (2004) investigation was after finding the potential influence of computer assisted language learning on learners' writing enhancement. At the culmination point of the study, the participants in the experimental group were reported to have outperformed those in the control group as a result of being exposed to computer-assisted technique for teaching writing.

In like manner, Al-Qumoul (2005) explored the would-be impact of teaching via instructional software on learners' possible gains in terms of achievement. The sample of the study was composed of 18 students distributed among four groups (two experimental and two control groups). The research findings pointed toward a more notable enhancement occurring among the participants of CALL group who had been exposed to English language functions via CALL lessons compared to control group learners who had followed the traditional method of instruction.

In a similar vein, Rezvani and Ketabi (2011) performed a study to investigate the alternative effects of web-based versus traditional materials on possible gains in learners' grammatical accuracy. A total of ninety intermediate learners

took part in their study. Successive to data analysis, it was revealed that the two experimental groups had outperformed the control group. Based on the obtained results, the researchers concluded that integration of web-based materials with printed materials might help motivate and enhance EFL learners' mastery of English grammar.

Likewise, Marzban (2011) investigated the effect of ICT and more particularly CALL on the enhancement of Iranian university students' reading comprehension skill. The result of his study showed that there was a significant difference between reading comprehension scores of experimental and control groups; in other words, students who were taught by CALL instructional techniques significantly outperformed the ones who were taught by traditional teacher-centered methods.

In another study within the realm of CALL-oriented research, Rezaee and Ahmadzade (2012) delved into the viability of bringing about vocabulary learning enhancement through the integration of Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) and Face to Face Communication (FFC). Though both experimental groups, i.e. CMC and integrated CMC groups, did better than the control group (FFC group) on the posttest, the gains attained by integrated CMC group were considerably more eye-catching than either of the two other groups.

In another attempt, Gorjian (2012) probed the alternative influences of employing web-based and paper-based techniques on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary retention rate. To commence the investigation, 300 participants were randomly assigned into two homogeneous groups. Successive to pretest, the learners were exposed to twelve expository passages selected from CNN website, and at the end of the course, the participants sat the post-test. Findings revealed the significant effect of web-based language learning approach on the retention of vocabulary in the short term.

Nadeem, Mohsin, Mohsin and Hussain (2012), on the other hand, studied the possible gains in pronunciation resulting from the implementation of CALL-oriented programs. Benefiting from a group of prospective teachers who had enrolled in the teacher education programs, the researchers found that teachers were able to ameliorate their pronunciation of individual sounds as a result of the CALL-based treatment applied.

Finally, within the newly founded domain of mobile assisted language learning (MALL), which can be regarded as an offspring of CALL, Agca and Ozdemir (2013) investigated the effect of multimedia content integrated to learning materials on vocabulary learning. A total of 40 students (who were randomly assigned to two groups) participated in this study. After the application of treatment in two distinct formats (text-based vs. mobile-assisted), the researchers came up with a significant difference between participants' vocabulary learning performance before and after the treatment. In conclusion, mobile assisted learning environment was reported to have increased students' vocabulary knowledge concerning the target words.

A brief glance at the current literature on CALL reveals that almost all previous studies in this domain have been done in an academic setting or among urban high school students, but not among rural high school students, who are deprived of computer-based materials. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to investigate whether computer-based materials have any effect upon EFL high school students' achievement in rural area; in so doing, it also seeks to explore students' attitudes towards using these materials.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in this study were forty-five female rural high school students, studying during the second semester of 2013 at *Golhaye Beheshte Gharabagh School*, Urmia, Iran. The participants' ages ranged from 15 to 18. To cater for equitable language proficiency and homogeneity, thirty out of forty-five students were chosen based on a teacher-made pre-piloted placement test.

B. Materials

Learn-to-Speak-English Deluxe-10 was used for experimental group. As the participants in this study were unfamiliar with the use of computer and its software, this software was found more appropriate, in that it was a highly effective and easy-to-use language learning software. Furthermore, *English Grammar in Digest* by Trudy Aronson was used for the control group. Ten parts of this book were chosen for instruction. Prior to applying the treatment to both experimental and control groups, a pre-test was administered to all learners, and following the treatment, the post-test was given. The same researcher-made test with the same contents was used for pre/post test. It must be emphasized that as the tests utilized in this study (as pre- and posttest) were devised by the researchers, they were piloted prior to research and as Cronbach's reliability index for the test was found to be 0.70, the researchers' tailored test was reported to enjoy a satisfactory level of reliability.

C. Procedure

In order to collect the data, the students participating in the study were asked to meet after the regular class time. They were not informed about the research procedure. When the class started, they were given twenty minutes for answering the pre-test which consisted of thirty items. When the time was up, the students handed their test sheets to the teacher. Those thirty students were divided randomly into two groups of experimental and control. From the very first session, the treatment was applied among two groups with different materials. Computer-based materials, which were presented using fifteen computers with *Learn-to-Speak-English* software installed on them, were used for experimental

group, and print-based materials which encompassed *English Grammar in Digest* textbook were utilized within the control group. Ten weeks (two sessions per week for each point) were devoted for teaching and learning ten grammar points – totally spanning over a two-and-a-half-month period. All the observations were noted down by one the researchers in the current study. Each group was taught the same grammar points by the same instructor. Tag questions, future tense, past-continuous, indirect-questions, present-perfect tense, passive-voice, if conditional, possessive, direct and indirect statements were taught to them in ten consecutive sessions. On completion of those ten sessions, a post test was carried out among both groups at the same time.

D. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed through utilizing SPSS (version 19), and via running a number of statistical analyses, including paired and independent samples t-tests. To be more specific, paired t-test was employed to address the first and the second research questions. However, to analyze the third research question, independent samples t-test was run.

IV. RESULTS

A. Measures of Central Tendency and Variability

As Table one indicates the mean score of control group obtained on post-test (13.93) is higher than the one gained on the pre-test (9.98); the mean score of experimental group obtained on the post-test (12.20) is also higher than the pre-test (9.27). It can be concluded that the coefficient of variation of the control group (0.27) is higher than that of the experimental group (0.14). As Figure 1 indicates control group's achievement is higher than that of experimental group.

TABLE 1.
VARIATION IN LEARNING THROUGH PRINT-BASED MATERIAL AND COMPUTER-BASED MATERIALS

	Variables	Number	Mean	S.D	Coefficient of variation
Control Group	pre-test	15	9.80	2.95	0.30
	Post-test	15	13.93	3.82	0.27
Experimental Group	pre-test	15	9.27	1.18	0.13
	Post-test	15	12.20	1.74	0.14

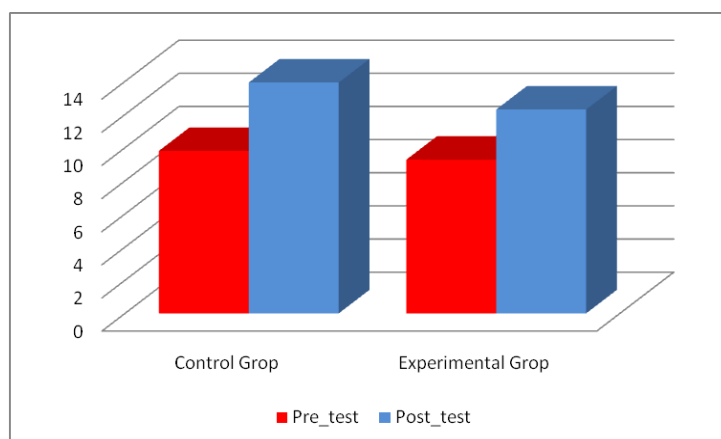


Figure 1. Comparing Pretest and Posttest Results of Control and Experimental Groups

B. Variation in Classroom Activities of Control Group vs. Experimental Group

The activities assigned to students of control and experimental groups during ten consecutive treatment sessions are presented in Table 2. In this study, the order of presentation of grammar points has been arranged based on high school books arrangement. In the control group, the increase can be seen in the first three grammar points and the last five points, as well. Consequently, items number four and five have inconsistency. In the experimental group, inconsistency in students' scores can be seen among all points. The control group's percentage variation in the grammatical cases is better than that of the experimental group (computer-based materials group) in learning grammar. It can be concluded that it is due to the lack of attention towards learning language among students not owing to treatment.

TABLE 2.
COMPARISON OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND MEASURES OF VARIANCE OF CLASSROOM LEARNING
GRAMMAR IN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Questions	Groups	Numbers	Mean	S.D	Coefficient of variation
Past-continuous	Control	15	17.73	4.13	0.23
	Experimental	15	17.00	3.60	0.21
Present-perfect tense	Control	15	17.53	5.48	0.31
	Experimental	15	15.93	4.02	0.25
Future tense	Control	15	16.60	6.11	0.37
	Experimental	15	15.46	3.56	0.23
Conditional Sentence (I)	Control	15	10.66	10.32	0.97
	Experimental	15	15.46	8.45	0.54
Tag question	Control	15	12.53	7.46	0.59
	Experimental	15	14.86	4.15	0.28
Passive voice	Control	15	20.00	0.00	0.00
	Experimental	15	12.06	4.92	0.40
Indirect question	Control	15	15.53	5.69	0.37
	Experimental	15	15.66	2.87	0.18
Direct speech	Control	15	18.00	4.14	0.23
	Experimental	15	14.73	6.35	0.43
Indirect speech	Control	15	17.55	4.00	0.22
	Experimental	15	14.30	5.55	0.38
Possessive	Control	15	19.33	10.33	0.53
	Experimental	15	12.86	8.81	0.68

The comparison of classroom activities of control and experimental groups are indicated in the following figure.

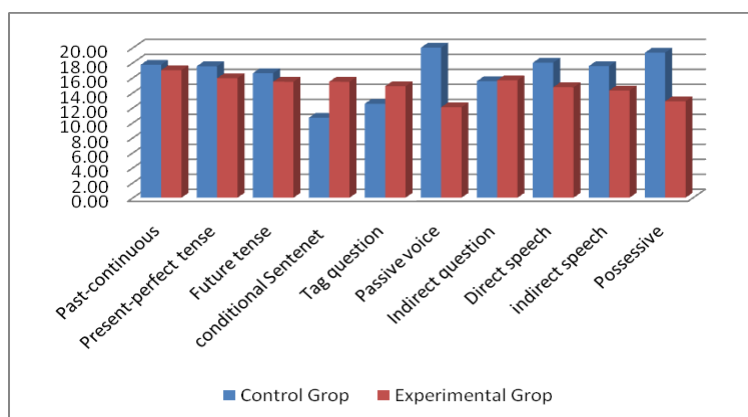


Figure 2. The Comparison of Classroom Activities of Control and Experimental Group

C. Inferential Statistics

One of the assumptions for employing t-test, a parametric analysis of data, is the normal distribution of the data. Therefore, to meet this assumption the researchers ran a Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test:

TABLE 3.
CENTRAL INDEX AND KOLMOGROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	Variable	Number	Mean	Variance	K.S	Sig.
Control Group	Pre-test	15	9.80	2.95	0.76	.61
	Post-test	15	13.93	3.82	0.66	.76
Experimental Group	Pre-test	15	9.27	1.18	0.63	.81
	Post-test	15	12.20	1.74	0.99	.27

As Table 3 indicates, the p values are greater than the level of significance .01. Thus, the null hypothesis is confirmed indicating that the data are normally distributed and can be subject to a parametric analysis.

Hypothesis 1. Using computer-based materials does not have any significant effect on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy.

To investigate the first hypothesis, a paired samples-test at .01 level of significance was run. Table 4 indicates that there is a significant difference between the scores obtained on pre- and post-test ($p < .01$) concerning grammar performance within experimental group. The change in the mean scores obtained by experimental group participants from pretest ($M = 9.26$) to posttest ($M = 12.20$), and the significance level of .00, point to significant enhancement in grammatical accuracy of these learners as a consequence of treatment.

TABLE 4.
THE EFFECT OF COMPUTER-BASED MATERIALS ON IMPROVING GRAMMAR WITHIN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Experimental	Number	Mean	S.D	Paired Correlation	Paired Sig
pre-test	15	9.26	2.19	0.66	.00
pos-test	15	12.20	1.74		

Hypothesis 2: Using print-based materials does not have any significant effect on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy.

To investigate the second hypothesis, another paired samples t-test was run. As the obtained p value, .00, is less than level of significance, .01, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in the scores obtained by control group participants on pretest and posttest ($p < .01$). As the mean scores of the group using print-based material has changed from 9.80 on pretest to 13.39 on the posttest, it can be stated that significant progress has been made.

TABLE 5.
THE EFFECT OF PRINT-BASED MATERIALS ON IMPROVING GRAMMAR

Control	Number	Mean	S.D	Paired Correlation	Paired Sig
pre-test	15	9.80	2.95	.68	.00
pos-test	15	13.93	3.82		

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between the uses of computer-based vs. print-based materials for the enhancement of Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy.

To find out the statistical significance of this difference, the researchers employed independent samples t-test. As Table 6 indicates, the obtained significance level, .12, is greater than the p value, .01. This indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups. Thus, it can be concluded that the difference between the means of the two groups, 13.93, 12.20, is likely to be attributable to chance element not to treatment per se.

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR COMPARING THE SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Post-test	Number	anMe	S.D	Paired Correlation	Paired Sig
Control group	15	13.93	3.83	10.00	.00
Experimental group	15	12.20	1.74		

V. DISCUSSION

A. Discussion of the Findings Relevant to the First Research Question

The first research question was after probing the effect of implementing computer-based materials on the acquisition of certain grammatical points by Iranian EFL learners. The favorable results gained in this regard lend further support to previous studies using other forms of technology in learning foreign language (Church, 1986; Collentine, 2000; Marzban, 2011; Warschauer & Healey, 1998; Zhuo, 1999). Church (1986) found that computer-assisted instruction provides learners with immediate feedback, since it permits the learners to be evaluated on their answers while questions are fresh in their minds. Warschauer and Healey (1998) stated that, with the advent of the internet and increasing amount of internet use in language learning, its role has been changed from a tool for information processing to a communication tool. Zhuo (1999) concluded that hypermedia-based materials were efficient in grammar teaching and learning. Collentine (2000) maintained that integrating technology into classroom instruction furthered EFL learners' language learning capabilities. Marzban (2011) claimed that ICT can improve teaching and make EFL learners access EFL pedagogy, culturally and linguistically diverse resources, and modern tools to incorporate language and curriculum.

B. Discussion of the Findings Relevant to the Second Research Question

To investigate the second research question, inquiring whether using print-based materials exerts a significant influence on the acquisition of certain grammatical points by Iranian EFL learners, a paired samples t-test was run. The findings obtained for this research question are inconsistent with what was expected, but no previous relevant findings were found. The findings of this study indicated that using print-based materials had a positive impact on the acquisition of the target form. That is, learners in the control group experienced significant gains in terms of their knowledge of grammatical forms, as suggested by the post-test results.

C. Discussion of the Findings Relevant to the Third Research Question

Independent samples t-test was applied to investigate the third research question to see whether using computer-based materials vs. print-based materials exerts a significant influence on enhancing grammatical accuracy among Iranian EFL learners. The findings revealed that the use of software program did not noticeably enhance the abilities of the students in the experimental group. In other words, it was found that using print-based materials had a more positive

impact on the learning of the target form than computer-based materials, that is, learners in the control group were characterized by more significant gains in terms of their knowledge of grammatical forms. The findings, thus, appear to be inconsistent with what has been reported in the relevant literature so far. The study findings are inconsistent with the results obtained by some researchers, including Abu-Seileek (2004) who said that the processing group performed significantly better than the traditional group, Al-Qumoul (2005), who emphasized that the computerized method is more beneficial for students than traditional methods, and Rezvani and Ketabi (2011) who claimed that web-based materials are likely to augment learners' motivation and enhance their performance.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of computer-based materials vs. print-based materials on enhancing grammatical accuracy among Iranian rural high school students. The research was carried out as an experimental research via applying two different sorts of treatment to two different groups. A glance through the literature revealed that students who were taught via computer-based materials, gained a higher proficiency in foreign or second language learning. The paired samples t-test results indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores obtained by the learners on pre- and post-test ($p < .01$) within both experimental and control groups. Independent samples t-test results, however, showed that there were no statistically significant differences in the achievement mean scores of the subjects of the experimental group who studied 10 different grammatical points via computer and the control group who studied the same grammatical items using the traditional method. When comparing the results of this study with the findings of other relevant probes, one can see that this study is inconsistent with many prior empirical studies which were conducted.

As examined in this study, a number of factors have made it difficult for CALL to be integrated into English teaching classrooms in Iranian rural education settings. One of the main reasons behind the inconsistency of the obtained results with the previous studies might be lack of access to computers, poverty and low socioeconomic conditions for rural students in their homes, plus the lack of opportunities for students to use the computers during school hours. This is due to the fact that instructors have a low amount of knowledge regarding computerized methods of instruction, and authorities are highly negligent concerning English language teaching issues. It is obvious that computer has a lot of functions, and students at this age are very curious to discover other things than getting focused on language lessons. In the light of this, it can be concluded that the main source of problem in rural settings is not students themselves since they are intelligent enough and highly motivated to utilize and apply computerized methods, materials, and instructions.

VII. IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Based on the findings of the study, the researchers suggest that educational authorities had better:

1. make rural students familiar with how to use computer-based materials and computerized methods prior to implementing CALL program;
2. provide funding to meet the costs of upgrading electrical services to schools;
3. train teachers on how to apply the technology and how to integrate it into the curriculum;
4. recommend teachers and instructors to vary their methods, techniques and ways of teaching, according to their students' needs and interests;
5. include courses in special methodology in language teaching with updated topics in computer-assisted language learning; and
6. equip all schools even rural schools with high quality teaching materials such as computers, projectors, smart boards, etc.

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Mahsa Salmasi is an MA graduate in TEFL. She is mainly interested in CALL research.

Alireza Bonyadi holds a PhD in TEFL/TESOL and is currently involved as an assistant professor in Urmia Azad University. His main area of interest is discourse analysis.

Parviz Alavinia holds a PhD in TEFL/TESOL from Allameh Tabataba'i University in Tehran. He is currently involved as a full-time assistant professor and staff member at Urmia University. His main areas of interest include psycholinguistics, philosophy of language, critical discourse analysis and particularly emotional intelligence.

Wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic: A Phase-based Approach

Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakih

Department of English, Ibb University, Yemen;
Department of English, Najran University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The study investigates the syntax of wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic, presents a satisfactory account of their syntactic behavior, and provides an answer to the following questions within Chomsky's (1999, 2000, 2001, 2005, and 2006) Phase-Based approach. 1. Does Hodeidi Arabic allow the fronting of wh-questions to the left periphery of the clause in overt syntax? 2. Can wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic be accounted for neatly within Chomsky's Phase-Based approach? It shows that wh-phrase movement in Hodeidi Arabic is an obligatorily syntactic movement where the wh-phrase has to undergo fronting to the left periphery of the clause. In exploring the interaction between wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic and the Phase-Based analysis, it has been shown that the minimalist analysis proposed in Hodeidi Arabic can provide further support to Chomsky's Phase-Based approach. It can be observed that Hodeidi Arabic obeys the Phase Impenetrability Condition proposed in Chomsky (2001); it has been observed that when all syntactic operations in a given phase have been completed, the complement or the domain of the phase becomes impenetrable to any further syntactic operations. This happens when the structure is sent to the interface levels for interpretation. Furthermore, in the syntactic derivation of subject and object wh-questions, it can be observed that both the subject and object wh-phrases have to pass through certain phases till they reach [Spec, CP]. At the end of the derivation, the head C and its specifier (the subject/object wh-phrase) undergo transfer to the PF and LF levels for proper representations, and hence the clause is interpreted as an interrogative.

Index Terms—Hodeidi Arabic, phase-based analysis, wh-questions, phases: CP, vP

I. INTRODUCTION

Hodeidah Arabic is spoken in the western part of Yemen. What is interesting in Hodeidi Arabic is that it has a rich agreement inflection marked overtly on the verb morphology. Besides, it exhibits two word orders: SVO and VSO, which are used in daily life conversations.

This paper attempts to study wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic and demonstrate to what extent possible it can offer a unified analysis on the subject under discussion. The objective of this study is to show whether Hodeidi Arabic is an overt wh-movement language. It also seeks to examine the interaction between Hodeidi Arabic wh-questions and Chomsky's (1999, 2000, 2001, 2005, and 2006) Phase-Based analysis. The topic of wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic is selected for study for the following reasons: (i) The syntax of wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic has not been studied yet. (ii) There is a need to provide a satisfactory analysis of wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic in order to show how wh-phrases are derived and represented morpho-syntactically in relation to the clause structure of Hodeidi Arabic, how wh-phrase movement is accounted for and what motivates wh-movement in the syntax, given the recent minimalist analysis posed by Chomsky's Phase-Based approach.

Moreover, this study has been organized into five sections: Section 1 is an introduction; Section 2 offers a theoretical background and surveys the previous studies conducted on wh-questions in English and other languages. It also surveys the previous analyses presented by Arab linguists on Arabic wh-questions; Section 3 outlines wh-movement analysis in minimalism as the basis of the proposed analysis in this study; and Section 4 explores subject wh-phrase extraction from intransitive and transitive structures, examines object wh-questions and discusses the syntax of multiple wh-movement in Hodeidi Arabic. Finally, Section 5 summarizes the findings of the study.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Wh-questions in English and Other Languages

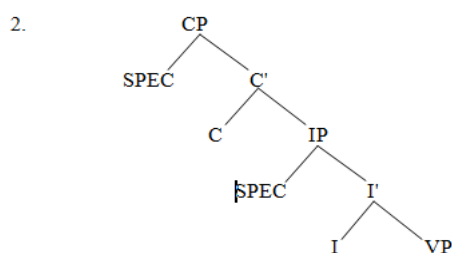
The transformational generative analysis of wh-questions started in Chomsky's (1957) *Syntactic Structures*, where he posited two transformational rules to derive interrogative constructions in English. He explained the derivation of a wh-question by proposing a new optional transformation Tw. Furthermore, he stressed that there must be an ordering of rules in order for these transformations to apply in the right manner. Moreover, the Standard Theory and Extended Standard Theory witnessed a major development in the syntactic analysis of wh-questions, where new rules, modifications and constraints have been suggested by prominent syntacticians. For instance, Bach (1971) proposed a universal rule of question word movement in English and pointed out that wh-word movement is always to the left, and not to the right, of the clause. Culicover (1976, p. 72) points out that the earlier analyses on wh-questions are

unsatisfactory and inadequate. Culicover (1976, p. 73) tries to make a unified analysis by showing that "there is an interaction in *wh*-questions between Inversion and the presence of the *wh* word in sentence-initial position". That means inversion applies when a *wh* word is placed sentence-initially. In order to make an adequate account of *wh*-questions, Culicover uses a transformation which moves such *wh*-words to the beginning of the sentence position, and calls it Fronting.

By the end of the Extended Standard Theory's era, Chomsky (1977) presents in his seminal work on *wh*-movement an interesting generative account of how *wh*-questions can be derived in a formal fashion. He further points out how a *wh*-phrase moves and what it leaves behind after syntactic movement. Chomsky (1980) incorporates what is called "unbounded" (i.e. successive-cyclic) *wh*-movement. He demonstrates how to interpret Move α in the case of movement from S to COMP.

Moreover, the major shift in standardizing the *wh*-movement analysis begins by the advent of Chomsky's (1981) Government and Binding Theory; he presents a formal account of *wh*-questions. He demonstrates how the *wh*-phrase moves what it leaves behind after movement takes place. Besides, Chomsky (1981) emphasizes that the trace left behind after movement is co-indexed with the operator 'wh-word' which binds it. In addition, it has been shown in Chomsky (1981) that, in pro-drop languages, a *wh*-phrase in subject position is syntactically motivated to move to COMP position. The reason why this happens is explained by Chomsky (1981:254) who observes that "*wh*-movement of the subject in pro-drop languages, which appears to violate the *[that-t] filter, is actually from the post-verbal rather than the subject position..."

Furthermore, another radical shift in the history of *wh*-questions was seen in Chomsky's (1986a) *Barriers*, where he incorporated the non-lexical elements C[omplementizer] and I[nflection] into X-bar analysis of maximal projections, in a way that the basic structure of a clause is as follows in (2).



Chomsky explained that the Spec of CP is equivalent to S' in other systems. He proposed that the Spec of CP is a position where the moved *wh*-phrase should target in the course of syntactic derivation of the interrogative construction. He also pointed out that the Spec of IP is the position for a subject DP. In the *Barriers* framework, Chomsky (1986a) proposed two types of movement: substitution and adjunction.

It should also be stressed that various syntactic analyses have been provided and different approaches have also been suggested with a view to offering a unified account on *wh*-questions. This is seen in Watanabe (1991); Cheng (1991, 1997); Aoun and Li (1993); Haegeman (1994); and Ouhalla (1996), among others.

B. *Wh*-questions in Standard Arabic

Fakih (2007a, 2007b, and 2011) explores the syntax of *wh*-questions in Standard Arabic on the basis of Chomsky's (1995, 1999, and 2000) Minimalist treatment of *wh*-movement and presents a unified treatment of short and long *wh*-movement extracted from subject and object positions both at PF and LF components. He shows that Standard Arabic permits only *wh*-phrases derived with the normal VSO order, and not the SVO order. He points out that the *wh*-phrase (in the subject or object position of a simple sentence) undergoes an obligatory overt movement to [Spec, CP] for feature checking and that it cannot stay *in-situ* in overt syntax. Besides, he illustrates how overt multiple *wh*-movement is allowed in some languages (the Slavic languages, for instance) while it is not at all permitted in languages like Standard Arabic and English. Given this, Standard Arabic (like English) only allows one *wh*-phrase to move overtly to [Spec, CP] for feature checking while the rest of the *wh*-phrases in the sentence have to move at LF.

In his recent analysis of *wh*-questions in Standard Arabic, Alotaibi (2013, p. 7) stresses that "the SVO order is formed via base generation and not via movement. Empirical evidence shows that the A'-movement effects in the SVO order." He points out that Standard Arabic exhibits two main word orders; VSO and SVO. However, he observes that *wh*-movement in these two word orders applies only to the unmarked VSO word order, and not to the SVO word order. He illustrates that "A problem arises when the non-subject *wh*-phrases move over the SV order." (p. 1). On the other hand, Al-Shorafat (2013) explores the syntax of *wh*-questions in Standard Arabic within a phase-based approach advocated in Chomsky (1998-2005) and stresses that agreement and movement obey the principles of the phase theory. His analysis focuses on the derivation of *wh*-questions in the unmarked VSO word order in Standard Arabic.

C. *Wh*-questions in Arabic Dialects

The syntactic analysis of *wh*-questions in modern Arabic dialects has received recently considerable attention in linguistic literature in the last two decades. Many Western and Arab linguists have addressed the syntax of *wh*-

questions in Arabic dialects and have offered various accounts on the subject within different approaches with the aim of presenting a unified analysis on the subject. Given the modern studies conducted on wh-questions in Arabic dialects, I summarize the major morph-syntactic developments on the subject under study into three views. (i) There are some Arabic dialects that allow optional wh-movement; either they permit the wh-phrase to move to [Spec, CP] at S-structure (e.g., Iraqi Arabic, Wahba (1991); Palestinian Arabic, Abu-Jarad (2008); Makkan Arabic, Bardeas (2005); Jordanian Arabic, Al-Momani and Al-Saiat, (2010); Emirati Arabic, Leung and Al-Eisaei (2011); Cairene Arabic, Al-Touny (2011)), or remain in-situ (e.g., Iraqi Arabic, Wahba, (1991); Palestinian Arabic, Abu-Jarad (2008); Makkan Arabic, Bardeas (2005); Jordanian Arabic, Al-Momani and Al-Saiat (2010); Cairene Arabic, Al-Touny (2011)). This view has been adopted by many linguists including Aoun and Li (1993), Cheng (1991), Denham (2000) and Peseteský (1987). These linguists view languages such as French, Egyptian Arabic, Iraqi Arabic, Babine language, Bahasa Indonesia, and Palauan as optional languages. (ii) There are, however, other Arabic dialects that are wh-in-situ languages; they allow the wh-phrases to stay in-situ only (e.g., Egyptian Arabic, Cheng (1991, 2000), Lassadi (2003), Sultan (2010) and Yassin (2013); Makkan Arabic, Abu-Sulaiman (2007)). (iii) Furthermore, there are also Arabic dialects in which the wh-phrase moves obligatorily to [Spec, CP] in overt syntax (e.g., Moroccan Arabic, Nouhi (1996); Jordanian Arabic, Yassin (2013)).

Moreover, modern Arab linguists have suggested different strategies with the aim of providing a unified account of wh-questions in modern Arabic dialects. For instance, Wahba (1984) argues that wh-scope licensing in Egyptian Arabic takes place via movement: covert movement in the case of in-situ wh-questions, and overt movement in the case of ex-in-situ wh-questions. On the other hand, Sultan (2010) takes a different position; he argues that wh-scope takes place not via movement, but rather via the mechanism of unselective binding in the sense of Peseteský (1987).

Unlike the majority of other Arabic dialects (e.g., Aoun and Choueiri 1998 for Lebanese Arabic and Shlonsky 2002 for Palestinian Arabic), Sultan (2010, pp. 18-19) argues that "fronting of wh-argument in Egyptian Arabic is not strictly prohibited." It may be pointed out that the difference in wh-movement strategies is often attributed to the fact that cross-linguistically wh-constituents are not identical in nature. Chen (1991), Aoun and Li (1993), and Ouhallah (1996) argue that the wh-questions in natural languages differ with regard to their morphological and syntactic properties. On the other hand, Abdel Razaq (2011) examines the typological variation in wh-constructions in some modern Arab dialects, particularly, Iraqi, Lebanese and Jordanian and observes that although these Arabic dialects share many common features there are certain differences in the technique manipulated in the formation of wh-questions. On the other hand, he adopts the Nano syntax framework (Starke, 2010); the latter approach takes syntax to operate on (sub)-morphemic levels. Furthermore, many spoken modern Arabic dialects like Iraqi Arabic (Ouhallah (1996), Simpson (2000) and Wahba (1991)), Lebanese Arabic (Aoun, Benmamoun and Choueiri (2010), and Aoun and Li (2003)), Egyptian Arabic (Cheng (1991), Sultan (2009) and Wahba (1984)) and Jordanian Arabic (Al-Moman (2010) use more than one strategy in the formation of wh-questions.

Moreover, Yassin (2013) explores wh-movement in Jordanian Arabic (JA) and Egyptian Arabic (EA) and shows that the former moves the wh-phrase, whereas the latter leaves it in-situ. Yassin (2013, p. 1) illustrates that both JA and EA "would be a strong testing ground for Richards's theory since it is expected that they will behave alike given that both dialects, as well as other dialects, descended from Classical Arabic (CA) (Aoun et al. 2010) and that Comp is on the left periphery in both."

III. WH-QUESTIONS AND MINIMALISM

A. Chomsky's (1995, 1999, 2000, 2001, and 2005) Wh-movement Analysis

In the Minimalist Program (MP), Chomsky (1995) assumes that wh-movement is triggered by a strong operator feature of the functional C-head. Chomsky suggests that "the natural assumption is that C may have an operator feature and that this feature is a morphological property of such operators as wh-. For an appropriate C, the operators raise for feature checking to the checking domain of C: [Spec, CP]" (1995, p. 199), thereby satisfying their scopal properties. He observes that if the operator feature on C is strong, movement is overt (e.g. English). However, if the operator feature is weak, wh-movement is delayed until LF (e.g. Chinese).

Given the assumption that the Q-feature of C is strong, the movement must be overt. Chomsky makes his conclusion, on the basis of Watanabe (1991), that the Q-feature is strong in all languages: "the wh-operator feature is universally strong" (1995, p. 199). Let us look at the following examples to illustrate the point.

- 4a. Q[_{IP} who will fix the car]
- b. Q[_{IP} John will fix what]
- c. Q[_{IP} John will fix the car how (why)] (Chomsky (1995, p. 293))

According to Chomsky, if an interrogative structure contains an overt wh-phrase (in the subject, object or adjunct position) the wh-feature adjoins covertly to Q. Chomsky points out that (4a) is interpreted as a wh-question, though it has overt syntactic properties of IP, (4b) gives the interpretation 'what will John fix', and (4c) is interpreted as 'how (why) will John fix the car'. According to Chomsky's Minimalist assumptions, the wh-phrase in (4) raises to [Spec, CP] where it has to be licensed "by Q-feature of the complementizer C, not of the latter being licensed by the raised wh-phrase" (p. 259).

On the other hand, in refining certain areas of weaknesses in the earlier version of MP, Chomsky modifies the proposal presented in *Minimalist Inquiry* (2000), and dispenses with LF movement: all movement operations must happen before the point of Spell-Out. Chomsky stresses out that wh-movement in this framework has the following mechanism: “the wh-phrase has an uninterpretable feature [wh-] and an interpretable feature [Q], which matches the uninterpretable probe [Q] of a complementizer” (2000, p. 44). He argues that the uninterpretable probe [Q] on C seeks the goal, a wh-phrase, and once the probe (P) finds the goal (G), the uninterpretable features (on both probe, F[Q], and goal, F[wh]) are checked and deleted. This feature checking is accomplished by the syntactic operation Agree; it can be noted here that no movement is involved. Chomsky emphasizes that the uninterpretable [wh-] feature of a wh-phrase is “analogous to structural Case for nouns” (p. 21) and, as a consequence, it does not have an independent status, but is a reflex of certain morpho-syntactic properties of Q. In this framework the C-head has only an uninterpretable Q feature; this uninterpretable probe [Q] on C cannot be an operator, as it is checked and deleted. The interpretable [+Q] feature, which is presumably a question operator, is assigned to a wh-phrase. Since uninterpretable features are checked without triggering movement, in order to account for displacement of a wh-phrase, Chomsky postulates an EPP-feature on a C head. He suggests that the EPP-feature of C is similar to the EPP-feature of T. It requires [Spec, CP] to be filled which results in the displacement of a wh-phrase, Zavintnevish-Beaulac (2003).

B. Syntactic Operations in Minimalist Terms

There are three essential syntactic operations in Minimalist syntax advocated in Chomsky (1995-2006): MERGE (or External Merge), MOVE (or Internal Merge), and AGREE. Each one of these three operations applies in specific configurations. The first two operations are shown to give rise to multiple specifiers in minimalist syntax, if two syntactic objects target the specifier position of the same head. MERGE is the most basic operation in this framework. In Merge two syntactic objects α and β form another syntactic object $\{\alpha, \beta\}$. That is, it takes two objects (α and β) and merges them into an unordered set with a label (either α or β , in this case α). The label identifies the properties of the phase in (4).

4. Merge (α, β) $\rightarrow \{\alpha, \{\alpha, \beta\}\}$

The new object inherits the properties of one of the two merged elements, e.g. α . If α passes its properties to the newly formed object, α is considered the head of the pair, and it is also the label of the new object. MERGE is always a binary operation; only two syntactic objects can be merged at a time. It is also a recursive operation. An object formed by MERGE can be one of two elements joined by another instance of the same operation, Bardeas (2005). Moreover, MERGE is subject to the Extension Condition, which states that syntactic operations are applied only to the root, Chomsky (1995).

MOVE is the case of Internal Merge, where one of the elements merged comes from inside the other one. Inside is defined in terms of c-command in (5).

5. α c-commands β if

a. α does not dominate β and

b. every Y that dominates α dominates β as well (Chomsky, 1995, p. 35)

Chomsky points out that Move is motivated morpho-syntactically by the need to check a strong uninterpretable feature on a probe (head). The feature probes in its c-command domain until it locates a matching interpretable feature on a maximal projection; a syntactic object not projecting any more. This maximal projection raises, targeting the specifier position of the probe, and it leaves a null copy behind. Thus, the strong uninterpretable feature is checked and deleted in a [Spe-head] configuration. If strong uninterpretable features are not checked before sending the structure to the interface levels, the derivation crashes, Bardeas (2005) and Chomsky (2001). In the third operation **AGREE**, Chomsky (2000) argues that the syntactic operation Agree establishes a relation (agreement, Case-checking) between LI α and a feature F in some restricted search space (its domain). That is, it establishes the relationship between an uninterpretable feature on a probe and a target in the probe's c-command domain. This means that the feature that needs to be checked is not strong, and consequently, it does not need to be licensed in a Spec-head configuration. Given that MOVE is a costly operation, the target need not rise, and the feature is checked by the primitive operation AGREE only. However, for AGREE to apply in the syntax, Chomsky (1999) sees that both the probe and the goal must be active, for example they must have uninterpretable features to be checked and AGREE ‘deactivates’ them both by checking these features.

C. Phases and the Phase Impenetrability Condition

The term “phase”, as a syntactic domain, is first hypothesized by Chomsky in (1998). He emphasizes that a simple sentence is often decomposed into two phases: CP and vP, categories that are propositional phases. The reason why Chomsky takes CP and v*P as phases is that (according to him) CP represents a complete complex including its force marker (indicative, interrogative...etc.), and vP represents a complete thematic complex with an external argument, a subject DP. He stresses that C and v are phase heads and that syntactic operations involve an agreement relation between a probe P and a local goal G, (Chomsky, 1999; 2001). Furthermore, he maintains that C, T and v are probes and that merger operations apply before any probing can take place. Besides, he assumes that a TP, within a CP domain, is a complete clause while infinitival embedded clauses, lacking CPs, are taken to be defective TP clauses; for him, defective TPs and vPs are not phases, because they do not have an external thematic argument.

Moreover, movement of a constituent out of a phase is only allowed if the constituent has first moved to the left edge of the phase. This is realized in the "Phase Impenetrability Condition". Given the phase literature, it can be observed that only the vP in transitive and unergative verbs constitute phases. The vP in passives and unaccusative verbs are not phases. Based on the recent syntactic developments in Chomsky (1995, 1999, 2000, 2001, and 2005a), 'phases' are the stages in the derivation, or nodes in the phrase marker, where the structure is transferred to the interface levels, and consequently it becomes no longer available for further syntactic operations. Chomsky (1998, 2000, and 2006) indicates that the phases are CP and v*P. Thus, once v*P is built up, the structure inside v*P (the v*P domain) is transferred to the interface levels and is not available anymore for any further syntactic operations such as MOVE or AGREE triggered by an uninterpretable feature on a probe (I or C, for example), Bardeas (2005). The only exceptions are the head of the immediately lower phase and the syntactic objects on its edge: either its specifier or an element adjoined to it. Given the Phase Impenetrability Condition, Chomsky (2000, p. 108) argues that "in phase *a* with head *H*, the domain of *H* is not accessible to operations outside *a*, only *H* and its edge are accessible to such operations." In other words, when all syntactic operations in a given phase have been completed, the complement of the phase head becomes impenetrable to further syntactic operations which Chomsky (2000, 2001) terms the Phase Impenetrability Condition.

IV. WH-QUESTIONS IN HODEIDI ARABIC

A. Subject Wh-phrase Extraction from Intransitive Structures

In the following examples of Hodeidi Arabic I demonstrate how the subject wh-phrase can be extracted out of intransitive structures. It can be stressed that Hodeidi Arabic has both the SVO and VSO word orders which are used in daily conversations. I also examine the interaction between subject wh-phrase extraction in Hodeidi Arabic and Chomsky's (1998-2006) minimalist assumptions of Phase-Based approach with a view to providing a unified account of the subject under discussion. Let us illustrate the point in (6).

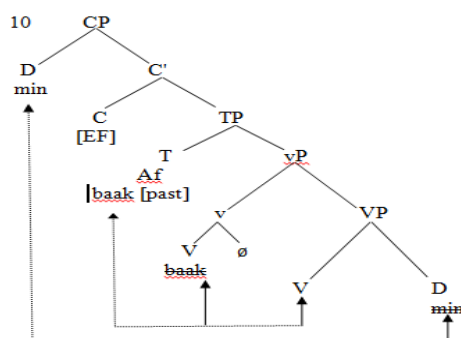
- 6a. baak ?am-guhud¹
 went.3sg.m the.boy.nom
 'The boy went.'
- b. *baak min
 went.3sg.m who
- c. min baak
 who went.3sg.m
 'Who went?'
- 7a. baak-an ?am-guhd-ah
 went.3sg.f the.girl.nom
 'The girl went.'
- b. *baak-an min
 went.3sg.f who
- c. min baak-an
 who went.3sg.f
 'Who went?'
- 8a. maat ?am-raagil
 died.3sg.m the.man.nom
 'The man died.'
- b. *maat min
 died.3sg.m who
- c. min maat
 who died.3sg.m
 'Who died?'
- 9a. maat-an ?am-hurmah
 died.3sg.f the.woman.nom
 'The woman died.'
- b. *maat-an min
 died.3.sg.f who
- c. min maat-an
 who died.3sg.f
 'Who died?'

The sentences in (6-9) show clearly that Hodeidi Arabic has a rich agreement inflection marked overtly on the verb morphology; the subject agrees with the verb, as illustrated in the suffixes on the verb. Like Standard Arabic, Hodeidi Arabic has a natural gender as shown in (6-9), which is not the case in English; the latter has a grammatical gender.

¹ It should be pointed out that the intransitive and transitive examples in (6-9) can be used with the VSO and SVO word orders. However, in the analysis of the derivation of subject wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic I shall use the VSO order for convenience.

The ungrammaticality of (6b), (7b), (8b), and (9b) is a further support of the argument that wh-phrases movement in Hodeidi Arabic is an obligatory operation and takes place in overt syntax. And if it were covert, (6b), (7b), (8b), and (9b) could have been correct (but it is not so). The reason why (6b), (7b), (8b), and (9b) are rendered ungrammatical lies in the fact that the question word *min* 'who' has to raise overtly to the [Spec-CP] configuration in order to check its strong features. The minimalist assumption is that any strong feature must be licensed before Spell-Out, because any strong feature left unchecked causes the derivation to crash, as shown in (6b), (7b), (8b), and (9b).

Furthermore, it can be observed in (6-9) that the subject wh-phrases move overtly to the left periphery of the sentence. Let us examine the interaction between the data in (6-9) and the Phase-Based approach of Chomsky. Let us see how the subject wh-question in (6) would be derived in minimalist syntax. (6) is reproduced as (10).



The phases of deriving the subject wh-construction in (10) proceed in the following manner. The V *baak* 'went' merges with the D *min* 'who' in order to form the VP. The VP in turn merges with the light affixal *v* that triggers movement of the V *baak* to adjoin to it, thus forming the vP. It should be noted that the vP does not have a specifier due to the fact that the clause is intransitive and that *v* lacks an external thematic argument. Furthermore, the clause structure in (10) shows that vP is not a phase and that *v* is not a head; hence, it is not a probe. Because vP is not a phase, it is logical to say that its domain (i.e., VP) cannot be transferred to the PF and LF components and, as a consequence, the syntactic derivation in the computational system continues. The vP merges with an abstract past tense *af*(fix) as illustrated in (10). Given this, the head T agrees with and assigns invisible nominative Case to *min* 'who'. Moreover, TP merges with a null interrogative C (the head of CP) that carries an edge feature (EF) which attracts movement of the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' to the [Spec, CP] position. Once the syntactic movement of the subject-wh is done, the EF gets deleted in the syntax. Because the head T is strong and affixal, it motivates the movement of the complex V+v to adjoin to it. What is interesting here is that CP is a phase; its domain (i.e., TP) has to be transferred to the PF and LF levels for the appropriate interpretation. It can further be pointed out that the lower copies of the moved elements will receive a null spellout in the phonological level. Besides, the head T and the complex (V+v) verb will show up as past. Since the derivation is ending, the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' and the head C will be transferred and hence the clause is interpreted as an interrogative. It can be observed that the subject-wh *min* is now in [Spec, CP], which is an A-bar position. The question arises here: How can I account for the subject wh-phrase movement in transitive constructions in Hodeidi Arabic within the Phase-Based framework?

B. Subject Wh-phrase Extraction from Transitive Structures

Let us move further to analyze how the subject wh-phrase can be extracted out of a transitive sentence of Hodeidi Arabic. The following examples in (11) and (12) illustrate the point.

11a. katab Salem ?am-gawaab
wrote.3sg.m Salem.nom the.letter.acc
'Salem wrote the letter.'

b. *katab min ?am-gawaab
wrote.3sg.m who the.letter.acc

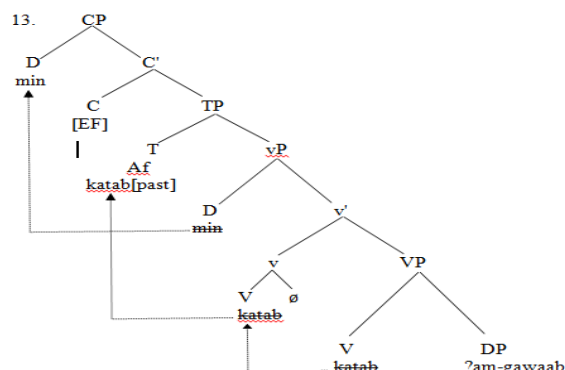
c. min katab ?am-gawaab
who wrote.3sg.m the.letter.acc
'Who wrote the letter?'

12a. waTTa Ali mraba?ah
built.3sg.m. Ali.nom room.indef.acc
'Ali built a room?'

b. *waTTa min mraba?ah
built.3sg.m. Ali.nom room.indef.acc

c. min waTTa mraba?ah
who built.3sg.m. room.indef.acc
'Who built a room?'

For the sake of illustrating how the subject wh-phrase is extracted out in Hodeidi Arabic transitive structures, (11c) is reproduced as (13) below.



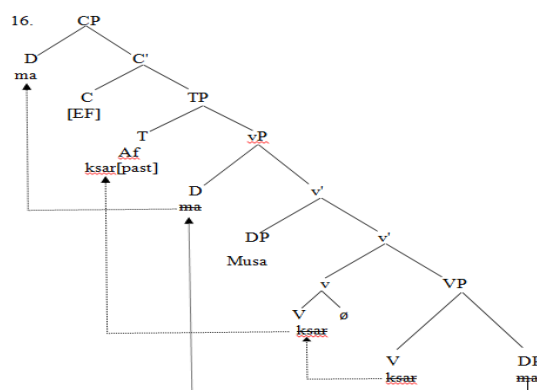
The derivation of the subject-wh in transitive structures proceeds as follows. The clause structure in (13) demonstrates that the V *katab* 'wrote' merges with its object DP complement *?am-gawaab* 'a letter' in order to form the VP. Furthermore, the VP merges with a light affixal *v* thus forming the *v'*. Not only this, the light verb triggers syntactic movement of the V *katab* 'wrote' to adjoin to it. The next step in the derivation is this: the *v'* merges with the specifier *min* 'who' to form a *vP*. What makes *vP* a phase in (13) is the fact that *v* has an external thematic argument, which is a subject DP. As a result, *v* is now the head of the phase *vP*. It is the head *v* that probes for a local (pro) nominal goal. So, the head *v* searches for an obligatorily syntactic requirement and finds *?am-gawaab* 'a letter' with which it agrees and assigns accusative Case. As the domain of the *vP* phase, the VP has to be transferred to the PF and LF levels for interpretation. Moreover, the lower copy left behind of the V receives a null spellout in the phonological level. Given this, the VP cannot be accessed to any further syntactic operations in the syntax or even probing from outside the phase *vP*. The syntactic derivation proceeds further where *vP* merges with T to form TP. In addition, the TP merges with a null head C, thus forming a C'. Because the head C has an edge feature (EF), it immediately projects into a CP, as demonstrated in (13) above. Since the head T is a probe, it must probe for a goal. T locates its goal (*min* 'who'), which is the only available option, with which it agrees with and assigns invisible nominative Case. It can be observed that there is no movement here because the head T lacks an EPP feature, the latter feature triggers movement in the syntax. Furthermore, the head C is now a probe and has an EF that triggers syntactic movement of the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' to [Spec, CP]. Now CP is a phase whose domain is TP. As a necessary requirement of Chomsky's Phase-Based approach, TP has to be sent to the phonological and semantic levels. By the end of the derivation, the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' and the head C will undergo transfer to the interface levels and hence the structure is interpreted as an interrogative. Therefore, the grammatical wh-question (13) is derived in Hodeidi Arabic syntax. It can be rightly pointed out that the subject wh-phrase undergoes obligatory movement to the clause-initial position of the sentence in Hodeidi Arabic grammar. Now what about the object wh-extraction in Hodeidi Arabic? Does it go smoothly with the assumptions of the Phase-Based framework?

C. Object Wh-phrase Extraction

Let us now explore the extraction from an object wh-phrase, which is an argument position. This can be illustrated in (14) and (15).

- 14a. Musa ksar ?am-Taaqah
 Musa.nom broke.3sg.m the.window.acc
 'Musa broke the window'
- b. Musa ksar ma
 Musa.nom broke.3sg.m what
- c. ma ksar Musa?
 what broke.3sg.m Musa.nom
 'What did Musa break?'
- 15a. Fatima ksar-an ?am-Taaqah
 Fatima.nom broke.3sg.f the.window.acc
 'Musa broke the window'
- b. Fatima ksar-an ma
 Fatima.nom broke.3sg.f what
- c. ma ksar-an Fatima?
 what broke.3sg.f Fatima.nom
 'What did Fatima break?'

Before discussing the data in (14) and (15), let us examine carefully how the object wh-phrase can be derived in Hodeidi Arabic. (14) is repeated as (16) for further illustration.



As shown in (16) above, the syntactic derivation proceeds in the following systematic manner. The V merges with its object wh-phrase *ma* 'what' to form the VP projection. The VP in turn merges with a light affixal *v* that triggers the syntactic movement of the V *ksar* 'broke' in order to adjoin to it. The derivation goes on further where *v* merges with the subject DP *Musa*, hosted in the Spec of vP, to form a v'. Moreover, *v* is a phase head because it has an external thematic argument *Musa*, being the subject DP of the sentence. Given this, the head *v* is a probe which searches for a local goal and locates *ma* 'what'. What happens here is that the head *v* agrees with and assigns accusative to the object wh-phrase *ma* 'what'. In the Phase-Based approach, Chomsky postulates that the light transitive *v*, the head of the phase vP, has an EF that attracts the object wh-phrase *ma* 'what' to become the second (outer) specifier of vP, as shown in (16). This is in agreement with Chomsky' (1998, p. 16) assumption that a head can have multiple specifiers. Furthermore, since vP is a phase its TP domain will be sent to the PF and LF levels. Hence, the null copies of the moved elements will receive a null spellout. The syntactic derivation proceeds further where vP merges with the head T thus forming TP; the head T is a probe that searches to locate a goal in its c-commanding domain. It can be observed that there are two available goals *ma* 'what' and *Musa*. Given this, Chomsky argues, however, that when the goal's Case has been valued and deleted, as in the case with the object wh-phrase *ma* 'what', the goal becomes inactive for agreement with or attraction by a head like T. On the other hand, it should be stressed here that T in Hodeidi Arabic lacks an EPP feature which is responsible for triggering movement. The clause structure in (16) shows that the wh-phrase *ma* intervenes between the head T and the subject DP *Musa*. Given this, I follow Boeckx's (2007) analysis which postulates that a D like *ma* with an already valued accusative Case feature becomes transparent for T; T can see through *ma* and finds *Musa* as the closest active goal. Hence, T agrees with and assigns nominative Case to the subject DP *Musa*. It should, however, be pointed out that the DP *Musa* remains in situ for the reason that T in Hodeidi Arabic does not have an EPP feature, which triggers movement. Because T is strong and affixal, it attracts the movement of the complex V+v to check the tense feature and provide a host for it. It can be seen that TP is not a phase; the syntactic derivation goes on further and merges with a null interrogative C that has an EF; the latter attracts the movement of the wh-phrase from the edge of vP to [Spec, CP]. What is interesting here is that CP is a phase. As the complement of CP, TP undergoes transfer to the phonological and semantic levels for proper representations. At the end of the derivation, the head C and its specifier *ma* 'what' are sent to the PF and LF levels and, hence, the clause is interpreted as an interrogative in the minimalist syntax.

D. Multiple Wh-phrase Extraction

World languages display interesting phenomena with respect to the syntax of wh-multiple wh-movement. In Standard Arabic and English, only one wh-phrase undergoes overt movement to [Spec, CP], while the other wh-phrases in the sentence stay *in-situ*. The Slavic languages, however, have shown that such multiple wh-movement is allowed in overt syntax.

In what follows, however, I examine the syntax of multiple wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic in light of the minimalist analyses. (17) illustrates the point.

17a. min ksar ma
who broke.3sg.m what
'Who broke what?'

b. [CP min [C' [+Q] [IP ksar min ma]]

c. LF: [CP [Spec ma [min]] [C' [+Q] [IP ksar min ma]]

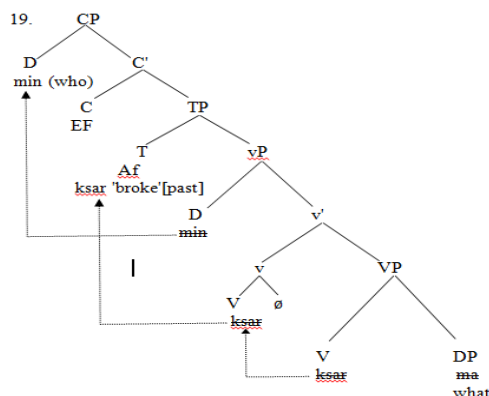
(17a) demonstrates multiple wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic whereby the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' raises overtly to [Spec, CP] to check its [+Q] feature against C under the Spec-head relation. I assume that overt raising of the question operator in Hodeidi Arabic is driven by morphological necessity: certain features must be checked in the checking domain of a head, otherwise the derivation will crash. Hence, for appropriate C, wh-phrase operators in Hodeidi Arabic raise for feature checking in the checking domain of [Spec, CP], thereby satisfying their scopal properties. The object wh-phrase *ma* 'what', however, remains *in-situ* at Spell-Out, as illustrated in (17b). The covert movement of the object wh-phrase to [Spec, CP] does not take place until LF. Multiple wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic

undergo covert raising of *wh-in-situ* and adjunction to the *wh*-phrase already in [Spec, CP]. The second *wh*-phrase that has not been moved overtly to [Spec, CP] has to be able to get its relevant features licensed against the head C (which hosts the [+Q] feature) under Spec-head relation. (18) illustrates the point.

- 18a. *ma ksar min?
 what broke who
- b. Spell-Out: *_{[CP} ma _{[C' [+Q] [IP ksar man ma]]}
 what broke who
- c. LF: *_{[CP} [min] [ma]] _{[C' [+Q] [IP ksar min ma]]}
 who what broke

In (18) the two *wh*-phrases move in the reverse order. The object *wh*-phrase *ma* 'what' raises to [Spec, CP] in overt syntax, as shown in (18b), and the subject *wh*-phrase *min* 'who' does not make this movement until LF, as demonstrated in (18c). The contrast between the two examples is a further illustration of the subject-object asymmetry with respect to extraction, this time holding at LF level. An object *wh*-phrase can move to a [Spec, CP] already filled with another question phrase (17c), whereas the subject *wh*-phrase cannot (18). This phenomenon is called *Superiority effect*. Taking the LF component into consideration, it follows then that Hodeidi Arabic must allow multiple *wh*-movement in covert syntax.

The preceding analysis shows that in Hodeidi Arabic multiple *wh*-movement only one *wh*-phrase is allowed to be fronted to the left periphery of the clause. In the following clause structure in (19), I explain why we cannot front more than one *wh*-phrase in overt syntax. The analysis is based on Chomsky's (1999, 2000, and 2005a) minimalist assumptions of the Phase-Based approach. (17) is reproduced as (19).



According to Chomsky's Phase-Based framework, the derivation in (19) proceeds in the following fashion. The V *ksar* 'broke' merges with object *wh*-phrase *ma* 'what' in order to form the VP, *ksar ma* 'broke what'. Then the whole VP projection merges with the light affixal *v* to form a *v'*. It is this light *v* that triggers movement of the V *ksar* 'broke' to adjoin to it. Then the *v'* merges with an external argument *min* 'who', thus forming *vP*; *vP* is a phase. It is in this *vP* phase that the *v* agrees with and assigns accusative Case to the complement object *wh*-phrase *ma* 'what'. The reason why neither the head T nor the head C can probe into the *vP* phase domain can be attributed to Chomsky's Phase Impenetrability Condition which roughly stipulates that the domain of a phase head is impenetrable to any external probe (C or T) c-commanding the phase. According to this, the *vP* domain is not accessible to any further operation in the syntax. Given this, the phase heads C and T are in the same CP phase, they will start searching for a local goal; the available goal is the subject *wh*-phrase *min* 'who' accommodated at the edge of the *vP* phase. The task of the head T is to assign an invisible nominative Case to the subject *wh*-phrase *min* 'who' and the morpho-syntactic duty of the head C is to trigger movement of the subject-*wh* *min* to [Spec, CP] in order to satisfy the EF requirements on the head C. Consequently, the TP domain will undergo transfer to the interface levels for further interpretation needed for proper convergence. Not only this, the syntactic elements at the edge of CP will also be sent to the phonological and semantic levels for the appropriate representations. Based on this line of analysis, I can provide an explanation as to why the object *wh*-phrase *ma* 'what' cannot be fronted either alone as illustrated in (20) or together with the subject *wh*-phrase *min* 'who' as demonstrated in (21) and (22).

20. *ma ksar min
 what broke.3sg.m who
21. *min ma ksar
 who what broke.3sg.m
22. *ma min ksar
 wha min broke.3sg.m

What happens here is that when the vP merges with the head T to form TP and TP merges with the head C to form C', the object wh-phrase *ma* 'what' is not accessible now in the derivation for the one reason that the VP has been sent to the PF and LF for interpretation. This can illustrate the ungrammaticality of (20), (21), and (22).

V. CONCLUSION

The study has shown that the minimalist analysis proposed in Hodeidi Arabic can provide further support to Chomsky's (1999, 2000, 2001, and 2005) Phase-Based approach. It can be observed that Hodeidi Arabic obeys the Phase Impenetrability Condition proposed in Chomsky (2000, 2001) because when all syntactic operations in a given phase have been completed, the complement or the domain of the phase becomes impenetrable to any further syntactic operations in the syntax. It has revealed that in subject wh-questions in Hodeidi Arabic TP merges with a null head C to form a C'. Since the head C has an edge feature (EF), it immediately projects into CP. Being the probe, T probes for a local goal and locates the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' with which it agrees and assigns invisible nominative Case. Since the head T in Hodeidi Arabic lacks an EPP feature, it does not trigger movement. It can be pointed out that the head C is functioning as the probe; it has also an EF which triggers movement of the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' to [Spec, CP]. At the end of the derivation, the subject wh-phrase *min* 'who' and the head C will be sent to the interface levels for proper representations. Hence, the derived structure is interpreted as an interrogative.

Furthermore, in the derivation of object wh-questions the object wh-phrase has to pass through certain phases. Unlike the assignment of the subject wh-phrase by the head T (or probe), the head v is a probe that searches for a local goal and locates the object wh-phrase *ma* 'what' with which it agrees and assigns accusative Case. Besides, the head v has an EF that attracts the object wh-phrase to become the second (outer) specifier of the vP phase, this supports Chomsky's minimalist assumption that a head can have multiple specifiers. At the end of the derivation, the head C and its specifier (the object wh-phrase) undergo transfer to the PF and LF levels for appropriate representations, and hence the clause is interpreted as an interrogative.

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Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakihi holds an M.A, M.Phil, and Ph.D in Linguistics and is Associate Professor at the Department of English, Ibb University, where he was the Dean of Center of Languages. He taught linguistics in different universities in Yemen and abroad.

He published many papers on morpho-syntax and semantics of Standard Arabic and Arabic dialects in different international journals. He supervised many M.A and Ph.D students in different universities. His interests focus on morph-syntax, semantics, phonetics & phonology, contrastive studies, and applied linguistics. He is currently teaching linguistics for BA and MA students at the English Department, Najran University, Saudi Arabia.

Dr. Fakihi is a member of different editorial and reviewer boards of international journals (USA, Canada, Finland, India, Malaysia, and Yemen).

On the Relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Multiple Intelligences and Their Learning Styles

Essa Panahandeh

Islamic Azad University, Dehdasht Branch, Dehdasht, Iran

Alizamen Khoshkhoonejad

University of Sistan and Baluchestan, Iran

Noorullah Mansourzadeh

University of Sistan and Baluchestan, Iran

Farrokhlagha Heidari

University of Sistan and Baluchestan, Iran

Abstract—The current work reports investigation of the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' multiple intelligence (MI) profiles and their learning styles (LSs). The study also attempts to find out the most and the least dominant learning styles among the participants. The study further examines whether there is any significant difference between genders in using the different types of learning styles. To this end, two questionnaires, a 90-item multiple intelligences questionnaire and a 24-item learning styles questionnaire adapted from Willing (1988), were distributed among 120 Iranian EFL learners (60 males and 60 females) during their class time at the universities of Sistan and Baluchestan, Iranshahr, and Yasuj. In order to find answer to the first research question, the Pearson Correlation analysis showed that there is a significant positive relationship between the different types of multiple intelligences and learning styles in particular and the multiple intelligences and learning styles as general factors. Descriptive statistics was also run and considered communicative type of learning styles as the most dominant type and Authority-oriented learning style as the least dominant learning style type. Finally, the results of an independent-samples t-test analysis revealed that there is only a significant difference between male and female students in using communicative type of learning styles. That is, female students use this type of learning style more than male ones. The data analyses further indicated that there is no significant difference between genders in employing learning styles as a general factor.

Index Terms—multiple intelligence profiles, intelligence, learning styles, Iranian EFL learners, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Scholars and practitioners all over the world in the field of second language learning are seeking to investigate teaching methods or strategies that may enhance learner achievement. Learners' individual differences are among the many factors that might have direct influence on language acquisition. Individual differences refer to characteristics unique to each individual (Dornyei, 2005). Multiple intelligences and learning styles are considered as factors of individual differences (Ellis, 1985). Gardner (1993) developed a model of natural human talents that is called "Multiple Intelligence model". This model is considered as one kind of learning style models that have been presented in general education and then have been used in language instruction. Gardner asserted that this theory is not limited to culture and discarded the concept of intelligence emphasized in traditional models (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Multiple intelligence theory (MIT) was proposed by Gardner in a book called *Frames of Mind* in 1983 against the traditional view of intelligence as a fix concept (Baum, Viens, & Slatin, 2005). He severely challenged the validity of intelligence quotient (IQ) scores and emphasized that intelligence is the ability of "problem solving" and "fashioning products" in a concrete situation (cited in Armstrong, 1993). It was a driving new concept claiming the existence of at least seven different intelligences: verbal/linguistic, logical/mathematical, musical/rhythmic, visual/spatial, bodily/kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal (Baum, Viens, & Slatin, 2005). Naturalistic and existential intelligences were also added later on. The description of the types of multiple intelligences is given by Moran, Kornhaber, and Gardner (2006, p. 25) below:

- i. Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence: the ability to understand and use spoken and written communication.
- ii. Logical/Mathematical Intelligence: the ability to understand and use logic and numerical symbols and operations.

- iii. Musical/Rhythmic Intelligence: the ability to understand and use such concepts as rhythm, pitch, melody, and harmony.
- iv. Visual/Spatial Intelligence: the ability to orient and manipulate three-dimensional space.
- v. Bodily/Kinesthetic Intelligence: the ability to coordinate physical movement.
- vi. Interpersonal Intelligence: the ability to understand and interact well with other people.
- vii. Intrapersonal Intelligence: the ability to understand and use one's thoughts, feelings, preferences, and interests.
- viii. Naturalistic Intelligence: the ability to distinguish and categorize objects or phenomena in nature.
- ix. Existential Intelligence: the ability to contemplate phenomena or questions beyond sensory data, such as the infinite and infinitesimal.

Every learner has each of the intelligences. That is, the conditions should be provided for students with all types of intelligences as such they would be able to enhance the intelligence types in which they are weak (Moran, Kornhaber, & Gardner, 2006).

In addition to MI as a factor of individual differences, LSs are also correlated with language acquisition. These two factors have sometimes been confused with one another. Yet they are quite different concepts, and the psychological construct of MIT is fundamentally different from that of LSs. Intelligence refers to our psychobiological potential in which certain kinds of information are processed in certain kinds of ways. This is a kind of capacity that exists in each person, and each intelligence type can be used in different domains, but LSs refer to the way individuals perceive information (Krechevsky & Seidel, 1998). Because of their psychological and biological differences, different students learn in many different ways. Some learners are likely to learn in groups; others prefer to learn alone and at home; some learners are likely to experience something and learn it, others may learn it randomly; some learners think carefully and logically in decision making, while others use their feelings for deciding; visually-oriented learners learn best through watching graphs, pictures, and charts; Auditory-oriented learners learn by listening to lectures and reading, etc (Ismail, Raja Hussain & Jamaluddin, 2010). These different ways in which an individual acquires, retains, and retrieves information are called the individual's learning style (Felder & Henriques, 1995). In other words, LSs can be described as the means of perceiving, processing, storing, and recalling attempts in the learning process (James & Gardner, 1995). In order to find the correlation between LS preferences and biographical variables, Willing (1988, cited in Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat, 2010b) investigated a group of 517 learners from more than 30 ethnic groups to explore the possible learning style differences among adult immigrant ESL learners in Australia. The study was based on a questionnaire which asked students about their preferences for specific ways of learning. Based on Their answers, the students were placed into one of the four categories of learning styles: concrete learners (preferences for perceiving and processing information, performing practical tasks), analytical learners (preferences for analyzing and performing activities independently, enjoying grammatical exercises), communicative learners (tendency toward a social learning approach such as listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English and watching television in English), and authority-oriented learners (like their teacher to explain everything to them, tend to have their own textbooks, and write everything in a notebook).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section works of researchers performed on the multiple intelligences and learning styles are reviewed.

Seifoori and Zarei (2011) aimed to investigate the relationship between the perceptual learning styles and the multiple intelligence types of Iranian English major sophomores at Islamic Azad University-Tabriz Branch, to explore the type(s) of perceptual learning style(s) which is/are mostly preferred by Iranian EFL sophomores, and to examine the type(s) of intelligence(s) that is/are mostly exhibited by Iranian EFL sophomores. Ninety-four subjects participated in the study (34 males and 76 females). The data analysis revealed that there are some significant relationships between learning styles of Iranian EFL learners and their intelligence types, and the findings also showed that the mostly preferred learning style was kinesthetic, followed by auditory, visual, tactile, group, and individual learning style. Likewise, the analysis revealed that spatial intelligence was the leading intelligence among the students who participated in the study. The least frequently used intelligence was attributed to the musical intelligence.

Hashemi (2009) investigated the relationship between MI and reading comprehension. To meet this end, she selected 122 Iranian undergraduate EFL students from Islamic Azad University of Roudehen. They were asked to take part in an IELTS test and fill out McKenzie's MI questionnaire. The findings showed, by calculating a standardized multiple regression analysis, that kinesthetic and verbal intelligences made the greatest contribution to predict reading ability scores. The descriptive statistics also revealed that the group was strong in the kinesthetic intelligence and was weak in naturalistic intelligence.

To determine the relationship between listening strategies employed by Iranian EFL freshman university students and their LS preferences, Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat (2010b) carried out a study at a university in south of Esfahan. The subjects were 92 females majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language course. To identify the students' listening strategies and their LS preferences, the researchers distributed a Listening Strategy Questionnaire adapted from Vandergrift (1997) with 23 items and a Learning Style Questionnaire adapted from Willing (1988) with 24 items among the subjects. The findings showed that there was a moderate significant positive relationship between listening strategies employed by freshman university students and their learning styles, and that these Iranian EFL freshmen

employed meta-cognitive listening strategies the most and socio-affective listening strategies the least. In terms of learning style preferences they considered themselves as communicative learners.

In order to identify the students' learning styles preferences and their implications on teaching and learning as well as the designs of the text books, Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat (2010a) collected the data from a group of 92 Iranian university students who were randomly selected. The data were gathered through a Learning Style Questionnaire. The results revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students' learning style preferences. An implication of this study was that the teaching style should be matched to students' learning style and that the materials should also suit students' learning preferences.

In order to discover the interrelationship between listening comprehension strategy use and listening proficiency levels, and learners' learning styles, Liu (2008) selected a sample of 101 EFL Taiwanese university students with two structured pencil and paper questionnaires of listening strategy use (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985; Vandergrift 1997) and learning style (Willing 1988; Nunan 1996). After gathering the data, the findings indicated that both listening strategy and learning styles could be a predictor for listening ability since there were statistically significant relationships among these variables. The results showed that the majority of Taiwanese university students in this sample considered themselves authority-oriented learners rather than communicators.

Hayashi and Cherry (2004) conducted a study to identify learning style preferences of Japanese students of English. They distributed a learning style questionnaire, taken from Willing (1988), among a group of 63 Japanese university students (16 males and 47 females). The obtained findings indicated that the Japanese students did not show tendency to use one learning style. That is, they favor some methods of authority-oriented and communicative learning styles simultaneously. The students also showed a dislike for some analytical style methods.

Shuzhen (2005) sought to figure out the effects of listening comprehension strategy uses on learning proficiency of five-year junior college students. To do so, the researcher used a revised questionnaire based on O'Malley and Chamot (1990) to collect the data from 74 subjects (12 males and 62 females). The descriptive statistics illustrated that the differences among the employment of three listening comprehension strategy categories were small. That is, the mean scores of socio-affective, metacognitive, and cognitive strategies were 3.41, 3.37, and 3.32 respectively. The outcome of t-test revealed that females employed greater use of metacognitive strategies than males. The general listening comprehension strategy use was almost the same, but the learning proficiency of females was superior to those of males. The study also showed that the effective learners adopted more listening comprehension strategies than ineffective learners and subjects with living abroad experience employed greater use of cognitive and social-affective strategies.

In conclusion, as mentioned in review of literature, MIs and LSs proved to have some significant relationship with other variables and they also showed no relationship with some others. However, individuals are different from each other and their differences make each of them unique. Thus, individuals have different personality traits, values, beliefs, intelligences, and LSs. Both teachers and students should be aware of these individual differences and consider the relationships of these individual differences with each other and with other variables such as listening strategies so that they can employ appropriate teaching methodologies based on such differences. As reviewed previously, many studies have been done between MIs and LSs with other variables, but no study have investigated the relationship between MIs and LSs. On the other hand, some of these studies have indicated contradictory results both in using the most and the least dominant LSs and the ways male and female learners utilize LSs. Therefore, the present study aims to explore the relationship between MIs and LSs and to examine the most and the least dominant LSs. The study further intends to investigate whether there is any significant difference between male and female learners in using the different types of LSs in particular and LSs in general.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, PURPOSE, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In Iran these two variables are not taken into account considerably, and they are introduced to the learners only with a slight explanation in their course books. Not only Iranian students but also teachers who teach in lower levels of education seem to have little knowledge on these issues. Giving students a paper and pencil test is not helpful in their understanding. Students should be guided and conducted in the ways in which they are strong so that they better use their intelligences and optimal learning will be achieved. By teaching students based on their intelligences and styles, they will be motivated toward learning and optimal learning will be achieved on the part of learners. Of course, there have been some investigations done on MIs and LSs with other variables, but it seems that their findings have not still received as much attention as they should. However, it is hoped that the findings of the present study will be able to pave the way for teachers, curriculum developers/designers and all those who are involved in education to take the obtained results into consideration. The purposes of the present study are three-fold. The first purpose is to figure out the most and the least dominant types of learning styles preferred by the participants of the study. The second one is to investigate the relationship between types of intelligences and learning styles preferences in particular and the multiple intelligences and learning styles as a general factor. The last purpose is to examine the effect of gender on learning style preferences. Based on the aforementioned objectives, the following research questions are raised:

Q1. What are the most and the least dominant learning style preferences among Iranian EFL learners?

Q2. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' different types of multiple intelligences and learning styles in particular and their multiple intelligences and learning styles as general factors?

Q3. Is there any significant difference between Iranian male and female EFL learners in using the different types of learning styles and learning styles as a whole factor?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 120 male and female undergraduate students (60 males and 60 females) within the age range of 19 to 24. Forty students were chosen from the university of Sistan and Baluchestan majoring in English Language and Literature, forty from Yasuj University majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, and forty from university of Iranshahr majoring in English Language Translation. The criterion for participant selection was the ease of access and availability.

B. Data Collection Instruments and Procedure

The data gathering was administered by means of two questionnaires for this study:

The first instrument was a 90-item MIs questionnaire prepared by McKenzie (1999). This questionnaire consists of 9 sections and 90 items with five-Likert Scale ranging from: 1. Not at all like me, 2. A little like me, 3. Somewhat like me, 4. A lot like me, 5. Definitely me; that covers 9 categories of Gardner's Multiple Intelligences theory. Since, participants were EFL students; the Persian version of the questionnaire was utilized. For validity and reliability indexes, the original English version was translated into Persian then translated back into English by Razmjoo (2008). The validity of the questionnaire was approved by the item-constructors committee, 8 experienced assistant professors in the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics at Shiraz University. The overall internal consistency of the questionnaire was determined by Razmjoo (2008) using Cronbach alpha (CA) and it turned out to be 0.89 which is an acceptable and high index of reliability. The overall internal consistency of the questionnaire was rerun by the researchers and the obtained result showed an alpha value of 0.84 implying that it has a relatively high internal consistency.

The second instrument was the adapted and modified version of Learning Style Questionnaire developed by Willing (1988) because according to Ho (1999), it is a rather updated one and the learner's types identified by Willing (1988) and the learning methods mentioned in the questionnaire are more comprehensive, understandable, applicable and relevant to second/foreign language (L2/FL) learning contexts. It involves four categories: Communicative, Concrete, Authority-oriented, and Analytical. Items one to six represent learners who like to learn through watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English (Communicative Learners); items seven to twelve represent learners who like to learn through games, films, cassettes, talking in pairs, utilizing English outside of the classroom (Concrete Learners); items thirteen to eighteen describe learners who prefer their teachers to explain everything to them, have their own textbooks, study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them (Authority-Oriented Learners); and items nineteen to twenty four represent analytical learners who like studying the rules of grammar, studying English books, reading newspapers, studying by themselves, finding their own mistakes, and working on problems set by the teacher (cited in Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat, 2012a).

These questionnaires were distributed among the students during their class time in one session, and they were asked to fill out the questionnaires within 30 minutes.

V. RESULTS

A. The Results Concerning the First Research Question

The results of the descriptive statistics, using the mean and standard deviation scores of the participants' responses, in Table 1 were used to identify the most and the least dominant type of learning styles the participants preferred.

TABLE 1.
BASIC DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS CONCERNING THE TYPES LEARNING STYLES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Communicative	120	8	24	18.88	3.972
Concrete	120	11	24	18.13	2.902
Authority	120	8	24	17.84	3.223
Analytical	120	12	24	18.05	2.919

Note. N = Number of participants; SD = Standard Deviation

Table 1 indicates that the most preferred learning style of Iranian EFL learners with the mean score of 18.88 and standard deviation of 3.972 is assigned to communicative type of learning styles. Authority-oriented learning style was found to be the least preferred learning style with the mean score of 17.84 and the standard deviation of 3.223.

B. The Results Concerning the Second Research Question

Table 2 demonstrates the correlation coefficients between types of intelligences and learning styles preferences or the multiple intelligences and learning styles as a general factor.

TABLE 2.
PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TYPES OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES AND LEARNING STYLES

MI	LSs	Communicative	Concrete	Authority	Analytical
Linguistic	Pearson Correlation	.414**	.241**	.257**	.254**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.008	.005	.005
	N	120	120	120	120
Logical	Pearson Correlation	.196*	.182*	.268**	.169
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.032	.046	.003	.065
	N	120	120	120	120
Spatial	Pearson Correlation	.214*	.270**	.262**	.211*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.003	.004	.020
	N	120	120	120	120
Musical	Pearson Correlation	.259**	.162	.068	.102
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.078	.459	.267
	N	120	120	120	120
Bodily	Pearson Correlation	.275**	.403**	.215*	.159
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.018	.084
	N	120	120	120	120
Interpersonal	Pearson Correlation	.298**	.259**	.192*	.174
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.004	.035	.057
	N	120	120	120	120
Intrapersonal	Pearson Correlation	.156	.225*	.169	.164
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.089	.013	.066	.073
	N	120	120	120	120
Naturalistic	Pearson Correlation	.000	.108	.185*	.176
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.999	.239	.043	.055
	N	120	120	120	120
Existential	Pearson Correlation	.390**	.425**	.381**	.374**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	120	120	120	120
Total	Pearson Correlation	.395**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	120			

Note. MI = Multiple Intelligence; LSs = Learning Styles; Sig = Significant; N = Number

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

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

Pearson product moment correlations in Table 2 manifest that there are some significant correlations between each intelligence type and learning styles of Iranian EFL learners; however, for some intelligence types no correlation was found with some of the learning styles. The results in Table 2 indicate that there is a moderate relationship between the linguistic intelligence and communicative learning styles and a low but positive relationship with concrete, authority-oriented, and analytical learning styles at $p = .00 < .01$ ($r = .414$), $p = .008 < .01$ ($r = .241$), $p = .005 < .01$ ($r = .275$), and $p = .005 < .01$ ($r = .254$) respectively. The logical intelligence is also significantly correlated with communicative, concrete, and authority-oriented learning styles at $p = .032 < .05$ ($r = .196$), $p = .046 < .05$ ($r = .182$), and $p = .003 < .01$ ($r = .268$) respectively, but it shows no correlation with analytical learning styles with correlation coefficient (r) of .169 and p -value of $.065 > .05$. The spatial intelligence has also a significant correlation with communicative, concrete, authority-oriented, and analytical learning styles at $p = .019 < .05$ ($r = .214$), $p = .003 < .01$ ($r = .270$), $p = .004 < .01$ ($r = .262$), and $p = .020 < .05$ ($r = .211$) respectively. The musical intelligence turned out to be only correlated with communicative learning styles with correlation coefficient (r) of .259 and p -value of $.004 < .01$, but this type of intelligence does not show any correlation with the other three learning styles; that is, concrete ($p = .078 > .05$, $r = .162$), authority-oriented ($p = .459 > .05$, $r = .068$), and analytical ($p = .267 > .05$, $r = .102$) learning styles. To summarize the results, as it is shown in Table 2, there is a significant correlation between all intelligence types and learning styles except for bodily and interpersonal intelligence types with analytical ($p = .084 > .05$, $r = .159$) and ($p = .057 > .05$, $r = .174$) respectively, intrapersonal intelligence with communicative ($p = .089 > .05$, $r = .156$), authority-oriented ($p = .066 > .05$, $r = .169$), and analytical ($p = .073 > .05$, $r = .164$), and finally naturalistic intelligence with communicative ($p = .999 > .05$, $r = .00$), concrete ($p = .239 > .05$, $r = .108$), and analytical ($p = .055 > .05$, $r = .176$) learning styles.

In general, Table 2 displays a low positive correlation between the overall multiple intelligences and the overall learning styles preferences of Iranian EFL learners with a correlation coefficient of .395 and p -value of $.00 < .01$ which indicates that probability is significant at the .01 level.

C. The Results Concerning the Third Research Question

An independent-sample t -test was computed to find the answers for questions 3 based on what have been represented in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES IN USING LEARNING STYLES

LSs	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. 2 tailed
Communicative	male	60	17.93	4.121	-2.663	.009
	female	60	19.82	3.610		
Concrete	male	60	17.63	3.059	-1.909	.059
	female	60	18.63	2.668		
Authority	male	60	17.87	3.239	.085	.933
	female	60	17.82	3.234		
Analytical	male	60	17.97	2.768	-.312	.756
	female	60	18.13	3.083		
Total	male	60	71.52	10.278	-.962	.338
	female	60	73.50	12.227		

It is inferred from Table 3 that there is only a significant difference between male and female students in using Communicative learning style. That is, female students utilize this type of learning style more than male students. It seems that in using the other types of learning styles, female students also employ them more than males, but based on the p-values of the data which are more than the significant level, the differences are not significant ones.

VI. DISCUSSION

Regarding the first research question, communicative type of learning styles turned out to be the dominant type of learning styles learners applied. This seems to be in line with the findings identified by Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat (2010b) and Hayashi and Cherry (2004), who recognized communicative learning styles as the dominant one. This may be because of the fact that the participants of the studies are English majors and they are more likely to consider English as a means of communication rather than to study it for grammar or other activities of the classroom. The authority-oriented type of learning styles was demonstrated to be the least preferred learning style. It can be inferred that the participants of the present study tend to study independently and overcome their problems on themselves while learning. They may want to be less dependent on their teachers in doing their activities, and may not believe in teacher authority in the class. This finding contradicts with Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat (2010b) and Hayashi and Cherry (2004) who considered analytical learning styles as the least common learning style among students. The finding is in contradiction with what Liu (2008) identified as the most common and least common learning styles. Liu (2008) found authority-oriented type of learning styles as the most dominant one and the communicative type of learning styles as the least dominant learning styles. Generally speaking, it can be said that one general justification that can be made with regard to these differences in the results of the mentioned studies may be related to the learners' level of proficiency. As Heidari Soureshjani and Naseri (2012) realized that proficiency level of learners have a significant impact on learners' learning styles.

The study also proceeded to inspect the relationship between multiple intelligences and learning styles. The obtained results reported that there are some significant positive relationships between learning styles and combination of intelligences in general and types of intelligences in particular. This implies that multiple intelligences have a significant effect on learning styles of the students. Teachers can use such a finding to apply the proper tools to identify the students' learning styles which is compatible with their appropriate MIs to improve academic instruction and achieve optimal learning based on students' needs. The reason of this relationship between some components of MIs and LSs may be attributed to the learners' awareness of those components and using them in the proper time.

Finally, the current study employed an independent-samples t-test to look at the effect of gender on learning styles. The analysed data showed that there was only a significant difference between male and female students in using communicative learning style. That is, female students use communicative learning style more than male ones, no significant difference was found between males and females in utilizing other learning styles. Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat (2010b) demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference between males and females with regard to their learning styles. This difference in results may be attributed to the number of the participants of the two studies. Contrary to the previous study which included 92 participants (37 males and 55 females), the participants of the current study were 120 students (60 males and 60 females) with equal number of genders. It may also be due to the linguistic change that exists between males and females. That is, females use more formal speech than males; therefore, they give more priority to pronunciation and accent in communication.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The current work was an attempt to highlight the importance of learners' MIs and their LSs. Rich information was obtained about the relationship between MI profiles and LSs and that learning process can be facilitated by incorporating these variables into the classroom. That is, introducing students' MIs, LSs in educational system could serve as a significant helpful tool to motivate students toward awareness of their potentials to achieve their desired goals in learning. In summary, the current study indicated that students employed Communicative type of learning styles more frequently than other ones. The study also showed that Authority-oriented learning style is the least dominant one among students. Furthermore, the study tried to find the relationship between students' MIs and their LSs. The results

revealed some significant positive relationships between the two variables. The last part of the study demonstrated that female students have more tendencies to use communicative learning style more than male students. It can be referred that the LSs along with the appropriate intelligence can be helpful in achieving successful learning. Students awareness of their potentials in what they do, will have a positive effect on their self-esteem and can provide pathways to success in language learning. Therefore, these two variables should be taken into account in motivating students, setting goals, doing activities appropriate to the students' needs, and developing learning materials, all of which are influential in the learning process of individuals.

The present study investigated the relationship between multiple intelligences and learning styles adapted from Willing (1988). Other researchers may like to scrutinize the relationship between multiple intelligences with other types of learning styles. Similarly, they may also like to find the effect of these two variables on other factors such language skills, reading strategies, and critical pedagogy in the classroom and society. The present study was conducted with EFL students; similar studies can be performed with students of other disciplines.

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Essa Panahandeh holds an MA in TEFL from university of Sistan and Baluchestan and his BA in English Literature from Yasuj University. He has published some papers in international journals. His major research interests are learner differences, second language acquisition and language testing and assessment.

Alizamen Khoshkhoonejad holds an MA in Linguistics from university of Sistan and Baluchestan and his BA in English Literature from Yasuj University. He has published some papers in international journals. His major research interests include learner differences, critical discourse analysis, and phonetic and phonology.

Noorullah Mansourzadeh holds an MA in TEFL from university of Sistan and Baluchestan and his BA in English Translation from ShahreKord University. He teaches English at High schools. He has published some papers in international journals. His major research interests are learner differences, consciousness raising, and L2 Vocabulary and collocation.

Farrokhlagha Heidari holds a Ph.D. degree in TEFL from Allameh Tabataba'i University of Tehran, Iran. She is an Assistant Professor in University of Sistan and Baluchestan. She has authored and co-authored some research articles and has presented papers at national and international conferences. Her main areas of research include language assessment and psycholinguistics.

Patrons and the Translation of Arabic Fiction into English: Guilty Until Proven Otherwise

Ula K. Al-Dabbagh

English Department, University of Petra, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—Translating contemporary Arabic fiction into English gained momentum after the Egyptian novelist, Naguib Mahfouz, won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1988. However, this activity and the ensuing translated output, have been considered the outcome of the negative hidden agendas adopted by the patrons who commission the translations. Indeed, these patrons have been branded as repressive agents that advocate orientalist views since the fiction they select for translation reinstates the stereotypical images of the Arabs, and hence fulfills the Anglo-Saxon readers' expectations and the patrons' financial aspirations. This paper attempts to look at the other side of the coin and considers the positive role patrons have played in translating contemporary Arabic fiction into English.

Index Terms—patrons, contemporary Arabic fiction in English translation, hidden agendas, reader expectations

I. INTRODUCTION

Translating contemporary Arabic fiction into English is a relatively new enterprise that started after Naguib Mahfouz, the Egyptian novelist, won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1988. This international recognition was indeed the spark that ignited Anglophone publishers' interest in Arabic fiction which was "neglected" and "embargoed" in the West (Said, 1994; Allen, 2003; among others).

However, publishers' interest in disseminating translated Arabic literature to English readers remained cautious in the late eighties and early nineties, and hence did not drastically change the bleak scene that existed before Mahfouz was awarded the Nobel Prize. Two main reasons helped in maintaining the status quo. First, Arabic literature continued to be under-reviewed, and the invisible status it had acquired over the years did not help in transforming it to be "part of world literature" (Clark, 2000, p. 3). Consequently, the number of literary works translated into English remained miniscule, and the recipients were mainly a niche readership interested in Arabic literature and/or the Arab world. Second, publishers' commercial and sociopolitical agendas played a pivotal role in determining the kind of works selected for translation. To ensure satisfactory commercial circulation and to arouse English readers' interest in the translations, many publishers chose to translate works that reinforce the stereotypical images of the Arabs and the Arab world widespread in the West. In such a setup, the literary worth of the chosen work(s) was of secondary importance to publishers, and the domestic cultural values (Venuti, 1995) prevalent in the West about the Arabs governed publishing houses' selection criteria.

Although this translation scene, characterized by its ethnocentric orientalist orientation, gradually began to change during the second half of the twentieth century and the subsequent years, many researchers, academics and translators still believe that the factors governing the selection criteria remain unchanged.

Such a stance seems to ignore the positive role Anglophone patrons have played over the years in disseminating Arabic fiction to English-speaking readers. The paper, therefore, attempts to look at this neglected role in order to show that the patron-Arabic fiction in translation relationship does not always correlate in a negative way.

II. PATRONAGE AND THE TRANSLATION OF ARABIC FICTION: AN OVERVIEW

Patronage was a deeply-rooted societal system practiced in Europe as early as the 14th century. In Florence, for example, patronage was conducted by the church and was "key to social status" (Biagioli, 1993, p. 15). During the Tudor and early Stuart period "patronage affected all aspects of English social, economic, and political life" (Marotti, 1981, p. 207). Today patronage is still implemented in different guises by institutions worldwide, but it is no longer a firmly entrenched societal behavior.

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1995) gives two definitions for patronage: (1) "the support, especially financial support, that is given to an organization or activity by a patron;" and (2) "a system by which someone in a powerful position gives people generous help or important jobs in return for their support" (p. 1038). Support, therefore, is initiated by a patron, who assigns a mediator to perform a certain activity in his/her service. Different entities have assumed the role of patron, and these entities have triggered negative and positive associations regarding the notion of patronage. In Translation Studies, patronage is a relatively new phenomenon that was introduced by Lefevere in the 80s and later developed in the 90s. According to Lefevere (1992), patronage is

“something like powers (persons, institutions) that can further or hinder the reading, writing, and rewriting of literature” (p. 15). In embracing such a definition of power, Lefevere emphasizes that he adopts the Foucaultian sense of power which is not mainly a “repressive force” but one that “traverses and produces things, induces pleasure, forms knowledge, produces discourse” (p. 15). The positive dimension of power is highlighted and patronage takes on a positive, productive role in the literary system.

Patronage can be carried out by a diverse body of patrons, such as individuals, political and religious parties, publishers, and the media, to name but a few. Lefevere (1992, 2000) indicates that patronage subsumes three elements: the ideological, the economic and the social. If the same patron is in charge of dispensing all of the aforementioned components, patronage is undifferentiated and aims at enforcing the dominant literary canons prevalent in the literary system. If, however, the three components are not wholly interrelated and are not carried out by the same patron, patronage is differentiated. It follows that the undifferentiated vs. differentiated categorization delimits the patrons’ responsibilities and impacts the translated output they present to the target text audience.

The translation of Arabic fiction into English is undertaken by a number of patrons that include publishing houses, magazines and websites. They are mainly responsible for choosing the works for translation as well as the translators that perform the commission. Patrons can sometimes be indirectly involved in the selection and translation process when they are advised by directors of literary projects to translate specific Arab authors. Most of the patrons involved in the translation of Arabic fiction into English have Anglophone affiliations and are mainly based in the US or UK, with a few exceptions like the American University in Cairo Press (AUCP) which is based in Egypt. The publishing houses, the first to initiate this translation activity and the party that commissions the majority of the translations, are divided into three distinct groups: the commercial, the independent and the academic. The first two groups have a commercial interest in the promotion of translated Arabic fiction and constitute large, medium and small-sized presses; examples of these presses include Bloomsbury Publishing, Penguin Books, Doubleday, Three Continents Press, Quartet, Haus Arabia Books, Garnet and Interlink. The third group is comprised of university presses or university-based presses that do not have commercial goals and are genuinely interested in the dissemination of Arabic fiction to an English-speaking audience; they are mostly based in the US (Bühler & Guthrie, 2011), and the leading academic presses engaged in the translation of Arabic fiction include Syracuse University Press, Columbia University Press and Texas University Press.

Although all the patrons who commission the translation of Arabic fiction into English have been criticized for a number of reasons, publishing houses have received the lion’s share of criticism from an array of specialists working in the fields of Arabic literature and Translation Studies. The criticism has mainly focused on the factors that govern the patrons’ selection criteria, the financial “rewards” the patrons aspire to gain and the tense patron-translator relationship.

The selection criteria embraced by publishers with regards to the translation of Arabic fiction into English has been criticized by researchers, academics and translators alike. Booth (2008, 2010) explicitly articulates her standpoint on this issue by coining the term “Orientalist ethnographicism” to describe the mechanics that Anglophone publishers adopt in selecting and translating Arabic fiction into English. To Booth (2010), “Aesthetic grounds have rarely been the basis for choosing texts for publication; rather, domestic political concerns and economic interests have been paramount in this particular literary marketplace” (p. 155). Therefore, the selection is anything but innocent and is loaded with hidden agendas that maintain the publishers’ financial satisfaction and the English readers’ expectations.

Along the same lines, Bühler and Guthrie (2011) conclude after conducting a study on the translation of Arabic literature into English that “there are still not enough translations published from Arabic, and that, with some exceptions, interest in books coming from the Arab world is determined by socio-political factors rather than by the desire to explore the literary culture of the Middle East and North Africa for its own merits” (p. 6). The study reiterates the negative role played by the publishers who undertake the task of translating Arabic fiction into English; however, the aforementioned researchers have to be given credit for mentioning *en passant* that there are “some” publishers who do not embrace negative agendas when translating Arabic fiction into English.

Taking Rajja AlSanea’s novel *Girls of Riyadh* as his point of departure, Ware (2011) claims that it is “virtually impossible” to examine how Anglophone readers receive translated Arabic fiction “outside the tentacles of geo-political power” (p. 56). To attract English readers, and to entrench the image widespread in the West about the Arabs in general, and Arab women in particular, *Girls of Riyadh* “boasts a striking pink and purple cover dotted with handbags, hookahs, fast cars and stilettos” (p. 59). The cover page design, in addition to the excerpts added on the cover from newspaper reviews, like “Love and lust, men and money. A taboo-breaking, bestselling tale of sex and the city,” bring to mind the stereotypical images of the Arabs and reinforce the notions of backwardness and frivolity that the West ascribes to the people from the Arab world.

Translators have also voiced concern about the kind of fiction that gets translated from Arabic into English and the selection criteria adopted by Western publishers to fulfill this endeavor. Cobham (quoted in Bühler & Guthrie, 2011) states that “Readers as well as publishers tend to go for content above literary/poetic quality in the case of Arabic literature, and look for and comment on how the society and especially religion and gender relations are portrayed in the literature” (p. 32). Allen (2010) reiterates Cobham’s view and concurs that the choice of Arabic fiction translated into English when initiated by a Western press “seems to be very much based on the “what” of the novel’s content rather than the “how” (p. 16). Talib (quoted in Qualey, 2013b) believes that the prejudiced English readers steer the publishers’ choices and indirectly dictate the kind of Arabic fiction that gets translated into English. According to Talib,

this scenario takes place because “there is a hostility in the reader’s mind to characters who don’t fit particular stereotypes” (<http://arablit.wordpress.com/2013/11/04/translation>).

Tresilian (2008) echoes Arab publishers’ concerns about the “problems of selection” that are involved in the process of translating Arabic fiction into English. Arab publishers blame their Western counterparts for translating works that are not representative of the Arab scene or fail to give a true picture about Arabic literature. Their point of view indicates that even in the Arab world people interested in the translation of Arabic fiction into English have expressed concern about what gets translated.

Western publishers have also been accused of giving too much weight to the financial benefits they aim to accrue as a result of translating Arabic fiction into English. In this regard, B  hler and Guthrie (2011) emphasize the “commercial imperative” and the “economics of translation” that influence the translation and marketing strategies adopted by publishers to ensure “successful” dissemination of translated Arabic fiction (p. 12). They contend that these publishers are “so duty-bound to their shareholders that they take no risks” (p. 43). Booth (2010) also indicates that commercial publishers’ selection of Arabic fiction is “subject to the search for commercially successful works and popular political pressures to produce information about certain identity categories often conflated in public discourse: Arabs, Muslims, Middle Easterners” (p. 155). Clark (2000) acknowledges that publishers want to keep losses to a minimal and that “commercial calculation gets in the way of the dissemination in English of the best Arabic literature” (p. 4). Thus, it follows that in order to secure commercial circulation and minimize financial risks and losses, publishers select to translate the Arabic fiction that reveals certain aspects of the culture that are intriguing to a Western reader and befit the Anglophone readers’ “horizon of expectations” (Jauss, 1982); such “commercial calculation” helps confirm readers’ perception of Islam, Arab women and the Arab world at large.

Publishers’ involvement in the strategies adopted in the translation of the works chosen has also received its share of criticism. Qualey (2010) recounts Davies’ experience with a publisher who refused to publish a work Davies had translated because “the author’s voice did not sound how the publisher had expected an Arab woman would sound” (<http://www.bellettrista.com/2010/issue6/features>). Booth (2008, 2010) talks disparagingly of the approach Penguin and Rajja AlSanea, author of the novel *Girls of Riyadh*, adopted in retranslating the version she had produced. She (2008) states that the “revisions made by the press and author to her translation domesticate the text and mute the novel’s gender politics” (p. 197). According to Booth, the revised end-product facilitates the marketing of the novel, minimizes financial losses and makes it a best-seller in the West. Wright (2013) expresses his dissatisfaction with Knopf Doubleday and Alaa Al-Aswany, the author of *The Automobile Club*, for shifting to another translator, without giving Wright prior notice, justifying their decision on grounds that Wright’s translation was “unsatisfactory.” Translators’ experiences indicate that when publishers and authors impose a translation strategy, they do so to fulfill specific agendas that facilitate the promotion and marketing of the translated work.

If the role of the publishing houses, involved in the translation of Arabic fiction into English, is viewed within the confines of the criticism directed at them, it can be said that the patronage exerted by these patrons is mainly undifferentiated since the approach adopted in the act of translating Arabic fiction aims at disseminating a literary end-product that can be “accepted” and “actively promoted” because it meets the expectations and biases of the receiving Anglophone audiences (Lefevere, 1992). Patronage, under such circumstances, has negative connotations and patrons can be looked upon as a body endowed with a “power” that “hinders the reading, writing and rewriting of literature” (p. 15). Such a perspective only looks at the status quo from one angle and fails to see the picture in its entirety. Patrons under this scenario are accused of misrepresenting the Arabs and their fiction, and are therefore considered guilty until proven otherwise.

III. PATRONS AND THE TRANSLATION OF ARABIC FICTION: A POSITIVE RELATION

The literature that discusses Arabic fiction in English translation mainly portrays the patrons who fund and commission the enterprise as agents that “hinder” and “suppress” the “rewriting” of quality Arabic fiction in English because they wish to fulfill two goals: (1) meet the expectations of English-speaking readers; and (2) ensure financial gains. The negative responsibility of the patrons is emphasized and the positive role they have played in disseminating Arabic fiction to Anglophone readers is ignored. Indeed, the productive role these agents have assumed has not been investigated thoroughly, and to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, a handful of specialists have identified other participants that have been involved in the present state of affairs regarding translated Arabic fiction in English.

In a talk entitled ‘Through the Looking Glass: Orientalism and the Translation of Arabic Literature,’ Suleiman (2014) considers that the orientalist views advocated by publishers should not always be looked upon as the sole driving force underlying the selection of Arabic fiction that gets translated into English. He acknowledges that orientalism has been overemphasized in discussions that tackle the kind of Arabic literature that gets translated into English and adds that other issues that are at play in the process have been disregarded.

Other specialists have explicitly specified the forces responsible for the status quo. Creswell (as quoted in Qualey, 2013a; emphasis original) considers reviewers “**the real culprits**” that have to be blamed for what kind of Arabic literature gets translated, why and who chooses the translations. To Creswell, the wrong choices are made because the number of reviewers interested in Arabic literature is scant.

Allen (1994) and Davies (quoted in Tresilian, 2012) state that in the initial stages of translating Arabic fiction into English, translators were held accountable for the works that got translated. Because Western publishers lacked expertise in Arabic literature, translators were asked to recommend the Arab authors whose works are worthy of translation into English. Publishers in this scheme were not directly involved in the selection criteria.

To Büchler and Guthrie (2011), the Arab world itself has participated in hindering the translation of Arabic literature into English because it “has done very little to promote its own writing internationally and even less to support its translation” (p. 8). It follows that the Arabs themselves have contributed to the paucity of Arabic literature in translation.

Exposing the involvement of parties other than publishing houses in the selection of Arabic fiction that gets translated into English, suggests that the patrons’ negative contribution in the translation activity of Arabic fiction might have been overemphasized at the expense of the constructive role they have assumed and which revolves around two interrelated axes. The first axis is concerned with the increase in the number of publishing houses involved in the activity and the ensuing surge in the titles translated; the second is associated with the kind of fiction that publishing houses commission for translation.

A. *Publishing Houses and the Dissemination of Translated Arabic Fiction into English*

The role publishing houses have played over the years in disseminating translated Arabic fiction to English-speaking readers should not be overlooked nor should it be discussed entirely within the framework of orientalism and financial rewards. In fact, by adopting an approach that is not based on preconceived ideas about these patrons, their invaluable contribution to this activity can be fully appreciated.

The Nobel Prize for Literature award aroused Anglophone publishers’ interest in Arabic literature, in general, and Arabic fiction in particular, and acted as an eye-opener to the diversity of works produced in the Arab world. Consequently, the circle of publishers involved in the translation of Arabic fiction into English gradually began to widen which resulted in an upsurge in the number of works translated.

Before the award, the responsibility of translating Arabic fiction into English was mainly the pursuit of university presses affiliated to academic institutions and interested in disseminating quality Arabic fiction to Middle East specialists and a well-read Western audience; the financial rewards incurred from such an activity were not the driving force underlying the translation of Arabic fiction (Said, 1994; Allen, 1994; Clark, 2000; Büchler & Guthrie, 2011). The university presses that contributed to the translation of Arabic fiction in its beginnings were mostly scholarly institutions based in the US, such as Columbia University Press and Texas University Press. *The Literature of Modern Arabia* published by Texas University Press in 1988, and sponsored by the Project for the Translation of Arabic (PROTA), is considered a work that was a valuable addition to the limited repertoire of translated Arabic fiction in English.

The early nineties, and subsequent years, saw more publishers involved in the translation of Arabic fiction, and this is why Allen (2003) considers that this period “represented some kind of heyday in the publication of contemporary Arabic literature” (p. 3). One feature associated with the abovementioned period is that more university presses in the US and UK became convinced it was the right time to venture on such a project, and names of presses affiliated to the following universities were seen more frequently on translated anthologies and novels: Syracuse, Columbia, Arkansas, Indiana, California, Georgetown, York, Minnesota and Oxford. Some of the translated works by these presses include: *All That’s Left to You: A Novella and other Stories* (1990), *Anthology of Modern Palestinian Literature* (1992), *Fragments of Memory: A Story of a Syrian Family* (1993), *The Journey of Little Gandhi* (1994), and *The Game of Forgetting* (1996). Another university press that began to play a pivotal role in the translation of Arabic fiction into English is the American University in Cairo Press (AUCP). The press has become “the major source of Arabic literature in English worldwide, and has launched the international career of several major Arab writers” (Büchler & Guthrie, 2011, p. 27).

Another significant development that started in the 90s was the increase in the number of independent and commercial publishers involved in the translation of Arabic fiction. The independent publishing houses, comprised of small and medium-sized presses, accept narrow profit margins and are primarily interested in acquainting English-speaking readers with the literature and culture of the Arab world. The fiction they choose to translate is not the sole responsibility of the marketing departments, but is carried out by personnel who are well-acquainted with the literary scene in the Arab world and who aspire to translate fiction that has literary value. One can say that the approach independent presses adopt in translating Arabic fiction is succinctly summarized by Quartet publishers on their website: “our publishing continues to be risk-taking but with a sharp eye towards the zeitgeist” (<http://quartetbooks.co.uk/about>). The independent presses that participated significantly in disseminating Arabic fiction in the aforementioned period include: Quartet, Anchor, Haus Arabia, Interlink, Kegan Paul, Lynne Rienner, Garnet, and Zed. The fiction they translated was not confined to Egyptian novelists and short story writers, but included works from other parts of the Arab world, and readers in the West were introduced to names whose works had already gained acclaim in the Arab world, like Liana Badr and Ghasan Kanafani (Palestine), Ulfat Idlibi (Syria), Ghazi Algosaibi and Abdelrahman Munif (Saudi Arabia), Ibrahim Nasrallah (Jordan), Al-Tayeb Salih (Sudan), and Ahmad Faqih (Libya), among others.

The turning point in the role publishers played in translating Arabic fiction was the participation of commercial presses in the activity. Commercial publishers, as the name suggests, are interested in profits and the “commercial imperative” comes first on their agendas. They focus on translating fiction that sells well which means that priority is

given to the works that portray the stereotypical images of the Arabs; the literary quality of the translated works is not always the criterion adopted in the selection process. Having said this, one cannot ignore that such presses have participated, though to a lesser extent in comparison with university and independent presses, in translating Arabic fiction that has literary value, such as the works by Naguib Mahfuz and Yusuf Idris. Some of the major commercial presses to partake in the translation of Arabic fiction include: Doubleday, Three Continents Press, Bloomsbury Publishing, Penguin Books, and Random House.

The increase in the number of publishing houses that commission and fund the translation of Arabic fiction into English resulted in an upsurge in the works translated. This end-result is noted in both the UK and the US where translations from Arabic were once “scant”, “sparse” and “limited” (Allen, 1994; Said, 1994; Clark, 2000; Büchler & Guthrie, 2011).

A report by *Literature Across Frontiers* (2011), that examines the literary translations carried out from Arabic into English in the UK and Ireland between the years 1990-2010, reveals that interest in Arabic literature started to go up in the 90s. In 1990, for instance, there were seven literary works translated from Arabic; however, the number doubled in ten years to reach 14 in 2000. A further increase in the works translated into English was noted after the 9/11 events with over “30 titles published in 2010” (p. 23); in twenty years, the number of titles translated quadrupled which indicates the growing interest in the Arab world and its literature. Not only did publishing houses increase the number of titles translated, but they also included novels and short stories by a diverse body of men and women writers from all over the Arab world; consequently, many works like *Zayni Barakat* (1990) by Gamal Al-Ghitani, *Dubai Tales* (1991) by Mohammad Al-Murr, *The Story of Zahra* (1991) by Hanan Al-Shaykh, *Wiles of Men and Other Stories* (1992) by Salwa Bakr, *The Stone of Laughter* (1994) by Hoda Barakat, *Bandarshah* (1996) by Al-Tayeb Salih, *Gold Dust* (2008) by Ibrahim Al-Koni and many others, saw the light of day in English because publishing houses took marketing risks and funded the translation of such literary works.

In the US, translations from Arabic have also increased during the twenty-first century. Qualey states that “Arabic has gone from de facto English-language invisibility to the “fourth-most-translated” literary language in the US” (<http://arablit.wordpress.com/2014/07/08/arabic-strongly-represented-in-2014-pen-awards>). In his attempt to upgrade the translation databases at Three Percent, Post (2014) notes that the number of novels and short stories translated from Arabic into English has gone up in 2014 with close to 30 titles appearing in English. The works chosen are written by novelists and short story writers from different Arab countries and are published by academic, independent and commercial presses.

Taking into consideration that only around 2-5 percent of the literary works in circulation in the West are translations (Allen, 2010; Büchler & Guthrie, 2011), one can say that publishing houses have not turned a blind eye to Arabic literature. On the contrary, the amount of works they have participated in translating during the last twenty-four years is anything but peripheral if compared with the translated literature from China, Sweden, Japan and Portugal (Qualey, 2014). Publishing houses in the West, and presses located in the Arab world with Western affiliations, have succeeded in introducing the English-speaking public to a fair amount of Arabic fiction in English translation. Consequently, readers have become more conversant with the literary scene in the Arab world and more informed about its culture. Publishing houses’ interest in translating Arabic fiction into English and the ensuing output show the overarching role these patrons have played in disseminating Arabic fiction to a non-Arab readership. One cannot but acknowledge that without their efforts and risk-taking measures Arabic literature would still be in the ghetto.

B. Publishing Houses and the Translation of Quality Arabic Fiction

The patrons, or publishing houses, that choose the Arabic fiction that gets translated into English are usually accused of selecting works that reveal certain aspects of the Arab culture that are intriguing to Western readers. The titles they commission for translation are usually “taboo-breaking” bestsellers that openly discuss sex issues, freedom, democracy and religion in the Arab world, and hence reinstate the stereotypical images of the Arabs familiar to readers in the West. Although such an approach is adopted by some patrons, not all of the presses that oversee the translation of Arabic fiction follow the same path; some of them are involved in this endeavor out of genuine interest in Arabic fiction and its literary value. It goes without saying that quite a few works that have been translated into English by various publishers do not portray Arabs in their conventional roles, and the selections discussed in this section are examples that do not fit the mould.

The available corpus of quality Arabic fiction in English reveals that academic, independent and commercial presses have all been involved in this activity. Academic presses, especially in the US, have significantly contributed in disseminating quality Arabic fiction to Anglophone readers. Columbia University Press, for example, in *Modern Arabic Fiction: An Anthology* (2005) introduces readers to works by more than one hundred and forty Arab novelists and short story writers from all corners of the Arab world. The anthology reflects the diverse range of themes, subject matters, styles and tones tackled by novelists known in the West, like Naguib Mahfouz and less known novelists and short story writers, such as Jurgi Zaydan, Liana Bader, and Nadia Ghazzi. Indeed, the literary richness of Arabic fiction is reflected in the anthology.

Another academic press, with American affiliations, that has shown unprecedented interest in the translation of quality Arabic fiction into English is the American University in Cairo Press (AUCP). AUCP sometimes publishes twenty new literary titles every year (Büchler & Guthrie, 2011, p. 27) which is an output unmatched by any other press,

be it academic or otherwise. Although some suggest that AUCP “goes for quantity rather than quality in its selection” (p. 27), the works translated reveal that at least a good part of their choice is certainly of excellent literary value (see <http://www.aucpress.com/c-26-arabic-literature>). AUCP is not only the primary English-language publisher of Naguib Mahfouz’s novels, but has translated works by other renowned writers like Taha Hussein, Yusuf Idris, Yahya Hakki and Gamal Al-Ghitani. The role it has played in acquainting Anglophone readers with novelists and short story writers of different Arab nationalities is exceptional. Works by Ibrahim Al-Koni (Libya), Abdelilah Hamdouchi and Leila Abouzeid (Morocco), Mourid Barghouthy and Sahar Khalifeh (Palestine), Ibrahim Nasrallah (Jordan), Hassouna Mosbahi (Tunisia) Fadhil Al-Azzawi (Iraq), and Tarek Altayeb (Sudan), to name but a few, are made available to Western readers. Many of the works written by these writers, and selected for translation, do not portray the Arabs in their conventional roles and have, prior to their translation, gained acclaim in the Arab literary circles. For example, in *I Saw Ramallah* (2005), the Palestinian novelist Mourid Barghouthy reveals in his autobiographical account of his return to the homeland after 30 years of exile, the sufferings of Palestinian refugees and the impact of the occupation on their families. His narrative is not biased against the Israelis; there is neither bitter reproach, nor testy resentment in the tone of the narrative. Palestine has been occupied, renamed, its inhabitants evicted from their homes, yet the roaming homeless narrator manages to find a home in Deir Ghassanah where he had been born.

Independent presses have also translated quality Arabic fiction into English. Interlink Books, Garnet Publishing, Quartet, Haus Arabia, Lynne Rienner Publishers, Pantheon Books, Vintage and Passeggiata Press, among others, brought international reputation to Arab novelists and short story writers. Two of the novels by Hanna Mina, a Syrian writer, have been made available in English translations by Interlink and Passeggiata Press. Neither *Fragments of Memory: A Story of a Syrian Family* (1993) nor perhaps *Sun on a Cloudy Day* (1997) meet the expectations of a Western audience, hungry for salacious information about an alien and mysterious culture, or an insight into the role of women. Jensen (<http://www.aljadid.com/content/hanna-mina%4>) concurs that “the use of highly poetic and formal language, the somewhat surreal disclosure of the plot, and the questionable treatment of women could potentially present roadblocks towards appreciating this novel. But for a sensitive, astute reader, its personal and political “coming of age” tale offers a powerful glimpse of the passion which allows humans to revolt against the most oppressive circumstances.” *Sun on a Cloudy Day* is set just before Syrian independence from the French mandate. The narrator is the son of a decadent wealthy aristocratic family who collaborates with the French colonial power, the occupiers, out of sheer egotism, and to maintain a stale status quo. The novel chronicles the coming-of-age story of a young man’s search for identity. He moves away from the elegant tango, which his family dances at any occasion, to the gypsy sword dance, which he learns from a tailor, a radical nationalist, who becomes his mentor when he recognizes the narrator’s passion in his search for the meaning of life. His father eventually murders the tailor for introducing change.

Betool Khedairi’s *A Sky So Close* (2001) published by Pantheon Books, a novel that gained an important status after the 2003 US invasion of Iraq, is about youth, about growing up in a war-torn country, and about cross-cultural differences. A young woman looks back on her life with an Iraqi father, whom she adores, and an English mother, at the vast abyss between the two cultures of her parents, the blackouts forced on her town during the war, and her coming of age amidst all this. Khedairi’s novel does not meet the Anglophone readers’ “horizon of expectations” on a number of counts, most importantly the father-daughter relationship which is not characterized by patriarchal domination and oppression. In short, the novel tackles other issues, for it “represents a microcosm of the east-meets-west battle, a tiny and personal war, which, in this story, has no clear winner” (Roberts-Zibbel, 2002).

Ghassan Kanafani, a Palestinian short story writer and novelist, whose repertoire of works in Arabic is extensive, has been translated and published in English by Lynne Rienner Publishers and Interlink. His works deal with the sufferings and misery of the displaced Palestinian people, and their aspirations for the normality of a dignified family life that most take for granted. *Palestine’s Children: Returning to Haifa and Other Stories* (2000) comprises fourteen stories that mirror the life and sufferings of Palestinian children. Each story narrates the life of a Palestinian child who is suffering due to the political circumstances emanating from the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. Kanafani’s narrative does not discuss issues usually associated with this conflict: bloodshed, war, terrorism, and hatred; rather, the human dimension of the Palestinian children’s sufferings is the main theme of all the stories. Kanafani retells the sufferings of the Palestinian children living in refugee camps, the dire financial circumstances that these children have to survive, and the human relations that exist in the camps.

Although commercial presses are business-oriented patrons, and the “commercial imperative” is a priority on their agendas, they have participated in publishing quality Arabic fiction in English translation. Heinemann, Doubleday and Three Continents Press are considered pioneers in initiating the translation of this literary genre to Anglophone readers. Heinemann was the first to commission the translation of Al-Tayeb Salih’s novel *Season of Migration to the North* in 1969, three years after its publication in Arabic. Doubleday and Three Continents funded the translation of titles by prominent Arab novelists like Tawfik Al-Hakim, Naguib Mahfouz, Yusuf Idris and Yahya Taher Abdullah. Titles translated into English by these writers include, but are not limited to, *Return of the Spirit* (1990), *Palace of Desire* (1991), *The Mountain of Green Tea and Other Stories* (1991), *The Harafish* (1994), and *The Sinners* (1995). These titles do not conform to the kind of fiction that commercial publishers usually embrace and which is grouped under the taboo-breaking, bestselling models. *The Mountain of Green Tea and Other Stories*, for instance, by Yahya Taher Abdullah is not an easy read collection of short stories. On the contrary, since the stories portray the ordeal experienced

by Upper Egyptians who move to Cairo looking for work, they “demand from the reader considerable background knowledge of the customary life of rural Egypt and the conventions, taboos and traditions that rule the lives of his characters” (Young, 1985, p. 369). This characteristic entails extra processing effort on the Western readers’ part and might result in marketing problems and financial losses; an outcome that commercial presses try to avoid.

Other commercial publishing houses that have introduced Arab voices to English-speaking readers are Bloomsbury, Penguin and Random House. Although they have mainly been associated with the translation of best-selling Arabic fiction, one cannot overlook the serious contemporary Arabic fiction they introduced to an English-speaking audience. For example, the first Arabic novel to be translated by Penguin in 1990 was *Zayni Barakat* by Gammal Al-Ghitani which is a historical fiction set in Mameluke Egypt. Nkhrumah (<http://weekly.ahram.org.eg/2005/733/profile.htm>) describes it as “a story replete with political intrigue and chivalry. An intricately woven saga of passion and power, it delves into the darker recesses of the mediaeval mind while also tackling contemporary themes.” Selecting such a novel for translation involves risks since this “saga” does not fit the mould Western readers are accustomed to. Bloomsbury has funded the translation of *Beirut 39: New Writing from the Arab World* (2010) which is a collection of 39 short stories and novel extracts by writers from all over the Arab world. Although “many of these worlds are alien to British readers,” Bloomsbury undertook the translation of the collection and ignored the “commercial imperative.” (<http://www.theguardian.com/books/2010/jun/12>). These presses have also translated fiction that gained acclaim among Arab and non-Arab literary circles and was shortlisted for the International Prize for Arabic Fiction (IPAF) and the International IMPAC Dublin Literary Award, like *In Praise of Hatred* (2006) by Khalid Khalifa, *The American Granddaughter* (2010) by Inaam Kachachi and *An Iraqi in Paris* (2010) by Samuel Shimon, respectively.

This brief survey of the quality fiction that Anglophone publishers have introduced to English-speaking readers reveals that the relationship between publishing houses, or patrons, and Arabic fiction in English need not always be viewed with a suspicious eye. Publishing houses have played a pivotal role in introducing serious contemporary new voices of Arab novelists and short story writers to non-Arab speakers in a relatively short period of time if one takes into consideration the limited corpus of translated Arabic fiction available in English during the eighties and early nineties.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Interest in translating contemporary Arabic fiction into English started to gain momentum after Naguib Mahfouz, the Egyptian novelist, won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1988. Before the Prize, the repertoire of Arabic fiction in English translation was almost nonexistent and was the preserve of a niche readership.

The patrons who commission and fund the translation of contemporary Arabic fiction have been accused of embarking on this venture for the wrong reasons. Researchers, academics and translators have claimed that the selection criteria adopted do not give prominence to the literary quality of the titles chosen for translation but are dictated by the hidden agendas that the patrons embrace. Since Arabic fiction in English translation mainly attracts a niche readership, agents choose works that reinstate the stereotypical images of the Arabs in order to facilitate the promotion and circulation of the end-product to a wider English-speaking audience; this, in turn, means fewer marketing campaigns and less financial risks. Consequently, the patrons that undertake the responsibility of translating Arabic fiction into English are portrayed as a “power” that acts as a stumbling block to the dissemination of Arabic fiction to Anglophone readers. The patron-Arabic fiction in translation relation triggers negative connotations because it is not conducted out of interest in the literature and its people.

This paper aims at showing that while the negative patron-Arabic fiction in English translation relation has been overtly highlighted, the positive role these patrons have played in disseminating Arabic fiction to English-speaking readers has not been given due attention. The paper illustrates that patronage in the translation of Arabic fiction is not always a “repressive force” but one that “traverses and produces things, induces pleasure, forms knowledge, produces discourse” (Lefevere, 1992, p. 15). Anglophone publishing houses, whether academic, independent or commercial, did not only participate in increasing the number of titles translated from Arabic into English but they also helped introduce quality Arabic fiction to a wide spectrum of English-speaking readers. The kind of works translated have acted as an eye-opener to the richness and diversity of Arabic fiction, and readers have become acquainted with a new portfolio of translated titles that do not solely portray the stereotypical images of the Arabs with which the Western reader is familiar. The efforts of all the publishing houses that have participated in translating contemporary Arabic fiction into English have transformed this literary text-type from its *tabula rasa* status into a genre that is read and appreciated by a wide array of non-Arab readers.

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Ula K. Al-Dabbagh earned her PhD in Translation Studies at Edinburgh University in the UK in 2003. She earned her Master's degree in Translation and Linguistics at Bath University in the UK in 1985.

She is currently an Assistant Professor of Translation and Linguistics at the Department of English, University of Petra, Jordan. She is also the Director of the Language Center. Her research interests include work on contrastive linguistics and literary and political translation.

The Relationship between EFL Learners' Multiple Intelligences and Vocabulary Learning Strategies Use with a Focus on Gender

Touran Ahour

Department of English, Tabriz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Morteza Abdi

Department of English, Tabriz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Abstract—Over the past decade or so, Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT) has witnessed a great deal of attention from theoreticians, researchers, and educators in the field. Accordingly, the current study was designed to examine the relationship between Iranian EFL male and female learners' MI types and their vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) use. A total of 150 intermediate learners from an English Language Institute in Tabriz participated in this study. Two questionnaires were employed to collect the necessary data, namely, MI and VLS questionnaires. Following a range of correlational analyses, the obtained findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between participants' MI types and VLS categories, and the musical type of intelligence had the strongest relationship with SOC category of VLS. In addition, both male and female learners employed MEM and SOC categories of VLS as the most and the least frequently used strategies respectively. Finally, the obtained findings revealed that the interpersonal and linguistic types of MI were the best predictors of male learners' VLS use. For the female learners, however, the bodily and naturalist intelligences contributed significantly to the prediction of their VLS use. The results suggest implications for both educators and learners.

Index Terms—Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT), MI types, Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs), VLS categories, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the introduction of the Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT) by Gardner (1983), the role of multiple intelligences (MI) in learning, achievement and knowledge acquisition has attracted considerable attention from researchers. In Gardner's (2011) point of view, intelligence is "the ability to solve problems or to create products that are valued within one or more cultural settings" (p. xxviii). According to this theory, each individual possesses a combination of various intelligences which are quite independent of each other (Gardner, 1983, 2011). This view of intelligence challenges the general intelligence 'g' or general factor which was dominant for many years. Gardner (1983) suggests that "the traditional notion of intelligence as measured by I.Q testing is far too limited, and there are not just two ways to be intelligent, but many ways" (p. 51).

Initially, Gardner proposed a list of seven intelligences in 1983. They are verbal-linguistic, musical-rhythmic, logical-mathematical, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, intrapersonal, and interpersonal intelligences. Later, he added two more to the list (naturalist and existential) (Gardner, 2003). Each type of intelligence is briefly explained below:

- Verbal-linguistic intelligence: This intelligence is defined by Armstrong (2009) as "the ability to manipulate the syntax or structure of language or sounds of language, the semantics or meanings of language, and the pragmatic dimensions or practical uses of language" (p. 6).

- Musical-rhythmic intelligence: This is the capacity to perceive, discriminate, transform, and express musical forms (Armstrong, 2009). This intelligence, according to Armstrong (2009), includes "sensitivity to the rhythm, pitch or melody, and timbre or tone color of a musical piece" (p. 6).

- Logical-mathematical intelligence: Gardner (1983) believes that people with strong logical-mathematical capacities have a keen sense about objects and order. According to Armstrong (2009), this intelligence includes "the understanding and use of logical structures, including patterns and relationships and statements and propositions, functions through categorization, inference, calculation, and hypothesis testing" (p. 6).

- Visual-spatial intelligence: This is the intelligence, according to McKenzie (2005), "that promotes spatial reasoning through the use of charts, graphs, tables, and illustrations" (p. 12). This intelligence allows students to form pictures of ideas and solutions to problems before putting them into verbal practice (McKenzie, 2005).

- Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence: This is the ability, as Armstrong (2009) notes, to communicate ideas and feelings using one's whole body. McKenzie (2005) says that this intelligence is "stimulated by active, physical interaction with one's environment" (p. 12).

- **Intrapersonal intelligence:** Gardner (2011) says this is “the capacity to access one’s own feeling life” (p. 253). This intelligence allows the individual to discriminate and symbolize complicated and distinctive sets of feelings (Gardner, 2011).

- **Interpersonal intelligence:** This is the intelligence that is stimulated by interactions with others (McKenzie, 2005). The core capacity here, according to Gardner (2011), is “the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals” (p. 253).

- **Naturalist intelligence:** This is the “expertise in the recognition and classification of the numerous species of an individual’s environment” (Armstrong, 2009, p. 7). McKenzie (2005) says this is “the intelligence of categories and hierarchies” (p. 12).

- **Existential intelligence:** This intelligence, as McKenzie (2005) says, allows students to have a “big picture” about the classroom, the community, and the world.

Over the past decade or so, the role of MIT and its applications to the educational settings have drawn remarkable attention from researchers (e.g., Bowles, 2008; Hajhashemi, Shakarami, Anderson, Yazdi Amirkhiz, Zou, 2013; Morgan & Fonseca, 2004). Armstrong (2003), one of the prominent educators, captured the value of MIT and argued that MIT “opens the door to a wide range of teaching strategies” (p. 72). He further accepted the individual differences among learners, and suggested that the theory of MI equips educators with an opportunity to develop innovative teaching strategies appropriate to the educational setting (2003). Therefore, MIT and its applications in the classroom can promise a fruitful contribution to teachers, learners and testers.

In the last two decades, the prominent role of vocabulary knowledge in second or foreign language learning has been recognized by learners, instructors, and researchers in the field as well (e.g., Moir & Nation, 2002; Nation, 2001; Read, 2007; Schmitt, 2000; Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013). Words are the building blocks of a language since they label objects, actions, ideas without which people cannot convey the intended meaning (Nation, 2004). Consequently, vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) have drawn a great deal of attention from the researchers in the area of language learning strategies (e.g., Barcroft, 2009; Fan, 2003; Gu, 2003; Larrota, 2011; Takač, 2008; Tseng & Schmitt, 2008; Wu, 2008). According to Schmitt (2000), “commonly used VLSs seem to be memorization, repetition, and note-taking on vocabulary” (p. 132). He further notes that beginners often favor relatively “shallow” strategies (i.e., memorization, repetition), whereas intermediate or advanced learners can benefit from “deeper” strategies (i.e., imagery, inferencing).

Schmitt (2000) suggests that a number of variables account for the effective VLS use and teaching. These variables can include the “overall learning context, proficiency level, L1 and culture of students and the nature of the second language itself” (p. 133). Accordingly, Schmitt (2000) proposed a list of VLS which are divided into two major classes: 1) strategies beneficial for discovering a word’s meaning, and 2) strategies beneficial for remembering that word after being introduced. The former group contains determination and social strategies and the latter contains cognitive, metacognitive and memory strategies. Schmitt’s (2000) taxonomy on VLS is briefly explained below:

- **Determination strategies (DET):** these are individual learning strategies without getting any assistance from another person’s experience.

- **Social strategies (SOC):** these are strategies which engage learners in interaction with others.

- **Memory strategies (MEM):** these are strategies which involve associating the new word with previous knowledge and they generally involve “elaborative mental processing that facilitates long-term retention” (Schmitt, 2000, p. 135).

- **Cognitive strategies (COG):** these are similar to MEM, but they are more mechanical to study vocabulary. Repeating the pronunciation of new words is an example of COG.

- **Metacognitive strategies (MET):** these are strategies related to processes involved in monitoring, decision-making, and evaluation of one’s progress.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Quite a number of studies have been conducted to investigate the role of MIT and its applications in various educational settings in recent years. Some studies made an attempt to investigate the relationship between MI and Focus on Form (FonF) (Saeidi, 2006), listening proficiency (Mahdavy, 2008), reading strategies and proficiency (Hajhashemi, Akef, & Anderson, 2012; Zarati, 2007), writing tasks (Ahmadian & Hosseini, 2011; Saeidi & Karvandi, 2014), and learning grammar (Panahi, 2011; Zahedi & Ghabanchi, 2014). Other studies, following this line of inquiry, investigated the role of MI in foreign language classroom anxiety (Saidi & Khosravi, 2013), language learning strategies (Akbari & Hosseini, 2008; Hajhashemi, Parasteh Ghombavani & Yazdi Amirkhiz, 2011; Roohani & Rabiei, 2013), students’ learning styles (Wu & Alrabah, 2009), and incidental vocabulary learning (Farahani & Latifi, 2014).

The aforementioned studies on MIT imply the significance of multifaceted style of language learning and teaching. Furthermore, a review of the literature demonstrates the paucity of exploration regarding practical applications of MIT in ESL and EFL settings (Haley, 2004).

Considering VLS and gender, however, a little attempt has been made to examine its relationship with MIT. Arjomand and Sharififar (2011), in a recent experiment, investigated the relationship between VLS and gender among 80 Iranian EFL freshman learners. They concluded that COG strategy was the most commonly used strategy whereas SOC strategy was the least frequently used one. With respect to gender, moreover, they suggested that COG/MET and SOC strategies were the most and the least commonly used ones. In congruent with this study, other studies had already

examined the relationship between VLS and gender in foreign language contexts (e.g., Sahbazian, 2004; Soodmand Afshar, 2010).

In another study, Loori (2005) explored the differences in intelligence preferences of 90 ESL male and female learners at three American universities. Using Teele Inventory MI to determine the differences in learners' preferences, Loori (2005) suggested that significant differences were evident between males and females' preferences of intelligences. Females preferred learning activities involving intrapersonal intelligence while males preferred learning activities involving logical and mathematical intelligences.

A study was conducted by Razmjoo, Sahragard, and Sadri (2009) to examine the relationship between MI, vocabulary learning knowledge and VLS among 100 Iranian EFL students who were English language teacher trainees at Shiraz Azad University. To this end, three kinds of instruments were used in this study: Nation's Levels Tests (2001), Schmitt's VLS (1997) and an MI questionnaire whose construct validity was checked through principal factor analysis. The obtained findings indicated that there is a relationship between MI and vocabulary learning knowledge. Furthermore, among different domains of intelligence, linguistic and natural intelligences made statistically significant contribution to the prediction of vocabulary learning knowledge. Moreover, stepwise multiple regression analysis confirmed the same finding. Concerning the relationship between MI and vocabulary strategies, the findings revealed that among five categories of strategies, DET, SOC and MEM strategies had a significant relationship with several domains of MI.

It is, hence, safe to argue that considerable research has been done in the realm of VLS with various variables across the countries. It appears that, to the best of our knowledge, there is a gap in exploring the relationship between MI, gender and VLS. Therefore, the present study attempted to investigate the relationship between MI types and VLS categories as well as to examine the role of gender. More specifically, the present study was set to investigate the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant relationship between learners' MI types and VLS use?
2. What are the most and the least frequently used VLSs by the male and female learners?
3. Which MI type/s is the best predictor of male learners' VLS use?
4. Which MI type/s is the best predictor of female learners' VLS use?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Initially, a total of 203 learners (93 male and 110 female) from Novin English Language Institute in Tabriz participated in this research. The participants were taking an intermediate-level English course in the spring semester of 2014/04. The rationale for the selection of this proficiency level was that the inventory used in this study required an intermediate level of English for the learners to understand the content of the instrument. To select homogenous group of learners, Quick Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (version two, 2001) was administered in the second phase of the selection. The researchers managed to include 150 participants who had scored between 30-47 and 53 learners were excluded from the study due to the fact that their proficiency level was above or below the selected level in the Rank Scale of OPT test. Finally, the responses of 150 learners (75 male and 75 female) whose age ranged from 18 to 25 constituted the data set of this study.

B. Instruments

The instruments employed in the study included a quick OPT test and two questionnaires including MI and VLS. The former was used for identifying the intelligence profiles of the learners while the latter was used for determining the participants' strategies to vocabulary learning and the frequency of VLS use.

1. OPT Test

To meet the aforementioned purposes, initially, a language proficiency test including 60 items (i.e., matching, cloze passages, and multiple choice questions) was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the learners. The test items mainly focused on reading skill, grammar, and vocabulary. The participants were given 30 minutes to answer them.

2. MI Inventory

MI inventory prepared by McKenzie (1999) was utilized to elicit the intelligence profiles of the participants in this study. It consists of 90 Likert-type statements about the nine intelligences proposed by Gardner to measure the MI types of learners. According to some researchers (e.g., Al-Balhan, 2006; Razmjoo, 2008; Razmjoo et al. 2009), the overall internal consistency of the questionnaire is in a range between 0.85 and 0.90. Since the inventory included some difficult vocabulary items and grammatical structures, these items were simplified for the learners to comprehend them easily. The inventory takes about 30 minutes on average to be completed and there was no time limit. Furthermore, another separate section was added to the inventory to collect the participants' personal and background information (e.g., age and gender).

3. VLS Questionnaire

To identify the learners' strategies toward vocabulary learning and the frequency of the strategies, a VLS questionnaire designed by Schmitt (1997), was employed in this study. Schmitt's taxonomy of VLS was selected because of two reasons. First, it is the most extensive one available. Second, the taxonomy was adopted by quite a

number of studies all over the world, which allowed the findings of this study to be compared with them more easily. Schmitt's taxonomy consists of five categories (DET, SOC, MEM, and COG, MET) and 59 items with five-point Likert Scale which ranges from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The questionnaire takes about 25 minutes on average to be answered but there was no time limit. No specific modifications were made in the questionnaire except that an independent section was added to gather some background information about the participants.

C. Procedure

To collect the data, the researchers followed three stages during three weeks in 2014/04. To begin with, a total of 150 sample learners were selected from Novin English Language Institute, Tabriz, taking evening courses at intermediate level. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants and their ability to understand and complete the English version of the questionnaires, the quick OPT test was administered. From this sample, 75 male and 75 female learners participated in this study. To investigate the role of gender in VLS, an attempt was made to include equal number of learners for each group.

In the second week, stage two, the MI inventory including 90 Likert-type statements was administered to the selected participants to identify their MI profiles. In the final stage, week three, the VLS questionnaire including 59 items was administered to the participants to recognize their strategies toward vocabulary learning and the frequency of use for each strategy. After collecting the data, the descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted on the data using SPSS 18.0.

IV. RESULTS

A. MI Types and VLS Categories

The first research question addressed the relationship between MI types and VLS categories. To answer the question, Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to see whether there was any statistically significant correlation between MI types and VLS categories. Table 1 indicates the relationship between the two variables.

TABLE I.
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN MI TYPES AND VLS CATEGORIES

MI Types	VLS Categories				
	DET	SOC	MEM	COG	MET
Linguistic	.043	.353**	.235**	.123	.076
Musical	.114	.524**	.293**	.144	.006
Logical	.015	.376**	.102	.069	.034
Visual	.174*	.312**	.302**	.163*	.349**
Kinesthetic	.134	.293**	.324**	.262**	.101
Intrapersonal	.275**	-.057	.095	.050	.231**
Interpersonal	.209*	.364**	.400**	.192*	.086
Naturalist	.068	.098	-.116	.101	-.059
Existential	.019	.296**	.321*	.135	.191*

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

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

As illustrated in Table 1, nearly all MI types are correlated with two or more VLS categories; however, logical type of intelligence has correlation only with one VLS category (i.e., SOC). More interestingly, there is no relationship between naturalist type of intelligence with any of VLS categories. Visual intelligence, however, has correlation with all of VLS categories. In addition, the highest correlation is achieved between the musical type of intelligence and SOC category of VLS. More importantly, SOC category of VLS has a significant relationship with all MI types except intrapersonal and naturalist types of intelligences.

B. VLSs and Their Frequency

The second research question addressed the most and the least frequently used VLSs by male and female learners. To measure this, another calculation was run for the frequency of VLS categories between male and female participants. Table 3 illustrates the mean and standard deviation between male and female learners.

TABLE II.
FREQUENCY OF VLS CATEGORIES

VLS Categories		Mean	Std. Deviation
DET	Male	28.61	4.09
	Female	30.80	5.92
SOC	Male	18.62	3.69
	Female	17.94	3.47
COG	Male	27.57	5.63
	Female	31.78	23.54
MET	Male	41.66	5.39
	Female	39.04	6.97
MEM	Male	49.93	9.98
	Female	48.64	13.15
Total	Male	166.10	21.82
	Female	168.21	37.15

Note. $N=75$ for males, and $N=75$ for females, $*P < .05$

As Table 2 indicates, the most and the least frequent VLS categories employed by both male and female learners are MEM ($M=49.93$ & 48.64 , $SD=9.98$ & 13.15) and SOC ($M=18.62$ & 17.94 , $SD=3.69$ & 3.47) categories respectively. Totally, the female ($M=168$, $SD=37.15$) employ more VLSs than the male ($M=166$, $SD=21.82$).

C. MI Types and the Best Predictor in Male Group

In order to answer the third research question, a Standard Multiple Regression analysis was carried out. Prior to this, the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were checked. Fig. 1 indicates the p-p plot which demonstrates no deviation from the normality assumption.

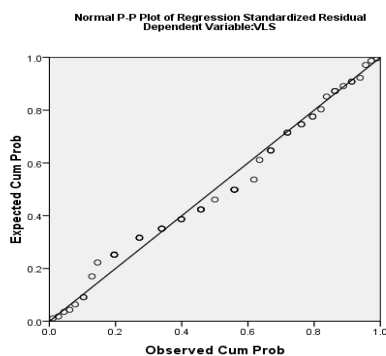


Figure 1. The p-p plot for normality

Having checked for the assumptions, a Standard Multiple Regression analysis was conducted. Table 3 indicates the means and standard deviations for the types of independent variable (i.e., MIs) and the categories of dependent variable (i.e., VLSs) in the male group.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR MI TYPES AND VLS CATEGORIES

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Naturalist	61.06	14.75
Musical	64.93	14.46
Logical	68.00	13.94
Existential	72.93	13.02
Interpersonal	71.06	17.90
Bodily	73.60	10.98
Verbal	64.40	16.86
Intrapersonal	72.93	17.22
Visual	74.53	17.65
Determination	28.61	4.09
Social	18.62	3.69
Cognitive	27.57	5.63
Metacognitive	41.66	5.39
Memory	49.93	9.98

In order to determine how much of the VLS use in male participants is explained by the predictors (i.e., MI types); the model summary is shown in Table 4.

TABLE IV.
RESULTS OF MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.76	.57	.54	14.67

Predictors: (Constant), Interpersonal, Linguistic, Logical, Musical, Bodily Intelligences
Dependent Variable: VLS

As Table 4 illustrates, 57% (R Square= .57) of the VLS use (dependent variable) is explained by the model consisting of the five predictors of interpersonal, linguistic, logical, musical, and bodily intelligences. In order to assess whether there is a significant multiple relationship between the predictors and the VLS use of male participants, it is necessary to look at the ANOVA table (See Table 5).

TABLE V.
RESULTS OF ANOVA FOR MI TYPES AND VLS

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20379.41	5	4075.88	18.92	.00
	Residual	14859.72	69	215.35		
	Total	35239.14	74			

Predictors: (Constant), Interpersonal, Linguistic, Logical, Musical, Bodily Intelligences
Dependent Variable: VLS

As Table 5 shows, there is a significant multiple relationship between the five predictors and the VLS use ($p = .00$). In order to determine which type/s of the multiple intelligences significantly contributes to the prediction of the VLS use of male participants, it is necessary to present the coefficient table (See Table 6).

TABLE VI.
COEFFICIENT RESULTS FOR MI TYPES AND VLS

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	131.59	13.15		10.00	.00
	Interpersonal	.90	.12	.74	7.06	.00
	Linguistic	.89	.16	.69	5.47	.00
	Logical	-.101	.21	-.65	-4.83	.00
	Musical	.37	.14	.24	2.62	.01
	Bodily	-.58	.22	-.29	-2.53	.01

Dependent Variable: VLS
 $P < .05$

As Table 6 shows, interpersonal type of MI contributes most significantly to the prediction of VLS in male learners ($\beta = .74$, $p = .00$). This means that about 74% of the VLS use among the male participants is explained by their interpersonal type of intelligence. The second MI type which significantly contributes to the prediction of male learners' VLS use is the linguistic type of MI ($\beta = .69$, $p = .00$). Also, the MI types of logical, musical, and bodily intelligences (with the P values of .00, .01, and .01 respectively) significantly predict the VLS use in male group. The interpersonal type of MI, therefore, is the best predictor of male participants' VLS use.

D. MI Types and the Best Predictor in Female Group

Similarly, another Standard Multiple Regression was carried out to answer the fourth research question. Prior to this, the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were checked. Fig. 2 indicates the p-p plot which demonstrates no deviation from the normality assumption.

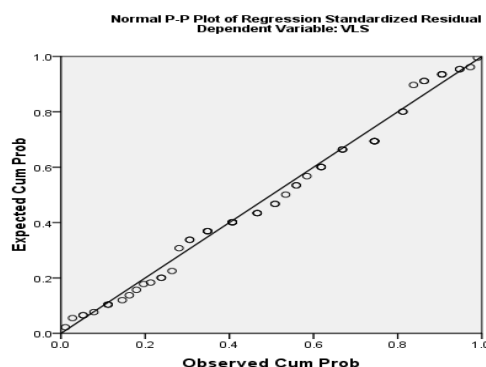


Figure 2. The p-p plot for normality

Following this, the second Standard Multiple Regression analysis was conducted for the female group. Table 7 indicates the means and standard deviations for the types MI (i.e., independent variable) and VLS categories (i.e., dependent variable) in female group.

TABLE VII.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR MI TYPES AND VLS CATEGORIES

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Naturalist	67.86	15.00
Musical	68.66	17.65
Logical	67.20	16.72
Existential	70.53	14.41
Interpersonal	62.93	21.48
Bodily	75.33	15.27
Verbal	66.93	19.93
Intrapersonal	76.00	12.19
Visual	76.00	18.59
Determination	30.80	5.92
Social	17.94	3.47
Cognitive	31.78	23.54
Metacognitive	39.04	6.97
Memory	48.64	13.15

However, to determine how much of the VLS use in female participants is explained by the predictors, the model summary needs to be presented. Table 8 shows the results of model summary.

TABLE VIII.
RESULTS OF MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.57	.33	.30	30.93

Predictors: (Constant), Bodily, Naturalist, Visual Intelligences
Dependent Variable: VLS

As Table 8 indicates, 33% (R Square= .33) of the VLS as the dependent variable is explained by the model consisting of the three predictors of bodily, naturalist, and visual intelligences. However, in order to assess whether there is a statistically significant multiple relationship between the predictors and the female participants' VLS use, Table 9 briefly presents the results of the ANOVA for MI types and VLS categories.

TABLE IX.
RESULTS OF ANOVA FOR MI TYPES AND VLS

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	34214.05	3	11404.68	11.91	.00
Residual	67944.53	71	956.96		
Total	102158.58	74			

Predictors: (Constant), Bodily, Naturalist, Visual Intelligences
Dependent Variable: VLS

By a brief look at Table 9, it is shown that there is a significant multiple relationship between the three predictors of MI types and the VLS categories ($p = .00$). Furthermore, to determine which type/s of the multiple intelligences significantly contributes to the prediction of the VLS use of female participants, the coefficient table is presented below.

TABLE X.
COEFFICIENT RESULTS FOR MI TYPES AND VLS

Model		Unstandarized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	102.40	20.37		5.02	.000
	Bodily	1.08	.29	.44	3.68	.000
	Naturalist	-1.06	.29	-.43	-3.62	.001
	Visual	.742	.232	.371	3.194	.002

Dependent Variable: VLS
 $P < .05$

As Table 10 illustrates, bodily ($\beta = .44, p = .000$) and naturalist ($\beta = -.43, p = .001$) intelligences of MI types contribute most significantly to the prediction of VLS use in female learners. This means that about 44% and 43% of the VLS in female learners are explained by their bodily and naturalist types of their intelligence respectively. Visual intelligence of MI type ($\beta = .37, p = .002$), however, is the least predictor of female learners' VLS. The bodily type of MI, therefore, is the best predictor of female participants' VLS.

V. DISCUSSION

In order to investigate the relationship between participants' MI types and VLS categories, the results of the study, based on the Pearson Product Moment Correlation, indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between the participants' MI types and VLS categories which is in line with the findings in Razmjoo et al. (2009). While the naturalist type of intelligence did not show any relationship with any of the VLS categories, visual intelligence had correlation with all of the categories. More importantly, SOC category of VLS had statistically significant relationship with nearly all MI types which again lends support to the findings by Razmjoo et al. (2009). The naturalist and intrapersonal types of intelligences, however, did not have any relationship with VLS categories. The musical type of intelligence, among the other types, had the strongest relationship with SOC category of VLS, which is not congruent with those in Razmjoo et al. (2009). The findings hence suggest that incorporating more social activities (e.g. group work) in the classroom and developing learners' musical intelligence can promise a fruitful way of improving their vocabulary learning and knowledge.

Drawing on the results for the second research question, it was revealed that both male and female learners employ MEM as the most frequently used strategy, which is not in line with the findings in Arjomand et al. (2011) who concluded that COG/MET strategies were the most commonly used strategies. In addition, both male and female participants used SOC category of VLS as the least frequent strategy which gives more support to the findings by Arjomand et al. (2011). Totally, the female group used VLSs more than the male group. It appears that strategy use should be encouraged among male learners to make them more enthusiastic about vocabulary learning. This also implies that individuals, specially male and female learners, differ from each other with respect to strategy use. Accordingly, each student can be categorized on the basis of his/her particularly prominent intelligence types.

Building on the results of data from Standard Multiple Regression analyses for the third and fourth research questions, the obtained findings revealed that the interpersonal and linguistic types of MI were the best predictors of male learners' VLS use. This finding is in line with those in Razmjoo et al. (2009) who reported that linguistic and natural intelligences made statistically significant contribution to the prediction of vocabulary learning knowledge. For the female learners, however, the bodily and naturalist intelligences contributed significantly to the prediction of their VLS use. This lends support to the findings by Loori (2005) who suggested that differences between males and females' preferences of intelligences were significant. Similarly, this is explainable in terms of individual differences among learners, particularly, between male and female learners of English language. In educational contexts therefore individuals with different intelligences prefer different learning styles and strategies.

Drawing on the results of the present study, male and female learners differ greatly in their frequency of using VLSs. This, in effect, implies the learners' preferences in employing various VLSs between male and female learners. Furthermore, the types of MI as the best predictors of learners' VLS use can greatly differ between male and female learners of English language. The findings obtained in this study are congruent with the previous studies (e.g. Loori, 2005 and Razmjoo et al., 2009) conducted in the field.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the present study have significant implications both for language teaching, language learning, and language testing. The construct of MI has created the opportunity to look differently at curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Taking student's needs, interests, and talents into consideration, MI pedagogy creates opportunities for authentic learning. In addition, educators can predict appropriate language activities through identifying learners' MI profiles with varying levels of development. For this to happen, teachers need to realize that different learners with different levels and combinations of the nine intelligences are different in their learning. MI theory can allow educators to develop educational materials and strategies that meet the needs of more specific student population. Eventually, learners' awareness of their MI profiles may assist both themselves and teachers for a better and appropriate incorporation of language activities in the classroom.

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Touran Ahour is an assistant professor, academic staff member and Head of English Department at the Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz branch, Iran. She has received her PhD degree in TESL from the University Putra Malaysia. She has published several books and articles in international scholarly journals. Her research interests include writing assessment, materials evaluation, reading-writing connection, and ELT issues.

Morteza Abdi is a Ph.D candidate at applied linguistics at Islamic Azad University, Tabriz branch, Iran. He has received his B.A. and M.A. degrees in TEFL. His research interests include ELT issues, SLA research, and applied linguistics.

The Experience of (Cultural) Reality in Henry James's *The Ambassadors*

Ali Taghizadeh
English Department, Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran

Abstract—The later Henry James's fiction is a productive field of cultural experience. The present paper takes to analyze the creation of symbolic cultural realities in *The Ambassadors* through the exposition of James's main character to the manifestations of Parisian life. To achieve this purpose, it is argued that his character searches for the salvation of his consciousness mainly in language. But in search still of more new experiences, his consciousness often gets extended even beyond language. Cultural reflection in narrative language, negotiation with the other for interpretive analysis, experience as discursive, meaning as culturally represented in narrative, the quest to the beyond of language in search of experience, and cultural reflection for "civilized behavior" are among the issues which the present paper will analyze for the elaboration of its subject. The application of these techniques in James's novel enables his character to infiltrate history through his consciousness for standing in direction connection with the nature of things.

Index Terms—James, *The Ambassadors*, experience, (cultural) reality, language, reflection, transcendence of consciousness

I. INTRODUCTION

The rise and development of the English fiction has conventionally been regarded a social and/or cultural issue. For example, Lionel Stevenson (1960) has defined the novel as "a long fictitious prose narrative (p. 6), and has ascribed its emergence to some factors all of which were social. These factors included the purpose of the publisher in the classification of his trade list, the satisfaction of the bookseller in the arrangement of his counter, and the motivation of the librarian assigning his counter. Also, Ian Watt (1957) has mentioned a number of social factors which he believes were effective in the emergence of the genre in the 18th-century English society. One of them was the role of women, because the "women of the upper and middle classes could partake in few of the activities of their menfolk, ... Such women, therefore, had a great deal of leisure, and this leisure was often occupied by omnivorous reading (p. 48). Other factors which Watt has mentioned for the emergence of the novel in the 18th century include the evolution of the health conditions, the common compulsory education, and the development of journalism.

However, the argument of the present paper goes counter to that of those thinkers, for it takes to discuss the production of cultural experience in Henry James's *The Ambassadors* as a work of literature. Firstly, it will be argued that cultural experience is generated through the excitement of James's main character's free imagination in the context of literary language. The kind of experience produced here is far from the conventionally pre-given "transcendental signified" in the Woollettian community, for it is a dimension of an in-between man-made structure which is both relational and suppositional.

Then, Strether's consciousness will be clarified on as hovering for long times on the manifestations of Parisian culture for the emergence of new experiences. In a next step, the generation of meaning in the novel is discussed as a practice of discursivity. In the hands of James, the paraphernalia of literary language, the techniques of point of view for example or the insertion of the real with the imaginary, make it capable to function for the production of cultural reality. And it is hypothesized that narrative legitimacy is rooted in its capacity to give the character and reader the occasion to coin experience through trial and error, and through negotiation with the other.

However, not the whole of cultural experience can be generated via the language potentialities. Therefore, in search of still more new experiences, the subjectivity of James's character is extended even beyond language. Here he often questions the validity of the codification systems within the established language and attempts to set up a new system which is based, it seems, on a one-to-one correspondence with the nature of things. Out of the prison-house of language and feeling unified with creation, he is now an agent of cultural reflection who renders the materials of life to the building blocks of his artistic creations. This infiltration of history through his consciousness makes it ultimately remolded. In his voyage to the heart of things without the intervention of language, his illusion becomes radically intensified, the theme and form of creation gets embedded in him, and he "touches the bottom" of life.

II. DISCUSSION

A. A Space of Cultural Reflection

When the reader of *The Ambassadors* sees Lambert Strether reviewing his Woollettian experience in Paris, he gets curious about the nature of a review and the cultural job it does. He also wonders if this text shows James reviewing the American civilization. A review is a medium for the clash of “ideas.” It is, in this sense, a method for synthesizing the modern counterarguments for the psychological sanitation of the modern man, and a mechanism for taking the pulsation of the modern liberal society into control. These notions excite James’s reader to believe that he should read it for the production of cultural experience also.

On the second day of his life in Paris, and while he is visiting the Rue scribe, a sequence of chaotic impressions rush upon Strether’s mind. The great avenue is now like a “spur to his spirit” which serves him to “begin business with” (James, 2003, p. 109). And a second file of impressions rushes into his consciousness when he goes into the reception room of the bank. Here an impulse reminds him of the post office in Woollett which brings the image of a “transatlantic bridge” into his mind. Therefore, his mind is the store of many missives randomly superimposed that add to his restlessness. To give another comparison from the novel, his restless mind is like an “elaborate engine” that intakes unrelated impressions and changes them into the materials of new experience. In addition, when he starts roaming, his consciousness is like an oversensitive photographic slide, because whatever is exposed to it makes a deep impression on it.

In the context of Parisian culture, and to accomplish its job, his subjectivity will stretch everywhere. To create new meanings, it acts like a workshop where “these little brisk figures ... take their smooth diagonal” (James, 2003, p. 111). For example, as he gazes into the “irremediable void” of the palace, “the historic sense” freely plays in his mind. And it often shuttles back and forth between the past and present of European culture. Like a drift, and in search of new experiences, it aimlessly wanders where the components of time and place, or the historical and geographical dimensions, are “composed together” to make it into a “consciousness of difference.”

As James’s character roams in “the wonderful Paris spring,” he makes numberless figures and changes them into imaginary artistic creations. The strong engine of his freedom is now his restless mind and fluid imagination while its logic is based on perpetual escape. The logic of such a curiosity is like the logic of the polygon erected by his spontaneous perceptions and intruding impressions. But these blocks of curiosity can be made only in the workshop of the Parisian polyhedral social life with all its variety, complexity, and fluidity. In search for new ways of becoming, the American envoy lingers in the garden of life where art will guarantee its perpetual renovation so as the monotonous life will no longer exhaust his soul. His searching policy is, among other things, the celebration of defamiliarization via the elixir of art. Book 2 chapter 2 reads

In the garden of Tuileries he had lingered, on two or three spots, to look; it was as if the wonderful Paris spring had stayed with him as he roamed. The prompt Paris morning struck its cheerful notes – in a soft breeze and a sprinkled smell, in the light flit, over the garden-floor, of bareheaded girls with the buckled strap of oblong boxes, in the type of ancient thrifty persons basking betimes where terrace-walls were warm, in the blue-frocked brass-labeled officialism of humble rakers and scrapers, in the deep references of a straight-pacing priest or the sharp ones of a white-gaitered red-legged soldier. He watched little brisk figures, figures whose movement was as the tick of the great Paris clock, take their smooth diagonal from point to point; the air had a taste as of something mixed with art, something that presented nature as a white-capped master-chef. (James, 2003, p. 111).

In Strether’s mind, and in the mind of the reader, this process of becoming is far from unconscious. It is based on seeing and watching, and on observing formations which exist only on the border of his imagination and which are therefore always prone to disappear from his mind. However, although these formations are imaginary, he changes them into concrete materials of observation, like the materials which he extracts from the context of the real Parisian culture.

Yet, it is not the process only of a focused thought. Once again, when he is sitting in his nook in Luxemburg Gardens, “the waves of the single day” bring the image of Mrs. Newsome to bid him that he should be worried about nothing that was not of the essence of his task. He feels “so distinctly fagged out,” but at the end he lights on a happy form. He feels he has arrived at the real truth and that in the flood of his imagination such a truth can take on significant functions. If he can maintain his grasp of it, he may do everything he wants. But the fiction of James shows truth as far from independent and self-sufficient. He shows it as formal, relational, and relative. The outcome of Strther’s conscious observations in search of experience here is a kind of structural truth which is suppositional and phenomenological. And it is evasive, smuggling, and is always open to fermentation.

B. Experience as Outcome of Cultural Reflection

With Strther’s “short gusts of speculation—sudden flights of fancy” (James, 2003, p. 116), the American delegate is the great architect who will erect the monument of a new kind of truth. At his back, when perhaps no innovation was possible in American experience of life, he sees “the great desert of the years.” There are sequences that he, the would-be stretching projectile of American consciousness, has missed, and there are “great gaps in the procession” of his European citizenship. Now his mind “hovers” for long times to suspend in the air of this establishing truth. Thus, if he wonders and laughs and sighs, it is all for the sake of his mental achievement. For the process of his conscious becoming, he provides a full program; and he waits to see if it needs any further proofs for its applicability to the experience of the modern life.

Yet, his “fairly open sense of the irony of things” (James, 2003, p. 118) will make his predicament bristle. His vibrating imagination and straying consciousness let him appreciate the irony of things. The Jamesian experience is not

elemental, but is ironical and compositional; and one faulty relation in it will gangrene other relations. In Woollett, identity was sharply defined in narrow ways and in terms of separated factors. The ways of life and being, pre-determined as they were, were limited by division and rivalry. And consciousness was mainly linear and was a one-level structure. However, in the Parisian life different things mingle in the consciousness to provide the experience which is embedded in and by language. This kind of experience, which is the outcome of togetherness, intersection, and compromise, is therefore culturally represented.

It is often said that there is not so much of narrative in *The Ambassadors* but there is so much of observation. This is because James wants us to bring the experience of critical thinking into our lives. So, another cultural issue in this novel is how we render critical thought. James wants to show the process of thinking in us is never very ordered, and that although our thought is vague and scattered, it can be illustrated. On one hand he proves that our knowledge is limited, while on other hand his fiction invites us to discover the whole truth. What we have is the perception of more than one character: how a first character perceives another character and how this another character perceives the thought of the first character, etc. In this way, in James there is often few objective and one-lateral dimensions of thought, and everything is seen through an opaque filter that forces us to interpretation also. However, the reader of *The Ambassadors* sees the other characters only through the eyes of Strether. Therefore, his gain of reading is a handful of reflected experience, a kind of experience that is not the result of spontaneous intuition but the outcome of conscious mediated reflection on the things of thought and life.

C. *Meaning as Discursive Interpretation*

Strether's problem is a real theme of his story. However, it is rather hard to give word to it. He is here in Paris to understand the relation between Chad and Madam de Vionnet. In Book 5 chapter 2, when he advises Little Bilham to do his best to pass a full and free life, he has discovered a rash conflict between openness and closure, between real freedom and its simulacrum. This theme is a great part of the effects of his consciousness. Thus, he intends to renew his own subjectivity as well as to map the transcendence of his reader's mentality.

His unstopable imagination keenly reacts to whatever it perceives from the external world. So, we find him a victim to such a flood of external impressions which are too intrusive for him to control. For him, the signified freely streams beyond the signifier, and it is the energies of the narrative discourse that create meaning in his mind. The Jamesian narrative is often not the result of the author's omniscient knowledge but is the outcome of a close interaction of different social forces enacted through narrativity. In the transcending consciousness of the American delegate, cultural experience is the aftermath of the interaction of the things of narrative language.

Strether's consciousness is, to speak metaphorically, a 'balcony' of observation and recognition, for these are the methods which he uses for a possible reconstruction of his mentality, which guarantees its transcendence also. Experience is produced in no simple and clear-cut process but in a long and complicated one which is often based on trial and error: the onlooker observes the things, makes mistaken inferences of them, comprehends that his inferences are mistaken, then he makes another inference but mistakenly again which he ultimately refutes to make new inferences. For example, in the scene of Boulevard Malesherbs, when Strether passing by sees someone in a flat balcony, they stand and look at each other. Strether, and with him the reader, firstly think that this someone is Chad, but a little later the novel reads otherwise: "the interest was affected by the young man's not being Chad" (James, 2003, p. 124). Then the ambassador thinks he may be "Chad's friend." Then later again he thinks it is Miss. Gostrey. However, the narrative nullifies this fancy also. Toward the end of this scene we read: "Waymarsh, and Waymarsh alone, ... struck him as the present alternative to the young man in the balcony. When he did move it was fairly to escape that alternative" (James, 2003, p. 125).

In Book 3 Chapter 1, when Waymarsh asks Strether "Then what the devil do you know?" he replies, "almost gaily, I guess I don't know anything!" (James, 2003, p. 131). Their negotiation grounds the concern of James's reader with the authenticity of his tale; that is, with if he can believe in the claims of James's character. The narrator is other than Strether, and if he knows nothing, can it be suggested that the story is about nothing? Or that it is about the might of ignorance? Whatever the answer is, James's American delegate is curious about the working of things in Parisian life, about understanding deeper layers of the transatlantic culture. Under these pressures, he seems so severely exhausted of his excessive curiosity that he would like Waymarsh "to come down on me and squash me" (James, 2003, p. 133). On other hand, he says his interest lies in his not being squared, in the idea that his cognitive hard drive will be demystified with no certain tool. He says he likes to be anticipated or to be outrun, yet the story cancels his recognition and postpones our understanding. Such a narrative strategy gets authenticity mainly through active responses to the necessities of interpretation.

Interpretive experience is even more highlighted when Strether claims that his interest "lies in my not being squared. If I'm squared where's my marriage? If I miss my errand I miss that; and if I miss that I miss everything—I'm nowhere" (James, 2003, p. 135). In the fiction of James, the logic of squarity runs counter to that of marriage, for if the former is the logic of exactitude and demarcation, the latter is the state of compromise and intercourse. Marriage is the celebration of relations, but squarity is to be restricted from relations. Marriage is the protocol for the unity of the text and the reader for what Roland Bathes calls "the pleasure of the text." It is a strategy for the celebration of textual relations the outcome of which is the emergence of a series of text-reader negotiations for the sake of interpretive experience or subjective reality.

D. Beyond Language

In addition to the emergence of subjective reality as the outcome of text-reader negotiations, it seems that Strether's consciousness in search of cultural revelation is often extended even to the beyond of language where it is consequently no longer controlled by the latter. Chapter 1 of Book 1 reads: "He wondered what they meant, but there were things he scarce thought they could be supposed to mean, and 'Oh no – not that!' was at the end of most of his ventures" (James, 2003, p. 139). This is because his subjectivity is now open to a full flood of impressions which is too spontaneous for him, perhaps too rash, to control by language posts. In the book of Parisian culture which he is reading, the grammar is other than that of language. However, he does not "shirk the dilemma of reading," and from anything that comes up he hears a "roundabout echo." It no longer seems to be the echo of his nerve excitation when he attempts to express himself in words. Rather, it is the echo of his deep reflections when he attempts to go beyond the realm of language, to defeat the signifier, and to enlighten his mentality with the alphabets of another semantic codification.

Whatever this new text of life or this other semantic convention is, he puts to himself to read it and to formulate its "logic." In Woollett, the moral experience, which was one-sided, was taken for granted. But in Paris he reads the book of life differently, for he is "in the presence of new measures, other standards, a different scale of relations (James, 2003, p. 137). This transcendental experience is the outcome of a long and gradual process of which the first step is to doubt about the previous norms and conventions and to annihilate them. The outcome of this strange codification system is a kind of supra-structural experience the law of which the American delegate is designing in his intrusive consciousness.

Strether's cultural reflections are never stable. They uncontrollably change; and each reflection entails a riddle which he attempts to solve in order to format his conventionally one-lateral Woollettian consciousness, and develop it into a multi-level structure. In such a process of perpetual mutation, he is sure "he mustn't dispossess himself of the faculty of seeing things as they were" (James, 2003, p. 140). If he already knows about the illogic and deteriorating power of language, can it be proposed that he wants to go beyond language to infiltrate the law of nature, the law of universal human experience, into himself? This is because the logic of metaphorical language is different from the logic of life and is therefore rash and intrusive. However, the great imagination of James's character enables him to exceed the illogical functioning of metaphor, delve into the nature of things, and make one-to-one relations with them without the interference of language.

In this way, it can be claimed that James's realism in his late fiction is the realism of higher levels of life, the realism of human consciousness in radical deliberation in search of new experiences. In *The Ambassadors*, it is mainly the realism of the intensified illusion of an intellectual missionary who searches for cultural transcendence in the light of Parisian life, the realism of the abstract laws and principles of the universal human experience. Yet, these features turn Strether's searching into a loose and intrusive job, for he should be perpetually anxious for more demystification and recognition.

E. The Good in Cultural Reflection

With Miss. Gostrey's re-arrival onto the scene in Book 3 chapter 2, yet a new phase of evolution starts in the American missionary's consciousness. He starts to dramatize the notion of "civilized behaviour" more artistically. For him, civilized behaviour is the possibility of invoking action to raise artistic faith to its maximum, the meaning of the ideal beauty of goodness. It is in this respect that one can gain material and spiritual salvage through the artistic objectification of his theme of life. Therefore, it is in search of civilized behaviour that James's character makes "a thousand flights and funny little passionate pounces" (James, 2003, p. 141).

And he is able to fulfil the requirements of his mission, for he is ultimately settled in the "final nest" of artistic creativity which is the ivory tower of formulaic recognition. He has already gone so far in this way, and the story shows him in the very remote realm of art the norms of which are not, in the fiction of James, so different from those of real life. He desires domination over language via the elixir of artistic vision, and he finds this artistic vision helpful enough in the ascension of his soul. Therefore, "civilized behaviour" is mingling artistic vision with the raw materials of life for the artistic solution of the riddles of life. If art re-enlivens the stale life and makes it bearable, "civilized behavior" is, with James's character, a process for defamiliarizing the insipid hollow life and exhilarating it.

The "ivory" and "brocade" that the American missionary sees signal his artistic vision. Yet, we are not familiar with the topography of this new level of his consciousness. He already sees himself 'in' the realm of art where he makes one-to-one relations with the "empire of things." Here his vision gets more enlarged till he will soon reach "the very innermost nook of the shrine" which is "as brown as a pirate's cave (James, 2003, p. 141). Here is the most private residence of his wondering imagination where he satisfies his curiosity to see life spirited to its maximum. This private pavilion is where the stretching hero of *The Ambassadors* has waywardly gone to see how the polygon of life can be generated by artistic means of cultural negotiation. Here is perhaps the hyper-realm of creative imagination, where Strether will disrespect the established lexicon and grammar, and will inaugurate the laws of a transcendental culture for the possibility of a notion of life that is as artistic as possible. However, he still seems to be in deep alienation from this artistic realm of life, and the things are not yet quite clear to him.

The story provides Strether with an agency that although speaks through his mouth, is out of his control. Now his consciousness has mustered all its powers to make the things into a cause of knowledge and recognition. Yet everything in his consciousness is only promptly determined. It changes him to a "man to whom things had happened and were

variously known" (James, 2003, p. 166), a man with the ability to read history in the form of a new narrative structure which yet can deconstruct itself. It shows him as the incarnation of subtlety and smoothness: "it had retouched his features, drawn them with a clear line" (James, 2003, p. 166). In *The Ambassadors* we do not read a story that wants to narrate or illustrate truth, but read the story of the transcendence of a truth-oriented consciousness that wants to be narrated. Strether is perhaps the Jamesian embodiment of the subtlety needed for the new American mind. If Woollettian tradition is rough and uncivilized, James's solution is that through the subtlety of our mind we can "make the future the real right thing" (James, 2003, p. 167).

But James mentions that if the American ambassador in Europe is to design a new mode for gaining cultural experience, he should also use the advantages of the "liberty taken with him" (2003, p. 141). Authority makes stasis via hindering innovation and promotion. The dominant conservative power keeps individuals from acting out their potentials and fulfilling their expectations, and so keeps them from the possibility of promotion and development. But if to guarantee cultural development we need departure from authority, departure itself needs freedom. Departure from authority to freedom in James is perhaps an application of Max Horkheimer's theory about the departure from "traditional theory" to "critical theory." In an essay published in 1937, he wrote "where traditional theory conceived of itself as 'stored-up knowledge', that is, a condensed description of 'the actual facts' of the present, critical theory sought to understand the social world as changeable thereby stripping reality of its character as pure factuality" (quod. in Milner and Jeff, 2003, p. 57). Strether's consciousness is the agency for upraising symbolic freedom in search of cultural experience via the application of creative imagination in the realm of art, because freedom guarantees the deconstruction of all taboos and the generation of supra-realities.

His imagination, which is now free from the stretches of language, allows him to synthesize things into formulas that he can use to demystify the most cunning riddles. His wondering mind is now a structure-making projection, for he can see a single man both as pagan and gentleman; for in paganism he sees something of a gentleman and in gentlemanliness he sees something of a pagan. His mind is the canvas on which "the painter of life" has mingled his impressions to produce opposite nuances and shades of meaning. Now the ambassador's free imagination is the realm where good and evil (or black and white) meet for synthesis and unification. His consciousness has already moved not only beyond the horizons of the usual mind but also beyond those of language. In the realm of his consciousness, the product of artistic creation is not opposition between good and evil but is a formula for compromise and mutual understanding.

In Gloriani's garden, when Gloriani shows "a fine worn handsome face" (James, 2003, p. 199) to the delegate, the condition of his mind is Parisian. His mind is a great source of inspiration; and he has mobilized all the capacities of his consciousness to grasp the utmost insight from this figure. He stands briefly face to face with Gloriani whose eyes are holding his looks. They are "the source of the deepest intellectual sounding to which he had ever been exposed" (James, 2003, p. 200). Now his consciousness is beyond ordinary condition, and he is capable to receive "the greater of the mysteries? ... the most special flare, unequalled, supreme, of the esthetic torch, lighting that wondrous world forever" (James, 2003, p. 200). His fancies are not hopeless, because this situation gives him a new light for deeper looks and more enjoyment. In the cumulative pot of his consciousness what is melting is the "illustrious spirit" of the universal man. To celebrate the experience of a transcendental consciousness, *The Ambassadors* gratifies a kind of relation that takes advantage of non-lingual materials also: the air of their sitting, the delicate room, the world outside, the First Empire; the matters far-off and quite near that are in the service of the relations between Strether and Vionnet.

Another non-lingual measure for the celebration of relations in his mind is the infiltration of history through it, for relations are both structure-making materials and the means for the explosion of his mind. His mind converts everything into a relation to the benefit of a cultural analysis of narrative for the vivification of his understanding. Such relations can profit by "a mass of things," by elements that are even external to his mind. His mind delves deep into the substrata of history and comes up to the surface again to establish a net of relations. For example, it changes a relic of the "First Empire" or an unbroken clasp on the hand of the woman living now into sources of relations. In every incident and situation he finds "relations and relations," like those between Chad and Vionnet, because structures, which both embody recognition and are the spaces of it, are the natural aftermath of relations. All these relations, and the numerous questions that Strether asks Vionnet, help him to get a handle on the situation. In this way, Vionnet is another source of relations for the American delegate. But true recognition for James's character and reader will emerge when they examine these relations and make them into well-made structural experiences.

In Book 11 chapter 4, the supremacy of the vocabulary of delay makes the narrative into a new source of cultural reflection and interpretation. The result of Strether's strange meditations over the nature of the relations between Chadwick Newsome and Marie de Vionnet is that he feels "verily, verily his labour had been lost" (James, 2003, p. 468). As the story approaches ending, their relations become the building-blocks of a new phase of this experiential construction, and his "spiritual stomach" grinds them up into materials of cultural revelation.

In this process of recognition, vagueness is natural and trial and error is elemental. So, the erected structure is not unlike when "a little girl might have dressed her doll" (James, 2003, p. 468): the effect of asymmetry, certitude versus possibility, positiveness versus vagueness. Strether has investigated the possibility in vagueness, and is feeling "the pity of its being so much like lying" (James, 2003, p. 468). Feeling lonely and cold, he decides to talk about these things perhaps only with Miss. Gostrey. Tomorrow, when he sees her, he asks her "what on earth – that's what I want to know

– had you then supposed?” (James, 2003, p. 468). Although he tries to suppose nothing about the relations of Chad and Vionnet, but his transcending consciousness is well out of his control, for he finds himself “supposing innumerable and wonderful things” (James, 2003, p. 468).

But what is the use of Strether’s visiting Vionnet? Although the story states what he imagines by visiting her, she wants to “set something right, to deal in some way with the fraud so lately practiced on his presumed credulity” (James, 2003, p. 476). The story offers no clear suggestion about their fraud or “eminent lie”. However, it is perhaps because of his credulity that he imagines “he could trust her to make deception right” (James, 2003, p. 477). The powers of the narrative produce in him a measure of fears and braveries, of art and innocence. But suspense is perhaps at the peak here, because soon he will get worried, for Vionnet will appeal to him to let her risk in telling him the truth.

F. “Touching Bottom”

When Vionnet asks the ambassador in a telegraph to see her and he presents himself to her, he is “mixed up with typical tale of Paris” (James, 2003, p. 472): on one hand, he likes her place and takes pleasure of seeing the picture there. On other hand, he feels a danger because there is an aching sense in him that “somebody was paying something somehow and somewhere” (James, 2003, p. 473). His idling, lounging, smoking, sitting in the shade, drinking lemonade, and consuming ices signify his mixed mind. Although he strikes himself “much as a loafer,” there are times when he can imagine himself “touching bottom.” A “historic sense” re-starts working in him, and he is again subjected to “sudden gusts of fancy,” while odd suppositions and divinations rush upon his consciousness. Hopes and omens are broken out for he notices the “smell of revolution ...or perhaps simply the smell of blood” (James, 2003, p. 475). This Parisian rural side provides him with what he needs for remolding his consciousness. But in the scene after that, when he visits Vionnet, his pleasures are destroyed because he realizes his great mistake: that he has been being ‘had’ by her.

However, the truth the ambassador discovers here erupts no volcano in his mind; and at the very end of the story, when Miss. Gostrey offers herself to him, his “only logic” is, as J. Hillis Miller (2005) says, the logic of “renunciation.” Miller argues that James often makes his main characters renounce a considerable often “sexual” offer to make it into a chance of reflection for the reader; that is, to give his reader an occasion to think about, and make a judgment on, the reasons, the outcome, etc. of the character’s renunciation. After mentioning cases of renunciation in different works of James like ‘The Aspern Papers’, *The Ambassadors*, and *The Wings of the Dove*, Miller claims that “in all these diverse cases the reader must pass judgment on the protagonist’s decisive, life-determining act, or one might better call it, death-in-life-determining act (p. 15).

And Miller’s idea is in agreement with James G. Moseley’s because, if, as the latter claims, “the essential story of the novel concerns the internal movement of Strether’s soul” (1975, p. 475), for appreciating the transformations or developments of his soul, the reader has to ponder why and how he reorganizes his feelings and values in Paris. This is to mean that if Strether’s act of renunciation has something to do with the relations between the word and the thing (or between language and life) in Parisian culture, to appreciate its meaning the reader has to do some critical judgments through consideration and interpretation.

Therefore, it seems that the meaning of Strether’s abstention is the necessity he feels for a new mode of reading and interpretation for cultural production. To speak for Foucault, it is not interpretation for “the slow exposure of the meaning hidden in an origin,” but interpretation which wants to be a means of a “violent or surreptitious appropriation of a system of rules, which in itself has no essential meaning” (qtd. in Scott, 1991, p. 796). This mode of interpretation wants to escape from essentiality and demolish conventional intelligibilities, because its ultimate intention is the production of relational and relativized experience through the enactment of a “deconstructive task of literature” (Scott, 1991, p. 791). Here ‘deconstruction’ is not only for annihilation but is for production also, for what Glenn Jordan (2014) terms “intellectual production” (p. 174), which he says is based on “dialogue, collaborative research, and co-production” (p. 175). In this way, Strether’s departure for America is perhaps the logic of the commitment which an intellectual feels for analytical reading, for a new mode of textually-based interpretive analysis as a means of cultural criticism in a society at the threshold of modernism.

Wayne C. Booth (1961) discusses how in Jamesian fiction, unlike in the works of other story-writers like Gustave Flaubert and Guy de Maupassant, “the illusion of reality” does not stay on the level of bodily senses but goes beyond it and reaches the level of mind. Booth argues that illusion in James is not to excite ‘laughter’ or ‘tear’, but is the “intensity of illusion, most often the illusion of experiencing life as seen by a fine mind subject to realistic human limitations” (p. 42). The intensification of “the illusion of reality” on the level of the mind implies that the Jamesian typical narrative provides appropriate spaces for the correspondence between fiction and reader, between the text and the world, for cultural revisionism.

Such cultural revisions in fictitious literature naturalize the compositional cultural reality, and make it legitimate, right, and pleasant to put up with. On one side, such a reality, virtual as it is in this stage, is complementary to the concrete reality. On other side, the supposed materiality of such a construction adds to the complexity of the “illusion of reality”, and makes it possible to understand only for a “fine mind”. Material as “the thing” is supposed to be, it is that which “implied the greatest number of other things” (James, 2003, p. 458). These Jamesian virtual realities of culture in narrative space cannot stand alienated from each other and from the non-textual realities, for they imply numberless relations with the outcome of the text where both kinds of reality can simultaneously be created.

These products of the intensified illusion of reality, which are crafted by the story-teller with as fine a mind as that of James, but which are enacted in analytical reading, are added to the treasures of “live culture” with the purpose of cultural revisionism in the capacities of literary texts like *The Ambassadors*. This is because such texts make the experience of reading, like life itself, replete with implication. Therefore, the production of such cultural relations between narrator, character (who talks to amplify the possibilities of the text), and reader (who interprets the text to produce new meanings and make new lives each time), is another feature of the multi-lateral art of story-writing in James as a space of cultural revisionism.

It is from this perspective that Booth claims James’s realism is different from other ones. He writes,

James began at a different place entirely, with the effort to portray a convincing mind at work on reality. Feeling as he did that the most interesting subject was a fine but “bewildered” mind dealing with life (pp. 63-64 and p. 66, for example), he was disturbed by Flaubert’s choice of stupid minds as centers of consciousness “reflecting” events. Emma Bovary as a reflector was for him clearly a mistake, and Frederic in *The Sentimental Education* represented an almost pathetic failure of insight, even a failure of mind in Flaubert himself (1961, p. 43).

Booth notifies us that James is concerned with a notion of the real as an outcome of a mind’s activity which is bewildered by the slightest change in the daily routine of life. Then he describes James’s realism as a “higher order” than in the fiction of the aforementioned French writers, for James “seeks the intensity of illusion rather than the illusory reality” (1961, p. 43). Booth reminds us of James’s appeal to a fervent and passionate illusion as “the ultimate test” (p. 43); that is, as the generator of the experience of cultural reality. For example, in Book 11 chapter 3 of *The Ambassadors*, James portrays a pavilion which, with all its paraphernalia, is realistic enough for Strether to go sit there for cultural reflection. He writes

It consisted of little more than a platform, ... Strether sat there and, though hungry, felt at peace; the confidence that had so gathered for him deepened with the lap of the water, the ripple of the surface, the rustle of the reeds on the opposite bank, the faint diffused coolness and the slight rock of a couple of small boats attached to a rough landing-place hard by. The valley on the further side was all copper-green level and glazed pearly sky, a sky hatched across with screens of trimmed trees, which looked flat, like espaliers; and though the rest of the village struggled away in the near quarter the view had an emptiness that made one of the boats suggestive. Such a river set one afloat almost before one could take up the oars – the idle play of which would be moreover the aid to the full impression. This perception went so far as to bring him to his feet; but that movement, in turn, made him feel afresh that he was tired; and while he leaned against a post and continued to look out he saw something that gave him a sharper arrest. (James, 2003, pp. 459-460).

Hanging over the water at the edge of the garden, the pavilion seems like a real one. And, the movement of the full stream, with its turns in short distances that brings it out of and into sight again, make his perception as concrete yet vibrating and transient as the clear water of the stream. His perception is now spontaneous and uncontrollable, and the things of the natural scene add to its power and immediacy, because as the impressions of different kind rush upon him, his subjectivity becomes more expanded. Under the influence of his radical perception, although he becomes frustrated in body, spiritually he becomes re-enlivened. Here the things of the natural scene excite him and us to absorb the uttermost impression we can take for the excitement of our consciousness. The interaction of illusion and reality is radical: the water conveys the greatest degrees of peace and confidence into our psyches; and we will, hereafter, register all these correspondences in the chamber of our consciousness.

III. CONCLUSION

Fiction as a space (for the production) of cultural experience has seemingly started with the work of the later Henry James. It has not only laid the theoretical foundations of fiction for cultural studies, but has also developed a full range of professional readership. In James’s work, the experience is the product not of the text alone but of a goal-oriented negotiation between text and reading.

In this way, James changed the text from something for consumption to something for reproduction in reading. For this magnificent purpose, he also helped the Victorian novel free itself from the ‘vulgarism’ of which it was in pain. In addition, the reader as responsible for the production of new experiences in James, implied that he should accept and acknowledge the presence of Jamesian character as a symbolic ‘other’, and that he should restructure James’s text in an in-between situation. This negotiation between the reader and the ‘other’ is perhaps the greatest privilege of fiction for the origination of cultural studies. For it means that the reader not only recognizes the limits of his own presence but also considers the space of the presence of the ‘other’. This in turn means that (in James’s fiction) the reader understands if and how he is different from the ‘other’.

Moreover, the reader of James’s later fiction defines the grounds, the issues, etc. on which he can come to terms with the ‘other’, as well as the intensity of his agreement with him. This extra performative privilege of (James’s) fiction makes it into a dimension of the modern liberal society where the typical man is often inclined to close his eyes to the norms and conventions and to peruse his salvation in a peaceful situation which goes on the hinge of mutual agreement through negotiation with the ‘other’ who is on the same boat with himself. This documentation of the experience of the other is the means of a politics of difference which is itself a guarantee not only of the evolution of the modern man’s consciousness but also his spiritual sanitation through interpretive analysis of the modern knowledge. At the same time,

the in-between space of semantic cognition in fiction makes experience into a phenomenological relative entity which is often prone to renovation in a process of revisionism.

In *The Ambassadors*, James exposes an American intellectual to the Paris culture to observe how he hugs “the evidence of experience” for the transcendence of his consciousness. Unable to easily free himself from the impacts of his Woollettian conventions, his consciousness firstly lingers a whole time on the borderlines of the two cultural spaces. Then, when he digs deep enough into the under-layers of Parisian language, he uses both the dialogic privileges of language and the operations of its structures for the intensity of his consciousness.

However, when James’s character realizes that not all experiences can emerge from language, it seems that the function of language gets nullified in his consciousness. Thenceforwards, as he will be attempting to make direct connections with the nature of things, he will gain thorough happiness through an artistic objectification of his theme of life. Toward the end of the novel, his close friend Maria Gostrey offers herself to him hoping that he will continue living there to esteem her pure affection. But when he decides that he will go back home (perhaps) to proceed with the outcomes of his European mission in search of cultural transcendence in art, we realize that the form and meaning of life have gotten embedded in him to let him touch the bottom of it, to stand in direct connection with creation itself.

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Ali Taghizadeh is an assistant professor at the English Department of Razi University of Kermanshah, Iran, where he has taught English Literature at graduate and undergraduate levels for 16 years. He has got a B. A. in English from Shiraz University and an M. A. in English from Tehran University. The title of his M. A. thesis is “The Archetypal Theme of Expiation in Six Major Novels of Thomas Hardy and William Faulkner: A Comparative Analysis.” He has also got a Ph. D. in “American Studies” from John F. Kennedy Institute for North American Studies of Free University of Berlin. The title of his doctoral dissertation is “Structuralism and Its Aftermath in the Fiction of Henry James.” „Novel“, „Literary Theory“, „A Survey of English Literature“, and „Literature in Linguistics“ are among the courses which he has usually taught. In the winter semester of 2014, he will start teaching a doctoral course: „Contemporary English Fiction“, while in the semester next to that he will start teaching, jointly with a colleague „17th-Century Poets“ as another doctoral course. The main research interests of Ali Taghizadeh are fiction, literary theory, narrative studies, literature in language, cultural studies. He has translated J. Hillis Miller’s *On Literature* into Persian, and has published some research articles both in English and in his mother tongue. He is the English editor of *Narrative Studies*, which is a research journal published by the Department of Persian Language and Literature of Razi University.

Appraisal Patterns in Chinese EFL Argumentative Essays

Guoyan Lv

School of Foreign Studies, Peking University, Beijing, China

School of Foreign Studies, Beijing Information Science & Technology University, Beijing, China

Abstract—Using the resources in Appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005), this paper contrastively examines a total of 124 Chinese undergraduate EFL argumentative essays in two dimensions: how two different essay topics initiate different evaluative patterns in EFL and L1 essays; what distinguishes EFL from L1 writers' evaluative language in argumentative essays. The corpus-based study reveals that though native and non-native writers display similar appraisal pattern in dealing with different essay topics, native speakers use more negative evaluative language to bring out potential contradictory points. The study suggests that EFL learners' deficiency in lexical proficiency, especially of those expressing negative and polarizing meanings may hinder their capacity in critical thinking involved in argumentative writing tasks. With effective teaching strategies, the enhancement of the lexical proficiency of evaluative language can boost EFL students' persuasive writing ability and their overall writing capacity.

Index Terms—appraisal, EFL argumentative writing, corpus, negative, lexical proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Research on evaluative language started in the late 1960s and has since attracted more attention from diversified scholars. They recognized evaluative items from different perspectives and frameworks, such as the 'evaluation' in narratives (Labov, 1972), 'evidentiality' in (Chafe & Nichols, 1986) and 'stance' across different registers (Biber, 1986; Biber *et al.*, 1989). In recent years with the swell of interest in corpus linguistics, there is a growing trend for annotating and abstracting such subjective or inter-subjective elements in corpus. Hyland (2004), based on a corpus of 160 book reviews across different disciplines, found that all academic genres are evaluative, especially book reviews, of which the book reviewer's evaluative language (praise and criticism) has a strong influence on the reputation of the book writer. This shows that the use of evaluative language plays a significant role in acknowledging the writer's subjective stance and sentimental states. Wiebe *et al.* (2005) clustered opinions, beliefs, feelings, evaluations and judgments under a general concept of private states, which are annotated in text according to three types of private state expressions, explicit mentions of private states, speech events expressing private states and expressive subjective elements.

However, the most systemic framework of evaluative language so far is the one established by Martin *et al.* (Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). This functional approach operates in three correlative domains: Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. And each category has its axes of values and dimensions of appraising items.

The purpose of the current paper is to use the above theoretical framework (Martin & White, 2005) to analyze the evaluative language in Chinese EFL essays. The focus of the study is on argumentative writing, for two reasons. First, this genre of writing has been the major writing task on China's College English level tests for both English major and non-major students. Second, argumentative writing requires the writer to take a position in discussing the issue given in the writing task prompt, and so the opinion-oriented essays are expected to be overtly marked with evaluative lexical items. As such, writings of this type reflect not only students' use of evaluative language but their critical way of thinking. One of the challenges that EFL writing teaching faces is how to balance the 'deep approach' and the 'surface approach' (Ramsden, 2003; Hood, 2004). The former is more focused on structural and lexical usages and the latter concerns with reasoning and critical analysis. Therefore, how these two approaches could be better incorporated is also contained in the purpose of the current study.

The present study investigates two main problems: first, how different essay topics initiate different evaluative patterns in EFL and L1 essays; second, what distinguishes EFL from L1 language users' evaluative language in argumentative essays.

II. THE APPRAISAL FRAMEWORK

The present study is conducted within the framework of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG). This theory considers language to have three basic metafunctions: ideational (our experience of the world), interpersonal (our social relationships), and textual (text production and reception) metafunctions (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Mathiessen, 2004). Our study deals with a key aspect of interpersonal function of language, which is the evaluative function of language. In this domain, the theory of Appraisal is concerned with how language users negotiate and express their inter-subjective positions in discourse. Martin and White (2005, pp.34-38) divides Appraisal into three subsystems: Attitude,

Engagement and Graduation. Among them, Attitude is about “our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgments of behaviour and evaluation of things” (Martin & White, 2005, p.35) and it is further divided into three categories--Affect, Judgment and Appreciation.

The dimension of Appreciation has to do with the attitudes about ‘things’ as apposed to ‘human beings’. It has two types, positive and negative. Since lexical items, such as *formal*, *new* and *old* display no obvious positive or negative value by itself, but depend on their surrounding lexical environment, the present study annotates words as such “neutral”.

The domain of Affect construes emotions, feelings, and has positive and negative types. Similarly, Judgment pertains to the attitudes toward human actions, behaviours or characters and it is subdivided into ‘social esteem’ and ‘social sanction’. These two systems are endowed with positive and negative values as well.

Engagement concerns how the evaluator indicates and the interpreters identify the relationship between the evaluator and the addressees in discourse. It operates from the dialogistic perspective, which has two subcategories: Contraction and Expansion. Under Contraction, proclaim and disclaim are subtypes; under Expansion, entertain and attribute are subtypes.

Graduation describes the measurement of Attitudinal or Engagement values through Force and category boundaries through Focus. The domain of Force is a means of grading Attitudes in two sub-domains, quantification and intensification. The items of Focus “sharpen or soften” evaluative attitudes (Martin & Rose, 2005, p.138). Focus in narrative genre display significantly different patterns in native and non-native spoken discourse. Since the present study targets argumentative written text, Focus is not much of our concern here.

The network of Appraisal is illustrated in the Appendix, along with the annotation schema employed in the current research. What is especially distinguished in the annotation of evaluative markers in the data is the differentiation of positive and negative values for the domain of Attitude, in which Affect, Judgment and Appreciation appraising terms are tagged differently as positive (Pos) or negative (Neg).

III. RESEARCH PROCEDURE

A. The Problem

The essays collected in the study were composed for the following two prompts, A and B as follows:

Prompt A (Education): *Some people simply see education as going to schools or colleges, or as a means to secure good jobs; most people view education as a lifelong process. In your opinion, how important is education to modern man?*

Prompt B (Internet): *Some people say that the Internet provides people with a lot of information and convenience. Others think that too much information creates problems and brings potential troubles. What is your opinion?*

The two prompts above seem to imply different orientations. In particular, prompt A, about education, seem to link education to either ensuring job security or self-improvement; neither carries negative coloring. Prompt B, about the internet, however, implicates two sides of the modern technology, one being positive and the other, negative. This may lead us to ask: do native and non-native speakers handle these two prompts differently based on the implication?

The raw data is classified based on two parameters: writer type (native, non-native) and essay topic (Education, Internet).

B. Data Collection and Annotation

The essays written by Chinese students were extracted from WECCL (sub-corpus of Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners), a corpus of 3,880 essays (1255, 347 tokens) written by EFL English majors (year 1-4) on 16 topics. The essays of native speakers written for the two prompts (Education and Internet) came from NESSIE (Native English Speakers' Similarly-and Identically-promoted Essays), which has a collection of 525 (12,000 words) essays.

The coding tool used in the study is BFSU Qualitative Coder 1.1 and the annotation is semi-automatically conducted based on the coding scheme in the Appendix. A total of 140 essays were coded with appraising annotations, of which 124 were written by third- and fourth-year Chinese college students, and 16 by native speakers. The limited number of native speakers' data is due to the fact that though NESSIE has a collection of over 500 essays by native students, the writings cover a wide range of topics. To make parallel comparison between native and non-native writings, this unbalanced proportion was taken into consideration through calculation on the scale of log-likelihood. As shown in table I, the coding produced more than 10,000 appraisal tags distributed differently in the 140 essays as follows.

TABLE I.
DISTRIBUTION OF APPRAISAL ANNOTATIONS

Essay Topic	Text Type	Number of Essays	Word count	Annotated Instances	Word Count per Essay	Annotated Instances per Essay
Education	Chinese (Y3, Y4)	63	19,412	4,150	308	65.87
	Native	11	5,126	1,103	466	100.27
Internet	Chinese (Y3, Y4)	61	19,900	4,054	326	66.46
	Native	5	4,840	810	968	162
		140	49278	10,117	/	/

As indicated in table I, the average number of appraising items annotated in the essays is around 65 in Chinese, and 100-160 in native texts; the latter is higher because native speakers on average produced essays longer than required and also longer than non-native speakers'. For both types of essays, a sentence, on average, has around 3-4 annotated items in the test data.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Distribution of Appraisal Patterns in EFL and L1 Essays on Two Subjects

Since the two essay topics are presumed to involve different focuses. The topic on education might invoke more positive elaboration while the one on the Internet may lead to more contradictory points. The annotated result is shown in table II.

TABLE II
SIGNIFICANT APPRAISAL DISTINCTION BETWEEN EFL ESSAYS ON TWO SUBJECTS

Annotation	Education	Internet	Log-likelihood ratio	Significance	
PosApp	800	653	18.77	0.000	+
PosSanc	90	54	10.01	0.002	+
PosEst	82	32	26.40	0.000	+
Intens	630	774	11.44	0.001	-
Quant	806	981	13.10	0.000	-

As seen in table II, the essays on education do demonstrate more positive evaluative markers than those on the effect of the internet. In particular, the use of positive Social Esteem (PosEst, LLR= 26.4, $p < 0.01$), positive Appreciation (PosApp, LLR=18.77, $p < 0.01$), and positive Social Sanction (PosSanc, LLR=18.77, $p < 0.05$) are all significantly more frequent than those on the topic of Internet. Yet the instances of Quantification and Intensification are prominently high in the elaboration on the Internet. Fig.1 clearly shows this pattern of difference.

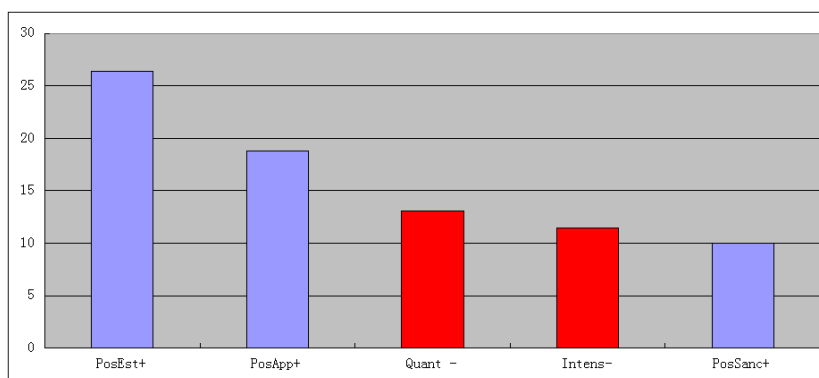


Figure 1. Significant appraisal distinction between EFL essays of two subjects

The result in Fig. 1 reflects the phenomena that as apposed to the Internet, students generally display a more obvious confirming attitude to education being a lifelong process. And that might explain why they use more positive terms for appreciating (annotated as PosApp) the role that education plays in their life. Also, the topic of education seems to involve more comments concerning people's esteem and sanction and that explains why the two domains of Judgment are both positively valued. The topic of the Internet, on the other hand, is considered to be more about social and technology development and so the system of Judgment is instantiated comparatively lower.

The second point worth mentioning is the frequency of the two variables in Graduation, Quantification and Intensification. Non-native speakers seem to use more Graduation terms in discussing the effect of the internet than education. This might have to do with the fact that when emphasizing the advantages of the development in technology, they tend to use more strengthening terms like *a lot*, *very much* and so on.

Quite Similarly, native speakers demonstrate an identical pattern in their argumentative essays to the EFL learners' essays as indicated in table III. In particular, the items marking positive Affect (LLR=24, $p < 0.01$), positive Social Esteem (LLR= 23.88, $p < 0.01$), and positive Appreciation (LLR=5.56, $p < 0.05$) in essays on education are all significantly more frequent than those about the Internet.

TABLE III.
SIGNIFICANT APPRAISAL DISTINCTION BETWEEN L1 ESSAYS ON TWO SUBJECTS

	Education	Internet	Log-likelihood	significance	
PosAff	47	10	24.00	0.000	+
PosApp	190	138	5.56	0.018	+
PosEst	49	11	23.88	0.000	+
Intens	176	102	15.92	0.000	+
Quant	188	128	8.28	0.004	+

Fig. 2 illustrates the distinction in a more straightforward way, in which prominently high frequencies of Attitude and Judgment appraisal terms are found in evaluating the role of education, while at the same time, the two types of Graduation (Intensification and Quantification) are used more often in essays about education than those about the effect of Internet; this is different from what is found in non-native speakers' data where Graduation appraising items are found more in essays about the internet as discussed above. This seems to suggest that when native speakers evaluate the role of education in a more positive term, they also highlight the role that education plays in one's life through using terms of Quantification and Intensification. In other words, they weigh the positive role of education much more than that of the internet. Chinese students' essays, however, show that they acknowledge the positive role of education, yet not so much as native speakers do, or at least not show its parallel weight in the lexis.

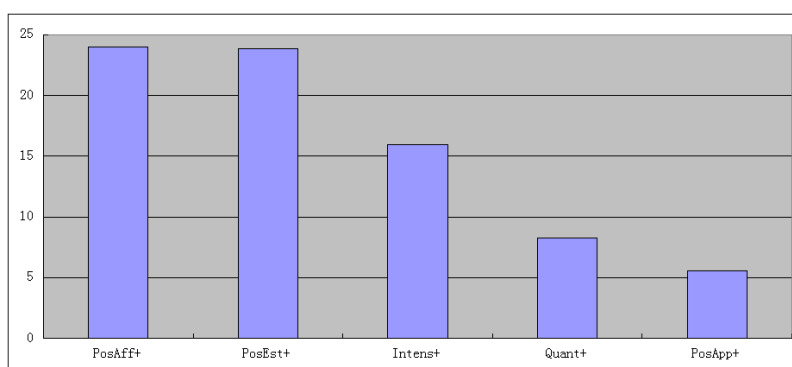


Figure 2. Significant appraisal contrast of EFL against L1 essays of two subjects

Based on tables II, III and Fig. 1, 2, a general pattern can be found that both native and non-native speakers use similar appraising patterns at least in the way they use positive terms when evaluating the role of education playing in people's work and life than about the effect of the Internet. This might correspond to the point made in Hyland (2004) that "praise" is quite global while "criticism" needs more contextual features. However, under this global praising attitude toward education, more distinctive patterns are revealed when we compare how EFL and L1 speakers deal with the same subject of essay.

B. Comparison of Appraisal Patterns in EFL and L1 Essays on Two Subjects

When comparing the appraisal patterns in native and non-native writings for Prompt A, about the role of education, things become more interesting. As illustrated in Fig. 3, Chinese college students seem to employ significantly fewer elements of evaluation about education in almost all the appraisal domains as compared with their native counterparts.

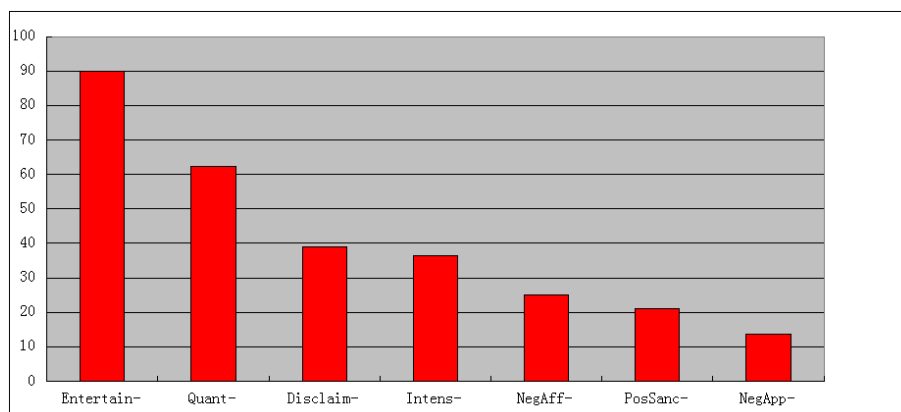


Figure 3. Significant appraisal contrast of EFL against L1 essays about Education

What seems to be reflected in the result in Fig. 3 leads to two assumptions. First, as discussed above, native and non-native speakers seem to employ similar strategies in confirming the positive role that education plays in people's life. Yet, as shown in Fig. 3, even standing in the identical argumentative position, Chinese college students seem to be

poorly armed with no sufficient evaluative “weapons” to defend their points. In other words, as Prompt A implies a positive theme surrounding the role of education, Chinese students would merely focus on the positive side of education, without setting up possible counter-arguments, initiating evaluating items in Disclaim, negative Affect, negative Appreciation or entertain potential oppositions. Another possible reason is that the insufficiency of lexical proficiency may have very much weakened their argumentative potency and may sometimes make them hard to substantiate their position and eventually blur the point they intend to make in essays.

As compared with Prompt A, the topic about the internet, seems to suggest contradiction by pointing out both the positive and the negative role of the modern technology; therefore, we may expect non-native speakers to invoke more negative-coloring evaluative items than that about education. And if not more, they would demonstrate a similar evaluative pattern with native speakers.

Fig. 4 shows that as compared with native speakers, Chinese students use more positive and confirming markers in Affect and Proclaim. At the same time, the two dimensions in Graduation, which are Intensification and Quantification, are also instantiated more frequently in Chinese essays. It seems that Chinese students tend to use a lot more Graduation elements than native speakers on the topic of Internet.

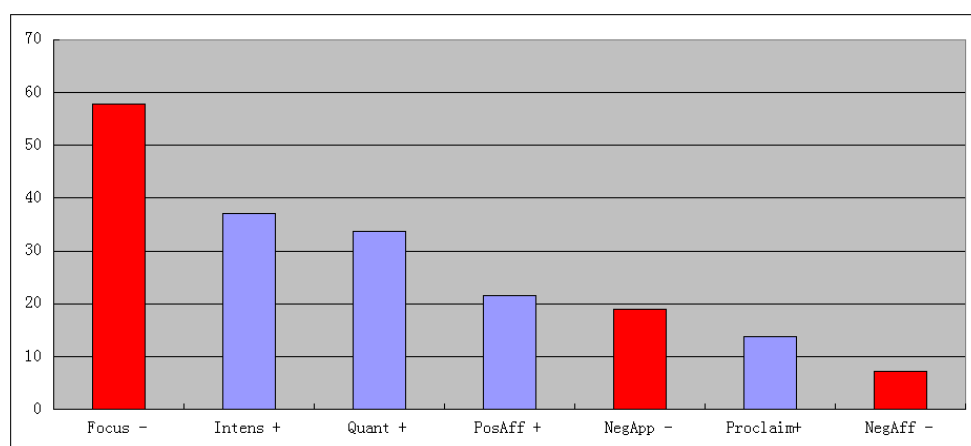


Figure 4. Significant appraisal contrast of EFL against L1 essays about Internet

Again, as illustrated in Fig. 4, negative evaluating terms of Appreciation and Affect are found less frequently in EFL than L1 writing. This partly confirms what is found in the previous discussion that Chinese speakers would stick to a one-sided argument, rather than establishing opposing positions, even when the prompt suggests a contradictory argument. This may also have to do with the fact that compared to L1 English writers, Chinese students generally hold a more positive attitude towards the effect of the internet. This explains why more positive attitudinal markers are noted in Chinese essays. When intensifying or quantifying those attitudinal markers, Chinese students tend to use simple emphasizing expressions, such as *really*, *truly*, or *so many*, as they consider them to be able to strengthen their argumentative points. In the same way, confirming terms, such as *I believe* and *I think*, showing positive Affect and Proclaim are used much more frequently than native speakers. This again, may have to do with their lack of critical skill of thinking and low vocabulary proficiency.

Native speakers, on the other hand, demonstrate a more conserved or even negative attitude towards the Internet, and that is why they use more negative appreciation items in their essays. And on top of that, the diversity of the lexical markers of negative appreciation is far greater than Chinese speakers. And this leads to the following hypothesis, that is, native essay writers generally use more negative evaluative items in their argumentation. and this is the very area where most Chinese students are weak in terms of their way of thinking and their lexical proficiency as well.

C. Combinatorial Comparison of Appraisal Patterns in EFL and L1 Essays

When combining all the appraising items for the two essays together, native and non-native speakers demonstrate a distinctive way of evaluation. The result in Fig. 5 confirms the above hypothesis that native speakers are distinguished in their use of negative evaluative items than non-native speakers. The evidence comes from two sides. First, on the side of non-native English writers, they tend to use more intensifying and quantifying items (as seen in Fig. 5), more than 1,700 instances of Quantification items such as *much*, *many*, *firstly* and *secondly*, and 1,400 Intensification items, such as *more*, *also*, *most* and *just*, in their short argumentative essays. These two categories account for around 38% of the total annotation instances in the Chinese essays. And the appraisal items with the second highest frequency are those marking the category of positive Appreciation which are also used more frequently than those essays by native writers. Taking into account the statistics of both Graduation and positive Appreciation markers, we can make the assumption that Chinese EFL writers employ more positive lexical terms along with scaling values to strengthen their point of view in their argumentative essays.

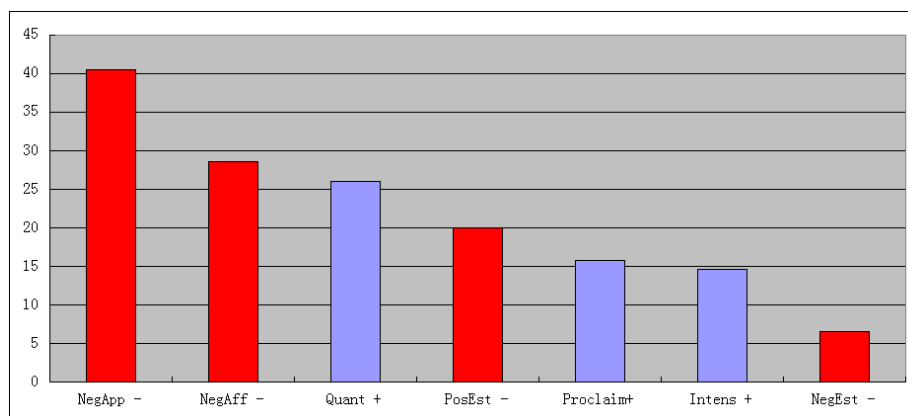


Figure 5. Overall significant appraisal contrast of EFL against L1 essays

For L1 writers, on the other hand, three of the domains in Attitude dimension: the Negative Affect (NegAff) and the Negative Appreciation (NegApp) and negative Social Esteem (NegEst), are initiated more frequently than EFL writers. This makes us believe that native speakers shows that critical way of thinking by instantiating opposing standpoints, introducing negative aspects to bring out more argumentative effect and to make the focal point more prominent. Also, native speakers demonstrate an obviously greater variety in their use of negative-coloring evaluating terms than Chinese language users as shown in table IV.

TABLE IV.
MOST FREQUENT NEGATIVE AFFECT AND APPRECIATION MARKERS IN L1 AND L2 ESSAYS

L2 negative Affect	L1 negative Affect	L2 negative Appreciation	L1 negative Appreciation
ignored (1) nightmare (1) suffered (1) complain (1) complaints (1) doubt (1)	neglect (2) disappointment (2) alienated (2) vulnerability (1) selfish (1) concerned (1) bothered (1) disappointed (1) despair (1)	negative (8) limited (4) cheated (4) disadvantages (3) harmful (3) difficulties (3) poor (3) decrease (3) hard (2)	problems (2) corruption (2) loss (1) mistake (1) wastes (1) shortcomings (1) estranged (1) inappropriate (1)
			problems (4) mistake (4) hard (4) diluted (2) danger (2) losing (2) defunct (2) erroneous (2) drawbacks (2)
			hardships (1) forced (1) limiting (1) inappropriate (1) irritating (1) redundant (1) outmoded (1) unauthorised (1)

The result in table IV raises two points of concern. The first point is that the lexical items with negative connotation used by native language users, such as *alienated*, *vulnerability*, *diluted*, *defunct*, and *drawbacks* are found in neither the fourth-year nor the third-year college students' essays in WECCL. What Chinese students like to use are words such as *complain*, *nightmare*, *disadvantages*, or *harmful*, all of which are not frequently found in native speakers' essays. This may have to do with the fact that though EFL students understand the meanings of the words used by native speakers, they have no idea about how to use them in their essays. This is what is suggested by Nakamaru who found that most multilingual writers' "biggest needs are lexical in nature" (Nakamaru, 2010, p.110). In fact, as found in Nakamaru (2010) and other research studies, many errors or inappropriateness including those in grammar or structure in EFL essays is the consequence of not knowing what words to use in expressing their ideas.

As mentioned above, the heavier negative coloring in L1 essays may have to do with their critical way of thinking. According to Atkin (1997), critical thinking is closely related to social frames, which means that people's approach to the outside world phenomena is greatly framed up by their social background and is very hard to remodel. This is confirmed by Peng & Nisbett (1999) who also consider that reasoning has different forms: Chinese reason in ways different from Western tradition of formal logic paradigm, that is: speakers of English tend to think in a more aggressive and polarizing way, yet Chinese would like to moderate extreme points and seem to lack of critique. Therefore, Westerners tend to push things to the extreme and generate counterarguments, whereas Chinese generally maintain a compromising position without making opposing propositions. Therefore, combing the points made above, we propose that lexical proficiency might bridge the gap between the two styles of thinking. This means that by building up a consolidated armory of both negative and positive evaluative "weapons", Chinese EFL students will be equipped with more power in creating counterargument construction and better defend their points.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was focused on the appraising items used in Chinese college EFL argumentative essays. It aimed to ascertain whether Chinese EFL college students employ distinctive evaluative strategies in handling different essay topics. It also targeted at comparing the patterns of evaluative language used in Chinese EFL and L1 essays.

The study has found that native and non-native writers of English display identical evaluative patterns in discussing different essay topics. Meanwhile it was also found that by using more negative appraising items, native English writers

generate counterarguments to produce stronger argumentative power. Chinese EFL writers seem generally weaker in this point, which was found to be related to their insufficient lexical proficiency, especially of those with negative connotation. This finding provides the implication for the teaching of EFL writing that sufficient attention should be paid to the lexicon rather than stressing too much on pedagogical effort on sentence or discourse structures of the essay. In the meantime, the critical way of thinking should also be promoted, which is also closely related to a writer's lexical proficiency, because it would be greatly narrowed if the writer's lexical proficiency is insufficient.

Finally, the current research is focused on lexical appraising items, yet appraising could also be invoked through other means, such as sentence structures or extra-linguistic items. It is also true that inscribed appraisal items are absent in a great deal of writings. In addition, due to the limitations of time and data, the findings leave a potential space for further research and investigation. Therefore, more comprehensive research studies on Appraisal theory based on a richer collection of writing data will bring more refreshing evidence and insights into the pertinent study in the future.

APPENDIX A. APPRAISAL SYSTEMS AND ANNOTATION

Appraisal Analysis Convention			Annotation
ATTITUDE	AFFECT		INCLINATION: long for, desire HAPPINESS: happy, pleasant SECURITY: together, confident SATISFACTION: absorbed, satisfied PosAff
			DISINCLINATION: fearful, wary UNHAPPINESS: sad, despondent INSECURITY: uneasy, anxious DISSATISFACTION: angry, bored NegAff
	JUDGEMENT	SOCIAL ESTEEM	NOMARLITY: lucky, fortunate CAPACITY: powerful, vigorous TENACITY: brave, loyal PosEs
			NOMARLITY: unlucky, hopeless CAPACITY: weak, sick TENACITY: timid, unreliable NegEs
		SOCIAL SANCTION	VEACITY: truthful, honest PROPRIETY: good, moral PosSanc
			VEACITY: dishonest, lying PROPRIETY: vain, arrogant NegSanc
	APPRECIATION		REACTION: engaging, exciting, splendid, enhance COMPOSITION: balanced, unified, pure, elegant VALUATION: profound, genuine PosApp
			REACTION: dull, boring, tedious, bad, repulsive COMPOSITION: unbalanced, contradictory, unclear, arcane NegApp
			VALUATION: shallow, fake
	ENGAGEMENT	CONTRACTION	DISCLAIM: no, never, yet, but Disclaim
			PROCLAME CONCUR: naturally, of course PRONOUNCEMENT: contend, the fact of ENDORSEMENT: show that, demonstrate that Proclaim
GRADUATION	EXPENSION		ENTERTAIN: perhaps Entertain
			ATTRIBUTE: argue, believe Attribute
	FORCE		QUANTIFICATION: few, many, huge Quant
			INTENSIFICATION: recent ancient, time/space adverbials, slightly Intens
	FOCUS: sort of, kind of, real, true		Focus

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Guoyan Lv was born in Tongliao, Nei Mongol, China in 1974.

She got her master's degree in Linguistics at San Diego State University, US in 2005.

She is currently studying in the School of Foreign Studies, Peking University, China. She will receive her doctor's degree in Linguistics in 2017. She teaches English courses at Beijing Information Science and Technology University. Her research interest lies in functional linguistics, cognitive linguistics and language teaching.

The Difference between Extrovert and Introvert EFL Teachers' Classroom Management

Simin Jalili

Department of Foreign Languages, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bushehr, Iran

Behdokht Mall-Amiri

Department of Foreign Languages, Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—This study was an attempt to investigate the difference between extrovert and introvert EFL teachers' classroom management. For this purpose, 30 extrovert and 30 introvert female teachers of Gatt Language Center (GLC) and Kish Language School in Tehran were chosen among 120 female teachers who filled in Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) and had more than three years of experience in teaching English and were willing to take part in this study after a briefing session. Then each teacher's class was observed by the researcher two times with one or two-session gaps in between, and Murdoch's (2000) Checklist was used to score each teacher's ability in classroom management each time separately. The total score for each teacher's classroom management was calculated based on the mean of values given to the teacher by the researcher from two observations. To find out the significant difference between extrovert and introvert EFL teachers' classroom management, an independent sample t-test was carried out. This study revealed a significant difference between extrovert and introvert EFL teachers' classroom management. It is found out that extrovert EFL teachers are better than introvert teachers at managing adult EFL learners' classes.

Index Terms—classroom management, extroversion, introversion

I. INTRODUCTION

Today most of the countries try to obtain sustainable development as the most important factor in improvement and success. The role of human resource and its development is crystal clear. So teaching the human force paves the way for reaching the goals of development in societies. Moreover, teaching can give people an equal chance to play role in shaping the society and reach their goals.

Teaching is an "art". It "is a profession—one with a long and respected history" (Tauber, 2007, p.13); it can be one of the most rewarding and at the same time one of the complex professions. As a multidimensional craft many factors can bring about success to it including classroom management. Dolye (1980, as cited in Yasar, 2008) states that classroom management is the fundamental task of teaching for creating the condition in that productive and competent construction can happen.

Many researchers suggest classroom management as one of the important factors which affects and facilitates learning process (Yasar, 2008). The ability of teachers to organize classroom and manage the behavior of their students is critical to achieving positive education outcomes (Emmer & Stough, 2001). So classroom management is the number one concern of teachers and the ability to improve harmonious and mutually respectful relationship with students is one predictor of who will stay in teaching profession (Barkley & Partin, 2009). Oliver and Reschly (2007) state that, "Effective classroom management requires teachers to be adept at employing multiple strategies and to be skilled at recognizing when current strategies are ineffective and modifications are necessary" (p.8). They also emphasized on the necessity of a systematic preparation and professional development for developing teachers' ability in classroom management in today's classrooms with various range of learners. Tauber (2007) noted that classroom management can be taught, but as it is a broad concept, these trainings usually are not sufficient. Although most teacher education programs now require some form of training in classroom management, there are some states that do not require any instruction in classroom management (Clement, 2010; Windshcilt, 2005).

On the other hand the single most important factor influencing students' learning and achievement is the teacher (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003). Some teachers are more successful in classroom management (Barkley & Partin, 2009), and as Martin (2004) restates, multiple factors affect teachers' ability to create positive environment. Beside experience, there are several other factors that affect teachers' classroom management abilities (Hicks, 2012). One of them among many, can be teachers' personality type.

In accordance with Parvin (1996, as cited in Rhodewalt, 2008) "Personality is the complex organization of cognitions, affects, and behaviors that gives direction and pattern (coherence) to the person's life. Personality consists of both structures and processes and reflects both nature (genes) and nurture experience" (p.1). Burruss and Kaenzig (1999) mentioned that Jung (1923) was one of the early leaders in the exploration of personality and is credited with

developing the constructs of extroversion and introversion. He saw human behavior or habits as patterns and attempted to understand and explain differences in personality according to those unique and variable patterns.

Thompson (2012) states that, "People span the spectrum of introversion and extroversion from a high preference for one or the other, to varying degrees of a balance somewhere in the middle" (p.6). He further mentions "The main differences that identify introverts and extroverts are the source of their personal energy, their sense of boundaries and their comfort zone" (p.6). Ischinger (2009) found the strong relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their personality. Personality is related to teaching efficacy and, as a result, to all three subscales (student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management) (Briers, Harlin & Roberts, 2007).

Teachers' personality type plays a role in classroom management. Teachers' knowledge about their personality type and as a result about their efficacy affects their ability in having different strategies in classes. Harris (1998, as cited in Shindler, 2010) believes that a teachers' personal style of teaching and classroom management can be affected by his/her personality because he/she has specific way to convert his/her personal style into an effective teaching behavior in accordance with his/her personality.

A. Classroom Management

Laslett and Smith (1993) mention that management is a skill in teaching through which all learners are engaged in learning process actively. They also noted "management emphasizes that learning and teaching are complementary activities. "Management is not a variety of techniques or external structures that you do to students. But rather, management is something accomplished with students in particular learning contexts" (Martin, 2004, p.420).

Throughout the history different definitions for the term of classroom management can be seen by various educators with different views. "It can be defined as a way of organizing the physical setting of the classroom, students, resources and the equipment so that effective and successful teaching and learning can take place" (Sakizli & Sarioben, 2006, p.13). "Doyle (1986) expressed the classroom management as actions and strategies that teachers use to maintain order" (Yasar, 2008, p.2). Classroom management is "a teacher's efforts to establish and maintain the classroom as an effective environment for teaching and learning" (Brophy, 1986, as cited in Yasar, 2008, p.10). Also we can see the broader and more comprehensive definition of this term "Martin and Baldwin (1992) believe that classroom management is all teacher efforts to oversee a multitude of activities in the classroom including learning, social interaction and students behaviors. Classroom management constitutes three broad dimensions; person, instruction and discipline" (Yasar, 2008, p.2). "At its best, classroom management is not only a means to effective instruction, it also becomes a vehicle for providing students with a sense of community and with increased skills in interpersonal communication, conflict management and self-control" (Jones, 1996, as cited in Martin, 2004, p.406). Adeyemo (2012) notes that, "classroom management is very important, and is the "heart of teaching" and paves the way for "exciting and dynamic experience" for teachers and students. Generally the aim of classroom management is to maximize students' engagement" (p.372).

Emmer, Sanford, Clements, and Martin (1982, as cited in. Marzano, Marzano and Pickering, 2003) reveal that, "poor management wastes class time reduces students' time on task and detracts from the quality of the learning environment" (p.4). Marzano, Marzano and Pickering (2003) mention that in poorly managed classroom, "Teachers struggle to teach, and students most likely learn much less than they should. In contrast, well managed classrooms provide an environment in which teaching and learning can flourish" (p.1) and can provide moving and lively learning experience for everyone involved (Kaliska, 2002). Effectively managed classroom is essential for building instructional program and also is vital for creating the atmosphere in which teachers and students have mutual respect and caring (Fisher, Hoover & McLeod, 2003). Due to vital effect on teachers, students and classroom procedures, classroom management has become an integral part of language teaching and learning process (Sakizli & Sarioben, 2006).

Marzano, Marzano, and Pickering (2003) in their book about classroom management indicate four aspects for classroom management. Those are: rules and procedures, discipline, teacher-student relationship, and mental set.

B. Classroom Management in the Past and Present Time

Yasar (2008) in his article compares the differences between new and past views to classroom management:

"Traditional approaches were mostly based on the behavioral principles and laws of learning. (Goffin, 1994). The child was often viewed as the recipient of knowledge and teacher had the control over the students and subject matter. As a result of behavioral approach to instruction, teachers preferred behavioral classroom management techniques that consistent with their way of instruction. The behavioral model requires strong intrusion and management techniques on the part of the teacher (Garrett, 2005). Teacher is the leading person and therefore, has the responsibility of all ongoing issues in the classroom; from students' motivation to misbehaviors" (p.2).

Teacher was a passive taker not an active giver and "and it does not allow for any space for change or any opportunity to think and make decisions" (Donuk & Sendan, 2009, p.1).

A shift occurred from behaviorist perspective to constructivist perspective (Donuk & Sendan, 2009). Yasar (2008) indicates the newer view to classroom management:

Over the past years, cognitive theories' reflections have been observed on education and the curriculum; and instruction has been affected by the principles of constructivist approach all over the world (Brophy, 1999). As stated by Elen, Clarebout, Leonard and Lowyck (2007), with the advent of constructivism, the educational settings have been enriched by the concept of 'student-centered learning environment'. This new concept is used to describe curriculum

and instructional settings in which students' learning activities take place. The student-centered orientation emphasizes the individual value of the student and attempts to help him develop more positive social - emotional aspects of his behavior. Classroom organization integrates student needs, interests, experiences, and personalization into learning activities. (p.2)

As a consequence, classroom activities have changed. Yasar (2008) also mentions to this change:

Classroom activities are designed to facilitate self-expression, to encourage consideration of the viewpoint of another, to increase creative acts, to develop purposeful listening and to encourage critical thinking. Student-centered learning environments may be in various forms. Bereiter and Scardamalia (cited in Elen et al., 2007, p. 1) for instance, distinguish between 'messing around', 'hands-on learning or guided discovery', 'learning through problem solving', 'curiosity driven inquiry', and 'theory improvement inquiry'. While student-centered learning environments differ in form and purpose, they also share common basic features. In most so-called student-centered learning environments learners are presented with an authentic task in order to induce relevant learning experiences. For instance, rather than presenting information on global warming to students in a lecture, students are asked to make a report on the changing weather conditions in their own region. (P.2-3)

Yasar (2008) also indicates that, "as a result of this change in the curriculum and instructional approaches, teachers should adapt their approaches to classroom management. Rogers and Freiberg (1994) suggest that such a shift requires teachers to adopt a student-centered rather than teacher-centered orientation toward classroom management" (p. 3).

C. Personality Trait

Personality traits are: "stable, inner, personal dispositions that determine relatively consistent patterns of behavior (including feelings and thoughts) across different situations" (Chamorro-Permuzic & Furnham, 2010, p.129-130). Chamorro-Permuzic and Furnham's (2010) idea is that personality traits cause people show similar behavior in different situations and also make the people's behavior different from the behavior of the others. So to understand personality traits we should understand and consider both the way people are different from each other and the way they are similar. Personality is the "real self" of each person, and defines the way people think and behave (Dai, 2008). "Personality traits are thus organizational constructs; they influence how individuals organize their behavior to meet environmental demands and new challenges" (Caspi, 1998, as cited in Costa & McCrae, 2006, p.98). We usually use the term of personality traits to explain others behaviors and also our own behaviors. It starts from a classification of fixed and observable patterns of behavior (taxonomy) to the expand to which people differ on these dimensions to predict variance in other observable behaviors, outcomes, or constructs like happiness, health, reaction time, or academic and job performance (Chamorro-Permuzic et al, 2005).

D. Dimensions of Personality

Eysenck (Big Three):

Eysenck (1947, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005) introduces three dimensional system for personality: extroversion-introversion (E), neuroticism (N) = emotional instability versus stability, psychoticism (P) = tough-minded antisocial and psychotic tendencies versus socialized humaneness = tender mindedness. Eysenck (1998) notes that, "It seemed to me that central to any concept of personality must be hierarchies of traits, organized into a dimensional system" (p.x). Zuckerman (2005) brought the theoretical definitions from Eysenck work in 1985:

E: sociable, lively, active, assertive, sensation seeking, carefree, dominant, surgent, venturesome (Eysenck, 1985, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

N: anxious, depressed, guilt feeling, low self-esteem, tense, irrational, shy, moody, emotional (Eysenck, 1985, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

P: aggressive, cold, egocentric, impersonal, impulsive, antisocial, unempathic, creative, tough-minded (Eysenck, 1985, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Haan:

Zuckerman (2005) mentions to Haan's (1981) factor analysis that he found factors which were the same at all age period:

Cognitively invested: Interest in ideas resembling one facet of Costa and McCrae's Openness to Experience factor (Haan, 1981, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Open/Closed to Self: resembling the broader factor (Haan, 1981, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Emotionally under/overcontrolled: aggressive, rebellious, and unpredictable at one extreme and emotionally guarded at the other. This resembles Eysenck's P factor (Haan, 1981, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Under/overcontrolled Heterosexual: Reflects control in the sexual sphere (Haan, 1981, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Nuturant versus Hostile: resembles the Agreeableness factor in the Big Five (Haan, 1981, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Block:

Block (2001, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005) states two factor theory of personality based on correlations with other major systems:

Ego-undercontrol/overcontrol: could be considered as impulsive.

Ego-resilience: could be considered as stable extroversion (high E, low N).

Gray:

Gray (1987, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005) has been a theorist in the field of psychobiological personality and an active researcher in comparative neuropsychology who has tried to work up from neurobehavioral studies on rats to human personality traits. He used Eysenck's as coordinates. He introduces three dimensions:

Anxiety: "is now conceived of as a bipolar dimension with anxiety disorders at one pole and psychopathic types, characterized by an abnormal absence of anxiety, at the other. Anxiety is high N, low E (introversion), and low P" (Zuckerman, 2005, p.19).

Impulsive: "defined as a dimension going from stable introversion and low P to high N, E, and P" (Zuckerman, 2005, p.19).

Fight-flight: "defined with the P dimension. People who are high on this dimension, have a strong unconditioned reaction to punishment or withdrawal of reward itself, however their reaction is aggressive or active avoidance" (Zuckerman, 2005, p.22).

Tellegen:

Tellegen (1985, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005) defines a three-factor dimension for personality which was similar to Eysenck's model with considering Costa and McCrae model. Here are the factors and their component subfactors:

Positive emotionality (PE): social potency, social closeness, achievement, and well-being (Tellegen, 1985, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Negative emotionality (NE): aggression, alienation, and stress reaction (Tellegen, 1985, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Constraint: traditionalism: control, and harm avoidance (Tellegen, 1985, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005).

Cloninger:

Cloninger is a biological psychiatrist and his trait model is based on psychobiological theory of personality (the same as Eysenck) but his scales were not developed items' factor analysis (Zuckerman, 2005). Cloninger developed sub trait or facet scales for each of major traits:

Novelty Seeking (NS): "1. exploratory excitability versus rigidity; 2. Impulsiveness versus reflection; 3. extravagance versus reserve; 4. Disorderliness versus regimentation" (Cloninger, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.24).

Harm Avoidance (HA): "1. anticipatory worry versus optimism; 2. Fear of uncertainty versus confidence; 3. shyness versus gregariousness; 4. fatigability versus vigor. It should be noted that subscales 1 and 2 resemble N scales in other tests, whereas 3 and 4 are usually measures of E in other models. Thus, HA might be expected to correlate with E as well as N in other tests" (Cloninger, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.24-25).

Reward Dependence (RD): "1. sentimentality versus insensitivity; 2. Persistence versus irresoluteness; 3. attachment versus detachment; 4. dependence versus independence: Note that persistence; regarded as a fourth trait of temperament is listed as a subtrait of RD, but later analyses showed it to be independent of the RD dimension" (Cloninger, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.25).

Self-directiveness (SD): "1. responsibility versus blaming; 2 purposeful versus goal undirected; 3. resourcefulness versus apathy; 4. self-acceptance versus self-striving; 5. congruent second nature" (Cloninger, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.25).

Cooperativeness (C): "1. social acceptance versus intolerance; 2. Empathy versus social disinterest; 3. helpfulness versus unhelpfulness; 4. Compassion versus revengefulness; 5. pure-hearted versus self-serving" (Cloninger, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.25).

Self-transcendence (ST): "1. self-forgetful versus self-conscious; 2. Transpersonal identification; 3. spiritual acceptance versus materialism" (Zuckerman, 2005, p.25).

Goldberg:

Goldberg (1990, 1994, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005) extends analysis using a broader sample of trait relevant adjectives and many analysis on Big Five that originated by Fiske (1949), Tupes and Christal (1961), Norman (1963), Cattell (1957).

Extraversion or surgency: "talkative, extraverted, verbal, bold, and assertive, versus shy, quiet, introverted, untalkative, and bashful" (Goldberg, 1990, 1994, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.26).

Agreeableness: "sympathetic, kind, warm, helpful, and considerate versus cold, unsympathetic, unkind, harsh, and rude" (Goldberg, 1990, 1994, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.26).

Conscientiousness: "organized, neat, systematic, thorough, and efficient versus disorganized, careless, unsystematic, inefficient, and sloppy" (Goldberg, 1990, 1994, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.26).

Emotional Stability: "unenvious, relaxed, unemotional, unexcitable, and undemanding versus moody, temperamental, jealous, touchy, and envious" (Goldberg, 1990, 1994, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.26).

Intellect or Openness to Experience: "creative, imaginative, intellectual, philosophical, and artistic, versus uncreative, unimaginative, unintellectual, unintelligent, and simple" (Goldberg, 1990, 1994, as cited in Zuckerman, 2005, p.26).

Costa and McCrae:

The Five-Factor model has been greatly accepted as a satisfactory classification of personality traits. (Costa & McCrae, 2003):

Neuroticism (N): anxiety, angry hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, vulnerability (Deary, Mathews, & Whiteman, 2009; Zuckerman, 2005). Neuroticism "represents the proneness of the individual to experience

unpleasant and disturbing emotions and to have corresponding disturbances in thoughts and actions" (Vestre, 1984, as cited in Costa & McCrae, 2003, p.46).

Extroversion (E): warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement-seeking, positive emotions (Deary, Mathews, & Whiteman, 2009; Zuckerman, 2005). Extroversion "concerns differences in preference for social interaction and lively activity" (Costa & McCrae, 2003, p.46).

Openness (O): fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, values (Deary, Mathews, & Whiteman, 2009; Zuckerman, 2005). Openness "refers to receptiveness to new ideas, approaches, and experiences" (Costa & McCrae, 2003, p.46).

Agreeableness (A): trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, tender-mindedness (Deary, Mathews, & Whiteman, 2009; Zuckerman, 2005). Agreeableness "is seen in selfless concern for others and in trusting and generous sentiments. Low Agreeableness (or Antagonism) is tough minded and hardheaded. Although agreeable people are nicer than antagonistic people, antagonism, too, has its virtues" (Costa & McCrae, 2003, p.46).

Conscientiousness (C): competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, deliberation (Deary, Mathews, & Whiteman, 2009; Zuckerman, 2005). Conscientiousness "Highly conscientious people are dutiful and self-disciplined, but also ambitious and hardworking, sometimes to the point of being "workaholics." Men and women low in Conscientiousness are easygoing and less exacting with themselves or others" (Costa & McCrae, 2003, p.46-47).

Jung's (1923-1971, as cited in Costa & McCrae, 2003) theory of psychological type was the foundation of many studies and Jungian attitude of introversion and extroversion became famous. Although psychoanalytic theory has little influence on modern specific psychology, the initial difference between extroverts and introverts would preserve in most psychometrical proved theories in personality (Chamorro-Permuizic & Furnham, 2005).

E. Extroversion

Extroversion is "attitude-type characterized by concentration of interest on the external object" (Jung, 1989, p.394). As Canli (2006) infers, some people are famous for their laughter, the party is wherever they are, they attract people, social contact is valuable for them, they enjoy good times whenever they are with other people, even while they are in a room with strangers, they can be the best friend for them. These people give meaning to the concept of extroversion. Each person is different from others in emotional reactivity and these differences depend on their personality; some studies reported extroverts report positive experiences than introverts, so extroversion relates to positive affect (Costa & McCrae, 1980, as cited in Canli, 2006). Deary, Mathews, and Whiteman (2009) point out that, extroverts have tendency to use problem-focused coping strategies that help them to have high self-esteem and to cope with life events effectively.

Depue (2006) believes that in accordance with structural work in personality, interpersonal nature of extroversion is not unitary, but it includes two independent higher order traits. Those are Affiliation and Agency. Affiliation reflects taking pleasure and valuing close interpersonal ties, and being warm and friendly and loving. Agency reflects social power of control and pleasure of leadership roles, assertiveness, and a subjective sense of efficacy in fulfilling goals.

Extroversion refers to high activity (arousal), tendency toward social behavior, assertiveness, the experience of positive emotions, and impulsiveness (Busato, Prins, Elshout, & Hamaker, 2000, as cited in Chamorro-Permuizic & Furnham, 2005). Extroversion can be defined both in broad senses and in narrow senses. Zuckerman (2005) states that, the narrowest one is limited to sociability and the broad one includes different subtraits.

Hogan (1982, as cited in Chamorro-Permuizic & Furnham, 2010) expresses the dimensions of extroversion as sociability, ambition, likability, adjustment, prudence, and intellect. He divided extroversion into two main subcategories: Sociability and Ambition. So some extroverts may have tendency to experience positive effect, be sociable, and like other people's company, on the other hand some extroverts may be dominance, self-confident, and leaders.

F. Introversion

Introversion is "Attitude-type characterized by orientation in life through subjective psychic contents" (Jung, 1989, p.369).

Introversion is "an innate temperament beginning at birth that reveals itself in a collection of preferences in behavior" (Thompson, 2012, p.6).

Introversion as Helgoe (2008) expresses is not explained by lack, it is a wellspring of riches. Introversion is defined as a preference and they prefer a rich inner life to a vast social life, talking with a close friend to sharing stories in a group, developing their ideas internally to interactively. They keep their best things inside until it is ready. She also notes that introverts mostly feel anxious. They could not think spontaneously but they are good thinkers when they are still and unmoving. They prefer to follow an inner guide. The time that they feel invasion, they automatically turn off to protect their central sources. At this time they could not access themselves, and they may feel that they have to practice extroversion, go underground, or go crazy (2008).

Burruss and Kaenzing (1999) indicate that many introverts have the ability to learn to appear as extroverts while it is needed. Some training through instruction and practices of speaking in public, debate, drama, music, social skills, etc. could help them to wear the extroversion mask when necessary. Introverts usually hide their inner worlds and do not permit other people go into them, this issue guide others to make a lot of decisions about introverts and their needs.

Introverts prefer spacious interactions with fewer people. They can become the carriers of family and societal problems. They put less value on what is outside and spend less energy there; so their tendency toward inside should not

mistakenly considered as phobia or problem. They should be recognized, if not, they will face problem soon (Helgoe, 2008).

Broadly speaking Helgoe (2008) emphasizes that introverts are different group of people who look at life from the inside out; they gain energy and power through inner reflection, get more excited by ideas than by external activities; in conversation they listen well and expect others to listen well to them, they think first and then talk; they hold the ability to step back, be calm, and get perspective, they like writing because they can express themselves in this way. They may have lots of people around but they take their own path. Solitude is the source of power for introverts and they prefer to spent some of their times alone as an alternative to people and competition. Also Thompson (2012) believes that introverts have positive attributes, they are good at listening, planning, concentration on tasks for a long time, uninterrupted period of time, taking time to think, focusing, and they can act independently. Introverts try to be perfect in school, keep all negative feelings inside and then take them home and express talk to the person they trust – usually their moms (Silverman, 2012).

G. Classroom Management and Teachers' Personality Traits

It is more than 65 years that teacher personality has been an area of interest in educational and psychological researches. Teacher personality has been noticed as a possible prominent factor in effective classrooms (Thomason, 2011), and since 1943 researchers were asking, “what are the personality traits of a successful teacher?” (Thomason, 2011, p.22). Thomason (2011) states that these personality researches bring the opportunity for teacher to have better understanding about themselves and their roles in classroom communications. This understanding may cause impetus for change and adaption. Harris (1998, as cited in Shindler, 2010) indicates that each teacher has his/her own exclusive personality which is the origin of the specific teacher’s personal style of teaching and classroom management. Although we may call classroom management style originates from attitudes and pedagogical choices, in the field of personality, each teacher can discover a way to translate his/her personal style into an effective teaching behavior.

For having successful teachers with satisfactory ability in classroom management, factors such as personality type, that influence this ability may need to be taken in to consideration. This study attempted to determine if extroversion/introversion in teachers plays any role in their classroom management. In other words, the researcher intended to reveal if there is any significant difference between extrovert and introvert English teachers in their ability in classroom management. Accordingly, the following question was raised.

- Is there any significant difference between extrovert and introvert EFL teachers’ classroom management?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were 60 female EFL teachers (30 extroverts and 30 introverts) who were teaching adult language learners in Gatt Language Center (GLC) and Kish Language School. They all have more than three years of experience in teaching English. They were chosen among 120 teachers who answered the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) and were willing to participate in this study. The learners they taught had different language proficiencies.

B. Instrumentation

In order to conduct this study, the following instruments were used.

Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI):

The EPI is “a questionnaire to assess the personality traits of a person” (Eysenck et al, 1985, as cited in Dibah & Marashi, 2013, p.547). It was devised by German psychologists Hans Jurgen Eysenck and his wife B.G Eysenck (1964). This questionnaire “initially conceptualized personality as two biologically-based categories of temperament which include extroversion/introversion and neuroticism/stability. This huge validated test consists of 57 Yes/No items” (Dibah & Marashi, 2013, p.547). EPI has two parallel forms (A and B) (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964). “Those who fill out the EPI receive three different kinds of scores: the E score which is related to how much extrovert a person is, the N score measuring the neuroticism, and the Lie score which tries to measure how socially desirable a person has wanted to prove to be. The E score is computed out of 24 since it consists of 24 items, the N score is out of 24, and the Lie score is out of 9” (Dibah & Marashi, 2013, p.547). As there is a negative correlation between E and N (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964) and according to many researchers who proved that questionnaires of neuroticism measure the same personality quality as introversion questionnaires (Bernreuter, 1934, as cited in Eysenck, 1998), N score measuring the introversion. Based on Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) “test-retest reliabilities of EPI are between 0.84 and 0.94 for the complete test and between 0.80 and 0.97 for the separate forms” (p.15).

The Yes/ No answers “should be given based on the usual way of acting or thinking of an individual” (Dibah & Marashi, 2013, p.547). 15 minutes were allocated for answering this questionnaire.

Murdoch’s (2000) checklist:

To evaluate the teachers’ classroom management in the process of this study, Murdoch’s (2000) checklist was used. It had been prepared for observing language teachers (Brown, 2000, as cited in Marashi & Zaferanchi, 2010). This checklist has 54 items each followed by four values from 1 to 4 (4=excellent, 3=above average, 2=average,

1=satisfactory) and N/A meaning not applicable. It contains three parts: Part A is ELT competences including 24 questions, part B is general teaching competences including 10 questions, and part C is teaching competence including 20 questions. As this instrument is very detailed and some parts were not directly related to the variables of this research, classroom management and the teachers' personality type, the 30 questions which are related to variables considered in this study were extracted.

The total score was calculated based on the mean of values given to the teachers by the researcher from two observations.

C. Procedure

To conduct this research a briefing session was arranged for the teachers who teach adult classes at all levels at Gatt Language Center (GLC) and Kish Language School. The researcher ensured the teachers that the results of the EPI and the observation sessions would be used merely for the research purpose and that they would not be considered by the language school administration, and no intervention on the side of the observer would take place in their classes. 120 teachers who were interested in taking part in this study were enrolled. Then the EPI was given to all of them. After extracting the data from EPI, teachers who had less than three years of experience in teaching English and also teachers who obtained 5 and more in lie score of EPI were omitted from the study. In accordance with the result of this questionnaire, extrovert and introvert teachers were distinguished. Thirty extrovert and thirty introvert teachers were chosen.

Observation was the main technique of collecting data in this research. The researcher observed each of the 60 teachers' classes twice. Muijs and Reynold (2001, as cited in Mrashi & Zaferanchi, 2010) argue that to have effective observation, using some kind of standard instrument which enables the observer to note what he/she means to observe, is needed. So the researcher used Murdoch's (2000) evaluation checklist. To eliminate the influences of atmosphere, time and teacher's mood, the same classes with the same students and level, at the same time, and with just one or two sessions in between were observed. Ultimately, the obtained mean of the two observations for each teacher was taken into the final calculations.

D. Design

In this study, a descriptive, ex post facto design was adopted. The aim of the study was to investigate the difference between extrovert and introvert EFL teachers in classroom management. Personality trait, with two modality (extroversion and introversion), was taken as the independent variable, and classroom management as the dependent variable. Teachers' age and proficiency level may possibly act as intervening variables.

E. Statistical Analysis

For doing the statistical procedure to verify the research hypothesis, the researcher used both descriptive and inferential statistics. The first statistical procedure was to conduct a series of descriptive data analyses consisting of mean, median, standard deviation, and standard error of mean. To investigate if there is a significant difference between extrovert and introvert EFL teachers' classroom management, an independent sample t-test was used.

III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

To compare the classroom management of the two groups of teachers, a t test had to be applied. But, firstly the assumption of normality of distributions was checked. The following table shows the descriptive statistics that contains information on the skewness of the distribution of the scores.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHERS' CM SCORES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
Extroverted teachers	30	90.50	106.00	99.1333	4.08093	-.294	.427	-0.688
Introverted teachers	30	73.00	100.50	86.1833	7.20809	.122	.427	0.285
Valid N (listwise)	30							

As table 1. shows, the skewness ratios for the two groups of scores are within the normality range of ± 1.96 , hence the normality of both distributions. The following graphs visually show how the scores were distributed:

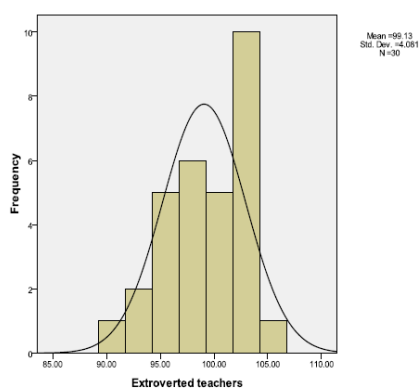


Figure 1. Histogram representing distribution of the scores belonging to the extroverted teachers

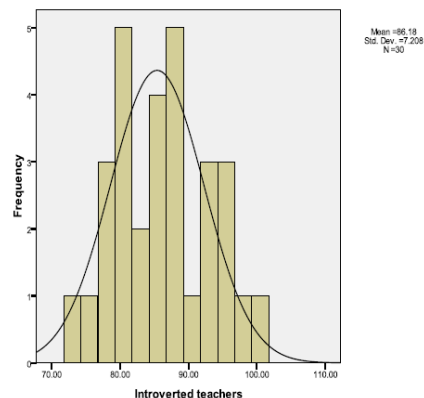


Figure 2. Histogram representing distribution of the scores belonging to the introverted teachers

A. Testing the Hypothesis

As table 1 depicts, the extroverted teachers obtained a higher mean score on their classroom management. To see whether the difference is statistically significant or not a t test was applied. The following table shows the result:

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES 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	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
class management	Equal variances assumed	8.926	.004	8.563	58	.000	12.95000	1.51229	9.92282	15.97718
	Equal variances not assumed			8.563	45.859	.000	12.95000	1.51229	9.90567	15.99433

As shown above, the variances were not homogeneous in the two sets of scores ($F=8.92$, $p=.004<.05$) as the second assumption for t test. Therefore, in the second row in the table titled Equal variances not assumed is applied. Here, it is shown that the difference was significant ($t=8.56$, $p=.000<.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of this research is rejected, with the conclusion that extroverted EFL teachers were significantly more successful in classroom management, as determined by tokens stipulated in the observation checklist, than introverted teachers. The following graph visually depicts the means of the two groups of teachers:

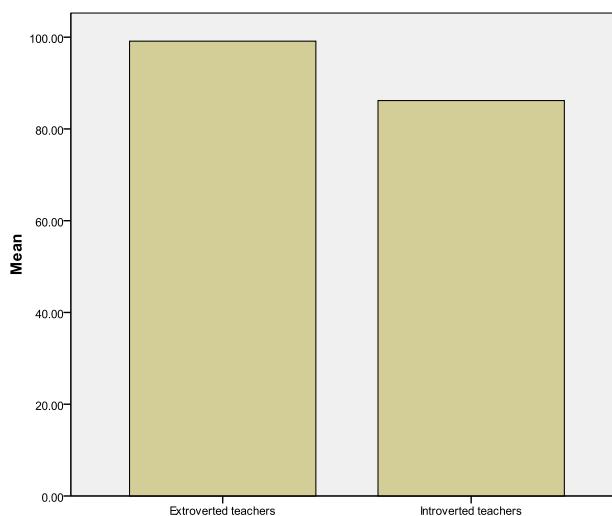


Figure 3. Bar graph representing the CM means of extroverted and introverted teachers

B. Discussion

Based on the outcome of this study, there was a significant difference between extrovert and introvert EFL teachers in managing their classrooms effectively. It was revealed that, extrovert teachers could manage their classes more effectively compared with the introvert teachers.

The significant difference between teachers' effectiveness in managing classrooms with two different personality types and obtaining a higher mean score by extrovert teachers indicated that extrovert teachers can be more effective classroom managers for adult learners. They are more successful in managing their classroom in comparison with introvert ones.

The key element in classroom is a teacher who both teaches new subject matter and provides an atmosphere for students to bloom by his/her effective classroom management. Many factors affect teachers' effective classroom management, one of them is teachers' personality trait (Thomason, 2011). Teachers are both extrovert and introvert. However, teachers with higher level of extroversion are more effective (Rushton, Morgan & Richard, 2007, as cited in Thomason, 2011). It is because of the tendency that they have toward the social interaction, and that they interact well with their students (Thomason, 2011). It is proved that effective teachers have better organized classrooms and face less behavioral problem and intrusion (Yasar, 2008). Extrovert teachers usually apply student centered courses and classrooms. They prefer interactive discussion, group project, and experiential learning. Extroverted teacher tended to employ the facilitator teaching styles. The extroverted teacher often used guiding and directing the students by asking some questions, building the personal relationship with the students, designing some activities to encourage the students to develop their confidences, and always involving the students in teaching learning activities. In this ways, the teacher was influenced by her personality as an extroverted teacher (Jensen, 1987, as cited in Ningrum, 2009).

IV. CONCLUSION

Improving learners' achievement is the paramount concern of all teachers and also is the goal of teaching. Applying proper and suitable classroom management style could enhance teaching and learning outcome. Moreover teachers' personality affects their attitude towards teaching and learning process and their classroom management style. Considering teachers' personality trait, they are both extrovert and introvert.

The outcome of this study showed that extrovert teachers and introvert teachers are significantly different in managing their classes effectively. The analysis of the collected data revealed that extrovert teachers are better classroom managers.

Although some studies suggest that introvert teachers are loved by hyperactive students and could control and help them to do their class work in quietness (Little, as cited in Bloom, 2013), extrovert teachers due to having social interaction, perform a better relationship with adult learners (Thomason, 2011). Extrovert teachers apply students-center courses and introvert teachers apply teacher-center courses (Jensen, 1987, as cited in Nigrum, 2009). In this study the observations of thirty extrovert and thirty introvert teachers' classes indicated that introvert teachers focus on discipline more. On the other hand extrovert teachers try to increase learners' autonomy, they are more creative, active and energetic, convey their enthusiasm to the learners, have more lively classes, have more group work, engage learners in class activities, and are aware of every event in their classes. All in all they are superior in managing adult classes and obtaining the goal of teaching.

Pedagogical Implications

The finding of this study has shown that extrovert teachers are more successful in managing their classrooms as determined by the criteria specified in Murdoch's checklist. Taking the above mentioned supremacy for extrovert teachers in classroom management into account could bring positive results. Extrovert teachers are more sociable and have convenient interaction. They ensure learners that the class is a safe and confident place, engage all learners in the class activities, and at the same time they are aware of every single event in the class. In such a class that is managed by an extrovert teacher, due to teacher's role as a facilitator, a well-managed class, a beneficial teacher-students relationship, engaging learners in teaching-learning process and having the sense of belonging, learners will participate more in class activities eagerly. Besides, observation sessions made clear that classes with extrovert teachers were more active, and lively; in those classes teachers were enthusiast to the topics and as a whole to the teaching, and conveyed their enthusiasm to their students. So in extrovert teachers' classes mostly there was joy among students and they were interested in the context and class activities, as a result they enjoy learning a foreign language. Therefore, ensuring the centrality of the learners' attention, the classroom atmosphere could be more effectively controlled and oriented towards the objectives of the lessons.

The result of this study could have implications for teachers, teacher trainers as well as syllabus designers. The following sections touch upon these implications.

Implications for EFL Teachers

Teacher's ability to manage the classroom effectively is crucial to enhance positive learning outcomes. Although a good classroom manager is a teacher who uses the specific techniques and skills for managing the classrooms in teachers' training courses (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003), classroom management skills are taught in teacher training courses are sine qua non, they are not per se adequate.

As previously mentioned, extrovert teachers are more effective in classroom management; teachers' personality trait affects teaching-learning process. First of all it is essential for teachers to be aware of their personality trait to understand themselves and their roles in teaching-learning process. Then they can take advantage of observing extrovert teachers' classes and discuss after classes about the techniques they used and try to apply successful ones in their teaching. Also whenever introvert teachers face a problem, they can ask their extrovert colleagues for their help and guidance. It could be beneficial for teachers to try to pretend as an extrovert teacher and replicate their techniques in classroom management namely being active, alive, sociable, preferring group works, having satisfactory teacher-student relationship, transferring their eager to students, and creating a friendly, safe, and positive learning environment to improve students' learning.

Implications for Syllabus Designers

When the importance of classroom management in effective teaching is crystal clear and the teachers' personality trait is proved to affect teachers' classroom management ability, indubitably reconsideration of teachers' training courses would be essential. After and while preparing student teachers with required skills during training courses, syllabus designers and administrators should design the program in which extrovert student teachers are asked to have more demos and presentation in those sessions to model good classroom management and hence assist introvert ones.

Teaching some classroom management skills to teachers in pre service training courses is essential, but it cannot prepare teachers completely for all the challenges they will face in their classes (Ischinger, 2009). So alongside pre service training courses, it is beneficial that administrators and syllabus designers design in service training courses and programs this may include the observation of other extrovert teachers, providing conferences and meeting in which teachers could explain their problems and extrovert colleagues could share their experiences.

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Simin Jalili holds on MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University Bushehr Science and Research Branch and has been an English teacher in Gatt Language Center (GLC) in Tehran since 2009. She is particularly interested in teaching adult learners and doing research on the learning, psychology and personality traits of adult EFL learners and EFL teachers.



Behdokht Mall-Amiri is Assistant Professor of TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran. She has published several articles in domestic and foreign academic journals. She is specifically interested in research areas related to translation, cognitive and learning styles, motivation, and program evaluation.

Unknown Vocabulary Items and Reading Comprehension Tests: Comparing With-assistance and Without-assistance Performance of Iranian Students

Farhad Mazlum
Maragheh University, Iran

Fatemeh Poorebrahim
Maragheh University, Iran

Sarvar Chekani Azaran
Fatima al-Zahra Technical & Vocational Higher Education Center, Maragheh, Iran

Abstract—One common concern of Iranian students in taking final English exams is the existence of several unknown vocabulary items in reading comprehension section. Students often argue that not knowing the meanings of such items negatively affects their performance. The purpose of this study was to see if providing test takers with L1 equivalents of the unknown vocabulary items would affect/enhance their reading comprehension level. Two passages were selected, each containing six multiple-choice items. Following Day and Park's (2005) categorization, the first two items aimed at literal, the second two involved reinterpretation, and the last two were inferencing type of comprehension items. Forty nine students took the test twice. The first time they answered the questions without asking for the meaning of the unknown word. During the second administration, they were allowed to ask for the meanings of the unknown vocabulary items. Statistical analyses of data showed that 'telling' L1 equivalents of the unknown items led to a statistically significant difference. Further analyses, however, revealed that teacher assistance had significant effects on students' performance on inference questions but not on their performance on literal and reinterpretation items. The potential reasons for the findings are discussed first. The findings, then, are used to argue that the commonly-held view by the students is only partially valid.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, reading assessment, comprehension questions

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is believed to be one of the essential skills students acquire or learn. Whether learning to read in their first (L1) or second (L2) language, students go through a host of complicated processes in order to gain literacy in that language. Such processes are complicated simply because reading is a dynamic interaction between the reader and the text. According to Aebersold and Field (1997), in an attempt to understand a text, learners turn to a wide range of skills, strategies, first language knowledge as well as world knowledge, etc. In a similar vein, Egbert (2005) lists the main variables that come to affect students' reading comprehension in L2 or foreign language (FL). In the list, vocabulary knowledge, first language, background and world knowledge, skills (i.e. top-down and bottom-up) and strategies are highlighted. Although these variables influence L2 reading comprehension collaboratively and interactively, this study deals largely with the role that vocabulary knowledge plays.

Vocabulary Knowledge and Reading Comprehension: An Overview

The contribution of vocabulary to reading comprehension—whether in L1 or L2—has been one of the key issues in several outstanding studies. Grabe (1991), for instance, considers vocabulary knowledge as the prime predictor of reading ability. For similar reasons, Nation (1990) lays emphasis on vocabulary instruction in L2 reading classes. Similar arguments have been raised by Chanier and Selva (1998) as well as Groot (2000). There are also numerous studies that provide empirical estimation of the number of words learners need to know in order to effectively handle the text and comprehend it. For example, Grabe (1991, as cited in Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003) argues that, "...fluent L2/FL readers need to know about 2,000 to 7,000 words and sometimes even more if they want to reach native-like fluency". For Groot (2000), understanding academic texts requires mastery of at least 7,000 words. Constantinescu (2007, p.2) holds that, "L2/FL readers need to recognize approximately 95 per cent of the words in a given text in order to comprehend its meaning and they need to know the different meanings of words according to context, as well as words' grammatical properties".

The inter-relationship between students' vocabulary knowledge and their reading comprehension has been demonstrated in a good number of studies (e.g. Baumann, Kame'enui & Ash, 2003; Becker, 1977; Davis, 1942; Whipple, 1925). The interconnectedness of these two seems axiomatic since knowing more words in a text will naturally enhance one's comprehension of that text. Of course, it should be noted again that a set of equally important factors are at play when a reader struggles to arrive at an understanding of a text. Vocabulary knowledge, however, is one of these important factors. Researchers (e.g. Hart & Risley, 2003; Snow, Barnes, Chandler, Goodman, & Hemphill, 2000; White, Graves, & Slater, 1990) believe that without an acceptable vocabulary proficiency students are more likely to feel frustrated during the reading experience. Such students are also expected to avoid reading altogether. This, in turn, means less involvement with texts and consequently an underdeveloped vocabulary repertoire.

In a nutshell, the number of words a student knows directly affects his reading comprehension proficiency. Good readers with richer vocabulary repertoires are more successful, efficient, and functional and vice versa.

There are two important questions when the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is examined: 1. What does it mean to *know a word*? 2. What level of reading comprehension are we concerned with? (Is it literal, reinterpretation, or inference?)

What does it mean to *know a word*?

There is no consensus over the definition of 'word', nor is there an agreement over what 'knowing' a word. Opinions vary considerably; however, it is generally accepted that knowing a word is not limited to its dictionary definition or what it looks or sounds like. According to Miller and Gildea (1987), to know a word one needs to go beyond knowing it by sight and sound or its dictionary definition; it also entails the correct use and comprehension of it when encountered in different contexts and modes.

For Nagy and Scott (2000), knowing a word is a multi-faceted process. First of all, it is incremental, which means frequent exposures to a word and in different contexts are needed so that L2 learners learn it. Second, since a good number of words have different meanings (e.g. bank) in different contexts, word knowledge is multidimensional. Finally, due to the fact that the knowledge of a given word is related to other words, word knowledge is interrelated. All this led scholars such as Beck and McKeown (1991) and Nagy and Scott (2000) to argue that to know a word is a matter of degrees and not an all-or-nothing question. The precision and speed with which one uses and understands a word in different modes and for different purposes are reflections of his knowledge of that word.

Word schema is also considered as yet another element of word knowledge. Word schema is defined as a network of knowledge related to a given word (Nagy & Scott, 1990). It consists of both linguistic (e.g. knowledge of roots) and semantic knowledge. Finally, Johnson, Johnson, and Schlicting (2004) argue that knowing a word requires the ability on the part of L2 students to appreciate its connotations. Word knowledge at this level enables students to use and understand slangs and jokes.

Levels of reading comprehension ability

There have been fundamental changes in theories and models of reading ability and process. No longer is reading seen as a receptive, passive process of 'from text to reader'. Rather, it is nowadays viewed as an interactive and dynamic process between the text and the reader (Adams, 1990; Stanovich, 1992). Such a change in reading theories and models came to affect classroom practices too.

Reading comprehension proficiency is evaluated through different measures and tests. L2 students are generally required to read a text and answer its comprehension questions. Day and Park (2005) introduce six types of comprehension questions and refer to five forms of questions used to engage students in these six types of comprehension questions. The six types of comprehension are *literal comprehension*, *reorganization (reinterpretation)*, *inference*, *prediction*, *evaluation*, and *personal response*.

Literal comprehension questions ask for a simple mapping of the item with the text since they target understanding of the straightforward meaning of the text, such as facts, dates, times, and locations. In the second category, the understanding of the whole passage is evaluated. In other words, students need to be able to put sporadic pieces of information in the text together and answer the comprehension question. Questions asking for inference are usually more challenging—intellectually rather than linguistically—since the answers cannot be found somewhere in the text. Not only students need to combine the information scattered throughout the text, but they also need to turn to their common sense and intuitions. In many cases, students need to work out the implications of the text which is a much more demanding task compared to the first two. As for prediction, readers need to combine their understanding of the passage, their own knowledge and experiences to predict what will happen next or at the end. When readers are required to evaluate a text, they make judgments based on their global understanding of the text and their own knowledge. Finally, when readers provide their personal responses to a text, they express their feelings (e.g. likes and dislikes) and reactions to the content of it.

Day and Park (2005) also mention five forms of comprehension questions. All five forms can be applied to all six types (or levels) of reading comprehension to some extent. Their questions forms include: *yes/no questions*, *alternative questions*, *true/false items*, *Wh-questions*, and *multiple-choice questions*. There are, of course, other possible question forms as well; e.g. fill-in-the-blanks or cloze. Day and Park (2005); however, believe that they are suitable for 'assessing' and not 'comprehending' purposes.

II. THE PRESENT STUDY

A. Aims

The purpose of the study was to investigate if providing L1 equivalents of unknown vocabulary items affects or enhances Iranian EFL students' performance on different reading comprehension questions. This purpose was followed with two important points in mind: (1) Throughout this study, unknown vocabulary items mean 'the words for which a student asks for meanings in her L1 just because she does not know their meanings or the meanings appropriate in the texts'. (2) It was intended to see if providing L1 equivalents of unknown vocabulary items would affect/enhance Iranian EFL students' performance on different reading comprehension questions. Additionally, the aim was to see which level of comprehension (literal, reinterpretation, inference) is affected significantly by providing the readers with L1 equivalents.

Bearing these points in mind, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is no relationship between giving L1 equivalents of the unknown vocabulary items and Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension ability.
2. There is no relationship between giving L1 equivalents of the unknown vocabulary items and Iranian EFL students' performance on literal, reinterpretation, and inference reading comprehension questions.

B. Instruments

Two reading comprehension passages were selected. Six multiple-choice items followed each passage. The first two items aimed at literal comprehension, the second two involved reorganization/reinterpretation comprehension, and the last two were inferencing type of comprehension items (Appendix 1). This order was carefully taken into account in both texts.

To determine the appropriate level of the texts, the passages were sent to fifteen English teachers in Maragheh. Based on their feedback and evaluation, it was decided that the passages matched high school second graders in Iranian education system. It should be noted that the tests were piloted first and the basic assumptions of the instrument were taken care of.

C. Participants

Forty nine high school students took the test in two high schools. They have been studying English for three years before for four or three hours a week. These second graders know Azerbaijani Turkish and Farsi well. Seven students' data were not taken into data analyses due to incompleteness and carelessness of their responses.

D. Procedures

As went earlier, the reading comprehension test of the study contained two passages. Each passage had six multiple-choice items. The students took the test twice. At the first stage, the students read the passages, chose the best option, and marked it on their first answer sheets. The teachers were sure that there were some unknown words in each passage. They, however, wanted the students not to ask for the meaning of unknown words and, instead, try to go on with their own English knowledge repertoire. The students were not informed that there was a second—yet different administration—of the same test. The students' first answer sheets were gathered at the end of the first stage.

During the second stage, the students were given the second answer sheet and they were required to answer the same questions. The students were informed that they were free to ask for the meanings of the words they did not know. The teachers walked around and provided the students with the meanings or L1 equivalents of the words students did not know. The second stage took a shorter time since the readers were all familiar with both texts in general. The Farsi or Turkish equivalents given suited the contexts of the passages. The respondents' second answer sheets were collected at the end of the second stage.

III. DATA ANALYSES

Paired t-test was applied to compare the means of the students on the same test. The first null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, the comparison of students' means seems to suggest that there is a relationship between 'giving L1 equivalents' of unknown vocabulary items in a passage and students' reading comprehension ability. Briefly then, the difference between two means (mean 1 = 9.68; mean 2 = 11.06) is statistically significant at .05 level. Table 1 below shows the results of paired t-test analysis.

TABLE 1:
PAIRED SAMPLE TESTS

		Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper				
Pair 1	VAR00001 - VAR00002	-1.37500	2.61201	.46174	-2.31673	-.43327		-2.978	31	.006

To answer the second research question, three sets of paired t-tests were conducted. It was intended to find out which level of reading comprehension was affected most or least. In other words, students' means on literal, reinterpretation, and inference items on two administrations were compared to see which levels of reading comprehension were affected more. Table 2 gives a summary of students' means on different comprehension questions in two administrations. It should be noted that the mean differences for literal and reinterpretation item types were statistically insignificant while it was the opposite for inference items.

TABLE 2:
STUDENTS' MEANS ON DIFFERENT READING COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS IN TWO ADMINISTRATIONS

	Literal	Reinterpretation	Inference
Students' mean in administration 1	5.62	2.75	1.31
Students' mean in administration 2	5.5	3.25	2.25

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Findings suggest that providing test takers with L1 equivalents of unknown vocabulary items helps them in their second taking of the same tests. As a result, students' concerns and complaints need to be addressed in one way or another during test construction. Several points need to be made, however.

First and foremost, a cursory look at table two shows that teacher assistance has had different effects on different levels of reading comprehension ability. Students' means on literal comprehension items showed a decrease, though quite slight. This was surprising since it was expected to observe an increase in students' means and not the opposite. Was it due to the test takers' tardiness and carelessness when they--for the second time--got engaged in 'mapping' the test items with the text (which Day and Park claim to be less demanding cognitively and intellectually)? Did they encounter fewer 'new words' pertaining to literal comprehension questions and subsequently not benefited the opportunity they had while taking the test again? What is of no doubt is the fact that questions aiming at literal comprehension of texts were less subject to the effects of teacher assistance during the second administration.

Second, students' means on reinterpretation items showed an increase during the second administration. The increase, however, is less than that of inference category. More specifically, it is 0.5 for the first whereas 0.94 for the latter. This seems to indicate that teacher assistance—as defined in this study—is more helpful with comprehension questions asking for inference that are more challenging cognitively (Day & Park, 2005). It might be argued that unknown words contribute more to the complexities and difficulties of going beyond text and working out intended meanings. This seems to stand to reason since English learners with limited capacities tend to rely heavily on linguistic features in general and hardly exploit contextual and co-textual clues and information when encountered with a task (Jenkins, 2006). Participants of this study were beginning English learners and were more likely to lack the capacity to make use of contextual and co-textual information and infer intended meanings. Thus, providing L1 equivalents of unknown words led to more increase in students' means on inference questions compared to reinterpretation (reorganization) items simply because teacher assistance meant easing co-textual challenges inherent in inference questions. Teacher assistance for reinterpretation items, nonetheless, meant further support with an area they were already good at, i.e. exploiting linguistic knowledge.

Third, and as went above, despite an overall statistically significant increase in students' mean in second administration, mean increases were not significant for the first two categories (literal, reinterpretation) but it was significant for the last. In other words, the mean difference on reinterpretation questions was not statistically significant (Sig.: 0.08), though there was an increase between two administration. This is a further support of the above argument that teacher assistance and providing L1 equivalents of unknown words during the second administration benefitted students in tackling inference items more than the other two. The mean difference pertaining to inference items appeared to be statistically significant (Sig.: 0.005). Hence, this last significant difference is the major predictor of the overall results of this study indicating that teacher assistance with inference items contributed more to the overall findings of the study.

Fourth, table two is revealing in another important respect. The sharp and remarkable decline in students' means as the comprehension items move up in terms of cognitive demand and intellectual sophistication provide some support for both Day and Park's (2005) and Nuttall's (1996) arguments that type 3 items are more difficult (intellectually rather than linguistically) than types 1 and 2. As comprehension items get more and more challenging and demanding, students' means get lower and lower. This holds true in both administrations.

Iranian high school students often complain about unseen reading comprehension passages that contain some unknown words. They also tend to attribute their inefficiency or lackluster performance to the existence of these unseen words. It is a common practice among these students to raise their hands and ask for the meaning of the words they call 'unseen' and complain about since they believe that the unknown words impede their comprehension. The findings of this study appear to suggest that such an argument is only partially valid. It seems that unknown vocabulary items do not bring about comprehension problems when students' comprehension of a given test is measured by literal and reinterpretation (reorganization) questions. This is so because teacher assistance did not result in statistically significant differences in two administrations.

Teacher assistance during the second administration helped with significant improvements of students' performances on inference questions. As a result, students' arguments and concerns about the negative role of unknown words in their performances on reading comprehension tests are justified and well-grounded. More important is the following key question: Why teacher assistance helps less with the first two comprehension items but (significantly) more with the last one? The potential reasons were discussed above.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

A common belief among some students is that when they are given unseen reading comprehension tests that contain unknown vocabulary items, their comprehension ability is affected negatively yielding to a lower score. The results of this study seem to suggest that such an argument should be viewed vis-à-vis comprehension levels that different questions target. When students' comprehension of a text is measured with questions asking for inference-making, unknown words and vocabulary items seem to play a role. But if comprehension questions tap literal and reinterpretation levels, the existence of unknown words seem not to exert the negative effects students assume they do.

More importantly, since Iranian high school students in general are beginning English learners, they tend to process text information in a bottom-up manner (Jenkins, 2006). Accordingly, they are dependent on linguistic information and are less likely to exploit co-textual and contextual information. Therefore, lower level comprehension questions (e.g. literal and reinterpretation) favor their information processing style and better results emerge whether teacher assistance is there or not. Higher level comprehension questions which ask for making inference prove more demanding since bottom-up processing does not help. This time teacher assistance seems to play a more helpful role when students lack sufficient means to overcome difficulties.

Drawing hasty conclusions about a highly illusive, complex, and inaccessible process such as reading comprehension is not sensible. There are many variables affecting the so-called 'psycholinguistic guessing game' simultaneously and in complex ways. The readers' background and subject/topic knowledge, their cultural knowledge and their knowledge of the language (including phonological, orthographic, morphological, syntactic and semantic, discourse-level knowledge), L1 knowledge, the relationship between the first and target languages at all linguistic levels, text type, organization, genre, vocabulary repertoire, motivation... are among the factors that have been shown to play roles in reading process (Alderson, 2000).

The results of this study, therefore, need to be interpreted cautiously and quite carefully. All test takers were female, sharing the same L1, i.e. Azerbaijani Turkish, and knowing a second language (Farsi). They were not randomly selected. As far as the comprehension items are concerned, they were all multiple-choice items. To get a better indication of reading comprehension ability of the students, Alderson (2000) argues that using different techniques and methods of assessment is necessary. All this calls for caution in terms of how much generalizable the research findings are.

APPENDIX

Read the passages and mark the right answer on your answer sheet.

Last week, Rahman's wife Leila had an accident. Rahman's youngest child, Yusof, was at home when it happened. He was playing with his new car. His father had given it to him for his third birthday the week before.

Suddenly the little boy heard his mother calling 'Help! Help'. He left his toy and ran to the kitchen. The poor woman had burned herself with some hot cooking oil. She was crying with pain and the pan was on the fire.

Rahman had gone to his office. Both the other children were at school. The youngster was too small to help his mother and she was too frightened to speak sensibly to her son, but he ran to a neighbour's house and asked her to come and help his mother. Soon she put out the fire and took the victim to the clinic.

When her husband came home, Leila told him what had happened. Of course Rahman was very concerned about his wife, but was also very proud of his sensible son. 'When you are a man, you will be just like your father,' he said.

1. What was Yusof doing? He was

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| a. eating | b. playing |
| c. helping his mother | d. calling the neighbour |

2. What did the neighbour do? She

- | | |
|--|---|
| a. asked Yusof to speak sensibly in clinic | b. made a fire and took Leila to the kitchen |
| c. took Leila to the clinic | d. was too frightened to help Yusof and Leila |

3. How old was Yusof?

- | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|
| a. 6 | b. 5 | c. 4 | d. 3 |
|------|------|------|------|

4. How many children had Rahman?

- | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|
| a. 1 | b. 2 | c. 3 | d. 4 |
|------|------|------|------|

5. Why was Rahman proud of his son? Because

- | |
|--|
| a. his son could have helped his mother sensibly |
| b. Rahman was very concerned about his wife |
| c. Rahman's son was just like Rahman |
| d. his son had helped the neighbour quickly |

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Farhad Mazlum was born in Maragheh, E. Azerbaijan, Iran in 1975. He has done his BA, MA and PhD programs in TEFL/TESOL in Teacher Training University, Tehran. He is currently the Head of English Department and has been teaching different courses at MA level in Maragheh University. He has published papers in 'the Curriculum Journal', 'Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics', 'Journal of Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran', and 'Taiwan International ESP Journal'.

Fatemeh Poorebrahim was born in Maragheh, E. Azerbaijan, Iran. She is a faculty of English Department in Maragheh University. She has been teaching different courses at BA level in Maragheh and Shahid Madanie Azerbaijan Universities. She has published papers in 'Iranian EFL Journal' and 'Taiwan International ESP Journal'.

Sarvar Chekani Azaran was born in Maragheh, E. Azerbaijan, Iran. She teaches general and ESP courses in Fatima al-Zahra Technical & Vocational Higher Education Center and Payame-Noor University of Maragheh.

Investigating the English Writing Strategies Used by Chinese Senior High School Students*

Guobing Liu

Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, China

Abstract—The present study mainly reports the writing strategies which employed by Chinese senior high school students. It aims at: 1) finding out what writing strategies the student writers used and how frequently the student writers use these strategies in their writing; 2) whether the employment of writing strategies varies with gender difference; 3) what relationship between writing strategy employment and writing proficiency is; and 4) to what extent the first language exerts an influence onto the second language writing. The empirical investigation, by taking use of a questionnaire and a writing test, was carried out among 98 subjects chosen from Grade two at the Attached Middle School of Henan Normal University. Several major findings have been found. Apparently, the student writers used different types of writing strategies with a high frequency; the patterns of writing strategy employment between groups of male and female student writers were different. A significant difference had been found between the male and female students: when compared with male student writers, female employed higher English writing proficiency, had stronger motivations and clearer attributions of their unsatisfactory writing performance, and performed writing strategies much better. Frequency of writing strategy use varied with different writing proficiencies. Both high-level students and intermediate-levels employed more writing strategies than the low-level ones, while there was no significant difference in their frequency of employing writing strategies between high-level students and the intermediate ones.

Index Terms—senior high school students, English writing strategies, use

I. INTRODUCTION

The New Standard of Senior High School English in China points out that the aim of middle school English teaching is to develop students' listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities from different aspects. English Writing, as one of students' key language outputs, is a good reflection of students' overall proficiency of English language learning (Poltz & McGroarty 1985; Leki 1992; O'Malley et al. 2006; Perl 1980). Nowadays, Chinese students', especially Chinese middle school students' English writing has been a hot topic that draws much attention of many English researchers and English teachers. And many people believe that the present situation of students' writing in China is far from satisfactory (Zhou 2010). The teaching of English writing in senior high school also allows of no optimism. At the Attached Middle School of Henan Normal University, where the researcher worked there almost for ten years, we found that a lot of senior high school students show little interests in English writing. Therefore it is very difficult for them to get high scores in the writing part of examination. And we also found that the teaching methods of writing used by many teachers in class are relatively less effective. Sometimes the students show high interests in English studies, teachers seem to pay little or even no attention to their strategies in the process of writing. To some extent we can conclude that the students use fewer strategies in their everyday writing especially in the examination (Rubin 1987; Richards et al. 2006). So it becomes a very important task for Chinese English teachers and researchers to improve the present situation of writing teaching in middle school.

Some people believed that the use of relevant language strategies will help students to improve their language proficiency and achievement in the process of learning (Bremner, 2009; Brooks & Grundy 2008; Krapels 1990; Seliger 1984; Wesche 2007). Therefore, this research was conducted, on the basis of the data collected from 98 second-year students at the Attached Middle School of Henan Normal University, to investigate what kind of writing strategies and how frequently the student writers use these strategies in their English writing; whether the employment of writing strategies varies with different gender; how writing strategy employment and writing proficiency related with each other; and to what extent the first language (L1) produces an influence on the second language (L2) writing.

By observing students what strategies they have used and how to use the writing strategies, we expect this study will help senior high school students know some writing strategies and develop students' writing abilities. What is more, this study is expected to give some suggestions and solutions for the reform of middle school English teaching. Last, we hope that the situation of English writing teaching in China's high schools will be promoted.

II. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

* This research was supported in part by the Project of National Social Science Fund (Project No.: 14BYY084) and the Ministry of Education in China under the Project of Humanities & Social Sciences (Project No.: 12YJC740062).

A. Subjects

This empirical study involved 98 in total senior high school students, selected from grade two at the Attached Middle School of Henan Normal University. They were second-year students enrolled in the 3-year program of the senior high school education. All the subjects were in normal classes at approximately the same proficiency level. The sample was narrowed down from 100 to 98 after the investigation through questionnaire, because two students did not answer their questionnaires properly: one just left out dozens of items in the questionnaire and the other chose more than one answer to one item. So we don't think it will be valid data to our research. The age of the students ranged from 16 to 18, and there were 45 male and 53 female students in the sample.

TABLE I.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SUBJECTS USED IN THE PRESENT STUDY

	Male	Female	Total
Class one	22	26	48
Class two	23	27	50
Total	45	53	98
	46%	54%	100%

B. Instruments

The instruments used in the data collection were 1) a timed writing test; 2) a Chinese writing strategies questionnaire. The writing test conducted was designed to measure students' writing proficiency or achievement. The final score will be used to judge their writing proficiency and individual writing level. Of course, the scores in the final examinations in the former two semesters will also be referenced. And here the researcher adopted the writing task in the exercise book which was based on the New Standard of Senior High School English. The reason to adopt this data is, on the one hand, for the assessment apart from the convenience of collection; on the other hand, for the authoritativeness and fairness of our research results.

In this study, we designed a writing strategy questionnaire to elicit students' beliefs about English writing and their employment of writing strategies. The questionnaire was designed in Chinese rather than English because most senior high school students will have difficulties to understand the academic terms. In the questionnaire, we used many academic terms, which was based on the instruction of my understanding and adaptation of Oxford (1990) and Petric & Czarl (2007).

This writing strategy questionnaire consisted of five parts: Part One, Personal Data. It mainly asked about the subjects' personal information such as name, gender, age, class and their scores of the writing; Part Two, Self Evaluation. It included 25 items to elicit subjects' first and second language proficiency, their comprehension level, general writing strategies or habits, etc.; Part Three, English Writing Strategies. This part contained 31 items, which were subdivided into three stages, i.e., pre-writing stage, while-writing stage, and revising Stage; Part Four provided the individual opinions on writing exercises, writing difficulties, writing instructions and emotional attitudes towards writing. Another part is the motivations of doing writing exercises and self diagnoses of the attributions to their unsatisfactory writing performance, included the questions from item 57 to item 88. For the convenience of statistical calculation, there is no open question to ask students to offer their supplement to this questionnaire.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

All data were collected from two classes at the Attached Middle School of Henan Normal University, under the supervision of the researcher. The researcher first explained explicitly that the main aims of the research to the students. And make every student know that some writing strategies will be included in the research. All the students had been told that they should complete the questionnaire thoroughly according their own experiences and understanding about writing strategies. And we also let all the subjects to know that we will keep secret for the result of this research and it will not do any harm or disadvantages to them. We distributed the copies of the questionnaire and explain the requirements for filling the blanks and answering the questions. If they had any difficulties in answering the questionnaire, they can turn to the researcher for her help. Before distributing the questionnaires, all of the subjects had been told that their head teacher, parents, or any other person, will have no access to the result of this research. In order to protect their secrets, all the subjects' names will be concealed and we will not use them in reporting the research. The subjects should complete all the questions within 30 minutes.

We used some statistical tools to analyze the data that we got from the questionnaires. For the questionnaire was designed to investigate different aspects about writing, self-evaluation of the writing proficiency, general writing strategies, specific writing strategies employed in the writing process, and motivations and attributions, some items ranged the choices from 1 to 5, some from 1 to 3, and the other just with two choices. So when processing the data, the researcher chose to calculate them or by percentage or by mean and standard deviation. If one or two items in one questionnaire were left blank, it was still viewed valid and counted by the mean of all choices. But if there are two answers for one question, we will think this questionnaire is not valid. All the items in the questionnaire were statements and the choices ranged from the negative extreme to the positive extreme with grading 1 to 5, while the statements could be positive or negative, so when inputting the subjects' scores of the questionnaire, the items presented by

negative statements must be graded from 5 to 1.

All the data were then keyed into computer and analyzed with statistical software SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, designed by SPSS company in America). Descriptive statistics such as standard deviations, overall pattern of writing strategies and means were obtained. We subsequently did ANOVA (analysis of variance) calculation to see to what extent the students differed, significantly or not. Afterwards, a stepwise multiple comparisons of the writing strategy use among groups of different gender and among groups at different writing proficiency were carried out to find the similarities and differences between male student writers and female ones, and between high-level student writers and the low-level ones. At last, the correlation analysis between general writing habits and specific writing strategies was conducted to see how the employment of specific writing strategies was related to the general writing strategies.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. General Statistic Description

There were 22 items which aimed at participants' self evaluation of their writing-related information in the questionnaire, and the results were reported according to the percentage every choice held. Among all the subjects, according to their self report stated in Table I, 10.39% of them thought their English proficiency were at the elementary level, 31.17% just between elementary and intermediate levels, 57.14% at intermediate level, and 1.30% at upper intermediate level. Here one thing we have to point out is, it is not absolutely scientific to identify the individual students' level according their own judgments, because it is very hard for the students to know accurately what level they are in the second language learning. We just did a small modification to the data after calculation. The criterion is the score we get from the writing test. So the consultative effect of the data cannot be denied.

TABLE I.
OVERALL EVALUATION OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

Item 1 Choice	English proficiency Elementary	Between elementary and intermediate	Intermediate	Upper Intermediate	Advanced
Percentage	10.39%	31.17%	57.14%	1.30%	0%

B. Writing Strategy Employment

Tables II presented a descriptive statistics on each self belief in English writing with a brief description of all these strategy employed and items in the study.

TABLE II.
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE OVERALL EMPLOYMENT OF WRITING STRATEGIES

Item	Description of general writing strategies	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	Reciting English model essays	2.195	0.795
2	Analyzing models and summarizing writing skills	2.195	0.859
3	Writing after models	2.688	0.907
4	Taking notes or writing dairies, letters in English as writing exercises	1.818	0.739
5	Reciting newly learned words by consciously using it when writing	2.039	1.044
6	Signing up to take a training course of English writing	1.390	0.691
7	Learning some writing theory intentionally	2.247	1.002
8	Studying the culture of English-speaking countries to assist English learning	2.263	0.870
9	Paying attention to different types of literature in learning	2.338	0.926
10	Consulting others with the difficulties in writing	2.792	0.922
11	Reading and comparing compositions of classmates	2.169	0.909
12	Consulting teachers about writing skills	1.740	0.696
13	Summarizing the progress and deficiency in my writing	2.753	0.830
14	Exchanging writing experiences and skills with classmates	1.883	0.725
15	Using the standards of models to direct and assess my writing	2.688	1.091
16	Reading several days later after finishing writing	2.130	0.978
17	Reading my own compositions	2.571	0.895

As seen in the Table II, for general writing strategies, item 10 (Consulting others with the difficulties in writing), with the mean value of 2.792, turned out to be the strategy that was shared by most of the subjects. It was convinced by the interview to some subjects. The interview indicated that most student writers like peer work. When they came across difficulties in the process of their language learning, the first person sh/e will turn to is his/her peer or fellow student. They put much reliance on their peers. Then the top value followed by item 13 (Summarizing the progress and deficiency in my writing, $M=2.753$). In or after class, student writers are likely to investigate the composition and try to find the errors by themselves. Zhou (2010) found the psychological evidence to support this claim. The means of Item 3 (Writing after models) and item 15 (Using the standards of models to direct and assess my writing) were the same, i.e., 2.688, which indicated that writing by imitating models in second language played an important role in students' writing

process, and students had already figured out the importance of writing after and according to models. Another reason is that students begin to feel the pressure of college entrance examination and they want to find some good models to imitate. The means 1.390 of item 6 (Signing up to take a training course of English writing) and 1.740 of item 12 (Consulting teachers about writing skills) revealed that subjects seldom learned writing strategies on their own initiative. Interestingly, from these two items, we found few students have learned writing strategies intentionally before the research. And even some students didn't know the term at all. In our research, one mediate-level student told the researcher that he spent a lot of time on practice writing. But he didn't realize that there are some strategies for him to adopt in English writing. The low value of the mean 1.818 of item 4 (Taking notes or writing dairies, letters in English) indicated that these subjects, in few cases, intentionally practiced writing in the target language of English. The researcher also found the phenomenon in teaching.

For specific writing strategies, in the part of general writing strategies (see the Table above), item 10 (Consulting others with the difficulties in writing), item 13 (Summarizing the progress and deficiency in my writing), item 3 (Writing after models) and item 15 (Using the standards of models to direct and assess my writing) were the most favored ones, and item 6 (Signing up to take a training course of English writing), item 12 (Consulting teachers about writing skills), item 4 (Taking notes or writing dairies, letters in English as writing exercises) the least favored ones, which indicated that the students rarely practiced writing in English or studied writing skills or strategies intentionally; they were not active in strategy training. From here, we also can conclude that in writing of teaching in middle school, teachers didn't pay enough attention to writing strategy training.

C. Contrast of Gender Differences

In order to find out if there is any difference between the male and female student writers in their writing proficiency and employment of writing strategies, all the participants first were divided into 2 groups, and then the following tests were carried out to examine their respective writing proficiency and writing strategy employment, several comparisons were also made.

(1) Gender Differences in Writing Proficiency

Table III stated directly and clearly that there did exist a difference in writing proficiency according to gender: male and female student writers differed in their writing scores by mean value of 85.92 to 94.25, and female students in general got much higher scores than male ones, that is, female students on the whole showed a higher writing proficiency. And Ellis (2009) pointed out that there exists gender difference between the male learners and the female ones when we are in terms of language developing sequence. Comparatively speaking, male students are in their initiative level when we compare them with their female peers. One-way ANOVA was performed to see whether writing proficiency is marked with gender or whether gender will produce significant effect on writing proficiency. The result ($F(1, 75) = 11.385, p = .001 < .05$) revealed that there was a significant difference in writing between male and female students. That is, female student writers received significantly higher rating than their male counterparts. We also can conclude that female student writers employed much higher language proficiency than the male ones.

TABLE III.
GENDER DIFFERENCE IN WRITING PROFICIENCY

Gender	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Male	45	85.92	15.24
Female	53	94.25	12.35

(2) Gender Differences in Employment of General Writing Strategies

The mean values of 2.0353 and 2.3227 from Table IV directly and clearly illustrated that male and female student writers differed in their employment of general writing strategies, or say, the general writing habits. Female students on the whole got much higher scores of writing strategy employment than male ones did. A significant difference was found between male and female students in their general writing strategies by ANOVA ($F(1, 75) = 7.094, p = .009 < .05$). Female student writers received significantly higher writing strategy employment scores than that of male students. In this research, we found that female students were more likely to use different kinds of writing strategies in English writing. For example, they consulted their teachers more often than the males do when they came across some difficulties. And female student writers were more dependent on their teachers. Mostly, they could follow teacher's directions well. But for the male students, it was another occasion. So we can conclude that female student employed more writing strategies than the male students.

TABLE IV.
GENDER DIFFERENCE IN EMPLOYING GENERAL WRITING STRATEGIES

Gender	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Male	45	2.0353	.4286
Female	53	2.3227	.4501

ANOVA ($F(1, 75) = 7.094, p = .009 < .05$)

(3) Gender Differences in the L1 Influence on the L2 Writing

There were four items which were expected to examine the influence of first language on English writing. One-way

ANOVA was performed to examine whether there also exists a difference for gender. The results were summarized in Table V.

TABLE V.
GENDER DIFFERENCE IN L1 INFLUENCE UPON L2 WRITING

Gender	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Male	45	2.7500	.5303
Female	53	3.1106	.4629

ANOVA ($F(1, 75) = 9.313, p = .003 < .05$)

As shown in Table V, the mean was 2.7500 for male and 3.1106 for female and from ANOVA ($F(1, 75) = 9.313, p = .003 < .05$), p value was .003, far below the value of .05, all of which indicated that there was significant difference in gender. Female student writers got significantly higher scores than males did, and this predicted that female ones received much stronger influence from first language on their second or foreign language writing. From the writing test, we found that there are more cases of using coinages in female students' writing, i.e., female students are more likely to invent words when they couldn't find a suitable words to express their ideas. From the questionnaire, we also find that female students were normally influenced by the negative transfer from their mother tongue in the process of L2 writing; however, male students were easily influenced by the positive transfer from the mother tongue. In order to verify what we concluded from the questionnaire of writing strategy, an interview had been carried out among the sample students. The conclusion had been proofed by the interview.

Table III, table IV and table V show how the male student writers differ from the female ones in a great detail. Their differences lie in three aspects: general writing proficiency, employment of general writing strategies, and their difference in to what degree they were under the influence of mother tongue. Therefore, the researcher concluded here, on the basis of the results from Table III to Table V, that there were several significant differences between male and female student writers. And when compared with male student writers, female ones were in higher English writing proficiency, had stronger motivations and clearer attributions of their unsatisfactory writing performance, employed writing strategies better, and received a stronger influence from mother tongue upon the English writing.

(4) *The Interrelationship Between Writing Strategy Employment and Writing Proficiency*

One of the research questions in this thesis was to test whether there was any difference, in the aspect of writing strategy employment, between student writers at different writing proficiency. That is, was there any difference in the strategy employment between students at high, intermediate, and low writing proficiency? In order to answer the question, all the subjects were divided into three groups as high achievers, intermediate achievers, and low achievers, according to the overall writing scores they obtained in the exam. Those students who scored 90 and above were regarded as high achievers, the top-scoring group; those who scored between 80 to 89 were viewed as intermediate achievers, the middle-scoring group; and those graded under 80 were deemed as low achievers, the bottom-scoring group. One-way ANOVA was run to see if there was significant difference between the groups. Table VI stated more detailed information.

TABLE VI.
WRITING PROFICIENCY COMPARISON AMONG GROUPS

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
High achievers	36	94.35	4.9815
Intermediate achievers	38	85.48	4.9356
Low achievers	24	71.08	10.7875
Total	98	83.63	14.8657

ANOVA ($F = 133.128, p < .001$)

Table VI showed that the mean score for all the participants was 83.63, the group mean of high achievers (94.35) was much higher than it; the group mean of intermediate achievers (85.48) was just around it; and the mean value for the group of low achievers (71.08) was much lower than it, almost 20 points below. Results of ANOVA ($F = 133.128, p < .001$) showed that there was a significant difference between these groups.

To see if there was also difference in the employment of writing strategies between the groups, the values of mean and standard deviation for every group in the use of writing strategy were worked out, multiple comparisons between paired groups were done, and one-way ANOVA was also performed to test the significance of the differences.

TABLE VII.
COMPARISON OF WRITING STRATEGY EMPLOYMENT AMONG GROUPS

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
High achievers	36	3.1570	.2515
Intermediate achievers	38	3.0112	.2885
Low achievers	24	2.7740	.2602
Total	98	2.9901	.3045

ANOVA ($F = 11.195, p < .001$)

The values of mean 3.1570 for high achievers, 3.0112 for intermediate achievers and 2.7740 for the low achievers,

and it showed that the higher the writer's writing proficiency, the more frequently they would employ the writing strategies. We cannot neglect the fact that, in the interview we found some top students had the chance to get some knowledge about writing strategies, both intentionally and unintentionally. It is very common for a top student to learn some knowledge about writing strategies because they have many interests on it (Zamel 1976, 2007; Sun 2008; Cohen 2000). Another reason may lie on the fact that top students (we called high achievers in this research) who have much higher language proficiency probably have relatively high comprehensive ability and logical reasoning ability (Fowler & Hayes 2008; Gunning 2008). Therefore, they could do much better not only in English writing, but also in speaking, listening or reading. In another word, logically, the top students could do better in the questionnaire answer.

The result of ANOVA ($F = 11.195$, $p < .001$) proved that there was significant difference among the three groups in their use of writing strategies. The results from multiple comparisons showed that there was no difference between high and intermediate achievers ($p = .146$), but there were significant differences between high and low achievers ($P < .001$) and between intermediate and low achievers ($P = .01$). We extrapolate that both high achievers and the intermediate ones had already acquired the basic knowledge of language learning. There is no significant difference in the ways or methods they adopted in the process of language studies. To some extent, we can claim that the language proficiency of some intermediate achievers are as high as the high achievers. For, up till nowadays, there is no such a test model that can inspire the accurate level of individual language learners. So this research result is preconceived in our research. The research result also had been verified by Thomas & Luoisa (2009) and Keh (2006).

(5) The L1 Influence on the L2 Writing

At first the researcher supposed that the first language, or mother tongue, would exert a strong influence on second or foreign language writing (Ellis 1994; MacIntyre & Noel 2008). While, from the research results we can find that, the first choice was a mixed use of both English and Chinese, followed by English and Chinese was their last choice. For the strategy of writing in Chinese first and then translating into English when composing, many subjects reported that was what they did in the past. The next strategy of replacing the unknown English word by using blanks, characters, or Pinyin, etc. shares the same answers as the above one, all of them together proved that the influence from mother tongue was not so strong. Which resulted from, firstly, their overall English proficiency were at intermediate level, and secondly they usually trained to think directly in the target language, therefore in their native language writing, they never took notes or made an outline and finally translated them into English.

With the comparison of L1 influence on L2 writing between male and female student writers, we found that for the influence from first language exerted on the second or foreign language writing, and there was a significant difference between male and female student writers: female writers received much stronger influence from mother tongue on their foreign language writing than males did. This result verified two researches of Green & Oxford (2005) and Oxford & Nyikos (1992).

IV. CONCLUSION

On the theoretical basis of Chamot & O'Malley's frameworks of learning strategies, the present study explored, of senior high school students from the Attached Middle School of Henan Normal University, the variation of writing strategies employed; the frequency and the relationship between employment of writing strategies and writing proficiency; the gender difference in writing proficiency, in the employment of writing strategies, the influence from mother tongue upon second language writing and etc. And the findings showed, apparently, male student writers and female student writers differed significantly in several aspects: for example, when compared with males, females were of higher English writing proficiency; they had stronger motivations and clearer attributions of their unsatisfactory writing performance. Female student writers employed writing strategies better and with a higher frequency and received much stronger influence from the mother tongue on English writing. Another finding is that student writers with different writing proficiency varied as to the frequency of employing writing strategies, i.e., both high achievers and intermediate achievers reported significantly more employment of writing strategies than the low achievers, while between high achievers and intermediate achievers, there was no significant difference in their frequency of employing writing strategies.

The findings of this study have some pedagogical implications for the instruction and curriculum development. Firstly, writing strategies are teachable and learnable. In the daily teaching activities, teachers should introduce and teach students writing strategies (learning strategies), and identify the writing strategies that their students are or are not using. We can conduct the research with the following ways: write research diaries, do survey, think aloud, interviews and etc. As researchers, they have to know the advantages and disadvantages of each method, so that they can design the suitable and appropriate questionnaires of writing strategies which are comparable with students' abilities. And they can also try to help their students learn quicker, easier, and more effectively by weaving writing strategy training into regular class time. Secondly, the student writers should learn to identify the writing strategies they are employing and be instructed to choose the most suitable strategy for their writing. Successful writers sometimes will serve as informants for them who do less successful in writing. Through the peer working with each other, students will take a very active role in writing activities. Thirdly, the traditional methods of teaching English often easily result in students' embarrassment at not knowing how to write and their lack of interest in English leaning and English writing. Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate the learning of the second language and later the driving force to sustain the

long and tedious learning process. Learners who are highly motivated to learn a language are likely to use a variety of strategies. Although employing appropriate and effective writing (learning) strategies could improve learners' proficiency, the teacher and the students are supposed to do more. The teachers should try to encourage the students' motivation and help them find the real attribution to their success and failure, and the students should try to train themselves to be determined and active learners and learn to attribute the learning outcome primarily to their own efforts and develop abilities. And then they will be more likely to employ an active approach to reaching learning goals.

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Guobing Liu was born in Huaxian County of Henan, China. He received the master's degree in corpus linguistics in 2005. Now he is an associated professor and EFL teacher at the Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University. He studied in Chinese National Research Center for Foreign Language Education, Beijing Foreign Studies University from 2010 to 2013 and received the doctoral degree in corpus linguistics and computational linguistics there. In recent years, he published two books and more than twenty academic papers in the key journals both home and abroad. He has also finished 3 research projects. His academic interests include corpus linguistics and foreign language teaching.

The Effect of Applying Semi-structured DVD Short Films on Teaching Communicative Strategies to Iranian EFL Upper-intermediate Learners

Farahnaz Liaghat

Department of English Language, College of Humanities, Khorasgan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Akbar Afghary

Department of English Language, College of Humanities, Khorasgan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—One of the concerns of EFL learners in holding a successful communication is to avoid and overcome communication breakdowns. They must use strategies and tactics, communicative or conversational strategies, that create satisfaction, the sense of being understood. However, few classroom instructors can provide EFL learners with enough activities to learn how to use these strategies to communicate effectively with native speakers. One way to teach these conversational strategies is to provide learners with the authentic materials to use in the classroom and in the interaction with native speakers in real situations. To this end, this study suggested a technique that meets these needs and help learners to achieve some of the important strategies for avoiding and overcoming the breakdowns in conversations. This study presents the effects of teaching conversational strategies through semi-structured DVD short films on speaking performance of learners. It is carried out as an experimental study with two groups of Iranian EFL upper- intermediate learners in an English language institute, Tehran Oxford institute, in Iran. All participants received six weeks of instruction on four conversational strategies: Paraphrasing, asking for clarification, checking for comprehension, and turn- taking. The control group received direct instruction from the teachers' handout but the experimental group watched six relevant semi-structured DVD short films and the film-based observational tasks. Research data was collected from pre- and post-tests on speaking performance. The results showed that after the treatment, the experimental group used these strategies frequently in their communication, the learners' speaking performance was improved, and they showed a positive attitude towards the treatment.

Index Terms—conversational strategies, semi-structured DVD short films, observational tasks, learners' speaking performance

I. INTRODUCTION

After several years of learning English at schools and universities, many students around the world cannot communicate confidently or successfully for their jobs and careers (Chuanpaisit & Prapthal, 2009; Kawale, 2011; Xiao & Petraki, 2007). This is also a critical problem for EFL Iranian students (due to inaccessibility to native speakers), even graduated university students. There are some factors that cause this problem that leads to breakdowns in communications. Some researchers believe that learners' inefficiency in communication is due to their low level of language proficiency, lack of knowledge of necessary vocabularies to exchange their ideas, lack of confidence, lack of appropriate and real environment for using English language, or lack of some necessary communicative strategies in holding an effective conversation (Nguyet.N.T.M. & Mai.L.T. T.2012). Although some English language learners promote their communicative abilities by finding opportunities to talk with native speakers of English language on computers through activities such as online chat or watching English TV programs or films, one of the major challenges and concerns of all language teachers and instructors, syllabus designers, designers of teaching methodologies, and teacher educators is finding effective ways to prepare students for having successful communication (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1994). In this regard it can be stated that, choosing teaching methods and instructions in classes to teach students how to use necessary conversational strategies helps them overcome communication breakdowns. Dörnyei and Thurrell (1994) stated that conversational strategies are really helpful for language learners who face problems and difficulties in the flow of conversations, because learning these strategies brings them a sense of security and satisfaction in the language, the sense of being understood, belonging, and sharing identity.

Regarding the teaching context, EFL teachers and instructors can teach conversational strategies through different ways, for example, through picture dictation tasks (Kebir, 1994), pair-taping (Washburn & Christianson, 1995), telephone conversation role-plays (Ting & Lau, 2008) or video clips (N.Thi M. Nguyet & L.Thi.T.Mai 2012). In this

study, semi-structured DVD short films were used in teaching conversational strategies, that in turn it provides a good base for speaking tasks. In this way EFL Iranian language learners specially upper-intermediate learners will learn how to use these strategies in native English speakers' cultures and situations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning strategies concerns with the receptive aspect of intake, memory, storage, and recall of the strategies, however, communication strategies concern with using verbal or nonverbal mechanisms for the productive aspect of communication which is exchanging of information. In the domain of linguistic interaction, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the two, as Tarone (1983) noted, comprehension of strategies and production of them can occur almost simultaneously.

The researches of the 1980s- 1990s (Varadi 1980 and others) have paid the researchers attention to communication strategies (Rost and Ross 1991, Bailystock 1990, Bongaerts and Poulisse 1989, Oxford and Crookall 1989). In this regard, communication strategies are described as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal by Faerch and Kasper (1983)". While the earlier researches focused on the compensatory aspect of communication strategies, most of the recent studies have a more "positive" view of communication strategies as elements of an overall strategic competence in which learners try to use all the possible aspects of their competence to send clear and acceptable messages in the second or foreign language. In addition, through observations of first language acquisition strategies which are similar to those strategies used by adults in second or foreign language learning contexts, it can be concluded that these strategies are probably "potentially conscious" (Bongaerts and Poulisse 1989).

Riggenbach (1998) stated that communication strategies are certain conscious ways to help learners have effective communication. Dörnyei & Thurrell (1994) noted that these strategies are valuable means of concerning with communication 'trouble spots', when learners do not know a specific word, or misunderstand the other speaker of the language". Moreover, Kehe and Kehe (2004) claimed that conversational strategies are useful methods for speakers and listeners who want to continue a natural and real conversation. It should be noted that conversational strategies are as a sub-division of communication strategies. These strategies help speakers to hold a successful natural conversation and to achieve their communicative goals.

Tarone (1983), Dörnyei & Thurrell (1994), Brown (1994) categorized conversational strategies into: message adjustment or avoidance, paraphrasing, approximation, word coinage, language switch, literal translation, mime, asking for repetition, asking for clarification, interpretive summary, checking for comprehension and confirmation, and use of fillers/hesitation devices.

As Conversation is a process to exchange information and create and develop social relationships, it can be said that these conversational strategies have a positive effect on holding successful communications, but only some of EFL learners use conversational rules, strategies, and patterns, therefore; they face troubles in continuing the flow of their conversations (Walter, 2008). Applying conversational strategies as an effective way is a helpful tactic in overcoming problems in conversations. Dörnyei and Thurrell (1994) suggested that with these strategies, EFL/ESL learners can handle spontaneous conversations. Walter (2008) also stated that conversational strategies help raise learners' awareness of form and function of the language. As a whole, it can be said that conversational strategies are worth attention because they can facilitate interaction and create a fluent conversation.

Advantages of Applying Semi-Structured DVD Short Films in Teaching communication strategies in EFL Classes

Teaching English, especially conversational strategies, in an authentic way, by using semi-structured DVD short films can be helpful and beneficial for EFL learners particularly for Iranian EFL learners who have less opportunity to use English language in real situation with English native speakers.

Firstly, "using films to teach language provides learners with real models to imitate for role-play and increase their knowledge of the foreign culture." (Arthur. 1999, cited in Çakir, 2006). In addition, it is noted that only a small part of information (about 10%) is sent through words and phrases; the remaining (90%) of communication is non-verbal and sent through gestures, body language, and kinetics (Mehrabian, 1972). Swan (1996-1997) stated that the well-prepared proposed films show verbal and non-verbal behaviors of the speakers that make the conversations as a meaningful conversation to learners. As, Gower, Phillips, and Walters (2005) noted that additional information can be conveyed by facial expressions, gestures that causes the meaning of the conversation to become understandable.

Secondly, when learners are watching the prepared semi- structured DVD short films, they will be encouraged and stimulated to follow the film (Denning, 1992). DVD short films are also useful for group and team working, particularly for tasks and activities that learners asked to apply what they have learned (Denning, 1992).

Thirdly, when learners watch authentic and real communication among native speakers, their cultural knowledge of the foreign language will be improved (Rammal, 2006).

Generally speaking, using semi-structured DVD short films for EFL learners is effectively a useful way to expose them to the target language to learn the conversational strategies as well as the foreign language culture in an authentic way.

In this regard, this research was carried out with EFL Iranian learners at upper-intermediate level, need to use English language fluently in communication, in an English language institute, Tehran Oxford Institute, in Iran. They attended the class 3 sessions per week. Although the participants were at upper intermediate level and had been provided with vocabulary and some basic structures, most of them usually had difficulty in maintaining spontaneous conversations. The problem might be due to the inaccessibility to English native speakers and the way they use to convey the meanings in conversations. Thus, the researcher decided to suggest a way, teaching the students the necessary conversational strategies through applying well-prepared semi-structured DVD short films, to partially solve this problem.

The conversational strategies in this study focused on: Paraphrasing, asking for clarification, checking for comprehension, and turn-taking for two reasons. 1) these strategies help learners convey the meanings in conversations and reduce or avoid communication breakdown. 2) the choice of these strategies was based on the content of the learners' textbook subjects.

This study had been conducted to examine the effects of teaching conversational strategies through semi-structured DVD short films on learners' speaking performance.

The study was carried out to answer the following questions:

1. Does teaching conversational strategies through semi-structured DVD short films improve the learners' speaking performance?
2. What are the learners' attitudes towards learning conversational strategies through semi-structured DVD short films?

It was considered that teaching conversational strategies through semi-structured DVD short films can increase the frequency of the learners' use of these strategies and improve their speaking performance; in addition, there would be a positive and considerable relationship between the use of conversational strategies by the learners and their speaking performance.

III. METHOD

Design

This study was conducted with two-groups of Iranian EFL learners, experimental and control. Both groups participated in the same listening / speaking class designed for students at upper-intermediate level, which had a six-week supplementary course on four kinds of conversational strategies (paraphrasing, asking for clarification, checking for comprehension, and turn-taking). In addition to their specific level, upper-intermediate, the participants homogenized through performing a pre-test. English language was used for the teaching and treatment in the classes, only when learners were confused and have problems in understanding, Persian translations or explanations were used. The control group just received handouts and direct instruction on the selected strategies while conversational strategies were taught to the experimental group through watching six semi-structured DVD short films. After the teaching course, both groups practiced the strategies in pair or group activities such as role-playings.

Participants

Sixty four upper-intermediate Iranian students, studied in Tehran Oxford institute, participated in this study. They were female and range in age from 16 to 24 years old. They were homogenous in general language ability and randomly divided into two equal groups, an experimental and a control group.

Two teachers, one Iranian and one American, were involved in this study. The researcher, as the teacher of the two groups and also rater of the tests, teaching English for over 15 years and taking a master's course in English language Methodology. The American teacher who teaches English films, helped teachers evaluate the DVD short films' content and the conversational strategies which are used in the films and check the parts of short films' transcripts.

Instruments

Two speaking tests (a pre-test and a post-test) were used to collect data for the study. The pre-test was given to the subjects of both groups (control and experimental group) at the beginning of the study to measure how they use specific conversational strategies and also to confirm the homogeneity of the two groups. All students involved in the discussion of the specific assigned topic in pairs with seven discussion questions (Appendix A). The post-test, having the same content as the pre-test, was given to the students after the six-week teaching treatment to consider the changes in the learners' speaking performance. Then the results of the pre- and post-tests of each group were compared to see whether there was any significant change in speaking performance of learners after treatment. The learners' pre- and post-tests were recorded, transcribed, and then graded on the same marking scale, consisting of five components: range, accuracy, fluency, coherence, and interaction. These components of the marking scale were used to grade and mark their speaking performance; the interaction component was directly related to the application of the specific assigned communication strategies.

Materials

The learners' textbook used as the course syllabus for the two groups was "*In English upper intermediate level*" by Peter and Karen Viney (2005). The students studied the second five units in this book. Five native and original semi-structured DVD short films were carefully selected for the treatment program with the experimental group.

The films were according to the content of the material of the students' textbook. The vocabulary and structures used in the DVD short films were at the level of the participants, upper- intermediate level, in the experimental group.

Although the same textbook was used for the two groups, there were different lesson plans for each group according to the objectives of the study. For the subjects in the control group a handout of the selected conversational strategies were used (*Appendix B*). For each unit, while students discussing any issue related to the topic of the unit with each other, they practiced one strategy. In any unit they practiced a new communication strategy and reviewed the previous learned one(s).

On the other hand, for the experimental group, each unit began with a DVD short film with a topic related to the content of each unit in their textbook. Then there were film transcription in the form of film-based observational tasks that increased learners' awareness on applied communication strategies, and they learn how and why these strategies were used, then students watched the film and after that they checked items in the film transcription as they were heard, there are also examples how the speaker confirms his / her understanding, or examples of when the speaker checks the listener' comprehension, examples of how the speaker paraphrase his/her meaning, and how to take turns. For every semi-structured DVD short film, there was one or more strategies applied which are appropriate for holding communication; therefore, from each film, the learners learn one or more communication strategies and review these strategies in another film. After watching the film, the applied communication strategies were explained by the instructor as they are summarized on the handout provided to the learners. The transcriptions of the films are just accessible for the learners in the experimental group.

Data Analysis

The learners' pre- and post-tests on speaking performance were analyzed according to the frequency use of conversational strategies by the learners (Frequency Formula in *Appendix A*). Then, the results of the learners' pre- and post-tests, scored and marked by two raters, were used to measure the learners' speaking performance before and after the treatment. To evaluate the inter-rater consistency on each test, a correlation test was used on the mean of the given scores by the two raters. To demonstrate whether there was any significant change in the two groups after the treatment, the average scores on the pre- and post-tests were analyzed by a paired- samples T-Test.

Analysis and Findings

During the study, to avoid some learners' factors such as learners' mortality, lack of knowledge of necessary vocabulary and structures that influences the results of tests, the instructor provides the learners with essential and necessary vocabularies and structures for the pre-test and post-test.

TABLE 1:
PRE- AND POST- TEST FREQUENCY USE OF CONVERSATIONAL STRATEGIES OF CONTROL GROUP

Conversational strategies	T/W		T/W \times 100=F		Pre-post Results
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	
Paraphrasing	1.22	3.31	0.04	0.09	+ 0.05
Checking for comprehension	1.22	15.31	0.04	0.47	+ 0.43
Asking for clarification	0.22	3.31	0.00	0.09	+ 0.09
Turn-taking	1.22	3.31	0.04	0.09	+ 0.05

T = total raw frequency of strategies use; *W* = total number of words;

F = frequency of strategies use per 100 words

TABLE 2:
PRE- AND POST- TEST FREQUENCY USE OF CONVERSATIONAL STRATEGIES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Conversational strategies	T/W		T/W 100=F		Pre-post Results
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	
Paraphrasing	0.16	12.27	0.00	0.44	+ 0.44
Checking for comprehension	2.16	21.27	0.12	0.76	+ 0.64
Asking for clarification	1.16	10.27	0.06	0.36	+ 0.30
Turn-taking	0.22	3.31	0.00	0.09	+ 0.09

T = total raw frequency of strategies use; *W* = total number of words;

F = frequency of strategies use per 100 words

Comparing the results of tables (1, 2) showed that the use of the assigned conversational strategies (paraphrasing, checking for comprehension, asking for clarification, turn-taking) increased after the treatment in both groups. The increased number of the assigned strategies showed that the treatment in the both groups caused positive changes in the use of these strategies by the learners; however, the changes in control group were slight and insignificant, the changes in experimental group were remarkably great and significant. The results showed that in control group in which conversational strategies had been taught by giving the handout and explanations could not raise learners' awareness much on how to use the strategies appropriately when communicating with each other. However, the results in experimental group demonstrated that more learners were able to use effectively the selected conversational strategies after the treatment (applying semi-DVD short films).

To know whether there was any significant difference between the ability of both groups at pre-test stage on speaking performance a T-Test was used.

TABLE 3:
GAIN DATA ON PRE-TEST OF THE TWO GROUPS

	Experimental Group	Control Group
X	14.14	13.31
SD	2.18	2.39
N	32	32

$$P \leq 0.05$$

df:68, t_o : 1.53, t_c : 2:00, t_o (observed t), df (degree of freedom), t_c (critical t)

To determine whether the ability of the learners of the two groups in post-test on speaking performance were different, the researcher performed a T-Test. The data are given in the following table:

TABLE 4:
GAIN DATA ON POST-TEST OF THE TWO GROUPS

	Experimental Group	Control Group
X	15.65	13.62
SD	1.95	2.49
N	32	32

$$P \leq 0.05$$

df: 68, t_o : 3.90, t_c : 2:00, t_o (observed t), df (degree of freedom), t_c (critical t)

According to the results from tables 3 at the pre-test stage both groups relatively had similar speaking performance scores, regarding the results from table 4, after the treatment, the experimental group out performed in post-test speaking performance. It is evident that using semi-structured DVD short films in teaching conversational strategies was beneficial.

To determine the relationship between speaking performance and frequency use of assigned conversational strategies by the learners in the experimental group after the treatment a correlation test was conducted.

TABLE 5:
CORRELATION OF FREQUENCY USE OF CONVERSATIONAL STRATEGIES AND POST-TEST OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Frequency	frequency	Mean
	Pearson correlation	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.048
	N	32
Mean	Pearson correlation	.447
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.048
	N	32

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

According to table (5), although the correlation coefficient was small ($r = .45$), the relationship between the speaking performance and the frequency use of assigned conversational strategies was significant ($p = .048$). These results showed that teaching the specific assigned conversational strategies had a positive effect on the learners' speaking performance.

The results showed that these strategies should be used in both listening and speaking courses because they help all language learners in general and EFL learners in particular solve oral communication problems, avoid breaking down the conversation, improve fluency, develop communication skills, and increase confidence in learners, because learners learned how to use gestures, mime and kinetics in communication through hearing and watching English films simultaneously, and on the other hand, the DVD short films attracted the learners' attention and encouraged and motivated them to learn, and this program would be beneficial if the selection of the semi-structured DVD short films was based on the course syllabus and learners' needs and interest.

IV. CONCLUSION

The results showed that) although the speaking performance of the two groups was the same in the pre-test ($p = .36$), the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-test ($p = .040$). The findings also indicated that in the post-test, the experimental group improved significantly and teaching conversational strategies through semi-structured DVD short films attracted learners' attention, because the observational tasks, film transcriptions, can raise the learners' awareness on the strategies used in reality in the selected authentic films. Although the participants of the control group after the course used some of the conversational strategies in their interactions with their partners, the participants in experimental group outperformed in using the assigned strategies and they showed they had greater progress in holding successful communication and enhancing their conversational fluency. Moreover, it was remarkably observed that these selected semi-structured DVD short films could show how these selected conversational strategies are used with verbal and non-verbal (gestures, kinetics, ...) behaviors and provide the learners with more vocabulary, speaking patterns, and useful grammatical structures.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

As the conversational strategies are necessary for learners to hold the conversations and avoid communication breakdown, syllabus designers should include these strategies in course books or adding them to supplementary teaching materials on listening and speaking activities. The course books should also include supplementary materials, such as audio- visual CDs, structured and semi- structured DVD short films, and video clips to show learners how to use the necessary strategies in real conversations. Moreover, to provide class lessons, the selected strategies should be based on learners' levels and their interests to motivate and stimulate them to watch the films. In addition, listening and speaking teachers of ESL classes particularly EFL learners should be creative in choosing conversational strategies, teaching methods, selecting and teaching materials, and designing tasks that are according to the learners' levels, needs and interests. In this study, the proposed technique, watching semi-structured DVD short films, doing observation tasks as film transcriptions, and practicing the strategies in role play, is an efficient and useful way for teaching conversational strategies, when the content of the DVD short films are based on the tasks, levels, and activities of the text books. Unfamiliar words and grammatical structures, patterns and expressions in the selected films should be explained in advance to learners to reduce their problems while they are watching the films.

APPENDIX A

Frequency Formula: $F = T/W \times 100$

F (frequency per 100 words)

T (total raw frequency of strategy use)

W (total number of words)

Pre-Test and Post-Test

(Adapted from WWW.englishforums.com/English)

Questions for Discussion: The teacher can choose from these topics:

1. Are women less intelligent than men?
2. Are computers very important in education?
3. Are "Talk shows on TV "useless and boring or useful and interesting?
4. Being a team worker is more important or being a brilliantly creative person?
5. What job would you like to do and why?
6. Is teaching one of the most fascinating jobs or not?
7. Would Working in an advertising agency be very interesting or not?
8. Do you think "TV is bad for young people"?
9. What would you do if you won \$ 1 million?
10. What are the advantages and disadvantages of "Private English classes and group courses"?
11. Are Women equal to men in our society?
12. Are Parents too permissive with their children nowadays?
13. Do examinations exert a bad influence on education?
14. Can Teaching machines replace teachers?
15. What means of transportation do people often use in a city and in a town?
16. What do you think about the traffic in a city? How about in a town?
17. Is the air in the city clean or polluted? Is it the same with the air in a town?

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Farahnaz Liaghat is a PHD candidate in TEFL and a faculty member at Islamic Azad University Yadegar-e- Imam Khomeini branch. She is a lecturer at general English and ESP courses. She also has totally 20 years' experience of teaching English in different fields. She has carried out research studies on Applied Linguistics. Her fields of interest are Applied Linguistics, Materials Development, ESP, Teacher Education, and Materials Development.

Akbar Afghary is an associated professor in TEFL and a faculty member at Islamic Azad University Khorasgan branch. He has more than 40 years' experience of teaching English in different fields. He has carried out research studies on Applied linguistics, English Language assessment and testing.

Disadvantage to Pre-school Children Learning a Foreign Language

Mehri Farzaneh

English Language Department, Payame Noor University, I.R. of Iran

Mostafa Movahed

English Language Department, Payame Noor University, I.R. of Iran

Abstract—in Iran learning English as a second language (ESL) in early childhood has become almost widespread. Parents of children choose to expose their children to English language learning at a very young age before they begin elementary education (Dabestan), at the level of phonology as well as the realm of vocabulary. Based on observations of Persian preschool learners of English as well as parental reports, we will focus on identified types of problems they might experience after they begin formal schooling. Children's experience and familiarity with the English sounds and vocabulary may lead to some negative consequences for the learning and development of Persian in schools. Based on observations of Persian preschool learners of English as well as parental reports, we will focus on identified types of problems these children might experience after they begin formal schooling. The researchers explained some cases in which children made a Persian error due to the direct influence of the information from English. We now turn to a discussion of four main negative effects of second language on first language acquisition. There are also some reasons why it might be disadvantageous, including language interference (mixing language), foreign accent, and additional effort for children, cultural discrepancies, when is the best time to start. Moreover some preschool children do not possess the aptitude or desire to learn a second language, and therefore, forcing them to learn it, may be unwise.

Index Terms—preschool, phonology, vocabulary, interference, discrepancy, disadvantage, parents

I. INTRODUCTION

In Iran learning English as a second language (ESL) in early childhood has become almost widespread. Parents of children choose to expose their children to English language learning at a very young age before they begin elementary education (Dabestan). The number of preschool children learning English as a second language shows that English language learning (ELL) is a great fascination for both parents and their preschool aged children. There is certainly some reasoning supporting this increasing attention to ELL throughout the preschool years, including the point that the child's brain is like a sponge, it will absorb everything that they hear. The plasticity and virginity of the children's brain enables them to learn, take in and remember a lot of information so that is why they can pick up languages more easily (Harley, 1986; Lightbown and Spada, 1999). There are many differences among second language learners that may have a direct effect on second language learning. Most authors state that age, motivation and attitude, learning style/strategy and intelligence are among determinative factors in this area (Ellis, 1985; Reilly, 1988; Bond, 2002; Walqui, 2000; Liao, 1996; Skehan, 2002), with age showing to be the strongest predictor of success. There is a general consensus among researchers and theorists about the ease with which children acquire second languages, including:

- Language learning is natural for children because they are biologically well prepared for it (Chomsky, 1959).
- Language acquisition must occur before puberty in order for the speaker to reach native-like fluency (Lenneberg, 1967). This is known as the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)
- Learning an L2 develops respect for cultural identity, rights, and values (McLaughlin, 1984),
- Learning a second language is part of children's social, and cognitive development (Clark, 2009; Bialystok, 2006; Pruden, Hirsh-Pasek, & Golinkoff, 2006).

It is true that age plays a key role in second language learning and younger language learners are more successful children should be exposed to a second language, such as English, and be able to interact with others, but when to expose children to a second language, such as English, is extremely important. Now we don't mean necessarily as young as preschool children (that are not able to read and write in Persian), but maybe start as old as Elementary or Middle school (*Rāhmān-āyi*), or when children have a high degree of proficiency in their first language. Schooling and teaching reading and writing in the first language are important factors that can affect the acquisition of a second language. It seems that learners who somehow master their first language are more successful in second language acquisition.

Lightbown and Spada (1999), for example, give the example of a study carried out by Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle on a group of English speakers learning Dutch as a second language. This research was especially valuable because it

included learners from all age categories, from six to sixty year olds. Surprisingly, according to this study, the adolescents, not the children nor the adults, were by far the most successful learners. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle found that young learners had some difficulty in learning tasks that were beyond their cognitive maturity whereas adolescents learned faster in the early stages of second language development. The study eventually signals that adults and adolescents were able to make a considerable progress in NLL when they used the language on a daily basis in social, professional and academic interaction (quoted in Fawzi Al Ghazali, 2006). The study also indicates that learners who have strong academic skills in their mother language will learn a second-language faster than those who lack these skills in their native language. In other words, effective acquisition of the first-language plays an important role in learning a second language. The weakness in acquiring the first language skills may result in difficulties in learning a second language for the child. In this article we discuss the importance of the completion of the scholastic Persian language acquisition, and the possible challenges that Iranian preschool English language learners face during the Persian language acquisition process in elementary school (Dabestan), at the level of phonology as well as the realm of vocabulary. Based on observations of Persian preschool learners of English as well as parental reports, we will focus on identified types of problems they might experience after they begin formal schooling.

A. *Statement of the Problem*

There are many ways in which teaching English to Iranian pre- school children could potentially interfere with their future performance in learning Persian language in elementary school. The interference of L2 in L1 may cover some aspects of the language, such as, phonology and lexicology. In some specific instances this interference leads to the formation of “penglish” such as “asb” instead of “اسب”.

The present study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Is language interference a problem?
2. How common is language interference among Iranian children?

B. *Purpose of the Study*

The main objectives of this study were to better understand the English interference that might occur during the Persian language acquisition process, and especially how the level of prior English fluency might impact that interference.

C. *Significance of the Study*

As a part of our research into language interference among Iranian children, we conducted case studies of Iranian children who had English learning experience before going to elementary school (Dabestan). The subjects of the present study were chosen at random from among children in Isfahan and Semirom. We had no background of their language interference. All of these children are living in Isfahan, a county in Isfahan Province, and Semirom County, which is 150 km far from Isfahan. We interviewed the parents of these children. The children were not aware of the interview questions and their parents' answers. The interview questions were taken from a research into language mixing among bilingual children, conducted by Ford (2001).

What was the child's age when s/he attended a language school?

What is the child's age now?

What are the mother's and father's first languages?

What is the family language spoken most often?

Does the child mix the two languages?

If so, how often? in what contexts? and, do you perceive this to be a problem?

An important aspect of this study is that it considers those specific areas of second language (English) that affects children's writing skills in their first language (Persian). Moreover, the present research determines the importance of the learner's knowledge of the sound features of L2, which cause difficulty in L1. Hence this study attempts to provide knowledge that makes Iranian parents aware of the errors made by their children in the current L1 learning context.

a. **Persian Alphabets**

Farsi, also known as Persian, consists of 32 letters. Some of them have small and big forms like “ب بـ” while others have only one form like “د”. Capital letters are mainly at the end of words and may be used alone, or connect to their preceding letter (as in “کاب” /kabāb/). On the contrary, small letters come at the beginning or in the middle of words. (Meshkat-Aldini, 1998).

Persian speech sounds are grouped into two main categories: consonants and vowels (Samareh, 1999; Meshkat-Aldini, 1998)

1. Consonants can appear at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of words, as in the following words: b â, parde, tâze, qand, šab, davâ, sabr, zard, mard, leb âs

2. Vowels can only appear in the middle and at the end of words, as in the following list: bini, d â n â tarsu, serke, suzan, torš, meil, jou (Samareh, 1999)

We all know that the 26 letters of the English alphabet have both small and big forms like A/a. We also know that English speech sounds are classified into vowels (a,e,i,o,u, and sometimes y) and consonants (the rest of the alphabet letters). Vowels are clearly at the peaks of syllables and are syllabic (Ladegoged, 2006). If we say that vowels are at the

core of the syllables this is because the existence of the syllables depends on the vowels, and If you delete the vowel, it remains no syllable (Samareh, 1999).

However, in Persian language there are no letters considered as vowels. Instead, we put some sounds on or under the letters to make them readable(available at <http://www.easypersian.com/persian-alphabet/>).

. There are six main sounds in Persian recognized as vowels, three short vowels and three long vowels. The following are Persian short vowels.

1. A[◌] : If this symbol is puts on a letter, the letter will be pronounced /æ/ as in “dad”.
2. A_◌ : If this symbol is put under a letter, the letter will be pronounced /e/ as in “bed”.
3. A[◌] : If this symbol is put on a letter, the letter will be pronounced /o/ as in “door”.

There are three long vowels in Persian. As we noted all big letters come at the end of the words and may stand either attached or separated from other letters with only one exception.(available at <http://www.easypersian.com/persian-alphabet/>).

Here are Persian long vowels:

1. ا : This is big letter ‘A’ in Persian, which unlike all other big letters comes at the beginning of the words only and pronounced as /a:/ in “arm”.
2. ی : In Persian the big letter ‘Y’ can be pronounced as /i:/ sound. /i:/ in “see”.
3. و : This is the only letter that may be pronounced as /u:/ in “two”.

Now that we are familiar with the short and long vowels, let’s review all Persian letters (alphabets) from the very beginning.

TABLE 1.
PERSIAN LETTERS (ALPHABETS)

pronunciation	Character		pronunciation	Character	
	Capital	Small		Capital	Small
alef	ا		saad	ص	صد
a	آ		zaad	ض	زد
be	ب	ب	taa	ط	
pe	پ		zaa	ظ	
te	ت	ت	eyn	ع	ع
the	ث	ث	gheyn	غ	غ
jim	ج	ج	fe	ف	ف
che	چ	چ	qaaf	ق	ق
he	ح	ح	kaaf	ک	ک
khe	خ	خ	gaaf	گ	گ
daal	د		laam	ل	ل
zaal	ذ		mim	م	
re	ر		nun	ن	ن
ze	ز		waaw	و	
je	ژ		he	ه ه ه ه	
sin	س	سد	ye	ی	ی
shin	ش	شد	hamze	ء	

As you see in learning Persian alphabets, sometimes, it is possible to find the English equivalents for them. For example “ب” is the same as the small letter “b” in English as in “bed”. It’s worth noting that such similarities can cause those children, who started ELL before formal learning of Persian, to have trouble learning and using certain Persian alphabets. In other words, homophonic letters in the two languages may cause recognition difficulties and mistakes (i.e., misconceptions) in early reading and writing Persian alphabets.

b. The Role of Formal Schooling in the First Language

Children begin the process of learning their first or home language through contact with family members and others in early communication that includes talking, singing, cooing, making sounds and engaging in non-verbal communication (Clark, 2009). In the context of schools, children learn their first language formally in the classroom to develop reading and writing skills. It is essential for parents to understand the benefits of maintaining their children’s first language. They should know that the first six years are crucial for young children in developing their first language and cultural identity, and it is during these early years that children build up their knowledge of the world around them(Clark, 2009). The first language, learned in the home, is extremely important and forms the foundation for all later language development. Parents, family members and early childhood professionals are the most significant influences on the development and maintenance of the first language (Clarke and Milne 1996).

Children who have the opportunity to maintain their first language can extend their cognitive development, while learning English as a second language. Their level of competence in the second language will be related to the level of competence they have achieved in their first language (Cummins 1984). Landry (1974) suggests that when learning a second language children must develop an understanding of the basic structures and patterns of two languages in order to produce new utterances in each language, which requires flexibility and adaptability on the part of the learner (Cited in Trustees,2010). It seems that learning to read and write in the first language, often facilitates the instruction in reading and writing in a second language. Children who develop proficiency in using their native language to

communicate, to gain information, to solve problems, and to think can easily learn to use a second language in similar ways (Pérez, B., & Torres-Guzmán, M., 1996, cited in Clark, 2013).

Therefore, preserving and strengthening the first language will help children become academically proficient in the second language (will support second lang. development and proficiency). However, there is real concern about children who choose to learn a second language, such as English, before they fully dominate their first language. Taking classes in English, for example, throughout the preschool years does not necessarily mean or guarantee that kids will be fluent, or able to communicate with a native speaker even halfway decently, or understand a native speaker when they are talking. In two years of learning English preschoolers may learn to say the English alphabets as well as some words for everyday things, read street signs, count to twenty, name the colors, and how to say 'I am thirsty'. Even though young children are not formally taught English, they bring all of the knowledge about language learning they have acquired to scholastically learn and develop their first language (i.e., Persian). In the process of scholastic learning of Persian in elementary school, it is a natural instinct for young children to make sense out of their past language learning experience, to look for similarities between Persian and English, and to try to draw some comparison with what they know already. If this is the case, then we would expect that the information from the second language would stand on the learner's path and affect the mastery of the first language. In other words, children's experience and familiarity with the English sounds and vocabulary may lead to some negative consequences for the learning and development of Persian in schools. Needless to say, this conclusion is controversial. There is some thought that children who may appear to be learning a second language very quickly at a very young age (before the age of 5), accompanied by the loss of their first language, have really replaced the first language with the second language (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994, as cited in Clark, 2013). Many researchers believe that there is little benefit and potential harm in introducing a second language at a very young age unless caregivers are careful to maintain both languages as equally important and valuable (McLaughlin, 1984, as cited in Clark, 2013).

This paper discusses the possible problems that Iranian preschool learners of English might meet during the Persian language acquisition process in elementary school (Dabestan), at the level of phonology as well as the realm of vocabulary. Based on observations of Persian preschool learners of English as well as parental reports, we will focus on identified types of problems these children might experience after they begin formal schooling.

II. METHODOLOGY

The subjects were chosen at random from among children in Isfahan and Semirom. We did not know anything about their language interference. The problem was reported by their parents, especially their mothers. These reports were collected during interviews with them. In some cases, we also observed the children's performance.

Now let's consider some cases in which children made a Persian error due to the direct influence of the information from English.

1. My 5-year-old son, Vahid, was attending English school in Isfahan two times per week. He started to learn English letters between the ages of 5-6. He is now 7-years old and is learning Persian alphabets in the elementary school. But his progress is really slow. He can recognize the sound, but can not make sense of its certain letter. He usually interferes "ا" with "آ". For example, whenever I ask him to write /æsb/, instead of "اسب" he writes "asb". Even if I tell him again, he interferes the letters after a while. I don't know why he mixed the letters.

2. For months, our 6-year-old daughter, Zohre, attended English classes twice a week. She had to practice English alphabets everyday along with other things they were learning in school. During her elementary school, she had problems with reading and writing such letters as "ب" and "س". She pronounced the letter "ب" in the same way as the letter "b" is pronounced in English, i.e., "bee", or when she wanted to write, for example, "س" she used to write "s".

3. My daughter, Reyhane, attended English lessons before age 7 in Semirom- a city in Isfahan- and had weekly classes for one year. She really enjoyed the classes and was eager to attend each week. When she started to learn formal Persian in elementary school, she used to confuse "ز" with "z". We were worried about this problem, but after a lot of practice with a private teacher at home, we could overcome the problem.

4. My son, Pooya, attended an English School over the summer. He started with 45-minute twice-a-week classes and now in elementary school he has trouble learning and using certain Persian alphabets. He often confuses the letters "د", "ب", and "پ" with b, d, and p. Sometimes, I will get frustrated with him and fuss at him, which I know is not the answer, but it's hard to get him to focus. (Pooya's mother wants to know if there is an approach that she can take that won't get both of them frustrated.)

5. My child was entitled to attend an English school in Semirom, a city near Isfahan, the year she turned five. Mahsa could pronounce and use English alphabets very well. However, she had trouble learning Persian alphabets in elementary school. She very often confused the letters "پ", "ب", and "ک" with b, p, and k. For instance, she often replaced "ب" and b, or "ک" and k.

6. My son, Ali, is almost 7 years old, and he has been in an English school for the last 10 months before attending elementary school (Dabestan) in Isfahan. He started to learn English letters at the age of 6. But now he is incapable of learning some Persian letters, such as "ب" and "د" well. Of course, I think he is not the only kid in class that shows such a difficulty to learn these letters.

7. We live in Semirom, which is near Isfahan. My husband and I got our 5 year old daughter to learn English till the age of 7 when she entered an elementary school. Our daughter, Narine, seemed to have difficulty learning Persian alphabets at school. She used to have this problem in writing Persian words. For instance, once I asked her to write /a:b/. She wrote the word using the English spelling rather than Persian one, i.e., "ab" instead of "آب".

III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

The researches revealed that there are main negative effects of second language on first language acquisition such as:

1. Language Interference

It is a popular belief that learning of a second language is strongly influenced by the learners' first language. Strong evidence for this claim comes from the domain of the interference theory started with Hugo Munsterberg in the 19th century. The assumption that our ability to learn is disrupted by what we have learnt before and what we will learn in the future. Interference effects have attracted the attention of many researchers (Dulay et al ,1982; Lott ,1983; Ho ,1986; McLaughlin,1984; Ellis ,1997). These studies have focused on the L1 interference in the process of second language learning in many different areas

In light of these studies, it is fair to expect that language interference could also be mutual. -- that is to say, the *second language* can *interfere* with the first language. Children may manifest *interference* or *transfer* from L2 to their first language (L1), especially at those points in L1 which are more similar to L2. According to Vasek (1991), the mutual influence of languages on each other is very old, in fact as old as human speech itself. Language contact and its consequences, starting with mutual linguistic influences, also occur during the study of any foreign language (Vasek 1991), and therefore can also be a subject of the study of contact linguistics. Systematic research on the subject dates back only to the works on language mixing by Schuchardt (1881—91, quoted in Vasek, 1991). Albert and Obler (1978, as cited in Bhela, 199) claim that people show more lexical interference on similar items. So it may follow that languages with more similar features (eg English and French) are more susceptible to mutual interference than languages with fewer similar features (eg English and Japanese). Therefore, "interference" from the second language provides an account of one of the most basic problems in the process of teaching children to read and write their first language in elementary schools, where the aim is full literacy in the first language. On the other hand, the mutual interference might result in language mixing, and thus more likelihood of performance problems related to language mixing.

If this is the case, then we might expect more learning difficulties and thus more likelihood of performance interference at these points due to the contribution of L2 information in the production of L1 materials. This interference may hinder first language learning by children who start learning a second language at a very young age before mastering their first language.

To put it another way, in the process of first language acquisition in elementary school (Dabestan), where the child begins the task of learning Persian from point zero, information from English (mostly the sounds of English) can be seen as a major barrier on the child's path towards learning to read and write Persian materials. In fact, there is second language dominance over first language performance. As a result, a child with lexical and/or phonological knowledge of English will inevitably utilize the English information to understand and write Persian. Obviously, the child may make a Persian error due to the direct influence of English knowledge. We all know that in alphabet system English and Persian have some letters that share the same pronunciation. The negative transfer in reading and writing the letter always results from their similarity in pronunciation, letter pattern, and ways of expression. For example, an Iranian student is asked to write "ب", but because of L2 interference he/she may write "b" instead. This is an example of proactive interference, i.e., difficulty in learning new information because of already existing information. Therefore, Iranian students have great difficulty in mastering the alphabet system of their language. In the course of this research, the researchers observed the following problems with preschool aged children who started ELL before formal learning of Persian.

2. Foreign accent

Accent is a term that is unlike other related terms such as 'dialect' and 'standard language' has received a good deal of definitional agreement. However, by far the most representative definition of this linguistic and sociolinguistic term, in our opinion, is that given by Crystal (2003) in which he says that it is "the cumulative auditory effect of those features of pronunciation that identify where a person is from, regionally or socially." (Crystal, 2003, p.3)

It has long been accepted that children are superior in learning to speak a second language with a good accent than adults. Specifically, many people, such as Carroll (1963), believe that younger children can acquire a more native-like accent (or near-native pronunciation) in a second language than older students (quoted in Olson, Linda L.; Samuels, S. Jay, 1972).

Evidence of probability of achieving native-like pronunciation, with regards to near native-like accent, is largely supported by some studies conducted to examine the above assumption. Asher and Garcia (1969), for example, studied 71 Cuban immigrants in the United States who were from 7 to 19 years old. Most of the subjects, who had lived in the United States for five years, read four sentences into a tape recorder. When the recordings were completed, the tapes were given to 19 judges who were native speakers of English. The judges rated each speaker according to a four-point scale. The findings suggested that, of children who lived in the United States for more than five years, those who were

six years old or younger had a high probability of achieving native-like pronunciation. Those immigrants who came to the United States between the ages of 7 and 13 however, had a 50% chance of attaining a native-like accent while those subjects who were 13 and older had little chance of attaining a native-like accent.

This finding is similar to Oyama's (1976) study which investigated the pronunciation ability of 60 Italian immigrants who were between the ages of 6 and 20 and lived in the United States for 5 to 10 years. Oyama discovered that whether or not one acquires an accent largely depends on the age that one was when they immigrated to the United States. Those children, for example, who arrived before 12 years of age had pronunciation close to those of native speakers of English, while those children of 12 years of age or older did not demonstrate native-speaker pronunciation.

For many parents, it's enough if the child can *speak* in a particular language. These parents should know that children who start learning a new language early in life will have a "foreign" accent, which can cause mispronunciation and misunderstandings, and impede future opportunities in using their mother languages professionally. For example, a Persian speaking person may have greater difficulty pronouncing Persian words because of his or her tendency to want to apply English pronunciation to the first language.

3. Additional effort for the children

Mastering a foreign language would also require extra studying and effort outside of class on the part of students. Foreign languages are easily forgotten if not put into practice. There are parents that send their children to the same level of language classes. They claim that their children have forgotten what they have already learned and that they want their children to learn better than that. If it is so, will it be rational to say these children are not good at learning foreign languages? Certainly "NO". What is the problem? Let's say that one problem is that these children do not have the opportunity to improve these skills. Given the limited time in an English class, for example, and the break-neck pace at which classes are taught, we can presume it would be very easy for a student to forget the language they were learning.

4. Cultural Discrepancies

For many older adults, the choice to learn a foreign language is one of interest, for reasons of business or as per school requirements. But when children learn a foreign language, the reasoning tends to stem from a parent's desire. These parents wish to prepare their children for future opportunities, as is the case for many parents in non-English speaking countries who send their children to English schools. Either way, due to the intimate link between language and culture, children will get a taste of a foreign culture. This can result in cultural confusion in some cases, especially when a child is of a multi-ethnic background. For example, a Japanese child living in Hawaii might be surrounded by other Japanese Americans, attend Japanese school and even have Japanese extracurricular activities. The result of living in a Japanese community but still being American can cause a child to question his identity, especially in the teen years when self-identity becomes crucial and deeply linked with social circles.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In a non-English-speaking country like Iran, learning a foreign language like English may seem vital and necessary to many school kids. However, there are also some reasons why it might be disadvantageous, including language interference, mixing language, foreign accent, and additional effort for children, additional effort for parents, and cultural discrepancy. Moreover some preschool children do not possess the aptitude or desire to learn a second language, and therefore, forcing them to learn it, may be unwise.

Because of these problems we think it is better for Iranian children to begin learning a foreign language like English after they have mastered, or are actively using their first language. It is best to allow children to decide for themselves if they would like to take a foreign language class, and parents ought to understand this in order to maintain the interest of their children towards English language learning. Of course, parents should not delay their children's English language learning. Because this leads to another problem: starting a child's foreign language too late can result in an inability to completely master the new language. It might be a wise decision to send their children to English language classes as soon as they are performing well in their native language courses (i.e., Persian).

When is The Best Time to Start? It is not so easy to answer such question as the best age to learn a second language.

Because children are so much more skilled at picking up a second language than adults (Scovel 1999), elementary schools are a popular choice for parents. Children between the ages of 7 and 12 spend most of their time in schools, taking part in almost all educational and learning activities. They are more interested in doing activities that their peers are doing – one of which is unlikely to learn a foreign language, such as English. During these ages children have the opportunity to pick up a *second language so quickly and successfully* (Scovel 1999).

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Mehri Farzaneh is the faculty member of English language teaching. She is teaching English language courses for graduate courses in the English language Department at Payame Noor University in Islamic Republic of Iran. Her research interest includes language acquisition, teaching reading comprehension, and Discourse Analysis, attitude toward learning second language.

Mostafa Movahed is a teacher of English. He has been teaching English to students of all ages including children, teenagers and adults. He is currently teaching English at Payame Noor University in Islamic Republic of Iran. His research interest includes psycholinguistic, phonology and reading comprehension.

Intercultural Comparison of Metaphors

Lulu Wang

Canvard College, Beijing Technology and Business University, Beijing, China

Abstract—Metaphorical concepts play an important role in the course of human cognition and remoulding of the world, and figurative language is the best way of presenting metaphorical concepts. Comparative analysis of metaphorical phenomena in the Chinese and English languages is helpful in exploring the formation and development of metaphorical concepts all over the world and their internal relations with cultural value orientation of various nations.

Index Terms—metaphor, comparison, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and culture are twin sisters. Language is a part of culture. Without language, culture would not exist at all. On the other hand, language is influenced and shaped by culture and reflects culture. In the broadest sense, language is the symbolic representation of a people, and it comprises their historical and cultural backgrounds as well as their approach to life and their ways of living and thinking. (Wang, 2013) As metaphor is fully saturated with the culture, it is of great significance for us to explore the cultural connotations of metaphors and then to seek for appropriate translation strategies. This thesis views from a synchronic angle the embodiments of similarities and differences of metaphorical concepts in Chinese and English and the relations between metaphorical concepts and cognition and culture.

II. METAPHORICAL CONCEPTS AND CULTURAL VALUE ORIENTATION

The system of metaphorical concepts results from metaphorical thought. Thinking metaphorically by metaphorical concepts is a cognitive ability common to all humankind. In languages of various nations, usually there are same or similar metaphorical concepts. For example, in Chinese and English, there are concepts of cherishing time—一寸光阴一寸金/Time is money; descriptions of the quickly passing and never coming back time—Time flies like an arrow/光阴似箭, 时光飞逝 and Time and tide wait for no man/岁月不待人, which reflect the similarities of cultural thinking modes of the two nations. In Chinese, as to the quickly passing time, there is still unique metaphor like“白驹过隙”. The differences show that different national cultures have different influences on metaphorical concepts.

Human thinking ability and linguistic competence gradually grow and develop in the course of the cognition and remoulding of the world, during which time unknown things constantly spring up. As Prof. Hu Zhuanglin states, “人们要认识和描写以前未知的事物, 必须依赖我们已经知道的概念及语言表达方式, 由此及彼, 由表及里, 同时还要发挥惊人的想象力, 这个过程正是隐喻的核心, 它把熟悉和不熟悉的事物作不寻常的并列, 从而加深了我们对不熟悉事物的认识.” (Hu, 1997, p.51) All peoples have similar basic physiological, psychological and cognitive ability, and with geographical and natural conditions more or less alike, which result in the existence of generality among different cultures and provide possibility for the production of the same or similar metaphorical concepts in various languages. However, differences in living environments, physical features (i.e., color of skin and hair), and ways of life, language and historical tradition, inevitably create different cultures. The creation and development of culture reversely have constant effect on human thought and cognitive mode, bringing about differences of metaphorical concepts among various nations, which are reflected in differences of metaphorical language.

Let's view from a synchronic angle the embodiments of similarities and differences of metaphorical concepts in Chinese and English and the relations between metaphorical concepts and cognition and culture.

III. THE SIMILARITIES OF METAPHORICAL CONCEPTS IN CHINESE AND ENGLISH

Roughly, the similarities of metaphorical concepts in Chinese and English may be summed up as follows.

A. *Metaphorical Concepts Related to Human Body*

Metaphorical concepts related to human body contain metaphors taking parts of human body as vehicles, those taking human body as referring planes, those treating human body as containers and those of human feelings expressed by physiological reaction of human body to outside stimuli. (Wang, 2013)

In both Chinese and English, there are lots of such expressions as 桌子腿, 椅背, 瓶颈, 山脚, 针眼, 箭头 (In English, a leg of a table, chair's back, bottle neck, at the foot of a mountain, the eye of a needle, the head of an arrow), which embody metaphorical concepts. Words like “leg”, “back”, “neck”, “eye” and “head” which are used to describe parts of human or animal body, when they are used to metaphorize other objects, form vivid expressions easy to understand and

accept. This method is used to realize and describe new things around by the two nations and as time passes on, these names are established in language and these metaphorical concepts naturally become part of the cultural generality.

There are three referring planes of human body: up-down, left-right and front-back. People instinctively believe that “up” or “high” are better than “down” or “low”, thus “up” or “high” are always associated with positive meaning, while “down” or “low” with negative meaning. In the two languages there are such expressions: 高水平, 坠入爱河 (at a high level, fall in love), which express reason and emotions; 上台, 下野 (high on the ladder, fall from office), which express status; 提起精神, 沉睡 (wake up, fall asleep), which express consciousness and unconsciousness, and what not. In both Chinese and English, “right” and “front” are positive, while “left” and “back” are not so positive, thus come the English expressions “right-handed man”, which means “chief assistant, most reliable helper”, and “a left-handed compliment”, which means “compliment that is ambiguous in meaning but possibly ironic”, and the Chinese expression “无出其右者” indicating no one surpasses him in power.

In the two languages, body is viewed as a container, so we may say “She is filled with love” and “She is filled with anger” in English, and in Chinese when speaking of an angry person we may say “他惹了一肚子气”.

All people in the world have the five senses, i.e. sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch, to receive directly the external stimuli; these senses may evoke different emotional reaction in people’s mind, which may be described by metaphorizing the physiological senses. There are many instances in the two languages of expressing emotions by senses: 宽容, 心胸狭窄, 热情, 冷漠, 痛哭流涕, 苦恼 (broad-minded, narrow-minded, warmhearted, cold words, sweet smile, cry bitterly) and the like. All humans have the same senses and the interlinked emotional reaction is basically the same among nations. Of course, there is no lack of differences caused by cultural background, which will be discussed later.

B. *Metaphorical Concepts Related to Nature*

As has been mentioned above, all humans live in generally similar environments. Therefore, when objects in nature were applied to metaphorize abstract concepts or those difficult to describe directly, different nations may adopt the same vehicles. (Wang, 2013) For example, in both Chinese and English, flowers are used to describe beauties: 这闺女真是一朵花。/ Oh, my love is a red, red rose; stone means being pitiless: 铁石心肠/ a heart of stone; wood means being awkward or stupid: 这人真是个榆木疙瘩。/ wooden manner; sea means great in number: 王处长真是海量。/ fight against a sea of trouble, etc.

Metaphorical concepts, whether relevant to human or to nature, are the results of action or general character of human physiology and psychology and the environment. Their production results in the generality in culture and language, which will in turn affect metaphorical thought of human; and similar or alike metaphorical concepts and cultural generality interweave to improve and develop human cognitive ability.

IV. THE DIFFERENCES OF METAPHORICAL CONCEPTS

When vehicles of metaphorical concepts are further related to specific phenomena of physiology, psychology and nature and to history and cultures of various nations, differences manifest themselves. Thanks to the influence of various factors such as living regions, climates, ecological environments, history, religion and color of skin, the Chinese people and the British and American peoples have different cultures, which directly result in the dissimilarities of people’s thinking mode and value orientation, and thus become the major cause for the differences of metaphorical concepts. (Wang, 2013)

A. *Influence of History and Region*

Chinese civilization has been built on agriculture and so in Chinese there are a surprising number of metaphors related to farming. Besides, feudalism existed over two thousand years, and, though wars were unceasing, the dominant trend was national blending and reconciliation. However, Britain is an island country, in tradition the chief living means of the British was fishing and hunting, England was the first industrialized country, it was powerful at sea and once possessed global colony, it kept intruding into and pillaging other countries in large scale in history. The marked regional and historical differences between the two nations have great influence on their thought, language and national character, which is expressed remarkably in the figures of speech and metaphorical concepts. (Wang, 2013)

The English and Chinese have different understanding of locality and its correspondents. In China, people have thought 面南为王, 面北为朝 and often say 从南到北, 南来北往, and the locality of 南 often proceeds that of 北 because south is superior to north from ancient times, hence the expression 败北. On the contrary, in English culture, English-speaking people will say from north to south to express what 南来北往 stands for in Chinese from the perspective of English regional culture. So, 北屋 is actually a room facing south.

Concerning 东风 and east wind, each has its corresponding word in English and Chinese but with totally different connotation. In mind of Chinese, 东风 represents spring and warmth, which revitalizes the frozen land and brings the new life, so there is a saying of 东风报春 (The east wind predicts the coming of Spring.) and the Chinese people like the east wind. But in Britain, the east wind comes from the northern part of the European Continent, which stands for

cold and unpleasant, so the English abhor the east wind. On the contrary, the English like west wind, for it brings Britain spring, hence the saying of 西风报春. In the famous poem *Ode to the West Wind*, Percy Bysshe Shelley expressed his glorious longing for and firm belief in the future by the sentence: O, wind, if winter comes, can spring be far behind? In translating this poem, it is quite necessary to give the explanation to this regional cultural difference. Otherwise, the Chinese readers who have limited knowledge about English regional culture will feel puzzled.

Under the influence of agriculture, the Chinese people regard food as their primary needs. So there are many metaphors related to eating and food. For example, “吃饱了撑的” (be restless from overeating—have so much surplus energy as to do sth. senseless), “吃不了，兜着走” (get more than one bargained for; land oneself in serious trouble; be left holding the bag), “吃大锅饭” (eat from the same big pot—get the same pay whether one works hard or does not work at all; practice egalitarianism regardless of work), “吃独食” (have things all to oneself; refuse to share with others), “吃皇粮” (receive salaries, subsidies, or other support from the government), “吃里爬外” (eat sb.’s food and cater to his enemy; live on one person while secretly serving another; betray one’s own side) “吃软不吃硬” (susceptible to persuasion rather than coercion), “吃小灶” (eat at a small mess where better food is prepared and served for a restricted number of diners—enjoy special privilege). (新时代汉英词典) In addition, there are a lot of dietetic metaphors, for example, “吃豆腐” (dally [with a woman]; flirt), “添油加醋” (embellish or embroider a story), “哪壶不开提哪壶” (touch a sore point; bring up an undesirable subject), “醋意” (feeling of jealousy), “吃醋” (be jealous), “吃干醋” (experience uncalled-for or vicarious jealousy).

In English, there are many metaphorical expressions related to sea, fishing and ship, such as “go by the board” ((安排) 落空; (计划) 失败), “be taken aback” (大吃一惊), “big fish” (大亨), “cool fish” (厚脸皮的人), “dull fish” (枯燥无味的人), “fresh fish” (新囚犯), “loose fish” (放荡的人), “old fish” (怪人), “poor fish” (愚蠢易欺骗的人), “shy fish” (羞怯的人), “able seaman” (一级水手), “be left high and dry” (陷于困境), “give (sb. or sth.) a wide berth” (让出一条宽宽的水域, 指远远地躲开), and “show one’s (true) colours” (显露真面目).

The British and Americans have a keen sense of time, which is relevant to the long period of hunting life of their ancestors and to the fierce competition for existence in capitalist society, while China had been an agricultural country in history, people used to get up to work at sunrise and retire at sunset and the growth period of crops was measured by month or season, thus their sense of time was not so keen as that of the British and Americans. The British and Americans look on time as wealth, thus comes the metaphor “Time is money” and the same collocation of time and money with verbs like “spend”, “invest”, “cost”, “budget”, etc. In Chinese though there is the saying “一寸光阴一寸金”, the measurement of time by season, month, day and division of a day into 12 two-hour periods don’t bear comparison in precision with that in English by hour, minute and second.

B. *Influence of Aesthetic Standards and Customs*

The Chinese people and the British and American peoples belong to different races and have different cultures, thus their aesthetic standards and customs are dissimilar. The Chinese belong to the yellow race and consider black hair, black eyes and fair complexion to be beautiful; while most of the British and Americans are white people who consider golden hair and blue eyes to be beautiful. (Wang, 2013) These aesthetic criteria are reflected in the metaphorical concepts and produce in Chinese such expressions as “黑色的瀑布”, “黑缎子”, which indicate hair of a beauty; and in English, blonde, which the British and Americans are used to describe a beauty. In Chinese, there are expressions like “樱桃小口”, “柳叶眉”, “卧蚕眉”, “鹅蛋脸”, “瓜子脸” that have difficulty finding their counterparts in English.

The different Chinese and English customs can be represented by metaphorical concepts of animal, color, numbers and so on.

For our Chinese, the dragon and the phoenix were the traditional symbols of royalty. The dragon stood for the king or emperor, and the phoenix for the queen or empress. There were few negative connotations and even today, these mythological creatures occasionally appear in traditional Chinese designs. As an auspicious creature that supposedly brings good luck, the dragon gave rise to the saying that parents 望子成龙—longing to expect one’s son to be dragon, that is, be successful. To Westerners, however, the dragon is often a symbol of evil, a fierce monster that destroys everything and therefore must be killed. Interestingly, Western drawings of dragons show the monsters with wings, whereas in Chinese design and drawings, the creature has none.

The phoenix, in Western mythology, is associated with rebirth and resurrection. According to Greek legend, the phoenix lives a certain number of years—500 by one account. At the end of its life, it makes a nest, sings a death song, then sets fire to its nest by flapping its wings. The phoenix is burned to ashes, but from these ashes emerges a new bird. Thus, when a town, a place, or the headquarters building of an organization is destroyed by fire or other form of disaster, well-wishers may express the hope that it will “...like the legendary phoenix, rise from the ashes in new splendor.” In Chinese mythology, the phoenix was regarded as the king of birds. The male was called feng, the female, huang. The phoenix is used in metaphors, standing for something rare and precious, for example, 凤毛麟角 (phoenix feathers and unicorn horns—rarity of rarities).

In Chinese, dog is generally derogatory, and phrases “狼心狗肺”, “狗仗人势”, “狗腿子” are often applied to bad persons, while in West dog is a popular pet, and phrases like “lucky dog” and “top dog” are not derogatory at all,

indicating respectively a person who is lucky and who has a high position. There are other similar examples, such as 鼠辈(yellow dog), 落汤鸡(drowned rat), 狐假虎威者(lion hunter), 孔雀(公主)(bunny), 狂如疯狗(as mad as a wet hen), 狗咬狗的小人(rat racers), 猫哭老鼠(shedding crocodile tears), 害群之马(a black sheep), 捅马蜂窝(to wake a sleeping dog), 瓮中之鳖(a rat in a hole), 热锅上的蚂蚁(like a cat on hot bricks).

Various colors in Chinese and English cultures have different metaphorical concepts. Take 黄色(yellow) as an example, yellow appears in such Chinese expressions as 黄色电影, 黄色音乐, 黄色书刊. How should these be translated into English? Not as yellow movies, yellow books, yellow music. Such terms would not be understood. For 黄色 one might use pornographic, trashy, obscene, filthy, or vulgar, as in pornographic pictures, obscene movies, filthy books, vulgar music.

Numbers are used by the whole humanity so that culture of numbers has come into Beijing. As far as the Chinese culture is concerned, it bears the similarity to the world culture, but the Chinese culture lays more stress on the use of number, so did the ancient Chinese culture. There are numerous Chinese metaphors that use "numbers". For example, 七上八下, 七嘴八舌, 七情六欲, 七窍生烟, 七大八小. And in English culture, "seven" is a holy and mysterious number which is made up of "4" and "3" and "4" and "3" are regarded as lucky numbers, so there are such expressions, like "the Seventh Heavens"(七重天), "the Seventh Senses"(七种官能): vigour, sense of touch, taste, sight, smell and hearing and speech ability, "the Seven Deadly or Capital Sins"(七大罪): arrogance, anger, jealousy, lust, gluttony, greed, laziness or sloth.

C. *Influence of Religion and Mythology*

Religion and mythology have far-reaching influence on cultural values. The religious culture refers to the culture formed by the nation's religious belief and ideology, which represents in the cultural difference of different nations in worship and taboo. Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism are the three main thought systems in China, which has profound influence on the Chinese people. Therefore, there are many expressions and proverbs reflecting this influence, which can not find full equivalent in English because of the different religious beliefs. In Chinese, "九" often indicates the maximum, thus come the expressions as "九曲回肠", "九死一生", "九州", "九重天", etc. Taoism is the Chinese locally born and bred religion that makes a mystery of the concept "Taoism" in the theory of the former Qin dynasty. The Taoist school denies the distinction between different things, and chases the goal of becoming immortals, thus come the various euphemisms for death: "化仙、升天、升仙、登仙、仙游、仙逝、跨鹤、化鹤、贺鹤西游". Buddhism was introduced from India into China in 59AD. The final aim of Buddhism is to liberate human beings from samara and reach the state of nirvana. Many special euphemistic expressions are used to refer to the death of Buddhism believers. For example, "成佛、圆寂、归真、迁化、示化、示寂、入灭、入寂、灭示、迁神、迁形、寂灭、灭度、灭谛、生化". These terms reflect the obvious cultural characteristics of Buddhism. The following examples can also reflect special religious Chinese culture,

临时抱佛脚 (embrace Buddha's feet in one's hour of need)—seek help at the last moment/make a frantic last-minute effort.

做一天和尚撞一天钟 (go on tolling the bell as long as one is a monk)—do the least that is expected of one / take a passive attitude towards one's work.

道高一尺, 魔高一丈 (the truth grows a foot high, the evil grows to ten / as virtue rises one foot, vice rises ten)—the more illumination, the more temptation / Where God has his church, the devil will have his chapel.

放下屠刀, 立地成佛 (drop one's cleaver and become a Buddha)—achieve salvation as soon as one gives up evil.

人面兽心 (the face of a man but the heart of a beast)—beast in human form / A fair face may hide a foul heart.

The westerners believe in Christianity, so people universally have the sense of salvation and original sin, and they believe God is the only deity. In English, most euphemisms about death come from the Bible, or the legend and allusion of Christianity. According to the Christian creed, the process of living is just the process of atoning for one's crime. After experiencing various sufferings, people can be saved through death then go into heaven. This creed is well reflected by the euphemisms about death in English. For example, there are expressions as "return to dust, pay the debt of nature, be called to God, go the way of all flesh, launch into eternity and so on".

Other metaphorical expressions are related to "God", "Devil", "Hell", "Church" are "God help those who help themselves (自助者, 天助也)", "He that serves God for money will serve the devil for better wages(为金钱侍奉上帝的人, 为了更好的报酬也会给魔鬼卖力)", "The devil take the hindmost(落后者遭殃)", "Hell and Tommy (彻底毁灭)", "as poor as a church mouse(一贫如洗)", "act of god (不可抗力)", "Thank heaven / Thank god(谢天谢地)" and so on.

In English, a wicked person is said to be a devil, as in "Hitler is a devil", a traitor is called Judas and action hypocritical and malignant is a Judas kiss, sleep is the land of Nod, and when taking leave of relatives and friends, people may say "Good-bye" which means may God be with you. These are from Christianity and the Bible. From Greek mythology also come some metaphors: a Pandora's box—the root of disaster, Jupiter's arrow—the happy fate which brings lovers together, Titan—person of great size, strength, intellect, importance, etc.

D. *Influence of Literature*

Literary works are an important source of metaphors in various national languages. Metaphors from literary works appear repeatedly in language and some gradually merge into people's thought which become concepts and lose the original meanings. (Wang, 2013)

In China if one has never read Lu Xun's *The True Story of Ah Q* (《阿 Q 正传》), he would be at lost to understand the remark about the utterance “你这个人真阿 Q.” Merely to know the plot of *A Dream of Red Mansions* (*Dream of the Red Chamber* 《红楼梦》) is hardly enough to appreciate the expression “她是个林黛玉式的人物” which reference to the heroine 林黛玉 in the story. And so many Chinese classics as *Romance of the Three Kingdoms*, *A Journey to the West*, *Outlaws of the Marsh*, *Dream of Red Mansions* and operas as *Hua Mulan*, *Liang Shanbo and Zhu Yingtai*, have vital influence on Chinese metaphors and metaphorical concepts, and “智多星” (Wu Yong (a resourceful person; a mastermind)), “三顾茅庐” (repeatedly request someone to take up a responsible post), “四面楚歌” (be besieged on all sides; utterly isolated; in desperate straits), “拔苗助长” (to spoil things by excessive enthusiasm), “女蜗补天” (Lady Nuwa mends the sky), “猪八戒倒打一耙” (Zhubajie (the pig in *Pilgrimage to the West*) puts blame on his innocent victim—make unfounded countercharges / recriminate.), “身在曹营心在汉” (body in Cao, but heart in Han—in one place physically but another place in mind and heart.), etc. have become metaphorical concepts in people's thought and part of the language, frequently appearing in daily conversations. Some figures in classics have lost some of their original characters and become symbols of a certain kind of people: “诸葛亮” or “小诸葛” indicates a person who has much wisdom and has the situation well in hand, not showing the spirit of Zhuge Liang himself of bending his back to the task till his dying day; “曹操” stands for fraudulent villain, neglecting Cao Cao's excellent art of military strategy and outstanding leadership; “唐僧肉” refers to benefit that everyone hankers for, obliterating Tang Seng's meritorious service of making a pilgrimage for Buddhist scriptures for the salvation of common people through innumerable hardships.

Western classics, such as Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, *Hamlet*, *The Merchant of Venice*, Cervantes' *Don Quixote*, Balzac's *Le Pere Goriot*, Goethe's *Faust*, also play an important role in the formation of metaphors in English and in that of metaphorical concepts of the British and American peoples. For instance, *Romeo and Juliet* are the symbol of pure love, and their names may indicate respectively young men and women in love; *Grandet* becomes the synonym of misers; *Don Quixote* means a person with high but completely unrealistic ideals. Other household terms include:

a Cleopatra (克娄巴特拉)—a woman of breathtaking beauty; from Shakespeare's *Anthony and Cleopatra*

a Shylock (夏洛克)—a cruel, greedy, money-grabbing person, one who will go to no ends to acquire wealth; from *The Merchant of Venice*, another play by Shakespeare

a Pandora's box (潘朵拉之盒—灾难、麻烦、祸害的根源)—a present or something which may seem valuable, but which brings trouble and misfortune. In Greek mythology, Pandora was the first woman, sent to the earth by the gods as a form of punishment. Zeus (or Jupiter, in Roman mythology) gave her a box which she was to give to the man who married her. When this box was finally opened, all the evils that were in it flew out, and since then have caused trouble to mankind. Example: The project, which seemed so promising, turned out to be a Pandora's box. (那个项目看起来好像很有希望, 结果招来许多灾祸。)

V. CONCLUSION

The formation of metaphorical thought and concepts is a complex issue involving many aspects such as national language, culture, physiology, psychology and living environment, etc. The generality of metaphorical concepts between Chinese and English originates in the similarities of physiology, psychology and living environment; the development of metaphorical thought and concepts gives impetus to the formation and development of culture which in turn influences human thought and metaphorical concepts. In view of the marked differences between the Chinese culture and the British and American cultures, it is not difficult to understand the differences lying in the metaphors in the two languages and those in the metaphorical concepts.

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Lulu Wang was born in Liaoning, China in 1980. She received her M.A degree in English Language and Literature from China University of Petroleum in 2006.

She is currently an associate professor in Canvard College, Beijing Technology and Business University, Beijing, China. Her research interests include translation theory & practice, English teaching and linguistics.

Memorization Makes Progress

Alieh Nasrollahi-Mouziraji

Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran;
Department of ELT, Islamic Azad University, Babol Branch, Babol, Mazandaran, Iran

Atefeh Nasrollahi-Mouziraji

Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran;
Department of ELT, Islamic Azad University, Ayatollah Amoli Branch, Amol, Mazandaran, Iran

Abstract—There are disputes over the role of memorization in language learning. Memorized language, a mainstay of education for almost all of recorded history, was widely repudiated for suppressing creativity, understanding and enjoyment in learners. This paper aims at highlighting the fact that, despite these criticisms, memorization is a helpful strategy which can be employed by the learners and teachers in their process of language learning and teaching. It is discussed that memorization: 1) provides the learner with linguistic data; 2) is the first step to understanding; 3) enhances association in memory; 4) causes cognitive development as a learning strategy; 5) helps noticing; 6) provides rehearsal; 7) is especially helpful in early stages of learning. It is also pointed out that all these become possible when memorization is accompanied and complemented by other strategies and techniques.

Index Terms—memorization, cognitive strategy, rehearsal, understanding

I. INTRODUCTION

Due to the shift of emphasis in education in favor of communication and negotiation for meaning, memorized language, which was a mainstay of education for the whole recorded history, has been promulgated in language classes. Memorization and any other kinds of rote learning were widely repudiated for suppressing creativity, understanding and enjoyment in learners. "If there is one thing progressive educators don't like, it's rote learning" (Knox, 2004). The basic principle advocated by almost all scholars in the field of ELT is that "it would be counterproductive to base language-teaching methodologies on something other than an understanding of how language learning does and does not take place" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p.4). Memorization which is a parrot like imitation and production does not have a place in such a paradigm.

II. CHALLENGES AGAINST MEMORIZING

Traditionally, second language teaching methods were based on the assumption that language consists of a series of rules and patterns. Therefore, learning a second language was equivalent to learning the L2 code. This led to the learning of grammar rules in the Grammar Translation Method or the memorization of contextualized chunks of language in the Audiolingual Method. Gradually criticisms were levied against memorization. Memorization became synonymous with learning mechanically and repeating material without attention to understanding or meaning (Vassall-Fall, 2008). The "drill and kill" method (Knox, 2004), in which according to Iran-Nejad (1995) learning "is relegated strictly to external control of list-like memorization and is easily forgotten and not meaningfully related to internal themes" (P. 25) were among the practices looked upon with disfavor.

Thus Gass and Selinker (2008) maintain that studies in second language acquisition show that language learning is more than rule memorization and "more important, perhaps, it involves learning to express communicative needs." (p. 4). Clearly, to such educationists memorization does not foster understanding, analysis or retention of information nor is it authentic and communicative, hence it should be discarded and abandoned in language classes. "Educators have lamented the fact that often students were trained to be passive receptors of information instead of being taught to critically analyze information (Oliver & Utermohlen, 1995 as cited in Vassall-Fall, 2008). The optimum methodology now was based on this new conceptualization of language learning and new methodologies have been generated which emphasized the need for communication and meaning negotiation. Thus memorization became like an art form, which according to Knox (2004), has lost its popularity. "One of the most damaging doctrines ever to invade teachers' colleges" is, as Pudwa (2005) regrets, "the concept that memorization was at best unnecessary and at worst downright harmful" (p. 2). This led to the ignorance of the instinctive desire of memorization.

III. THE BENEFICIAL EFFECTS OF MEMORIZING

But the role of memorization has been much underestimated in these studies. Pudwa (2005) puts forward the principle that "you can't get something out of a child's brain that isn't in there to begin with." The child learns by

developing a large database in the "brain of reliably correct and sophisticated language patterns." (p. 2). Memorization can be considered as one of the techniques which can provide the child with this linguistic foundation. Young children will naturally memorize language patterns from their environment. Rather than considering rote memorization as a direct opposition to understanding, it can be viewed in a complementary role. Adamson (1990) points to the well documented fact that "English learners use memorization in different ways, ranging from learning to coping with assignments or exercises (p. 76). Oanh's (2006) study investigated the role of memorization and found that to some English learners memorization seems to be a normal practice. Therefore they assign a significant role to "good memorization" which helps them in learning English. Oanh (2006) states that as a way of internalizing what they have been taught, memorization is an ideal practice for English learners which leads to the natural production of the learned expressions.

As Cook (1994) puts it:

yet, as is now widely acknowledged, research both on child language development and on adult language, while not denying the capacity for novelty and focus on meaning, has also stressed the role of memory for unanalyzed 'chunks' of language. The well-documented discourse of the infant first language acquirer is characterized by repetition of set phrases, rituals, stories, and rhymes, in many of which, for the child, there is neither meaning nor purpose." (p. 136)

This is similar to the belief of Islamic educators who, according to Boyle (2004), view memorization as "the first step in a life-long enterprise of seeking understanding and thus knowledge" (p. 125). Boyle cites Al-Ghazali who pointed out that memorization of the Koran may be the first step to learning it but that does not necessarily mean that comprehension is precluded:

"[the] creed ought to be taught to a boy in the earliest childhood, so that he may hold it absolutely in memory. Therefore, the meaning of it will keep gradually unfolding itself to him, point by point, as he grows older. So, first, is the committing to memory, then understanding, then belief and certainty and acceptance" (p. 125)

A. *From the Neural-network Standpoint*

Thing can also be discussed from a neurological point of view. From this perspective, memorization develops the brain in a way nothing else can. Davelaar and Abelman (2004) remind that "it has become clear that the human memory is associative and that the relations between neurons -their mutual connections by synapses- are very important in memorization" (p. 190). Neurons, Pudewa (2005) maintains, "make connections through frequency, intensity and duration of stimulation" (p.3). He further maintains that through memorizing, all three of these variables become involved, and thus the network of neural connections which build the foundation of raw intelligence is strengthened. He concludes that the strengthening of this network of neural connection, metaphorically, leads to the existence of more "RAM" in the CPU of our brains so memorization is a useful strong tool for managing storage. "Not only is organized memorization important for neurological growth, it also builds a mental discipline which will carry over into other academic areas" (Pudewa, 2005, p. 4). Memorization mostly takes the form of repetition of substantial stretches of language. Özkan and Kesen (2008) believe that repetition of chunks of language provides the mind with something to work on irrespective of not being understood or used to communicate. Grammar and meaning may unfold itself gradually. "As educators have known for centuries, memorization exercises deliver unique cognitive benefits" (Özkan, & Kesen, 2008, p. 60).

B. *From the Information Processing Perspective*

Due to the existence of capacity limit of human attention, not all the information stored in the sensory register can move on to working memory. Unfortunately, our working memory is also limited and we can attend to only a small amount of information at any one time. As a result, of the information received by our sensory register, only a small amount is not lost from the memory system. After being bombarded by stimuli, our working memory screens and decides what to do with them. To Eggen & Kauchak (1997) three choices are available for the receiver:

1. purging the memory by disregarding the information
2. Retaining the information in working memory by repeating (rehearsal)
3. Transferring the information into long-term memory through rehearsal or by connecting it with.

One way through which the limitations of working memory can be partially overcome is automaticity. If a mental operation is performed with little awareness or conscious effort, it will become automatic (Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977). Sowell (1981 cited in Banikowski & Mehring, 1999) found that "normal" learners require approximately 40 exposures to information before it becomes automatic. Automaticity can be developed through the famous saying that practice makes progress. In language classes, one of the best strategies to practice a new language item is through repetition.

As it was mentioned earlier in this paper, human attention span is limited. When attention shifts away, humans can no longer attend to the information. Banikowski and Mehring (1999) maintain that rehearsing the information mentally can help the individuals to keep information activated in working memory for longer than 20 seconds. Robinson (1995) believes that the processing of information to long-term memory from working memory includes encoding that is dependent upon additional processes known as rehearsal. He identifies two types of rehearsal:

1. a data-driven process known as maintenance rehearsal and
2. a conceptually-driven process known as elaborative rehearsal.

Craik and Lockhart (1972) explain that maintenance rehearsal involves repeating the information in your mind. Information is retained in working memory as long as it is repeated. That is why Ding (2007) concludes his study by claiming that the practice of text memorization and imitation can enhance noticing. When learners are relieved from the pressure imposed by the real time communication, they are able to attend to the use of minute features such as intonations, inflectors, and function words. Freed from any preoccupation with content understanding and expression, learners can practice what they might have ignored. With repeated practice, text memorization and imitation can also enhance rehearsal. "The initially noticed new feature becomes familiar and is transferred from the working memory to the long-term memory, retrievable when need arises" (Ding, 2007, p.9).

It can be concluded that rehearsal can be one of the useful strategies which must be employed by teachers in language classes. Teachers must be careful not to bombard the learners with too much information. After being exposed to the new information, time is needed to be allocated to rehearsal. If the new information is not transferred to the long term memory through rehearsal activities, it will be easily decayed and lost.

C. Memorization as a Learning Strategy

Over the last few decades, there was a gradual but significant shift from emphasis on teachers and teaching to learners and learning. There is lots of research that indicates language learning strategies play an important role for language learners. Language learners need to use different strategies to overcome their difficulties in second/foreign learning and production. Language learners use language learning strategies either intentionally or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom. They use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what has been learned.

In the literature on the learning strategies, memorization is considered as one of the cognitive strategies used by the language learner. Memorization can be defined as a strategy that focuses on the storage and retrieval of language. In their study, Kato (1996) and Oxford and Ehrman (1995) show that memory-related strategies relate to L2 proficiency. As indicated by Oanh (2006), experience in EFL teaching has revealed that memorization can be a valid learning strategy if used appropriately as a tool helping the internalization of what has been learned by the learners to be applied to in real time communication. The interviewees in Ding's (2007) study regarded text memorization and imitation as the most effective methods of learning English. The finding is also documented by some other researchers in Chinese context (Parry, 1998; Ting, 1998, as cited in Ding, 2007).

Cohen and Oxford (2003) identify memorization as a strategy students use to improve the development of their language skills. Strategies such as memorization has the power to affect the language learning process by increasing attention and retrieval of information and also enhancing rehearsal, integration and encoding of language material. Maria-Luise (1997) refers to the sensitivity of associative memory to the frequency of input which explains why simple memorization strategies such as repetition can enhance learning. Oxford (2003) might be right to claim that "memory-related strategies help learners link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding" (p.13); but if used appropriately, lots of benefits are withdrawn from the use of such strategies. Robinson (1995) claims that after the form has been noticed in short-term memory, rehearsal leads to further encoding of the form in long-term memory. Noticing the gap is not sufficient for the learner to retain the information. "Even if the learners have noticed the gaps, they are often forced to empty their working memories for the next wave of incoming input; as a result, they abandon the noticed new forms rather than turning them into linguistic knowledge" (Robinson, 1995, p. 318).

Cohen (1996) classifies language use strategies into four categories: retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, cover strategies, and communication strategies. He classifies memorization as one of the cover strategies. He maintains that:

Cover strategies are those strategies that learners use to create the impression that they have control over material when they do not. They are a special type of compensatory or coping strategies which involve creating an appearance of language ability so as not to look unprepared, foolish, or even stupid. A learner's primary intention in using them is not to learn any language material, nor even necessarily to engage in genuine. An example of a cover strategy would be using a memorized and not fully-understood phrase in an utterance in a classroom drill in order to keep the action going (p.4)

But it must be made clear that memorization is not used as a kind of compensation. It is an aid to the learner to make things more accessible for the learner. Sivell (1980, p. 52) enumerates the merits of using memorization by students which give them a feeling of accomplishment and success, security and familiarity, esthetic pleasure, and a body of knowledge. Rather than condemning the students' desire to memorize, Teachers need to approach it with understanding and appreciation. There are ways which can help the teacher to overcome the shortcomings which are claimed to accompany memorized language.

D. How to Delineate the Negative Points

The real problem occurs when memorizing and understanding are perceived as mutually exclusive processes. We must wear a broader lens through which memorizing and understanding are seen to go hand in hand with each other. Both of these processes contribute to each other (understanding makes memorizing easier and memorizing helps understanding). They might happen simultaneously or one might precede the other. It all depends on the kind of learner's (their age and level of language proficiency) and the classroom technique used. Either of these two processes can act as the starting point and the other as the complementary one. Many are able to combine the processes of

memorizing and understanding very effectively, or they can even come one after the other. This is the same belief held in Islamic education in which according to Boyle (2004) "memorization is generally considered as the first step in understanding (not a substitute for it) as it ensures that sacred knowledge is passed on in proper forms so that it can be understood later" (p. 124).

Studies have also shown that there might be a pattern change in the use of strategies due to a change in maturation or proficiency level in the target language. Schmitt (1997) refers to the study conducted by Chesterfield and Chesterfield which indicated that in bilingual classrooms, an implicational scaling technique was used by Mexican-American students by which a sequence of strategy use was determined. The receptive and self-contained strategies like repetition, memorization, and formulaic expressions were among the first strategies used. They were later replaced by strategies related to interaction and metacognition. In his own study Schmitt (1997) have found that the uses of wordlists and flash cards have been abandoned as the subjects got older. It can be concluded that "some learning strategies are more beneficial at certain ages than others, and that learners naturally mature into using different strategies." (p. 225).

It was noted that memorization can enhance rehearsal. Two kinds of rehearsal have been identified: maintenance and elaborative (Craik and Lockhart, 1972). Maintenance rehearsal is useful for retaining something you plan to use and then forget, such as a phone number. In order to transfer the information to the long term memory, it must be further elaborated. We must move from maintenance rehearsal to elaborative rehearsal which involves connecting the information you are trying to remember with something you already know, with information from long-term memory. To Combs, (2005, p.7), elaborative rehearsals are "non-automatic learning process, which are engaged by the learner's conscious intention to learn generalization. This form of rehearsal, he argues, necessitates establishing connections between the information in short-term memory and the structures in long-term memory, through which new information is embedded in old memory structures or "schemata".

The issue could also be clarified by the depth-of-processing theory proposed by Craik and Lockhart in 1972. They claimed that the chance that some piece of information will be stored in long-term memory is not determined by the length of time that it is held in short-term memory but rather by the shallowness or depth with which it is initially processed. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) used Craik and Lockhart's depth-of-processing theory to formulate their involvement hypothesis for second-language vocabulary learning. their notion of *involvement*, consists of (i) a motivational component, comprising the *need* to determine a new word's meaning, and (ii) a cognitive component, comprising *search* (e.g., dictionary look up) and *evaluation* (e.g., evaluating whether the information obtained from the dictionary applies to the verbal and non-verbal context). So if memorization is not followed by activities making learners involved with the new piece of information, the new information is not deeply ingrained in their memory, and hence easily forgotten.

IV. CONCLUSION

Memorization seeks "to plant the seeds that would lead to understanding." (Boyle, 2004, p. 125). Pennycook (1996) makes a big claim when he states that "all language learning is, to some extent, a practice of memorization of the words of others" (p.202). But he is right to some extent. As one of the participants in Stevick study (cited in Ding, 2007) claims about memorization "this was the most stupid method in the world but, towards the end of the semester, proved amazingly effective – even the staunchest opponents had to admit this." (p.8). Cook (1994) also believes that:

repetition and learning by heart are two of the most valuable, pleasurable and efficient uses of language learning activities, and that they can bring with them sensations of those valuable goals for the language learner who aims at being involved in the authentic and communicative use of language (p. 133).

It is a learning strategy which is mostly helpful in early stages of learning. It can be considered as the way through which controlled processes are changed into automatic ones, and hence available for easy retrieval. In EFL contexts, it is an effective method of rehearsal for drawing learners' attention to form. A word of warning here; memorization is a helpful strategy but not a sufficient one in learning a complex phenomenon like language. It must be used with a gradual shift of emphasis from memorizing to understanding. Otherwise, it wouldn't lead to what is expected from a language learner. That is why Oxford (2003) maintains that "memory strategies are often used for memorizing vocabulary and structures in initial stages of language learning, but that learners need such strategies much less when their arsenal of vocabulary and structures has become larger" (p.13).

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Alieh Nasrollahi-Mouziraji is a Ph.D. student of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) at Islamic Azad University in Tehran (Science and Research Branch). She graduated B.A. and M. A. in English literature in Semnan and Shiraz University respectively. As for her professional background, Nasrollahi has taught English at a number of language schools, and tutored courses in IELTS, TOEFL and FCE since 2003. She has also been a lecturer, running General English and English Grammar courses at Islamic Azad University in Babol, Iran since 2007. Her major research interest in language learning and teaching is in motivational factors, higher level thinking, autonomy and self-regulation.

Atefeh Nasrollahi-Mouziraji is a PhD. student in Islamic Azad University Science and Research Branch, Tehran. She is now faculty member of Islamic Azad University Ayatollah Amoli Branch. She has published papers in international journals. Her main areas of interests are first language acquisition, learning styles and critical thinking and pedagogy.

An Investigation into the Representation of Intertextuality in the ELT Series Four Corners

Fereydoon Vahdani

Department of English Language and Literature, Payamenoor University, Rasht, Iran

Seyede Mina Ghazi Mir Saeed

Department of English Language and Literature, Payamenoor University, Rasht, Iran

Abstract—The major intent of this study was to investigate the way through which intertextuality has being utilized in the Four Corners series. To this end, Fairclough's (1992) framework in dealing with intertextuality were deployed. Hence, ten reading passages were selected randomly among the passages of the series which were analyzed in terms of intertextuality types and ways of reporting. The results of the investigation revealed that sequential and manifest intertextuality was deployed in the reading passages in which different texts or discourse types were alternated and merged in a more separable way. Furthermore, the results of the study showed that the reading passages relied heavily on direct reporting in some cases on indirect and narrative reporting strategies of intertextuality. Hence, the findings of the study showed that intertextuality were utilized for imposing some particular relationship between a specific text and a genre and also the relationship between a text and its cultural context.

Index Terms—intertextuality, sequential intertextuality, mixed intertextuality, indirect reporting, narrative reporting of speech act

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a means to reflect as well as challenge social positions of learners (Weatherall, 2002). Gender, social class, age, ethnicity, education etc. are among the factors contributing to the social classification as one of the measures determining the language people use (Muto-Humphrey, 2005). In fact, language is a means to transmit different attitudes, values and norms, though it is considered as neutral communicative instrument; accordingly, it is not unpredictable that language plays a crucial role in reinforcing or even forming attitudes and values of a society.

Hence, language is a crucial factor in communicative events, by which our ideas and feeling about the world around us are conceptualized. It is evident that the relationship between language, thought and reality is not so clear and straightforward (Mineshima, 2008). In this regard, Ansary and Babaii (2003) argue that language plays a crucial role in establishing social relationships with other individuals living in the society. In effect, cultural, political, economic, social and religious factors (Bell et al., 2006) are demanding issues taken into account in designing any language textbook. Customs, law, class, ethnic background, as well as prejudices of a particular society have a certain disposition towards the ideologies presented to the learners; and these issues construct particular attitudes and behaviors.

Whereas linguistic factors consider the grammatical or semantic choices; sociological components deal with cultural, environmental, ethical and social alternatives. In fact, gender, power and opportunity, as the social systems, are interwoven with cultural and historical processes, thus tradition has a determining role on construction of these systems. It is apparent that the way in which tradition develops over time is an essential factor in maintaining or modifying these systems in any society (Gouveia, 2005).

Recently the concept of intertextuality has been introduced which emphasizes that every text is interpretable through the background knowledge of other texts as well as the discourses of other situations which Lemke (1990, 1988, 1985) called general intertextuality. Hence, intertextuality refers to the way through which language is used in social communities. Lemke (1985) argues that making meanings through texts, and the ways through which we achieve them are, in fact, a network of the related texts which have certain definite kinds of relationships with one another. It means that making meanings is possible through a network of texts. Lemke (1990) adds that the discourse practices of a social occasion may build systems of texts which are related through specific ways and particular relationships. It is worth mentioning that a single text may also involve a vast variety of meaning relations existing between its different parts in the same way as exists between different texts. It means that intertextuality is crucial for making meaning within texts (Lemke 1985, 1988, 1990; Thibault, 1994; Threadgold&Kress, 1988.)

One of the main purposes of English language teaching (ELT) textbooks is raising critical responses of the EFL learners in order to achieve a gap in the knowledge and language acquisition to enhance the attention of the learners in the classrooms. In effect, one of the issues not considered as it should be by different teachers and textbooks is the issue of intertextuality. Intertextuality refers to the issue through which the communicative events are represented in connection with the previous ones, e.g. using words and phrases that have been used before by others (Fairclough,

2000). Fairclough (1992) distinguishes between two types of intertextuality, namely, manifest intertextuality and interdiscursivity or constitutive intertextuality.

Manifest intertextuality, according to Fairclough (1992), refers to the cases "where specific other texts are overtly drawn upon within a text", and "interdiscursivity is a matter of how a discourse type constituted through a combination of elements of orders of discourse" (pp. 117-18).

Furthermore, Fairclough (1992) argues about other types of intertextualities, namely, sequential, embedded, mixed ones. Sequential intertextuality refers to the cases in which "different texts or discourse types alternate within a text" (p. 118); embedded intertextuality refers to the cases "where one text or discourse type is clearly contained within the matrix of another, i.e. the relationship between the 'styles' distinguished by Labov and Fanshel for therapeutic discourse" (p. 118); finally, mixed intertextuality depicts the cases "where texts or discourse types are merged in a more complex and less easily separable way" (p. 118).

One of the most distinguishable features of the contemporary ELT textbooks is related to the textual and discursive heterogeneity embedded aiming to represent language use in a comprehensive variety (Khaghaninejad & Roozkhosh, 2014). To this end, the language textbooks seem to resort to a vast variety of different genres and discourse types apparently rooted in communicative paradigm in language teaching, with focus on authenticity and automaticity.

Considering the aforementioned issues and by taking the fact into account that few research attempts to make an investigation on the representation of intertextuality in EFL textbooks in general and in reading comprehension passages in particular; this study endeavors to make an investigation on the representation of this issue (intertextuality) in one of the recent published ELT series, namely, Four Corners by adopting a critical discourse analysis model.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The concept of intertextuality introduced by Kristeva in the 1960's is rooted in the tradition of post-structuralism, and especially in the works of Bakhtin's (1981) notions of heteroglossia and dialogism. Kristeva (1980) argues that any text—written or spoken—is "a permutation of texts, an intertextuality in a space of a given text" (p. 36), in which "several utterances, taken from other texts, intersect and neutralize one another" (Kristeva, 1980, p. 36) which are "lacking in any kind of independent meaning" (Allen, 2000, p. I). Kristeva (1980) emphasizes that the intertextual procedure explicates that the text need to be considered as a combination of texts within history and society.

Thibault (1994, p.1751) explicates that "all texts—spoken and written—are constructed and have the meanings which text-users assign to them in and through their relations with other texts in some social formation". Bakhtin (1986) points out that any text—written or spoken—is dialogical, in which any text is interpretable through other texts. Kristeva (1981, p.36), resorting to the concept of intertextuality, mentions that any text is "a permutation of texts which means that "in the space of a given text, several utterances, taken from other texts, intersect and neutralize one other". Kristeva argues that any text has a complex and heterogeneous nature which their discursive nature intersects in particular textual production.

It is worth emphasizing that different researchers consider the concept of intertextuality from diverse perspectives for different purposes. In effect, different perspectives regarding the concept of intertextuality may be classified into two main groups, i.e. semiotics and (critical) discourse analysis. The first group is, in effect, the researchers from semiotics in general and literary semiotics in particular. The main figures in the domain of semiotics are Kristeva (1981), Riffaterre (1978), Frow (1986), Culler (1981), Meinhof and Smith (2000) and Chandler (2005). Researchers on the domain of semiotics mainly concern to explore the complex and heterogeneous nature of literary works through conducting intertextuality analysis. The studies of the researchers on the domain of semiotics range from the studies in which influences or antecedents for a particular literary work has been investigated to the research on literary conventions and codes as prerequisites for literary communication. It is worth mentioning that the studies on the domain of semiotic intertextuality recently been extended to studies of mass media communication, such as advertisements, TV dramas and web pages.

The second group which was categorized on the domain of discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis is mainly concerned with non-literary works. The main figures on the domain of discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis who have conducted intertextuality are Fairclough (1992, 1995), Scollon (2004), Bazerman (1993, 2004), Devitt (1991), Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), and Lemke (1983, 1985, 1988, 1990). In effect, the (critical) discourse analysts in the domain of intertextuality argue that intertextuality is a concept through which texts are investigated in terms of interrelation, as well as in terms of social practice which refers to the particular socially regulated ways of producing and interpreting discourse (Fairclough, 1992, 1995).

Generally speaking, there is a vast variety of ways for conducting intertextuality approach ranging from focusing on linguistic conventions to social conventions. For example, a rudimentary type of intertextuality analysis is examining the intertextual composition of a single text in which both the explicit (e.g. the direct quotation) and implicit (e.g. mentioning of a belief or issue of the context) are described.

Fairclough (1992) argues that intertextuality "points to how texts can transform prior texts and restructure existing conventions (genres, discourses) to generate new ones" (p.270). In effect, intertextuality, in Fairclough's (1992) view refers to the way texts have been produced in relation to prior texts as well as the way through which texts are able to construct the existing conventions in producing new texts. Fairclough (1995) argues about a three-dimensional model

for analyzing intertextuality in which the 'discourse representation', 'generic analysis of discourse types', and 'analysis of discourses in texts' are investigated.

Fairclough (1992, 1995) adds that 'discourse representation' refers to a form of intertextuality in which some parts of specific texts are incorporated into a text which may be explicitly or implicitly marked with devices such as quotation marks and reporting clauses. Fairclough (1995) continues that 'discourse representation', for example in media, accounts for what news is in terms of representations of what people have said.

Furthermore, Fairclough (1992, 1995) argues about the concept of 'discourse type' in which the concepts of genres and discourses are combined. Fairclough (1995) emphasizes that analyzing 'discourse type' may demand complex configurations of several genres and several discourses. Fairclough (1995, p.76) refers to discourse as "a particular way of constructing a particular (domain of) social practice" (p. 76), and to genre as "a way of using language which corresponds to the nature of the social practice that is engaged in" (p. 76).

Hence, the main purposes of the researchers for analyzing intertextuality, according to Fairclough (1995), are to explicate what fields (i.e. topics or subject-matters) are associated with a genre, and what type of discourses are addressed in constructing the fields. Moreover, Fairclough (1995) points out that analyzing intertextuality need to be considered as an interpretative activity highly dependent on the researcher's personal judgment and experience. It is worth mentioning that Fairclough, in analyzing intertextuality, attempts to deal with the power relations in order to specify power as a locus of contestation and struggle.

Considering the aforementioned issues it is conceivable that exploring intertextuality reveals the relationship between a specific text and a genre as well as the relationship between a text and its cultural context, for example, Lemke (1990) argues that investigating intertextuality in a text determines the context of culture. It means that analyzing intertextuality is crucial in extracting the meaning of a text since, all texts gain their meaning especially through intertextual relationships with other texts. Malinowski (1923, 1935) and Hasan (1985) argue that investigating the intertextuality in a text reveals not only the context of situation but also the context of culture. They added that extracting meaning in different situation-types are related in such a way that the characteristic of a community's culture is determining.

Generally, intertextuality provides a bridge or interface between the context of culture and the text in which the way the genre rules (i.e. the use of discourse patterns in a culture) have influenced the production of a text (i.e. the use of lexico-grammatical resources) are revealed. It means that analyzing intertextuality enable the researchers in order to have access to a 'bigger picture' of a text in terms of what the text means along with the way through which diverse meanings are related in order to produce a particular text. Hence, intertextual analysis may reveal display the established patterns of meaning against the larger background of the potential of all the meanings.

III. METHODOLOGY

In conducting the present study Fairclough's (1992) model was selected and adopted in which the selected reading comprehension passages in the series were analyzed in terms of type of intertextuality along with the utilized strategies in deploying intertextuality. In effect, 10 reading passages were selected randomly from the Four Corners series. Hence, the selected reading passages were explored in terms of the intertextuality types and the intertextual strategies which were utilized. The texts were analyzed in terms of the type of intertextuality (i.e. manifest, interdiscursivity or constitutive, sequential, embedded, and mixed).

The following research questions were posed to be answered:

1. Is intertextuality deployed in the reading comprehension passages of *Four Corners*?
2. Which types of intertextuality are resorted to in representing the reading comprehension passages?

A. Corpus of the Study

A set of ELT series, namely, Four Corners series was selected as the materials of the present study in which ten reading passages were selected randomly among the four volumes. The Four Corners Series are multiple skills general English textbooks authored by Jack C. Richards and David Bohlke which were published by Cambridge University Press in 2012. In effect, ten reading comprehension passages were selected among 48 reading passages in the Four Corners series in order to be analyzed in terms of intertextuality.

B. Method

In conducting the present study Fairclough's (1992) model was selected and adopted in which the selected reading comprehension passages in the series were analyzed in terms of type of intertextuality along with the utilized strategies in deploying intertextuality. In effect, 10 reading passages were selected randomly from the Four Corners series. Hence, the selected reading passages were explored in terms of the intertextuality types and the intertextual strategies which were utilized. In effect, the texts were analyzed in terms of the type of intertextuality (i.e. manifest, interdiscursivity or constitutive, sequential, embedded, and mixed). In effect, the selected ten passages were investigated in terms of the way through which the text is related to other texts, voices or discourses. In other words, the texts are investigated to see whether the selected reading passages are laden with any direct quotation, indirect quotation, a mixture of both direct and indirect quotation. In effect, the texts are also investigated in terms of styles—whether they are literary or non-

literary—and also in terms of the text type—whether they are descriptive, expository, persuasive, narrative—and in terms of the vocabularies and structures; however, the focus of the study is given to the intertextuality type.

IV. RESULTS

The descriptive data were presented in this section. As the table shows total numbers of the reporting types were 347 out of which 133 cases—the highest one—manifested the direct reporting. The table also shows that other three types were used very few comparing the direct reporting especially the indirect one.

TABLE 1:
WAYS OF REPORTING OUTSIZED IN THE SELECTED 10 PASSAGES

<i>Texts</i>	N. of paragraphs	<i>Ways of Reporting</i>				total
		Direct	Indirect	Free indirect	Narrative	
1	4	4	3	9	9	25
2	21	35	2	2	2	41
3	4	1	1	21	21	44
4	4	3	2	19	19	43
5	3	0	0	15	15	30
6	4	1	7	11	11	30
7	7	32	0	0	0	32
8	4	17	0	0	0	17
9	5	16	0	2	2	50
10	9	24	1	4	4	35
total	65	133	16	81	81	347

Effectively, Table 1 shows the frequency of the four ways of strategies' utilized in intertextuality, i.e. direct reporting, indirect reporting, free indirect reporting and narrative reporting along with the texts and their number of paragraphs. The table shows that the direct reporting is the most dominant reporting strategy utilized in the reading passages. Free indirect reporting as well as narrative reporting are the second most dominant reporting strategies; whereas, the indirect reporting strategy is the least utilized reporting strategy. In order to determine whether this trend in utilizing diverse ways of reporting is significant or not; Chi-square test was run through SPSS 15 and the following results were achieved:

TABLE 2:
CHI-TEST STATISTICS FOR DIVERSE WAYS OF REPORTING

	<i>Direct</i>	<i>Indirect</i>	<i>Free indirect</i>	<i>narrative</i>
<i>Chi- Square</i>	0.77	3.78	1.11	1.11
<i>df.</i>	7	4	6	6
<i>Asymp. Sig.</i>	0.99	0.43	0.98	0.98

As table 2 shows the results of the chi-square test among diverse tests indicated to the significant differences between the ways through which intertextuality was reflected; it means that the passages tended to use more direct reporting than the indirect or free indirect reporting or narrative reporting of speech act. Furthermore, the reading passages were investigated in terms of the type of intertextuality. To this end, the number of each type of intertextuality utilized in each sentence or paragraph numerated and tabulated as following:

TABLE 3:
TYPES OF INTERTEXTUALITY

<i>Texts</i>	N. of paragraphs	<i>Types of Intertextuality</i>				total
		Manifest	Sequential	Embedded	Mixed	
1	4	2	0	2	2	6
2	21	19	19	2	2	42
3	4	0	0	0	3	3
4	4	0	0	0	4	4
5	3	0	0	3	3	6
6	4	4	0	0	0	4
7	7	7	7	0	0	14
8	4	4	4	0	0	8
9	5	2	0	1	2	5
10	9	7	0	7	2	16
total	65	45	30	15	18	108

As the table (Table 3) shows the manifest and sequential intertextuality were the two highest form of intertextuality utilized in the reading passages—with the frequency of 45 and 30 respectively. In effect, in the investigated reading passages, the trend is toward attributing the embedded passage in order to determine a clear-cut boundary between the embedded text and the embedding one. Considering the fact that the Four corners series are prepared to be used by EFL learners; this issue seems to be rational in order to reduce the complexity of the texts. The following are some examples of the observed data on different types of intertextuality:

They called their program The Elephant Men after reading how elephant families in Africa surrounded and protect their young when they are in danger which is extracted from the first text is an example of mixed intertextuality. Or Hi! I live in Mexico and am planning to visit my uncle in Dallas, Texas, next year is a case of utilizing embedded intertextuality. Moreover, I make Navajo jewelry in my free time. I make rings, bracelets, and necklaces. It's just a hobby, but I really enjoy it which is extracted from the eightieth text is an example of manifest intertextuality.

It seems that manifest and sequential intertextualities are the most dominant; however, other types of intertextualities, i.e. mixed and the embedded ones are also utilized sporadically. In order to have more dependable results, let have a comparison though running Chi-square test regarding the type of intertextuality

TABLE 4:
T-TEST ON THE RESULTS OF THE POST-SPEAKING TEST: EXPERIMENTAL VS. CONTROL GROUPS

	manifest	sequential	Embedded	mixed
Chi-Square(a,b)	1.000	10.800	6.000	2.000
Df	4	3	4	3
Asymp. Sig.	.910	.013	.199	.572

As the table illustrates the observed differences between diverse types of intertextuality is significant. It means that the series intentionally tended to utilized manifest and sequential intertextuality which seems to be more appropriate for real-like and authentic contexts. Fairclough (1992) argues that

text analysis can be organized under four main headings: 'vocabulary', 'grammar', 'cohesion', and 'text structure'. These can be thought of as ascending in scale: vocabulary deals mainly with individual words, grammar deals with words combined into clauses and sentences, cohesion deals with how clauses and sentences are linked together, and text structure deals with large-scale organizational properties of texts. In addition, I distinguish a further three main headings which will be used in analysis of discursive practices rather than text analysis, though they certainly involve formal features of texts: the 'force' of utterances, i.e. what sorts of speech acts (promises, requests, threats, etc.) they constitute; the 'coherence' of texts; and the 'intertextuality' of texts. (Fairclough 1992, p. 75).

In effect, it is alluding that

There is always a context in which any act of meaning comes into being. But the intertextual thematic system, or the genre in Martin's work (Martin 1986), is in principle timeless. It is a network of semiotic relationships within which given text, or a given act of meaning, is positioned and displays its proportionalities — shared features, resonances, dissonances, polysemies and the like (Halliday, 2003, p. 360).

In a nutshell, the obtained results of the present study indicated that, the series has utilized diverse types of intertextuality, i.e. manifest, sequential, mixed and embedded ones. It seems that there are some particular pattern in utilizing the intertextuality in which the weight is put on the manifest one which makes the process of reading comprehension much easier since the learners can understand the border between the main text and the quoted or embedded ones. Hence, one of the main findings of the present study was related to the tendency of the series heavily in using the manifest one.

The obtained results of the present study showed that, the texts have applied a diverse of reporting strategies and intertextuality types. It seems that the texts prefer to utilize the direct and free indirect reporting strategies which highlight utilizing the embedded and manifest intertextuality. Hence, the first question of the present study was "Is intertextuality deployed in the reading comprehension passages of Four Corners?" Which the results of the study indicated a positive answer. In effect, the findings of the present study showed that the texts are utilizing the four types of intertextuality in which the preferences were given to the sequential and manifest ones along with the embedded intertextuality. Accordingly, the next questions which asked "Which types of intertextuality are resorted to in representing the reading comprehension passages?" were answered.

In a nutshell, the texts seem to be failed in utilizing the more complex and less recognizable types of reporting strategies and intertextuality types. The findings revealed that the direct reporting and the free indirect reporting strategies are the most common utilized reporting strategies and manifest and sequential types the most common types of intertextuality.

V. FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Intertextuality, according to Lemke (1998, 1985, 1993), refers to the way through which language is used in social communities. In other words, making meanings through texts, and the ways through which we achieve them are in fact a network of the related texts which have certain definite kinds of relationships with one another (Lemke, 1998, 1985, 1993). Hence, intertextuality is not only as a way through which texts are interrelated, but also as a social practice demanding particular social ways of producing and interpreting discourse (Fairclough, 1992, 1995).

The present study was an attempt to explore the way through which intertextuality was exploited in the reading passages of the Four corners Series. The results and the related data analysis concerning the questions were discussed in which the manifest and sequential intertextuality were the ones utilized heavily in the reading passages which were heavily relied on direct reporting.

In terms of the classification of the intertextuality suggested by Fairclough (1992); it was found that the reading passages tended to utilize other texts and voices specifically through manifest intertextuality in which "specific other texts are overtly drawn upon within a text" (Fairclough, 1992. pp. 117-18).

Furthermore, it was shown that the intertextuality was specifically attributed and this issue has made the comprehension of the incorporated text easier. Fairclough (2003) argues that intertextuality is, in fact, other "texts and voices which are included, or excluded in a text" (p. 47). About the investigated materials; it was found that the passages were oriented to authentic, everyday-life and non-fiction texts which were basically descriptive, expository and in some cases narrative or persuasive. Furthermore, the results of the study indicated to the informal and vernacular representation of lexis and structures which were heavily relied on simple, active sentences as well as relative clauses and reduced forms. Blommaert (2005) argues that

Approaching discourse as discursive practice means that after the analysis of vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, and text structure, attention should be given to speech acts, coherence, and intertextuality – three aspects that link a text to its wider social context. Fairclough distinguishes between 'manifest intertextuality' (i.e. overtly drawing upon other texts) and 'constitutive intertextuality' or 'interdiscursivity' (i.e. texts are made up of heterogeneous elements: generic conventions, discourse types, register, style) (p. 29).

Hence, Fairclough in dealing with intertextuality argues that:

Hegemonies change and this process can be witnessed in discursive change when the latter is viewed from the angle of intertextuality. The way in which discourse is represented, re-spoken, or re-written sheds light on the emergence of new orders of discourse, struggles over normativity, attempts at control, and resistance against regimes of power" (cited in Blommaert, 2005, p. 30).

Conducting the present study revealed some ways through which intertextuality were utilized which according to Fairclough (1992, 1995), revealed the interrelation and social practice (particular socially regulated ways of producing and interpreting discourse) of the texts deployed. The results of the study indicated to the points emphasized by Fairclough (1992) in which intertextuality has been deployed in order to "point to how texts can transform prior texts and restructure existing conventions (genres, discourses) to generate new ones" (p.270).

It is worth mentioning that the current study, following the trends of Fairclough (1992), dealt with the concept of intertextuality as way to relate the texts with the prior texts as well as a way for representing the existing conventions in producing new texts. Accordingly, the present study support Thibault (1994, p.1751) which argued that, "all texts, spoken and written, are constructed and have the meanings which text-users assign to them in and through their relations with other texts in some social formation."

In a nutshell, intertextuality may provide a bridge between the context of culture and the text through specifying the genre rules (i.e. the use of discourse patterns in a culture) which have manipulated the production of a text (i.e. the use of lexico-grammatical resources), through the different meanings related.

The results of the investigation indicated that manifest and sequential intertextuality were deployed widely in which different texts or discourse types were alternated and merged in a more separable way. Moreover, it was found that the reading passages relied heavily on direct reporting of utilizing intertextuality. In effect, the reading passages of the series were organized in such a way in which other texts and voices have been deployed specifically through manifest and embedded intertextuality which.

The study showed that intertextuality has been utilized for imposing some particular relationship between a specific text and a genre and also the relationship between a text and its cultural context. In effect, the results of study as Lemke (1990) considered intertextuality as a strategy for determining the context of culture. It means that intertextuality may impose complexity on a text which may provide some challenges for gaining the meaning of a text on the light that all texts gain their meaning especially through intertextual relatedness to other texts.

The results of this study shows that any teacher including the language teachers needs to consider intertextuality as a factor on the complexity and comprehension of reading passages. In effect, the teachers need to consider this issue to equip the students to help them to improve their reading comprehension.

Moreover, the findings of this study suggests that the teachers considering the principles of intertextuality improve consciousness raising of the students to enable them to handle the complexities and challenges of the texts they had to read through.

The implications for the policy makers should not be ignored since intertextuality influence the level of complexity and the rate of reading comprehension. Accordingly, policy makers need to present some courses or materials to improve the reading comprehension on the part of learners.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study showed that the series has deployed sequential and manifest intertextuality in the reading passages. Furthermore, it was found that different texts are incorporated and utilized in a more separable way. Moreover, this study concluded that the series has deployed different types of direct reporting, indirect and narrative reporting strategies of utilizing intertextuality. It seems that intertextuality has been deployed based on the types of the texts, genres as well as cultural context.

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Fereidoon Vahdany, is an assistant professor in the English Department of Payame-Noor University, Rasht, Iran. He has presented articles at both national and international conferences. He is also the author of two books on teaching Vocabulary and Grammar. His research interest is in the domain of teacher education and classroom research.



Seyede Mina Ghazi Mir Saeed was born and raised in Tehran on 8 Oct 1984. Mina started learning English at 18 years old. After a year, she got accepted in English translation field in Payamenoor University. During the 4- year – B.A course, Mina studied other English- oriented fields like “Business English conversation” in Tehran Business Training Center in 2009. She tried to learn computer skills during these years, too. In 2014, she graduated from Payamenoor University in English Teaching field in M.A degree.

Mina has been working as an English Tutor or Teacher in many institutes in Tehran for 10 years. From 2002 till now, she has worked as a Secretary and Receptionist in many firms and governmental offices like Telecommunication Company. Currently she is working at “WRC” firm that specializes in offering some resorts and hotels for passengers. She has been working here for more than 3 years, Answering directly to foreigners and some foreign phone calls.

Mrs. Ghazi Mir Saeed has had many translated texts in different genres of books like stories, business ... but unfortunately she did not try to publish them; this is her first paper in this case. Ghazi’s future is bright as long as she keeps her strong faith and remembers what is truly important in life. Mrs. Ghazi finds the positives and works around the obstacles to achieve her dreams.

An Empirical Study of Translation Errors

Haicui Zheng

College of Foreign Languages, Inner Mongolia University, Huhhot, 010070, China

Abstract—This study is an empirical study based on the students' performance in one examination, analyzing the errors made by English majors in Chinese-to-English translation in one final examination for the course Intensive Reading. In this paper, the errors are listed, classified into several categories and then analyzed. The purpose of this study is to provide English teachers with a general picture of Chinese college students' mastery of English and most important of all to give some suggestions so as to help students master English better. Some of the author's own teaching experience is shared, especially how to cultivate students' learning autonomy and critical thinking.

Index Terms—error analysis, pedagogical implication, learning autonomy, critical thinking

I. INTRODUCTION

This is an empirical study of errors made in one final examination for Intensive Reading. The subjects of the study are English majors, to be exact, 29 freshmen at Inner Mongolia University. The exam was given in June, 2013 to evaluate students' performance in one school year's study after their enrollment in Inner Mongolia University. The examination is composed of eight parts: I word formation, II completing sentences by translating the word in brackets, III multiple choices, IV cloze, V reading comprehension, VI paraphrase, VII sentence translation from English to Chinese, and VIII sentence translation from Chinese to English. This study chose Part VIII to investigate students' mastery of English. As a kind of output practice, sentence translation from Chinese to English not only reflects students' mastery of vocabulary and grammar, but also shows students' writing ability and English thinking ability. So compared with others, this part can provide teachers with a comprehensive picture of students' English level.

II. ERROR ANALYSIS

Studying learners' errors is the main part of the study of learning process, for "correct items yield little information about the interlanguage of the learner" (Brown, 1987, p.169). Therefore errors deserve close study and "error analysis generally consists of three stages, namely, identification, description and explanation" (Yue, 1999, p.150). In identifying errors, it is necessary to distinguish between mistakes of performance and errors of competence. The former refer to the chance products such as slips of the tongue or of the pen. They are of no significance to the study of language learning for they are random and non-systematic. The latter reveal the learners' competence or the underlying knowledge of the target language and therefore deserve close study.

When errors are concerned, they can be classified into overt errors and covert errors. When it is ill-formed, an utterance or a sentence is ungrammatical and contains overt error. When it is superficially well-formed but makes no sense in the context, it is inappropriate or odd to the native speakers and it has covert errors (Yue, 1999). Overt errors are easy to be identified while covert errors are difficult for the learners to recognize and understand. They may even question why the grammatically correct sentences are not acceptable.

The ultimate goal of error analysis is to offer an explanation. In other words, to find the reason for the occurrence of the errors is of great significance. In fact, errors can be traced to various sources: linguistic, cognitive, affective and communicative (Yue, 1999). As far as this study of written test is concerned, almost no communicative or affective elements are involved, for it is a written exam and the students do not have to deal with problems caused by communication environment or by the interlocutors. As to cognitive factors, learners' personality and learning habits do play a role in their test performance, but individual differences are not the focus of this study. So the top concern is linguistic factors, mainly language transfer, which can be classified into interlingual transfer and intralingual transfer. The former refers to the interference of the first language, mainly in the form of mechanic application of grammatical rules, expressions, thinking patterns to the second language learning or using. The latter refers to the fact that in second language learning, learners tend to apply the rules they have learned to everything. Overgeneralization is the most common phenomenon of intralingual transfer. Errors caused by interlingual transfer and intralingual transfer are assumed to occur at the beginning stage of second language learning. It is true that the more one learns, the less frequently such kinds of errors occur. But it is undeniable that such kinds of errors do happen even in the advanced level of learning.

III. AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

Instead of making a study of the whole examination paper, this study is a small-scale investigation, focusing on VIII Sentence translation from Chinese to English which consists of four sentences:

1. 我认为我们迟早会意识到这个错误，只不过是时间问题。
2. 你们有没有把他的健康情况通知他的家人？
3. 讲话人在说话前清了清他的嗓子。
4. 她还在为两份工作的选择而犹豫。

The suggested translations of the four sentences are as following:

1. I think we will sooner or later realize that it is a mistake. It's just a matter of time.
2. Have you informed his family of his health condition?
3. The speaker cleared his throat before he started to talk.
4. She is still hesitating over the choice between the two jobs.

This study follows the instruction that "error analysis generally consists of three stages, namely, identification, description and explanation" (Yue, 1999, p.150). In the following sections, errors occurred in the test will be first presented and then analyzed.

A. Data Presentation and Classification

The errors occurred in the students' test papers can be classified into several categories: 1) tense; 2) word class; 3) grammar; 4) collocation; 5) others. The specific errors are listed under each category. All the wrong sentences and phrases are numbered. Sometimes one sentence contains different kinds of errors and therefore the sentence with the same number may appear in different categories. The errors are highlighted in red and bold according to the category. In other words, each time only errors corresponding to the category are marked in red and bold. In some cases, the error involves the whole sentence or most of it, which is presented with no words in red and bold. The number in the brackets at the end of some sentences or phrases shows the times of occurrence. The default is once; twice or even more are marked.

1) Tense errors

The specific sentences wrong in tense are listed as follows:

1. In my opinion, we will realized this problem at some time.
2. I think we would realized the mistake sooner or later.
3. Did you informed his families with his health condition? (2)
4. Have you inform his family his situation of health?
5. The speaker make his throat clear before he talk.
6. The speaker clear his throat before he speaking.
7. The speaker clean his throat before speaking.
8. The spokesman clear up his throat.
9. Speaker clear his voice before the speech.
10. The speaking man cleared his throat before he begin to talk.
11. That person who want to speech cleans his voice.
12. She still don't know the selection of two jobs.
13. She still hesitate for the choice of two kinds of jobs.
14. I think we recognized the mistake sooner or later, only the problem of time.
15. The person who is talking cleared his throat before he talked.

2) Word class errors

11. That person who want to speech cleans his voice.
16. She has still worried about the choice of two jobs.
17. It's just depend on time.
18. She is still hesitate for the job of the two/ for choosing the job of the two. (2)
19. She can't make a decision to choice which job.
20. She doesn't have a clearly idea to choose the two jobs.
21. The speaker clears his throat before speak.
22. She is still hesitated to the choose of the two jobs. (2)
23. She is still hesitated in the alter of two jobs.
24. She was hesitated to choose----.
25. She is still hesitating for the choose from the two jobs.

3) Grammar errors

26. Whether you tell his family members his physical situation or not?
27. She still hesitates that how to choose between two jobs.
28. She is still hesitating about which to choose these two jobs.
29. Are you keep his family informed of his health situation?

4) Collocation errors

Benson, Benson and Ilson (1997) classify collocation into grammatical collocation and lexical collocation. A grammatical collocation is a phrase consisting of a dominant word and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or a clause, while lexical collocations are usual combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs (ibid). Errors occurred in students' translation have been classified and identified as either overt or covert shown in the following table:

Collocation type		Correct expression	errors in translation	Type of error
Grammatical collocation	Noun + a prepositional phrase	a matter of time	30. a problem with time 31. a question about time 32. the problem of time (2) 33. a problem of time (2) 34. a time problem (4) 35. time problems 36. a time question 37. a time issue 38. a point of time (2)	covert error
			39. It's just a problem that time is long or short. 40. It's just about time.	covert error
			17. It's just depend on time.	overt error
	Verb + noun + proposition + noun	to inform his family of his health condition	41. inform his families with (2) 42. inform his families about (7) 43. inform his health condition to his family? (3) 44. inform his family his situation of health?	covert error
	Verb + proposition	She is still hesitating over ---	45. hesitate for (5) 46. hesitate choosing 47. hesitate of	overt error
	Verb phrase + object	She has no idea which one to choose between the two jobs.	48. She has no idea on which one to choose between the two jobs. (overt error)	overt error
Lexical collocation	Adjective + adjective	sooner or later	49. earlier or latter	overt error
			50. earlier or later 51. no sooner	covert error
	Noun + noun	health condition	52. health station 53. healthy position	overt error
			54. He practice his sound with throat ----- 55. He cleans his voice (2) 56 He cleaned his throat (4) 57. The spokesman clear up his throat.	overt error
	verb + noun	The speaker cleared his throat-----	58. The speaker make his throat clear before he talk.	covert error

5) Others

59. It's only nothing but the time problem. (overt error)
 60. I think we will sooner or later realize that it is a fault. (covert error)
 3. Did you informed his families with his health condition? (2) (covert error)
 41. inform his families with (2) (covert error)
 42. inform his families about (7) (covert error)

B. Error Analysis and Explanation

Errors in categories 1)-3) are overt errors. The sentences are ill-formed and ungrammatical. Errors in category 4) and category 5) may be overt or covert, which has been made clear in the table or in the brackets. Corresponding analysis of each category of errors listed in the above section comes in the following.

1. Tense errors and interlingual transfer

The verb form in English has to be changed with tense, number and person. Sentences 1-4 contain inflection errors mainly caused by tense. Sentences 5-13 are not correct in that the verb form does not agree with the person. In these sentences, the third person asks the verb to change either with person or tense. In sentences 14 and 15, the errors occur when the verb form does not agree with the other parts of the sentence. The phrase "sooner or later" and "I think" in Sentence 14 requires the word "recognize" take the form "will recognize". Sentence 15 describes something happened in the past and therefore "is talking" does not agree with the rest of the sentence. Such kinds of errors are caused by interlingual transfer. English is a synthetic-analytic language while Chinese is an analytic language (Lian, 1993). A synthetic language is "characterized by frequent and systematic use of inflected forms to express grammatical relationships" (quoted from Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary). An analytic language is "characterized by a relatively frequent use of function words, auxiliary verbs, and changes in word order to express syntactic relations, rather than of inflected forms (cited in *The Random House College Dictionary*). Unlike English, Chinese words do not

have to change with tense, number and person. So the Chinese learners are not accustomed to inflectional changes. When asked about the rules, the learners seem clear about them. But in actual use, some learners make mistakes now and then. Only some good learners can recognize and correct such mistakes. So these are errors of competence and they are not slips of pen at all.

2. Word class errors and interlingual transfer

To our surprise, such words as “speak” and “choose” and their corresponding noun form “speech” and “choice” should be easy and clear to even beginners, let alone intermediate learners and advanced learners like college students and English majors. But such kinds of errors do appear in the test. The words “worried” and “depend” are not new to college students at all, but still errors occur when they use them. The “hesitate” is not a new word to most of the students, but they just know the meaning of the word and are not sure about its derivational forms and their usage. Sentences 22-24 show that some students do not know the adjective form of “hesitate” is “hesitant” instead of “hesitated”. Such kinds of errors are mainly caused by interlingual transfer. Besides inflectional changes caused by number, tense and person discussed in the previous section, English words have derivational changes. For example, the verb “hesitate” can be changed into its corresponding adjective form “hesitant”. Both the form and word class have changed. But its Chinese equivalent “犹豫” does not have such kind of derivational change. In the case of “选择”, the Chinese word can be used as a noun or as a verb. But the English has two different forms—“choose” as the verb and “choice” as the noun. The Chinese learners, influenced by their mother tongue, tend to make errors concerning word class.

3. Grammar errors and interlingual / intralingual transfer

Grammatically wrong sentences contain overt errors. By means of changes in word form and word order, English achieves the communication purpose of making a statement or asking a question. The Chinese language turns to tone and/ or auxiliary words to express a statement or a question. The word order remains almost the same. This difference provides an explanation to the error in Sentence 26. However, such interlingual errors are not frequent among English majors. Sentence 27 shows that some students do not know “how to choose between two jobs” is not a sentence. Influenced by their mother tongue, the Chinese students tend to make such kind of errors. In Sentence 28, preposition “between” should be put after “choose”; its absence causes the trouble in meaning making. Influenced by the Chinese version “选择工作”, the learner commits the error. Sentence 29 shows the student knows the rule that an interrogative sentence begins with the appropriate form of “do” or “be” but he/she misuses the word and it is an intralingual error.

4. Collocation errors and interlingual / intralingual transfer

Phrases are fixed expressions in one language. Foreign learners have no other choice but to use them as native speakers do. The phrases in examples 30-38 and sentences 39, 40 and 17 related in meaning with “a matter of time” make sense even to the native speakers, but they are unnatural and unacceptable to native speakers. These errors are resulted from interlingual transfer, for the literal translation of “时间问题” is “time problem” or “time question”. Phrases 41-44 about the verb “inform” are seemingly correct but inappropriate to native speakers. So are the phrases in 45-48 about “hesitate” and “idea”. These are grammatical collocations. Phrases 49-53 and sentences 54-58 contain errors of lexical collocations, which reflects the learners’ ability to put what they have learned into use and at the same time shows they are not familiar with some fixed or conventional usages of words. These are called intralingual or developmental errors (Richards, 2001), which reflect the learners’ learning process and the stage they are in. Lewis (1997) argues that many students tend to produce grammatically acceptable sentences that are unidiomatic and odd to native speakers due to the ignorance of collocation in language learning. Collocation can help students to bridge the gap between words and grammar, and reach higher level of proficiency.

5. Other errors and interlingual / intralingual transfer

Sentence 59 has a problem of meaning redundancy caused by the co-occurrence of the word “only” and the phrase “nothing but”. Sentence 60 is wrong in diction. The words “fault” and “mistake” are synonyms but their denotations are different. The two errors reveal the learning process of approaching to the correct and appropriate expressions and therefore are intralingual errors. Sentences 3, 41, 42 contain a common error. The plural form “families” used in these sentences shows the direct influence of the first language, for the Chinese version “家人” is usually plural. Altogether 11 students (38% of the subjects) commit such an error, which reveals the problem that some Chinese learners stick to the Chinese thinking pattern in using English.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR ENGLISH TEACHING AND LEARNING

Since this study focuses on sentence translation, syntax and lexicon are supposed to be the main concern. The list shows only two errors (in Sentences 26 and 27) are related with syntax and the rest are about tense and vocabulary, which gives some pedagogical implications to college English leaning and teaching.

First, the long list of tense errors shows that the Chinese college students still have a long way to go in the process of English learning. With the regular inflectional rules for tense and person, the problems are not supposed to be great. However, errors related with these rules are not rare among the Chinese learners. Due to the strong influence of the mother tongue, such kinds of errors are automatic in some sense. In other words, interlanguage transfer is hard to avoid. However, interlanguage transfer is not completely harmful. Positive transfer facilitates language acquisition while

negative transfer results in errors and thus hinders language learning process. Making comparison and thinking critically will help to solve the problem.

Forming a habit of checking or proofreading and cultivating a critical eye are effective ways to avoid the negative transfer, which are beneficial to the students in the long run. The usual practice of doing translations is to ask students to hand in their homework and the teacher then makes corrections. It is a heavy load on the teacher's part and on the other hand it is inefficient in helping the students make progress. Some students just have a look and then put them aside or even throw them away. In most cases, they may make the same mistakes next time. For the teacher, it is meaningless to correct the same mistakes again and again. In my class, I sometimes ask students to do the translations on the blackboard. It turns out to be effective. Instead of correcting the students' translations directly, I ask the students to make comments and do the peer correction. Some errors are common and can work as a reminder to other students. Since every student has the chance to go to the blackboard and no one feels hurt when being corrected. Instead they are eager to write their sentences on the blackboard. In this way, the students get more and more involved in the exercise and gradually form the habit of reading critically. It outweighs the traditional practice in efficiency in language teaching and learning, for it has effectively aroused students' interest and cultivated their critical thinking.

Second, errors related with words show that vocabulary learning involves a lot. Knowing a word means knowing its occurrence probability and the associated words, the constraints of function and situation on word choice, its syntactic behavior, the structural and grammatical properties of a word, its word-formation rules, the network of associations with other words, the semantic value and the associated meanings (Richards, 2001). Besides, Woolard (2000) argues that learning more vocabulary is not just learning new words—it is in most cases learning familiar words in new combination. In teaching, students should be reminded that just remembering its conceptual meaning is far from the real mastery of a word. The word class and derivations are necessary to enlarge one's vocabulary. Then the word usage is the core. Besides conceptual meaning, one should also be familiar with five associative meanings—connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning and collocative meaning (Leech, 1981), that is, how to use the word in a specific context. It is impossible on the part of the teacher to introduce all the usages when a new word appears and it is also impossible for students to remember them all at once. Practice is a must-do in language learning, in which errors and mistakes will happen and then get corrected. Gradually the correct language use will be internalized.

An effective way of teaching vocabulary is to implant the correct belief about vocabulary learning in students and encourage them to read more and think more. In teaching, the teacher should work as an instructor and facilitator, demonstrating how to learn a word in sentences or passages, answering students' questions about the possible usage of the word, and helping students cultivate a learning habit which will be beneficial in the long run, for it is impossible for a teacher to tell everything to the students and language learning is autonomous. Helping students develop learning autonomy is more important than just imparting details of language use.

Third, to be native-like is the pinnacle of language learning. Making one's language correct is the basic requirement. Comparatively speaking, it is easier to recognize and avoid overt errors while covert errors can only be recognized by advanced learners and native speakers. Language learners have no other choice but to remember the fixed phrases and expressions, to appreciate and accept the conventional expressions and put them into their own practice. Observant and sensitive learners may find the hidden social and cultural treasures in the habitual language use, and learn more quickly. In other words, their language learning is accelerated.

Making one's language natural, idiomatic and native-like is demanding. The first step is to form the consciousness that the seemingly correct language may be not acceptable or suitable in the eyes of native speakers. The second is to become a careful language reader and user. Based on the correct understanding of a sentence or passage, learner should have a close study of the language and form a habit of thinking carefully. The third is to remember and imitate the correct, idiomatic and beautiful language, which can be internalized through repetitions. Ultimately, the frequent imitation and practice makes one's language correct and idiomatic.

V. CONCLUSION

This is a study of 29 English majors' performance in sentence translation from Chinese to English. Based on the analysis of the errors identified, the author puts forward some suggestion for teachers and students and emphasizes the importance of developing learners' autonomy and critical thinking. Small-scale as it is, the study is empirical and representative; to some extent it reflects the general picture of English teaching and learning in China. More important of all, it gives some practical and manageable guidance to English teaching and learning which are universally applicable. It is hoped that both teachers and students will benefit from this empirical study.

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Haicui Zheng was born in Inner Mongolia. She got her Ph.D. degree from Nankai University and now is an associate professor at College of Foreign Languages, Inner Mongolia University. Her academic research interest is in Applied Linguistics.

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Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
 - Submission of extended version
 - Notification of acceptance
 - Final submission due
 - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the “Call for Papers” to be included on the Journal’s Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal’s style, together with all authors’ contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at <http://www.academypublication.com/tpls/>

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