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Multilingualism Alive

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Abstract—This study focuses on the implications of the ideologies behind monolingualism and multilingualism, drawing from past social issues and research analysis. The exploration of the issue endorses the English Plus proposal, supporting the continuation and cultivation of one’s heritage language(s). The study further investigates the social and cultural influences of monolingualism and multilingualism, highlighting the finding that multilingualism contributes to higher education and social expression while monolingualism depresses cultural identification. In evaluating multilingualism, the research focused on the predominant tutoring strategy employed by immigrant parents to bridge the language and cultural gap with their America-born children. The findings of this study confirm the advantages of a multilingualism society, leading to future investigations on identifying and evaluating the means to establishing multilingual environments.

Index Terms—multilingualism, monolingualism, English-only, English plus, Chinese

I. INTRODUCTION

In a broad sense, a person who speaks more than one language is regarded as “multilingual.” We use the term multilingualism to distinguish from monolingualism. While monolingualism refers to fluency in one language, multilingualism, including bilingualism, terms proficiency in two or more languages. Labeled as a “country of immigrants,” United States establishes its identity on multilingualism although the reality of the country suggests otherwise. The exploration of multilingualism dates back to the arrival of European immigrants to the North American continent. Inevitably, encounter with the natives raised the question of assimilation. Paralleling queries can be found today as Barack Obama focuses the national attention on immigration policies. What is hidden beneath the spotlight debates is the controversy surrounding monolingualism and multilingualism. Some minority languages, such as Chinese, are becoming less prominent in sections of society they were once commonly spoken. In Terre Haute, Chinese parents, taking notice that it is becoming increasingly difficult for their children to immerse in the Chinese language and culture, are sending their children to tutors to learn Chinese in hopes of overcoming the cultural barrier. By adopting a private tutoring strategy, Chinese parents undermine the English-only approach to keep multilingualism alive. This research paper includes three sections: the desirability of multilingualism, the drawbacks of English-only, and the adoption of a tutoring strategy to keep multilingualism alive.

II. THE DESIRABILITY OF MULTILINGUALISM

Characterizing the U.S. on an English-only basis contradicts the notion of our founders in adopting multilingualism to strengthen the foundation of society in this “polyglot” country. Rather than forcefully binding different ethnic groups together using a common tongue, a multi-cultural community draws its appeal from the coexistence of assorted speech, demonstrating a sort of social harmony sought after by minorities and majority alike (Crawford, 1994). To different ethnic groups, multilingualism offers different appeals with the common focus on self and cultural expression.

The United States of America is founded upon immigration. Dating back to European immigrants seeking religious toleration and adventurous explorations, languages such as English and Spanish first made their way into the Newfoundland. With time, whether forced or voluntary, more colors arrived to the nation, each bringing its own native languages and cultures. The blending of the immigrants’ languages with that of the Native Americans established the United States as a multilingual country, leading to the formation of an American identity based on a collection of the masses. The ideology carries itself into present day. Walking along the crowded streets of a moderately sized city, one can encounter Americans from different ethnic groups speaking in different languages. Immigrants enjoy the freedom of expressing themselves in their own languages and feel conventional in doing so. For example, in New York’s Chinatown, the immigrants still use Chinese to communicate. Pan (2002) points this out in Chinese in New York, “Although most U. S.-born Chinese inevitably move out, the Chinese population in New York communities, as a whole, still possesses a high level of language vitality to resist full shift to English” (p. 252). The advantages of speaking heritage language extend beyond the colloquial sense. In practicing one’s cultural tongue, young people or those brought up in areas less populated by their own ethnicities are able to identify themselves with a community, forming an awareness of their positions on a larger platform and connecting themselves with the art and history of their cultures (Edwards, 2004).

In addition to benefiting corresponding cultural groups, multilingualism is an indispensable resource to society as a whole. Speakers of different languages contribute unique accents and phonetics characteristic of their backgrounds, enriching the English language and culture. For example, the English language expanded by borrowing words from other languages such as “taco” from Spanish and “Yin and Yang” from Chinese. As a result, tourists from different countries feel at ease upon hearing and experiencing parts of their language in a foreign setting. Furthermore, businessmen are better accommodated because they are hosted by speakers using their native language in an alien country. The incorporation of multilingualism, therefore, offers an advantage over other countries with a monolingual system, attracting talented immigrants who may otherwise turn to different countries.

In America’s self-development, higher education in linguistics benefit from multilingual faculties and instructors. Immigrants’ native languages, therefore, should be protected and cultured as a valuable reservoir of knowledge. Instead of promoting conversion to English, it is in our nation’s favor to teach immigrants English and preserve their advantage of being fluent in another language. In doing so, America is effectively strengthening the language resources present in the country, cultivating a rich environment in which native English speakers are able to learn the tonal sounds of other languages (Stalker, 1994). By promoting multilingualism, we are increasing the language proficiencies of our native citizens, creating a healthy education cycle that can influence not only the global-mindedness of our citizens, but also their contributions to various professional fields. If the English-only policy is applied, when Americans need translators or interpreters of Spanish, French, Chinese, etc., they will have to develop the curriculum to train them from the beginning. When this occurs, Americans will miss the days of multilingualism. English-only may cause hesitation among upcoming immigrants from non-English speaking countries, redirecting them to immigrating to other countries, such as Canada and Australia. Thus, the damaging cycle of English-only feeds back into itself as professions requiring multilingual abilities will witness shortages of prospective employees.

Furthering the argument, multilingualism assists in learners’ intellectual development. People may ask whether learning one or two other languages puts more burdens on younger learners. However, there is no evidence supporting the claim that learning more than one language in early childhood hinders a child’s linguistic or cognitive development (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The majority of the research indicates that learning a language is opening a door to other cultures. Learners who have already mastered a language and are pursuing other languages know how to use cognitive strategies well. Lightbown and Spada (2006) point out:

There is no evidence that a child’s brain has a limited capacity for languages such that their knowledge of one language must shrink if their knowledge of the other grows. ... Children who have the opportunity to learn multiple languages from early childhood and to maintain them throughout their lives are fortunate indeed, and families that can offer this opportunity to their children should be encouraged to do so. (p. 4)

In learning multiple languages, people are becoming aware of the similarities and differences among languages, developing analytical techniques which allow them to assess the natures of different types of languages. In Terre Haute’s Chinese school, it was observed that students in contact with the Chinese language became increasingly curious toward the phonetics shared between Chinese and English. For example, students queried why Chinese characters’ meanings varied with differing inflections and emphasis. Many students questioned why mic, short for microphone, has a strikingly similar pronunciation in Chinese, only with a heavier emphasis and a brief separation in between the sounds. Interests extended to other English words with similar pronunciations in Chinese such as typhoon, coffee, and pizza. The tutor used this opportunity to illustrate that languages borrow words from each other and in some instances, keep the original pronunciation. These probing questions asked by multilingual learners demonstrate the mental calisthenics resulting from exposure to languages other than one’s native tongue.

With increased involvement with the studied language, the students explored cultural nuances as they queried if stereotypes often pressed upon the Asian community are accurate representations of the group. After comparing the education system of China and America, students developed curiosity towards the lives of Chinese teenagers, wanting to understand the routines of their Chinese counterparts. Many wished to experience a regular school day of a Chinese student and expressed interest in studying in a foreign country in the future if circumstances permit. Heightened anticipation in language and cultural exchanges among the students led to increased involvement in language education and amplified enthusiasm in acquiring new information. The expansion of students’ cultural interest and growth in initiatives to increase global awareness mark an appreciation of cultural differences and intensification of cultural sensitivity. Furthermore, these probing questions asked by multilingual learners demonstrate the mental calisthenics resulting from exposure to languages other than one’s native tongue.

On a larger scale, multilingualism preserves social harmony. Referring to the writings in the Declaration of Independence, which states that all men are created equal, Americans are inspired by using equality as the basis of American democracy. It is neither ethical nor American to deprive others of their rights in speaking their own languages. As we use language to think, to communicate, to learn, to teach, etc., language holds profound significance in the preservation and expression of cultures. To say yes to only one language would only be neglecting the language rights of those of a different tongue. Language is a powerful tool of human beings. According to O’ Neil (2013), we treasure this “symbolic system” and use it to trace our ancestor’s life and enjoy our cultural heritages. Language equality is a part of “cultural democracy.” We should respect human rights without neglecting the language right. Multilingualism in

the USA demonstrates the respect given to one's language right and thus reduces conflicts and struggles over the topic of expression, making the society more harmonious as a whole.

III. THE ENGLISH-ONLY MOVEMENT

The conflict between monolingualism and multilingualism has existed since an earlier time period of the USA. In the beginning, Native Americans maintained numerous languages and cultures. When the immigrants came, they brought languages and cultures of the Old World. This was the first period of American diversity, and multilingualism emerged as "a number of states passed legislation that approved bilingual education or native language education ..." (Grant, 2009, p. 34). However, this time period was by no means open to all, exemplified as later, African slaves who shared the same language were forbidden to gather together and Indians were forced to conform to the "civilized" ways of the whites, demonstrating a vastly different treatment in comparison to the toleration and acceptance granted to other groups of immigrants (Grant, 2009). The concept of assimilation became supported and popularized as the children of the Native Americans were forced to go to school where English was the language of instruction as English became the dominant language in society and the main teaching language in the public school system. The minority groups struggled to gain their own rights in education. The winning of a series of cases, *Brown v. Board of Education* and *Lau v. Nichols*, paved the way for nonnative English speakers as the native speakers are now entitled to support non-native speakers in learning (Grant, 2009). This "equal education" also enabled the non-native speakers to gain respect from the native speakers.

However, a consensus has not been reached on multilingualism. Actually, the situation is more controversial than we expected. Although the Federal government of the country does not designate a language as an official language, thirty states in America declared English as the state's official language. In 1981, Senator Hayakawa argued for adding the English Language Amendment (ELA) to the Constitution to make English the official language on the Federal level to maintain the unity of the country (Lang, 1995). The English First and U. S. English are supporters of the English-only movement, advocating for the idea that a multilingual environment distracts from national unity and loyalty. In order to prevent the possibility of other languages replacing the status of English, they advocate for limitations on bilingual education and bilingual ballots (Betancourt, 1994). The National Education Association (NEA) is one of the organizations that oppose the English-only movement. They listed the disadvantages from the English-only in 1988: ELA will further isolate the minority citizens from social, economic and political mainstream; it harms the international business and international communication; it allows the tight government control of media and will weaken the private sector. It will make language education more difficult (NEA, 1998). If added to the Constitution, the ELA would have made English the official US language. This amendment, however, was never passed by Senate or the House of Representatives.

Mitchell (2005) presents a case study conducted in Massachusetts that addressed a legislation change in 2002, "the U.S Congress passed legislation that transformed the Bilingual Education Act into the English Language Acquisition Act as part of the larger No Child Left Behind Act" (p. 254). This passage meant that the legislation is not in support the bilingual program anymore on the basis that English should be the only lawful language of instruction. The legislation made it difficult for the school and the principal to hire bilingual teachers to help Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students. As a 68% majority voted for English only in Massachusetts in 2002, Mitchell (2005) states, "Sadly, as we enter the 21st century, our country harks back to an ideological perspective prevalent early in the 20th century" (p. 269).

As some scholars still distinguish "mainstream language" and "non-mainstream language," the English-only concept remains a sensitive term to immigrants and potential immigrants alike. The "melting-pot" ideology is lacking in its empirical basis. It fails to answer the question: Which is the mainstream culture that can assimilate the other cultures? English culture? Why not French culture or Spanish culture? Then debates are aroused. The "melting-pot" ideology encounters resistance in reality. For example, there is an Amish community in West Terre Haute that isolates itself from modern society to keep its own language and culture from being tainted by the ideas of English supremacy.

In 1985, the Spanish American League Against Discrimination (SALAD) defended the bilingual education and coined the term "English Plus" (Draper & Jimenez, 1994). Contrary to the ideas presented in English-only, English Plus advocates for English and more. Instead of eliminating the use of other languages, English Plus values the preservation of native language(s) and supports the idea of teaching and learning in one's native language in order to acquire English fluency. The English Plus coalition, "formed in 1988 through the efforts of the National Immigration, Refugee, and Citizen Form, an advocacy and civil rights group, and the Joint National Committee on Languages" (McGroarty, 1994, p. 113), argued on the basis of protection of First Amendment rights for all. The coalition took the platform that in supporting the English-only policies, minorities' rights to Freedom of Speech would be jeopardized. Furthermore, in advocating for a higher-level proficiency test in naturalization and other measures alike, immigrants are being deprived of fair access to government services and benefits enjoyed by native English speakers (Betancourt, 1994).

IV. ADOPTION OF A TUTORING STRATEGY TO KEEP MULTILINGUALISM ALIVE

Combs and Lynch (1990) says, "It is English Plus, not English-only, that holds the greatest promise for a unified society in which no one group – majority or minority – feels threatened" (p. 106). Dicker (2003) encourages the minority groups to take actions to gain more linguistic power:

Multilingualism calls for a vigorous and sustained effort to perpetuate ethnic sub-groups within society. At the same time, such groups need to advocate for themselves, for their socioeconomic advancement, and for acceptance as equals to mainstream Americans at all levels of participation in society. This involves advocating for greater acceptance of their language, for an adjustment in equal balance of power between English and the minority languages represented across the nation. (pp. 312-313)

The Chinese community is a minority group in the USA. The earlier Chinese immigrants worked in gold mines, restaurants, laundries etc., and now, well-educated immigrants and American-born Chinese have the opportunities to attain higher paid positions. As many Chinese parents realize that English is the mainstream language in economic, political and social aspects in America, they are committed to ensuring the English proficiency of their children. On the other hand, Chinese parents work to guide their children into Chinese communities and cultural activities in order to prevent the loss of Chinese heritage. In an environment where Chinese is often not offered at primary or secondary education institutions, Chinese communities or groups of Chinese parents make efforts to keep the Chinese language and culture alive. Edwards (2004) points out:

Lack of fluency [in Chinese] has an impact on many social situations. Children feel humiliated, for instance, when they can't relate to others of their own age on visits to the home country, or when they can't join in conversation with visitors. Many young people reject the [Chinese] language in adolescence but bitterly regret this decision as they grow older. (p. 82)

The influence of the Chinese language is rising in the USA due to the rapid social, economic and political development in China. Dicker (2003) writes that "recent efforts toward the modernization of China have heightened the sense of pride that Chinese Americans have in their culture and their desire to identify with it" (p. 75). However, the parents cannot get any help from public schools because most elementary and middle schools do not offer foreign language courses. They then decide to invite tutors to teach children the Chinese language. Private tutoring has a long history in Chinese education. In ancient Chinese dynasties, tutoring was the main practice in educating children. Although the tutoring time, one or two hours per week, is not enough to fully communicate the Chinese language and culture, the parents value the opportunity, regarding it as one of the only ways to keep multiculturalism alive.

In order to facilitate learning interests and introduce students to new conventions and phonetics, tutors used props such as playing cards lined with Chinese characters, picture flashcards connecting Chinese objects with more familiar American ones, and Chinese translations of popular American nursery rhymes. By consistently bridging established concepts with corresponding ideas of a different culture, the tutors carried the objective of creating a comfortable environment to demonstrate the interconnectedness of global cultures. Learning a new language, therefore, broke the boundary of dry repetition as many students have reported that the technique of presenting paralleling concepts contributes to their long-term memorizations of terms and objects, supplementing and enforcing the information presented to them through textbook literature and workbooks. The success of the tutoring strategy can also be attributed to some recognition on the students' part that learning a new language often presents work and business opportunities unavailable to those who practice monolingualism. In fact, tutors often cite practical applications of learning certain phrases or cultural practices. The art of drinking tea, for example, is commonly taught as a custom that if practiced correctly, could gain favor from coworkers and new friends alike.

The establishment of Terre Haute's Chinese school was a response to the local demands of promoting Chinese learning to the younger generation. As many parents have found and reported difficulties communicating with their American-born children, the inability of later generations to understand or connect with traditional sayings and cultural celebrations became a social crisis. One parent reported that she found it frustrating when her children refused to answer in Chinese, making it impossible for the visiting extended family to communicate without a "middle person." These phenomena observed signal an impending crisis in which language is the first step to bridging the social and cultural gap between immigrated parents and American-born kids. Teaching linguistic classes at the Chinese school in Terre Haute, it was observed that as kids began to understand the tongue of their heritage, they expressed greater desires to try cultural activities associated with certain lessons. For example, groups of students were willing to perform at a local university's Chinese New Year Gala, demonstrating that through learning their language, they are also learning their roots.

V. CONCLUSION

The study has generated support for the continuation and preservation of multilingualism within United States. As monolingualism not only starves cultures of self-expression, but also increases the communication gap between immigrants and their second generation, English-only is not a viable option for the cultivation of native tongues. The above analysis of the necessity for multilingualism emphasizes the need of taking the English Plus approach focused on fostering the perpetuation of various cultures and languages.

Based on this study, one can conclude that multilingualism positively contributes both to the social and cultural composition of the United States. Contrary to the ideas of uniting by conforming to one, multilingualism demonstrates

the effectiveness of upholding and sustaining various languages in bridging generation gaps and attracting prospective immigrants. Future research will focus on exploring the means to achieving multilingualism in addition to the tutoring strategy and evaluating their efficiencies and ease of access.

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An Investigation of the Apparent Speeded Nature of Primary School Leaving Composition and Letter Writing Examination

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Abstract—All achievement tests have some element of speed requiring candidates to write their answers within a stipulated time frame. However, too much emphasis on speed may not give the examinee adequate time to demonstrate what they know, understand and can do with respect to the subject matter studied. As a result, the evaluation of candidate's work may not be a true reflection of his or her content mastery level. Also the results generated may not show content concepts and principles that are not understood. A correct profile of information that is not understood, from diagnostic point of view, is critical in educational systems where assessment is designed to provide feedback to the teacher, the learner and other stakeholders in a formative sense. The Botswana primary school leaving English Language examination appears to be steeped on speed as candidates are required to write composition and letter pieces within an hour. An exploratory study was conducted on views of teachers about time allocation in writing primary school leaving examination English language composition and letter writing. Two hundred and twelve (212) teachers participated from 40 schools across Botswana. Results indicate that majority (67%) of teachers view the time as inadequate and therefore raising validity questions on this examination. There is therefore a need to investigate this matter further as this might have unintended results of the examination.

Index Terms—assessment, speed, writing performance, examination duration, diagnostic assessment, metacognition

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the Revised National Policy on Education [RNPE] of 1994, education delivery system in Botswana follows a 7+3+2+4 model. Primary education forms the foundation of the model. Learners at this level study for seven years at the end of which they sit for Primary School Leaving Examinations (PSLE). Originally, the examination had a dual purpose; that of determining the extent to which learners have acquired the content taught and at the same time providing a rank order of scores so that only the high scoring group may be selected into the next level of education (Report on the National Commission on Education, 1993). However, due to unequal distribution of resources between primary and junior secondary education, PSLE functioned more to serve the second purpose. For example, in 1988 only 45.2% of primary school leaving candidates could progress to junior secondary schools (Education Statistics Report, 1999). Educational researchers have studied this problem and made interesting conclusions, such as the following:

Achievement tests have the dual purpose of measuring what students have learnt to ascertain whether certain minimal levels of performance are obtained, and selecting some students for further studies. These objectives are not necessarily compatible. But often if there are few opportunities for further education to be allocated, selection guides the construction of examination papers and test items.' (Eisemon, 1997, p.127)

This situation where the number of primary school leaving candidates exceeded available places at junior secondary persisted till the late 1980s. The introduction of universal basic education in the early 90s dramatically increased progression rate from primary to junior secondary education. For example, Botswana's coefficient of efficiency in 1997 was 84% indicating a high progression rate from primary to junior secondary (Lewin, 1997). In 1997, out of a total of 40 297 standard sevens (final year of primary school) pupils, 38 420 progressed to junior secondary school; a transition rate of 95.3% (Educational Statistics Report, 1999). Such high progression rates meant PSLE could no longer serve as a selection instrument. Therefore, deliberate policy reforms were made to introduce an assessment system that was more diagnostic as indicated below.

The Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), taken at the end of primary level, will no longer be used to determine progression to junior secondary school level. Starting with 1997 Standard 7 results, assessment will change to Criterion Referenced Testing (CRT), a procedure used to determine the pupil's educational attainment. (National Development Plan 8, 1997 page 337)

Thus, examination process became an integral part of the learning and teaching process; it became a means of determining the extent to which learning is actually taking place in schools. A document on CRT implementation captures the examination reform spirit by stating that;

Testing then becomes a systematic process of gathering evidence of what the child can do relative to the instructional outcome, gathered at opportune time that allow the teacher to use the feedback to make judgments about appropriate adjustments in the instructional environment. [Criterion Referenced Testing: Rationale for Implementation, 1992 page 7]

Assessment of composition and letter writing has also been transformed to conform to the policy reforms outlined above. Firstly, the current language syllabus has well defined content that is divided into specific instructional objectives with these meant to guide the teaching and learning process. Secondly, an analytic marking scheme is used to mark composition and letter examination papers. Analytic marking is more reliable and has the potential to generate diagnostic information relating to language skills exhibited by candidates. However, transformation of the assessment model from normative based stream to a more diagnostic criterion referenced one has not taken into consideration the critical role examination duration has on the performance of examinees. The current 60 minutes duration for composition and letter writing served its purpose well during the normative era when the central issue was to select a few top ranking candidates for secondary education. The main thrust of current assessment trends is to generate information relating to the learner's strengths and weaknesses and such information forms a critical component of the learning and teaching process.

Composition and letter writing assesses two skills almost simultaneously; these are reading and writing. Numerous researchers have proposed theories that provide an explanatory perspective of reading and writing and generally these theories can be classified into three broad groups; namely Traditional View of Reading, Cognitive Theory and the Metacognitive theories of reading. The Traditional Theory mainly focus on the printed text as the main center of gravity with the text containing all the meaning to be extracted and reading *'in this view is basically a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents in the quest for making sense of the text (Vaezi, 2006)*; the text may be a question, passage, poem or an extract from a book. The main focus of testing is to determine the extent to which the examinee is able to provide information that is required by the stimulus. The reader then becomes a passive recipients of information contained in the text. On the other hand, the cognitive theory presents a proposal that is directly opposed to the traditional model. Under the Cognitive theory, reading is regarded as a cognitive process where the reader constructs his or her meaning from the text. Comprehension of the text is influenced not just by the words in the text but it is at the same time controlled by the readers' psychological traits and social experiences. The cognitive perspective therefore, proposes an interactive nature of reading where the reader has to comprehend the stimulus material but most importantly the reader integrates his or her background knowledge into the context. Since different learners have different psychological and social background knowledge, each learner will interpret the same stimulus differently. Two other relevant theories closely related to the Cognitivist approach are the Socio-cultural theory and the Reader Response Theory. According to Vygotsky (1978) the reader's cultural and social background plays a major role in the extraction of meaning from a given text. On the other hand, the Reader Response Theory as propounded by Rosenblatt (1978) postulates that good readers make connections to their reading by keying in associations, feelings, attitudes, and ideas providing the deepest interaction between reader and text. In this case the theory does not only look at the reader's cognitive faculties but also factors in the affective domain in the reading process.

Research has extended the central role played by readers by showing that as readers read a given text they are at the same time aware of their own thinking processes. The ability of a reader to reflect on what he or she is reading and at the same time make adjustments and change strategies has been referred to as metacognition. According to the Metacognitive theory, knowledge structure consists of three distinct and highly interactive variables; namely personal or self variables, task variables and strategy variables (see Flavel, 1979). Under the self component successful students at all levels seem to have a greater awareness of themselves as writers and understand that the purpose of writing is to communicate a message to the other person. The task component looks at the extent to which the student understands the writing task and its requirements. Strategies component involves incubation of ideas and subsequent development of a draft or road map (Flavel, 1979). In a nutshell, the reader or writer must be fully aware of his or her strengths and weaknesses as reader or writer; he or she should be able to understand the purpose of the task at hand and possess appropriate strategies for solving the task as required by the stimulus material.

Recent research studies have established a significant link between metacognitive knowledge and writing performance. In a research study conducted by Kasper (1997), a sample of 120 students was divided into two groups; ESL 09 Group comprising 67 students and ESL 91 made up of 56 students (Kasper, 1997). In both groups, students writing skills were assessed using a variety of activities that included summaries, open-ended comprehension questions, and analytical essays in a variety of rhetorical modes. The extract below provides some of the requirements of the experiment.

'To pass each course, students had to receive a passing grade on an end-of-semester writing assessment. For both courses, this assessment consisted of an in-class final writing examination in which students were given two hours to plan, and revise a persuasive essay on their choice of three assigned topics derived from a reading text.' (Kasper, 1997, p. 5).

The researcher concluded that successful student writers were aware that the goal of writing is to communicate a message, and they tended to choose effective strategies to accomplish that goal. These strategies include planning, monitoring, and evaluating during the task of composing.

All these theories help to demonstrate the complex nature of the writing process. Writing is not just a matter of providing correct information but a product of high level interaction between the printed test, the writer's psych-social characteristics and intended audience to mention but a few of the variables.

The main aim of this research study was to assess the suitability of the current 60 minutes duration for composition and letter writing. The main research question was to explore teachers' opinions on the suitability of the examination duration in the English Language composition and letter writing in Botswana primary school leaving examinations.

II. METHODOLOGY

Study design

The study followed an exploratory design to get views of teachers about time allocated to writing of English Language composition and letter in primary school in the 10 educational regions in Botswana. Exploratory designs are useful in uncovering extend of a problem. The exploration was done through administration of a questionnaire to a sample of teachers in the regions.

Participants

The study respondents were upper primary teachers who had been in the field for a considerable length of time and had observed candidates write the composition and letter examination at some point in time. A total of 40 primary schools were selected from 40 inspectoral areas as shown in Table 1. Inspectoral areas are administrative divides within a region for ease of coordination. The number of schools selected within a region was the same as the number of inspectoral areas within that region ensuring that there was a school selected to represent each inspectoral area. Each school was randomly selected. In each school, upper primary teachers were selected for participation resulting in an average of 5 teachers per school. Botswana primary school classes are divided into lower (standards 1-2), middle (standards 3-4) and upper(standards 5-7). Participating teachers were therefore those teaching the upper stream. A total of 212 teachers participated with majority being female (67%) as females make majority of teachers at this level.

Instruments

Teachers' opinions on the suitability of the examination duration were measured using a questionnaire made up of five likert-scale type items and one open-ended question. The first four items requiring the respondents to indicate, on a scale of 1 to 5, whether the current sixty minutes duration of the examination was enough, more than enough or not enough. The last item gave respondents an opportunity to give reasons to support their preferred examination duration.

TABLE 1
EDUCATIONAL REGIONS AND INSPECTORAL AREAS

	Region	No of Inspectoral Areas	No of Schools Sampled
1	Central	14	14
2	Kgatleng	02	02
3	Kweneng	04	04
4	North East	03	03
5	South East	04	04
6	South	06	06
7	Kgalagadi	02	02
8	North West	03	03
9	Chobe	01	01
10	Gantsi	01	01
	Total	40	40

III. RESULTS

Before responding to the main research question on the extent to which emphasis on speed of response affect a candidate's performance in the English Language composition and letter writing, teachers were asked to reflect on which was more difficult; composition or letter writing. Most of the teachers (78.3%) who responded agreed composition writing and letter writing were of similar demand.

Responses from teachers on time allocated for English Language composition and letter writing were in three parts; time being enough, more than enough or not being enough. When teachers were asked to the statement "The time allowed for PSLE composition and letter writing in the examination is enough", two thirds of teachers (66%) disagreed (disagreed and strongly disagreed combined). This indicates that majority find the time allocated to this examination not enough. This is illustrated in Fig. 1.

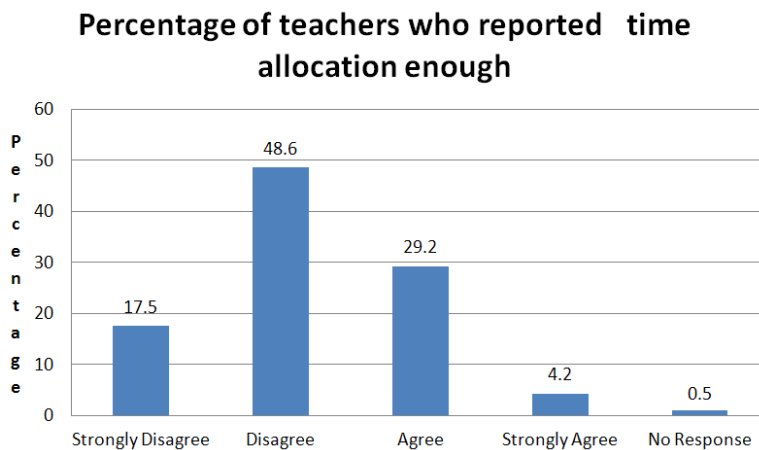


Figure 1 Percentage of teachers who reported time allocation enough

When asked to respond to the statement “The time allowed for PSLE composition and letter writing in the examination is more enough”, only three percent (3%) agreed (agree and strongly agree combined) as shown in Fig. 2. This indicates that majority find the time allocated to this examination not more than enough.

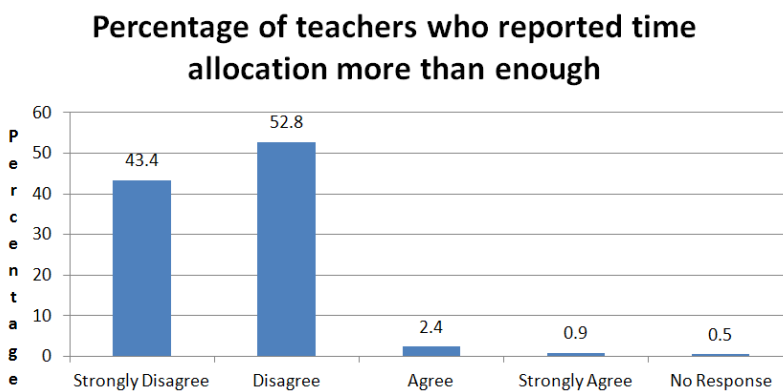


Figure 2 Percentage of teachers who reported time allocation more than enough

When asked to respond to the statement “The time allowed for PSLE composition and letter writing in the examination is not enough”, about two thirds (67.5%) agreed (agree and strongly agree combined) as shown in Fig. 3. This indicates that majority find the time allocated to this examination not enough.

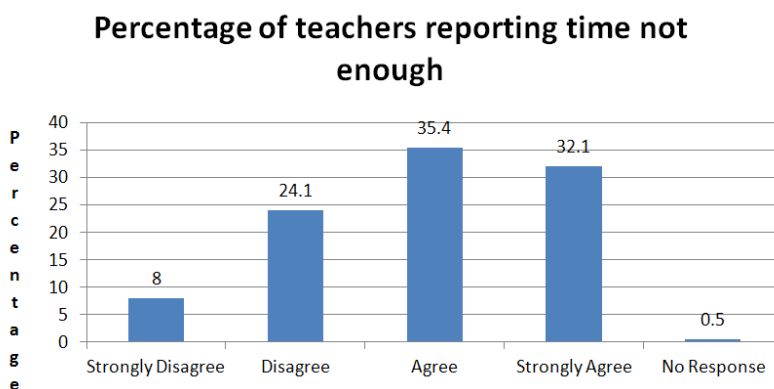


Figure 3 Percentage of teachers reporting time not enough

Teachers were further presented with possible time allocation options and only 23.1 % opted for the current allocation of one hour or less. More than half (58%) opted for one and a half hours while 18% chose two hours as ideal time allocation for the composition and letter writing. These results clearly show increased time favorable. Teachers were asked to give reasons for their choice of time and reasons cited for preferred option was that candidates needed time to make drafts and make logical presentations of their work. The time allocated should therefore be enough to allow candidates to carefully read and fully comprehend the stimulus material before writing. Having digested and analyzed the topic, examinees can then generate as many ideas as possible and then use the ideas to produce a draft. Respondents put more emphasis on logical development of ideas, critical thinking and creativity. Responding teachers

expressed the need for examinees to be able to present their ideas in a logical sequence in order to produce a coherent and interesting piece of writing. The composition or letter presented should not only be interesting to the reader but should also serve as evidence of critical analysis of situations discussed. It is the opinion of majority of respondents that the current 60 minutes duration does not give candidates enough time to show what they know, understand and can do in the writing process.

Teachers further assert that that correct spelling, grammar and punctuation are some of the language use criterions that are poorly assessed due to limited time. Teachers indicated that most examinees, especially the slow ones, have no time to correct spelling mistakes, tense and punctuation hence producing poor quality work. Also of equal importance was proof reading as an integral part of the writing process. Examinees have to re-read what they have written in order to correct mistakes or add any valuable information that might have been left out.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results show that teachers do have varied views on the time allocation for writing composition and letter in primary school. Basically there are two groups of teachers; those who support the current time and those who suggest that the time be increased. Teachers who are in support of the status quo are of the view that the current time gives candidates 30 minutes writing composition and the other 30 minutes writing the letter. As one teacher commented;

'Pupils tend to write quickly and then disturb or make noise after finishing. Therefore, 1 hour will enable the child to give 30 minutes to the letter and 30 minutes to composition. If you give more time pupils will end up canceling and changing the correct answers therefore reducing the marks'.

Another argument made in support of the 60 minutes duration was that candidates are given guidelines on how to use the time. For example, a topic may be divided into three sub-topics indicating to the candidate that he or she must produce at least three paragraphs discussing each of the stipulated sub-topics. Teachers spend a lot of time in class training pupils on how to correctly follow these guidelines. Mid-year and End of Year examinations are used to prepare learners for the actual examination. One teacher attested to that saying; *'A well trained candidate who is capable and who knows what the question is calling for takes less than 30 minutes to finish writing a composition.'*

The perspectives presented by these teachers resonate well with the traditional theory of writing discussed earlier. According to this theory, the printed text (items and guidelines) has all the information that must be interpreted by the candidate. The learner's psycho-social characteristics as well as the interaction between the learner's attributes and the printed text play a very insignificant role. Teachers who subscribe to the traditional theory expect candidates to be able to read the item and immediately start writing.

On the other hand, practitioners in the field who feel that the time is not enough have presented a number of relevant reasons why the current time should be increased. Firstly, the teachers have raised a concern that examinees need time to read the stimulus material, brainstorm and use the ideas generated to develop a conceptual map or draft. The draft gives the writer the opportunity to add new ideas, arrange the ideas in a logical and coherent manner before making the final product. Secondly, teachers feel that the current time only benefits learners who are able to read and write quickly. One teacher commented that; *'Standard 7s are just like any other pupils and have different abilities therefore slow learners need more time to write and go over their work correcting mistakes.'*

The third key point raised by respondents who support increased time is that writing should not only be concerned with providing correct answers but should develop creativity and critical thinking faculties on the side of the learner. An assessment of writing therefore, should not only focus on determining whether the candidate can provide correct responses within a limited time but rather an emphasis should be on the ability of the learner to exhibit critical thinking qualities and write a story that is interesting to the reader. The time allocated should *'... allow pupils to be creative and to do rational thinking before writing their composition and letter. Thus composition needs more creativity to make the reader/ maker to be interested to read ahead.'*

The fourth point relates to the interaction between the individual candidate's socio-economic background and the context presented by the stimulus material. For example, an item that requires candidates to write about a day at the clinic may appear straight forward and simple. However, there are rural communities in Botswana that do not have access to clinics. In urban areas there might be several clinics in one locality thus giving the child a lot of material to choose from. Children from rural areas with no access to a clinic will find it hard to try and come up with an interesting and realistic composition. As one teacher said;

'You will find that at times even the scene set (topic) is not familiar to some of the candidates depending on their locality (urban vs. rural), so it takes some candidates time to digest and come up with the introduction, resulting in failure to complete their work.'

Lastly, there is a concern that assessment of writing does not take into consideration the needs of the writer from a metacognitive perspective. According to the metacognition theory as shown earlier, writers continuously evaluate their writing by doing self-reflections and being able to analyze their thinking processes. These reflections are strategies employed by the writer during the writing process to make sure that the writers personal needs or inner feelings are satisfied or fulfilled. As one teacher commented on increasing time allocation;

More time will allow candidates some time to think and structure their letter and composition in a manner that will be satisfying their expectations and expertise rather than having to race against time before the learner has fully convinced themselves with what their expectations of an ideal letter or composition are.

According to this teacher, the current time does not allow candidates to demonstrate what they know, understand and can do. The results obtained in the end reflect partial knowledge and may lack construct validity.

The one hour duration appears to be suitable for candidates who can read and quickly. Examinees that prefer to spend time analyzing the topic, developing road maps or drafts and editing the drafts almost always run out of time. This raises issue of validity, reliability and fairness of the examination process. Learners come from different socio-economic backgrounds and also belong to different sub-groups of the population. Efforts must be made to try and cater for the most salient sub-groups so as to make the examination as fair as possible. The interaction between the candidate and the item may take more time for remote area learners than may be the case for other candidates. Increasing the duration would undoubtedly benefit this group of learners.

V. CONCLUSION

This study provides evidence that the current duration for composition and letter writing examination need to be evaluated. For the educational system to derive maximum benefit from diagnostic assessment, it is necessary to review all elements that may have a negative impact on the validity and reliability of examination results. Examination duration is one of those elements and therefore extensive research studies have to be conducted to assess the fairness of examinations duration.

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Japanese *Kanji* Word Processing for Chinese Learners of Japanese: A Study of Homophonic and Semantic Primed Lexical Decision Tasks

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Abstract—The current study investigates phonological involvement in Japanese word recognition by advanced and intermediate Chinese learners. A homophonic, semantic and unrelated (control) primed lexical decision task was used to test the participants' reactions times (RTs) and accuracy scores. Only the RTs of the participants' accurate YES responses in the lexical decision task (yes/no) were used as dependent measures for evaluation. The results showed that there were no significant effects on priming types as well as proficiency levels. An analysis of the interaction also indicated no effects between priming effects and groups. That is, both the advanced learners and the intermediate learners performed similarly with all prime types. These results support the claim that the Universal Phonological Principle does not apply to Chinese readers when they encounter Japanese *Kanji* as they do not activate phonological representations while reading Japanese cognates. The present findings constitute a partial explanation of the word recognition process for Chinese learners of Japanese.

Index Terms—Japanese, L2, reaction time, lexical decision

I. INTRODUCTION

Visual word processing is a skill whereby readers encountering a word form, “activate links between the graphic form and phonological information, activate appropriate semantic and syntactic resources, recognize morphological affixation in more complex word forms, and access her or his mental lexicon” (Grabe, 2009, p. 23). However, the role of phonology in the visual word recognition process has been intensely debated, specifically with regard to the Universal Phonology Principle and the dual route model. That is, whether phonological processing in word recognition is activated before or after accessing semantic meaning (Chen, et al. 2007; Machida, 2001).

The Universal Phonology Principle states that readers activate phonology in pronouncing a word prior to processing the semantic representation of the word. Substantial studies on word recognition have been done on readers of alphabetic languages. For example, Van Orden, et al. (1988) found that presenting homophonic heterographs – such as *meat* and *meet* – in priming, increased recognition errors when compared to pairs with similarly spelling – such as *meat* and *melt* – in a semantic categorization task. Moreover, Rubenstein, et al. (1971) observed that lexical decision time was longer for homophonic words, such as *weak* and *week*, than non-homophonic words. These studies suggest that activating phonological processing of the visually presented words interferes with the identification of appropriate lexicon. This in turn indicates the significant role of phonological processing during word recognition.

On the other hand, the dual model of reading comprehension proposes that meaning proceeds from dominant direct orthographic access whereas the phonological route plays a slower, indirect role (Chen, et al. 2007). Jared and Seidenberg (1991) conducted a modified version of Van Orden's study and claim that homophonic effects are observed in the case of low-frequency words.

Recently, more studies on readers of non-alphabetic languages such as Chinese and Japanese have investigated word recognition processing (Keung & Ho, 2009; Perfetti & Liu, 2005). Some researchers argue that native Chinese speakers access letters-to-meaning directly without any phonological processing (e.g. Chen, et al. 1995). Others argue that a phonological effect does occur when Chinese readers access meaning (e.g. Perfetti & Zhang, 1995). Although Chinese and Japanese belong to different linguistic families, both of the languages use Chinese characters (Japanese employs *Kanji* which originates from Chinese) in logographic representations. Regardless of their pronunciation systems, Chinese and Japanese share a number of compound words which are identical or similar in morphological representations as well as semantically i.e. cognates. For example, “規則”, pronounced /kisoku/ in Japanese and /gweitzer/ in Chinese, means “rules” in both languages (Chiu, 2002). Previous studies on lexical decision tasks and naming tasks recorded faster responses with cognate languages such as Dutch (L1)-English (L2) than non-cognate languages (De Groot, et al. 2002). Thus language distance appears to be a crucial factor in word processing. The above researchers did focus a little on cross linguistic processing in non-alphabetic cognate languages: Chinese and Japanese. The present study examines which cognitive processing route, namely, letter-to-meaning or sound-to-meaning processing, is activated by Taiwanese learners of Japanese when they encounter Japanese *Kanji*.

II. ORTHOGRAPHIC PROCESS AND PHONOLOGICAL PROCESS

Visual word recognition of word forms from a text requires letters, letter groups, word shapes and key shapes of letters. The length of a word corresponds directly to word-recognition time (Grabe, 2009). That is, the more letters are present, the more visual processing time is required. In English, longer letter words or more complex words with morphological affixes such as prefixes and suffixes - highlighted here in *uneventful* - involve a great deal of orthographic processing skills. Not only graphic forms but also morphological forms play a very important role in word recognition (Grabe, 2009).

As a non-alphabetic language, Chinese is considered a morphosyllabic language. It is based on Chinese characters which indicate a meaning as well as a phonetic or syllabic component. When reading Chinese, orthographic information is more crucial due to the nature of the Chinese writing system (Wang & Geva, 2003). A number of studies suggest that Chinese readers, both children and adults, tend to rely extensively on visual skills in recognizing Chinese characters.

Similarly, Koda (1992) found that Japanese ESL learners who were literate in non-alphabetic languages, such as *Kanji* (which originates from Chinese) and *Kana*, performed better in coding graphic similarities than phonological similarities. Wang & Geva (2003) stress that logographic readers tend to access lexicons via an orthographic representation rather than phonological information (Figure 1: A) whereas alphabetic readers rely more on a direct analysis of phonological information when encoding lexical representations (Figure 1: B).

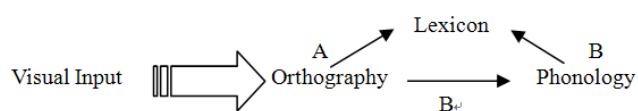


Figure 1. Cognitive processing in L1 (adapted from Chiu, 2002, p. 358)

In addition, some studies show that phonological awareness predicts reading ability across alphabetic languages (Geva & Wang, 2001; Keung & Ho, 2009). “In children learning to read English, the negative effect of phonological awareness deficit occurs early and affects the acquisition of phonological coding in word reading, and further slows down the build-up of the orthographic lexicon” (Geva & Wang, 2001, p. 194).

Recent Chinese language research has found that phonological awareness in Chinese children plays a significant role in accurate word recognition and successful reading performance (Ho & Bryant, 1997). Chinese children are able to segment larger sound units such as partial homophones and later conceptualize smaller elements like rhymes or tones while they develop reading skills (Ho & Bryant, 1997).

Likewise, reading Japanese *Kanji* involves phonological activation in native Japanese speakers (Morita & Tamaoka, 2002). Wydell, et al. (1993) found that subjects made more errors and took longer to decide on correct answers when homophonic words were presented as priming effects. This was not the case with the target words which had no homophones. The example of their semantic categorization task is to present a category name *a good result* as a prime followed by a target word *an achievement*. When the target words were homophones of a correct exemplar, participants took more time to make a decision than with the target words with no homophones. Moreover, Morita & Tamaoka (2002) showed phonological involvements in lexical decision at the word level and semantic decisions at the sentence level. These studies support the notion that regardless of orthographic systems, phonological information is activated in L1 word recognition.

III. JAPANESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR CHINESE BACKGROUND LEARNERS

Readers of Japanese as a foreign language need to consider two types of writing systems, namely *Kana* and *Kanji*, during the process of word recognition. Japanese orthography consists of a combination of *Kana* (e.g. にほんご “Japanese”) and *Kanji* characters (e.g. 日本語 “Japanese”) (Chen, et al. 2007; Leong & Tamaoka, 1995; Machida, 2001). Each *Kana* represents a syllabic unit, a mora. When pronounced, each mora is of equal duration which makes Japanese language very rhythmical (Chen, et al. 2007; Leong & Tamaoka; 1995). *Kanji* words represent nouns, roots of verbs and adjectives in Japanese reading text, while *Kana*, a highly transparent writing system, is assigned for function words and grammatical morphemes.

Kanji, which are logographic characters, originate from Chinese and are either used alone or combined with *Kana* to form a word. Each *Kanji* carries its phonetic and semantic meaning, but not pronunciation. Knowing the pronunciation of a *Kanji* character in one context cannot help one to recognize the *Kanji* in another sentence (Machida, 2001). Koda (1992) claims that *Kana* and *Kanji* involve different processing strategies. *Kana* represents phonographic orthography whereas *Kanji* is a morphographic writing system. For example, in the study of the different processing systems in *Kanji* and *Kana*, younger native Japanese speakers processed the commonly-used target words faster in *Kanji* than in *Kana* with the lexical decision task (Tamaoka, et al. 1992). Although there could be some influence whether the target words they selected were familiar to the subjects for *Kanji* or *Kana*, they concluded that *Kanji* might relate directly to meaning in the retrieval process while *Kana* might relate more to the phonological aspects of word processing.

When comparing an alphabetic language to Chinese and *Kanji*, one finds that the latter two display components of orthography which do not demonstrate phonemes in pronunciation. However, some characters carry pronunciation cues,

in other words, phonetic radicals, and radicals themselves also have their own pronunciations as well as meanings. Unlike Chinese, *Kanji* has more than one pronunciation: *Kun* which is Japanese in origin and *On* which originates from Chinese (Chen, et al. 2007; Leong & Tamaoka; 1995). For example, “馬” (horse) in *Kanji* can be pronounced /ba/ in *On* and /u-ma/, with two syllables of equal length, in *Kun*. Reading Japanese texts involve the integration of *Kanji*, including multiple possible *On* pronunciations and *Kun* pronunciations, as well as *Kana* orthographies in one writing system. Readers with a Chinese background are confronted by all these factors which entails a great deal of phonological processing in their L2, Japanese.

A comparative study of native Chinese speakers and native English speakers learning Japanese reveals a significant phonological involvement by native Chinese speakers when processing *Kanji* but not with the native English speakers (Tamaoka, 2000). The researcher concluded that the degree of knowledge in *Kanji* possibly caused the different processing trend. Compared with alphabetic language speakers, learners with a Chinese background have at least a basic knowledge of *Kanji*. They are able to understand the core meaning of *Kanji* characters and distinguish similar types of orthographies. Chiu (2002) studied *Kanji* processing in Taiwanese JFL learners and pointed out that Taiwanese learners tend to engage with the letter-to-meaning route or the use of Chinese phonological processing regardless of their proficiency when they encounter cognates (Figure 2: A or A'). On the other hand, they process Japanese phonology in the case of non-cognates recognition (Figure 2: B). However, fluent Japanese learners could develop independent mental lexicon on cognates for both languages and it is possible to process Japanese words in Japanese phonology for Chinese learners (Jiang, 2000).

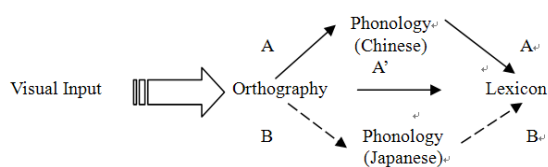


Figure 2. Cognitive processing for Taiwanese learners of Japanese (adapted from Chiu, 2002, p. 359)

IV. THE AIM OF THE PRESENT INVESTIGATION AND THE HYPOTHESIS

As these previous studies indicate, phonological activation may play a role in the word processing of Chinese readers. However, it is still not clear whether Chinese learners who study Japanese as a foreign language process phonology to access lexicon because both languages share a common writing system, Chinese characters (*Kanji*). Considering the effect of L1 knowledge on L2 word recognition, Chinese readers may access lexicon through visual coding to infer meaning without pronouncing words. On the other hand, if Chinese readers engage with phonological awareness, in accordance with the Universal Phonology Principle, they may rely more on L1 sounds than that of L2 when processing cognates (Figure 2).

The present study examines the issues raised in Chiu's (2002) findings which are concerned with whether Taiwanese Japanese learners tend to access meaning through orthography or their L1 phonology when processing cognates. According to Chen, et al. (2007), the studies on phonological activation in Chinese readers should include a naming task which requires articulation as well as tasks without verbal involvement such as a lexical decision task. Chen, et al. (2007, p. 64) stress that a test of the universal phonological principal "would require a demonstration of phonological priming on a task that could arguably be performed without phonological processing and a demonstration that phonological priming precedes semantic priming". Thus, their design of a primed lexical decision task was adopted for the experiment.

The present task was constructed with three types of priming words (Chinese pseudo-homophones, Japanese semantically related words and unrelated words) paired with 18 Japanese compound words. In the paradigm of the priming task, participants made a decision whether the item was a real *Kanji* compound word as quickly and as accurately as possible after they saw one of the priming word types. The hypothesis was if there was early phonological activation in processing Japanese *Kanji* (cognates)¹, Chinese pseudo-homophonic priming of *Kanji* targets should be faster than semantic priming. Alternatively, if orthographic-to-meaning was primarily activated for *Kanji* recognition, Chinese pseudo-homophonic priming should not be a factor.

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 30 (14 female and 18 male) technology college students from the southern part of Taiwan participated in the experiment. All were native speakers of Chinese who studied Japanese as a second language in the Japanese department for either the Master program (Advanced) or the Undergraduate program (Intermediate). Their proficiency level was set at the first and third level of the Japanese language proficiency test (JLPT) respectively, followed by the

¹ Note cognates in this paper means two-Chinese-character compound words which are identical or similar in Chinese and Japanese language at both orthographic and semantic levels.

former classification².

B. Design and Materials

The experimental design is a 2 (advanced and intermediate) \times 3 (prime type: Chinese pseudo-homophones, semantically related and unrelated) mixed factorial design. The target words consisted of 18 high-frequency Japanese compound words (two character *Kanji*), two to four syllables in length (e.g. 英語 “English”), and each target word was paired with three types of *Kanji* primes: Chinese pseudo-homophones (e.g. 桜雨), semantically related words (e.g. 言葉 “language”) and an unrelated control group (e.g. 注意 “attention”). Moreover, in order to balance the number of “yes” and “no” responses, another 18 pseudo-word target pairs with a Japanese homophone, which were made by combining two existing *Kanji* characters, as well as semantic and unrelated primes were intermixed for a “no” response. The Chinese pseudo-homophones were formed from two existing visually dissimilar characters which are not normally paired with one another. Semantically related primes were selected from actual two-character Japanese *Kanji* in which pairs of the target words and the semantic primes have no characters in common.

All the Japanese words including the 18 target words, the 18 homophone primes paired with the pseudo-word targets, the 36 semantic primes and the 36 unrelated primes were selected from JLPT third level character list and all the priming words were carefully controlled in terms of the number of strokes (<http://www.ira.org.tw/fate/23.htm>; <http://60.250.4.156:8080/stroke/Bopomofo.htm>). A total of 108 *Kanji* pairs were prepared for the experiment. Each of the three prime conditions was paired with each main target word across three groups of five participants so that the participants saw only one prime condition for each target. Each participant received 10 practice test questions prior to the experiment and then a total of 36 experimental questions were given in random order. All tests were structured through DMDX experimental software in the TOSHIBA notebook.

TABLE 1
MEAN NUMBER (SD) OF STROKES OF *KANJI* PRIMES USED

Prime type	Pseudo-homophone (n=36)	Semantically Related (n=36)	Unrelated (n=36)
Mean strokes	18.7(6.8)	19.3(4.4)	19.1(5.7)

C. Procedure

Participants were instructed to decide whether or not the item was a real *Kanji* compound word as quickly and as accurately as possible by pressing the “yes” key or the “no” key on the keyboard. The instructions were provided in Japanese. Together the ten 10 practice questions and then 36 questions for the experiment lasted approximately 5 minutes. The test was individually administrated only once per research section in the school classroom. First the participants observed a focus point, in this case, an asterisk, for 600ms at the center of a computer screen, followed by a 150ms presentation of a prime word. Then a *Kanji* target appeared for 600ms at the center of screen and wait until the participant’s response for a maximum of 6000ms. The computer recorded the reaction time (RT) from the onset of target presentation until the participant pressed the button and the response key (yes or no).

VI. RESULTS

For the inter-item reliabilities of the *Kanji* prime task, Cronbach’s alpha value (0.7) proved to be fairly reliable. The study employed 2 levels (Advanced and Intermediate) \times 3 factors (Prime type: Chinese pseudo-homophones, semantically related words and unrelated words) design for the *Kanji* lexical decision task. Only the RTs of the participants’ correct YES responses in the lexical decision task (yes/no) were used as dependent measures for evaluation. The RT measures from two intermediate male students were edited for outliers with the boundary of 2.5 standard deviations plus and minus the mean. The edited RTs on the *Kanji* word recognition task were analyzed using a mixed-model ANOVA. The description of the mean RTs, correct responses and error rates on three prime types by the two proficiency groups is shown in Table 2.

A 2 (Advanced and Intermediate) \times 3 (Prime type: Chinese pseudo-homophones, semantically related words and unrelated words) mixed-model ANOVA revealed that the main effect for subjects was not significant $F(1, 28) = 0.03, p > .05$. Thus, there was no overall difference in the RTs of the advanced students ($M = 828$ ms) compared to the intermediate students ($M = 811$ ms). A main effect for prime types was not obtained (homophone = 818 ms, semantic = 782 ms and unrelated = 859ms), $F(2, 56) = 1.25, p > .05$. An interaction of prime type \times proficiency level was also not obtained, $F(2, 56) = 0.26, p > .05$.

The same ANOVA was carried out and showed that there was no significant main effect for items $F(1, 34) = 0.44, p > .05$. Thus, there was no overall difference in the RTs of the advanced students ($M = 829$ ms) compared to the intermediate students ($M = 805$ ms). A main effect for prime types was not obtained (homophone = 825 ms, semantic = 765ms and unrelated = 860ms), $F(1, 34) = 1.1, p > .05$. An interaction of prime type \times proficiency level was also not obtained, $F(1, 34) = 0.4, p > .05$.

² The JLPT has been revised since 2010.

TABLE 2
THE DESCRIPTION OF MEAN REACTION TIMES (RT IN MILLISECONDS), MEAN SCORES AND ERROR RATES (SD) OF THE LEXICAL PRIMING TASK FOR
ADVANCED GROUP AND INTERMEDIATE GROUP

Prime type	Advanced(n=16)			Intermediate(n=14)		
	RT (ms)	Score	Error rate (%)	RT (ms)	Score	Error rate (%)
Pseudo-homophone	806(303)	5.9(0.5)	0.02(0.08)	838(449)	5(1.8)	0.17(0.3)
Semantics	800(255)	5.8(0.6)	0.04(0.1)	763(277)	6(0)	0(0)
Unrelated	877(351)	6(0.0)	0(0)	840(258)	5.9(0.2)	0.01(0.05)

VII. DISCUSSION

The question in the present study was whether Chinese readers of Japanese as a Second Language would process Japanese *Kanji* (characters which originated from Chinese) by the activation of phonology before following the orthographic route, in accordance with the Universal Phonological Principle. The results showed that in comparison with the unrelated prime, the pseudo-homophone prime had no significant effect on *Kanji* word recognition by Chinese readers. The failure to obtain the homophone effect indicates that phonological processing was not activated by Chinese learners when encountering cognate Japanese *Kanji*.

Although there was no significant difference of the mean RTs between proficiency levels, the obtained figures showed that the intermediate participants responded faster in semantics priming than the pseudo-homophone prime and unrelated semantic features. Thus it could be claimed that the intermediate group relied more on orthographic processing. Alternatively, as the advanced group demonstrated no clear difference in RT across three priming types, it may indicate that the learners from the higher proficiency level process a more robust level of automatic retrieval of *Kanji* targets due to their high proficiency in the target language. Overall, the phonological principle did not apply to *Kanji* processing for Chinese readers. That is, orthographic readers do not employ phonology as a core process when encountering familiar words.

The results partially support the previous study by Chen, et al. (2007) in which they found the absence of homophonic priming but obtained semantic priming effects with native Japanese participants. Thus, as a follow-up study, the researcher slightly modified the homophonic priming items — due to the difference in pronunciation between Chinese and Japanese — and tested seven native Japanese speakers using the same procedure. The result showed that there was no statistically significant effect on priming types for the native subjects, the same results as with the L2 learners in the previous experiment. The comparison of the Means in priming types revealed a similar pattern of RTs in both groups; they performed faster in the homophone/semantics prime and slower in the unrelated prime (Native Japanese Speakers: $M = 879$ ms in Pseudo-homophones, $M = 890$ ms in Semantically Related and $M = 907$ ms in Semantically Unrelated). Although the difference in RTs may be considered statistically insignificant, this may indicate that mature readers are more likely to access internal lexicons through sounds whereas immature learners rely more on visual memory.

Conversely, the present results may indicate that test participants employ phonological activation when encountering Japanese words. Studies on semantic categorization tasks (e.g. Chiu 2002; Sakuma, et al. 1998; Van Orden, 1987; Wydell, et al. 1993) show that the reaction times of participants are longer and that participants make more errors when there is a homophone effect. In a task of presenting an exemplar of a category name when the target words are homophones, participants take more time to make a decision than if the target words contain no homophones. A possible explanation of the homophone effect is that Chinese phonological representations were activated by the priming set and consequently conflict was created at the presentation of the target words. Thus it would take a longer time to complete the lexical decision task. It would be worthwhile to justify such a conflict interpretation through the use of a semantic categorization task for future study.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The present results can claim that the Universal Phonological Principle does not apply to Chinese readers when they encounter Japanese *Kanji*. Nevertheless, the failure of priming effects for the L2 learners needs to be taken into consideration for further study. One reason for this may be the existence of parallel access to semantics via orthographic and phonological routes. Another possible explanation may be an automatic retrieval process for cognates or familiar words by Taiwanese Japanese learners. A comparison with unfamiliar words and non-cognates should be made so as to explore the phonological involvement in *Kanji* word recognition processing by logographic readers.

Generally competent readers are likely to intentionally access mental lexicons when encountering unfamiliar words as opposed to using automatic retrieval with familiar words. Likewise, non-cognates do not share the same Chinese characters and therefore familiarity with a character is not a factor in word processing. Thus Chinese learners tend to develop an independent access route to meaning. Moreover, the researcher believes that a comparison between *Kanji* primes and *Hiragana* primes would be considered. This is because *Hiragana*, Japanese phonological units, shows phonological information directly to readers and might facilitate phonological activation.

Finally, the pedagogical implication here is that Chinese learners should place more emphasis on Japanese pronunciation while reading Japanese *Kanji*, especially the lexical items which share common orthography and meaning.

Chinese adult readers have already established such lexicons internally and it would be difficult to develop another independent lexicon with different pronunciation. Reading aloud should be exercised in the classroom as well as during self-learning.

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Refusal and Politeness Strategies in Relation to Social Status: A Case of Face-threatening Act among Indonesian University Students

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Abstract—The present study aimed at investigating how Indonesian students refuse offers, invitations, and suggestions to persons having different social statuses. Refusal and politeness strategies were the focus of this study. The social variable involved in this study was the social status represented in lower to higher social-status (LHSS), higher to lower social-status (HLSS), and equal social-status (ESS) relationships. The data were obtained through discourse completion test (DCT) distributed to 161 students. The DCTs resulted in 2898 corpus data. Data analysis suggested that in general, the refusal strategy across social-status relationships and across initiating acts is consistently patterned, i.e. indirect strategy was more dominantly performed by the research participants. Criticizing, presenting other agenda, showing a preference, and stating self-limitation were the semantic formulas that were frequently used for refusing indirectly. Turning to politeness strategy, LHSS group used the highest number of redressive expressions, followed by HLSS and ESS groups. The politeness strategies occurring in the three groups were the use of redressive expressions and the use of wordy refusals. This study proved that social-status does not influence much to the choice of refusal strategy, but it contributes to the choice of politeness strategies.

Index Terms—speech act, refusal strategy, politeness strategy, social status

I. INTRODUCTION

Refusal, like any other speech act, is believed to be universal and culturally distinctive. The act is present across languages in the world, but how and where it is realized is different across cultures. The studies by Sattar et al (2013), Wijayanto (2013), Morkus (2009), and Nadar et al (2005) confirm that the speech act of refusal is indeed culturally distinctive. Likewise, politeness is universal and specific. The concept of politeness is present in all languages, but each language has its own way in realizing politeness. Being direct can be regarded as polite in a certain culture, but it might be considered impolite in other ones.

Refusal, an act which commonly occurs in every day communication, is a rejection to suggestions, invitations, offers, or requests. It might result in offense in the part of addressee since his/her choice of actions is not positively responded. In order to minimize the offense, politeness is necessarily called for whenever the act of refusal is realized. The choice of strategies in realizing a threatening act, like refusal, is determined by social distance, relative power (social status), and severity of the act (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 74). Having a culture whose characteristic is collectivistic, Indonesian people, I think, are quite sensitive to those three social factors. As such, the strategy to realize the act of refusing is significantly influenced by the social status of an addresser and his/her addressee, their closeness, and the severity of the refusal.

By far, studies on Indonesian refusals can be classified into three groups: those focusing on the comparison between the realization of English and Indonesian refusals among Indonesians learning English, those investigating the differences between Indonesian and other speech community, and those studying characteristics of Indonesian refusals among Indonesian native speakers.

Two studies focusing on refusals in English among Indonesian EFL learners confirm how sociocultural norms affect their performance in refusals (Herman et al, 2013, and Wijayanto, 2013). Herman et al (2013) found that in their refusals, Indonesians EFL learners tended to use indirect strategies—the ones commonly used by Indonesian native speakers—in refusing invitations, suggestions, offers, and requests. Likewise, Wijayanto (2013) reported that refusal strategies performed by Javanese learners of English (JLE) and native speakers of Javanese (NJ) were more similar than to those of British native speakers of English (NSE). Those findings contrast with the one by Amarien (1997). Her study revealed that in their refusals to offers, Indonesian speakers speaking English (ISSE) used ‘intercultural’ strategies, in the sense that the strategies were uninfluenced by L1 norms and yet not the norms of L2. As such, sociocultural norms of L1 do not affect the realization of refusal in the target language.

Another comparative study is the one conducted by Nadar et al (2005). Their study, however, did not touch upon the existence of pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2, but rather it focused on how two distinct speech communities—English and Indonesian—differ in realizing the speech act of refusal. Their study suggested that in terms of the combination of speech acts used to refuse, native speakers of English and Indonesian are different. English refusals are mostly realized

in a single act or the combination of two acts. Few English refusals are expressed in three or four acts. By contrast, Indonesian refusals are mostly realized in the combination of three acts, and a few of them are realized in a single act (p. 169).

Other studies on Indonesian refusals focus on how this act is realized by Indonesian native speakers. Kartomiharjo's (1990) study was concerned with verbal forms of refusals to invitations, offers, and requests among Indonesian speakers in the East Java province. The social variables involved in his study were: age, gender, ethnicity, social status, social distance, and topic. The study proved that people from East Java tended to use hints to express a refusal.

Aziz (2000) looked at speech acts commonly performed by Indonesian speakers in face-threatening situations and politeness strategies used to minimize the threat. The study revealed that direct refusal, indirect refusal, direct acceptance, and indirect acceptance were the strategies which were commonly performed by Indonesian speakers when they are hypothetically presented in situations in which they are pressured to make refusals. Out of those strategies in refusal, his study suggested that indirect strategies were more favorable among Indonesian speakers. In addition, Gintings's (2014) study revealed that the people of South Sumatra use direct and indirect strategies in refusing.

Those studies, however, did not portray a specific group of Indonesian speakers such as university students. This research, then, intends to fill in the gap. This research is intended to view how university Indonesian students realize the speech act of refusal to offers, invitations, and suggestions. The social variable involved in this study is social status. More specifically, the goals of the present study are (1) to investigate strategies used by Indonesian university students in realizing the act of refusal to higher, lower, and equal status persons; and (2) to investigate politeness strategies to minimize the threat.

II. POLITENESS IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT

Politeness is one of cultural aspects. As such, the politeness enacted in a certain group community is not separable from the culture of the community. Barnes (2006) believed that Indonesian culture is collectivistic. Likewise, Kadarisman (2009) accounted that social harmony is the prominence among Indonesians since the culture is collectivistic (p.191). Politeness in the Indonesian culture is built from the *Prinsip Saling Tenggang Rasa* or the Principle of Mutual Consideration (PMC) covering:

a). avoid using expressions to your interlocutor which you would not like to be addressed to you if you were in his/her shoes;

b). Use expressions to your interlocutors which you would like to be addressed to you if you were in his/her shoes (Aziz, 2000, p. 303).

In his further explanation, Aziz (2000) explains that the principle contains four values:

a). Harm and Favor Potential; this sub-principle reminds us to be careful in uttering expressions since they are potentially either to harm or favor others.

b). Shared-feeling Principle; this sub-principle reminds us that our addressee has the same feeling as we do. We are not happy with harmful expressions, and neither do they. We are happy with favorable expressions, and so do they. In consequence, do not state expressions which make you unhappy if the expressions are addressed to you.

c). *Prima Facie* Principle; this sub-principle stresses the importance of impression in the first sight since it is the point at which our addressee evaluates our politeness manner.

d). Continuity Principle; this sub-principle suggests that the continuity of our communication is dependent on the present communication (p. 303-304).

In some ways, PMC is similar with the politeness principle by Brown and Levinson (1987). The *harm and favor* and *shared-feeling* principles are relatively similar with politeness strategies to fulfill the addressee's positive and negative face wants. This is because the *harm and favor* and *shared-feeling* principles guide speakers how to empathize with others. Do not create utterances which might harm your addressee because he/she is not happy with harmful utterances. This value is equal with the principle of minimizing face loss in Brown and Levinson's theory. PMC, however, is provided with other values, i.e. *prima facie* principle highlighting the importance of the ability to create positive impression in the first sight and continuity principle stressing the prominence to maintain the sustainability of communication. The existence of the last two values is the point of difference between PMC and the politeness theory by Brown and Levinson.

III. METHODS

A. Participants

The present study involved 161 Indonesian university students, ranging in age from 19 to 23 years old. They were students of State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung (SIIT), East Java, Indonesia and the ones of the School of Culture Studies at Universitas Brawijaya (UB), Malang, East Java, Indonesia. They are all native speakers on Indonesian. The rationale of choosing university students is that this community is believed to be egalitarian. Being egalitarian, this group of people might realize a face-threatening act such as a refusal in very different ways from other people.

B. Research Instrument

The data of this study were collected by using discourse completion test (DCT). The DCT was in the form of situations requiring the participants to give responses from which the act of refusal emerged. The DCT consisted of 18 situations, and they were classified into three different social-status relationships: lower-to-higher-social status (henceforth LHSS), higher-to-lower-social status (henceforth HLSS), and equal-social-status (henceforth ESS) relationships. In each relationship, the research participants were required to refuse offers, invitations, and suggestions, each of which was represented in two situations. The detailed description of the instrument is displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTION OF THE DCT

Social-Status Relationship	Social Roles		Initiating Acts of Refusal	Situations
	Addresser	Addressee		
LHSS	Employee	Employer	OFFER	An employee has to refuse an offer from his/her employer to occupy his house free of charge (situation A).
	Thesis Advisee	Thesis Adviser		A thesis advisee has to refuse a part-time- job offer given by his/her adviser (situation B).
	Administrative staff	Superior	INVITATION	Administrative staff has to refuse an invitation to dinner extended by his/her superior (situation G).
	Lodger	House mother		A lodger has to refuse an invitation to a party in a five-star hotel extended by his/her house mother (situation H).
	Thesis Advisee	Thesis Adviser	SUGGESTION	A thesis advisee has to refuse a suggestion for applying a job in a bank, the suggestion is given by his/her thesis adviser (situation M).
	Student Taking a Community-service course	Village Leader		A student taking a community-service course in a certain village has to refuse a suggestion for running for an English course given by the leader of the village (situation N).
HLSS	Senior Member of an organisation	Junior Member of the same organization	OFFER	A senior in an organization has to refuse a part-time job offer given by his/her junior (situation C).
	Master	Housemaid		A master has to refuse an offer of some oily food given by his/her housemaid (situation D).
	Thesis Adviser	Thesis Advisee	INVITATION	A thesis adviser has to refuse an invitation to dinner extended by his/her thesis advisee (situation I).
	Dean	Administrative Staff		A dean has to refuse an invitation to officially open a bazaar extended by his/her administrative staff (situation J).
	Master	Building Construction Worker	SUGGESTION	A master has to refuse a suggestion for house renovation given by a building construction worker (situation O).
	Superior	Staff		A superior has to refuse a suggestion for intensively consuming red rice given by his/her staff (situation P).
ESS	Student	Roommate	OFFER	A student has to refuse an offer for using his/her roommate's motorbike (situation E).
	Student	Classmate		A student has to refuse an offer for a book from his/her classmate (situation F).
	Student	Friend	INVITATION	A student has to refuse an invitation to present a paper in a seminar given by his/her teammate (situation K).
	Student	Classmate		A student has to refuse an invitation to his/her classmate's <i>rujak</i> party (situation L).
	Student	Friend	SUGGESTION	A student has to refuse his/her friend's suggestion related with regular physical exercises (situation Q).
	Student	Classmate		A student has to refuse his/her friend's suggestion related to facebook account (situation R).

C. Procedures of Data Collection

Prior to the data collection phase, the draft of the DCTs was validated by an expert of Indonesian. His comments and suggestions were taken into consideration in designing the final draft of the DCTs. To see the readability of the draft, the DCTs were further validated by piloting them with 10 students who did not participate in this study.

As the DCTs were all done, they were administered to the 161 students. In this phase, on the basis of the given situations, the participants were asked to verbally realize the act of refusal to offers, invitations, and suggestions given by persons having different social roles.

D. Data Analysis

The participants' responses were analyzed in two steps. *First*, the responses were analyzed by adapting the methods applied by Blum-Kulka et al (1989) in Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP). In this phase, the participants' answers were classified into head acts, hints, and modifications. Head acts are linguistic expressions which might independently realize the act of refusal. Hints are linguistic expressions which might be associated with the act of refusal. Utterances containing hints are generally multiply interpretable. In consequence, understanding the context is very important. Modification is linguistic expressions surrounding the head acts and hints which might function as mitigating devices by which the refusal can get less offensive. As such, by identifying the modification, the politeness strategies can be identified. In short, the first step of data analysis results in strategies in refusal realizations and politeness strategies to minimize the offense. *Second*, in the next step, the frequency of each refusal strategy and politeness strategies were counted in order to find out the differences due to social roles and social distance.

IV. FINDINGS

Accumulatively, the data analyzed in this study were 2898 corpus data. It was found that refusal strategies can be classified into two big clusters: direct and indirect strategies. Concerning politeness, this study suggests that the use of redressive expressions and the use wordy refusal were the strategies to lessen the offense.

A. Indonesian Refusal Strategies in LHSS Relationship

In general, data analysis suggested that indirect strategies were favored by more participants than direct ones. It was found that out of 966 corpus data in LHSS relationship, 583 (60%) refusals were realized in indirect strategies, and the other 383 ones (40%) were performed by way of direct strategies. The detailed frequency and percentage of occurrence of each strategy across initiating acts are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN LHSS RELATIONSHIP

Social-Status Relationship	Social Roles		Initiating Acts	The Frequency and Percentage of Refusal Strategies		Sub Total
				Direct	Indirect	
LHSS	Addresser	Addressee	Offer	71 (46%)	90 (56%)	161
	Employee	Employer		79 (49%)	82 (51%)	161
	Thesis Advisee	Thesis Adviser				
	Administrative Staff	Superior	Invitation	79 (49%)	82 (51%)	161
	Lodger	House Mother		46 (29%)	115 (71%)	161
	Thesis Advisee	Thesis Adviser	Suggestion	42 (26%)	119 (74%)	161
	Student Taking community-service course	Village Leader		66 (41%)	95 (59%)	161
	Total			383 (40%)	583 (60%)	966

B. Indonesian Refusal Strategies in HLSS Relationship

In general, it can be stated that indirect strategies were favored by more participants in HLSS relationship, as well. Quantitative data showed that indirect strategies appeared 592 times or 61% of the total data, and the direct ones occurred in 374 data or 39% of the entire data. The frequency of occurrence and the percentage of each strategy across initiating acts in HLSS relationship are displayed in Table 3.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN HLSS RELATIONSHIP

Social-Status Relationship	Social Roles		Initiating Acts	The Frequency and Percentage of Refusal Strategies		Sub Total
				Direct	Indirect	
HLSS	Senior Member of an organization	Junior member of an organization	Offer	66 (41%)	95 (59%)	161
	Master	Housemaid		75 (46%)	86(54%)	161
	Thesis Adviser	Thesis Advisee	Invitation	40 (25%)	121 (75%)	161
	Dean	Administrative Staff		59 (36%)	102 (64%)	161
	Master	Construction labor	Suggestion	70 (43%)	91 (57%)	161
	Superior	Administrative Staff		64 (40%)	97 (60%)	161
	Total			374 (39%)	592 (61%)	966

C. Indonesian Refusal Strategies in ESS Relationship

Likewise, people in ESS relationship preferred indirect strategies to direct ones. Quantitative data showed that out of 966 corpus data in ESS group, 506 refusals (52%) were realized by way of indirect strategies, while 460 refusals (48%) were performed in direct ways. The detailed number of occurrence of each strategy and its percentage across initiating acts is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN ESS RELATIONSHIP

Social-Status Relationship	Social Roles		Initiating Acts	The Frequency and Percentage of Refusal Strategies		Sub Total
	Addresser	Addressee		Direct	Indirect	
Equal Social Status	Roommate	Roommate	Offer	77 (48%)	84 (52%)	161
	Classmate	Classmate		69 (43%)	92 (57%)	161
	Teammate	Teammate	Invitation	71 (44%)	90 (56%)	161
	Classmate	Classmate		48 (30%)	113 (70%)	161
	Friend	Friend	Suggestion	25 (15%)	136 (85%)	161
	Old Friend	Old Friend		79 (49%)	82 (51%)	161
	Total			369 (38%)	597 (62%)	966

The use of direct and indirect strategies in each group is presented in Fig. 1.

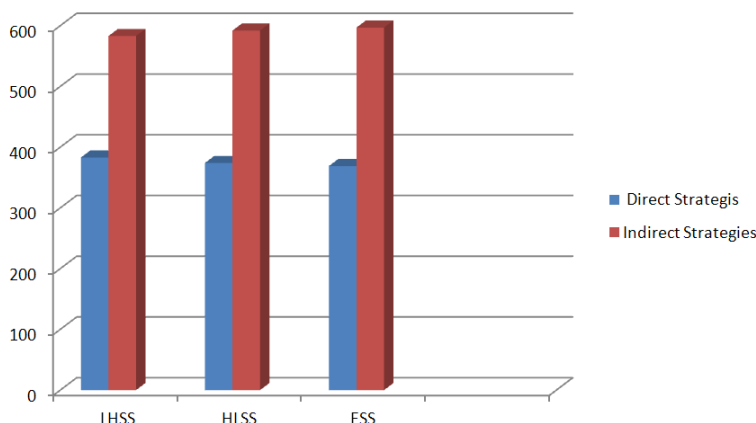


Figure 1. Graphic of the Use of Refusal Strategies in the Three Social-Status Relationships

As Fig. 1 shows, across social-status relationships, indirect strategies were preferred by speakers from the three groups. In addition, speakers in ESS group used the most indirect strategies, while the ones in LHSS used the least indirect ways, and those in HLSS were in between in those groups. All in all, viewed from directness and indirectness, Indonesian refusals in three different social-status relationships are consistently patterned: indirect strategies are more dominant than direct ones. It means that hinting refusal is preferred to stating it explicitly.

D. Linguistic Realizations of Indonesian Direct Refusal

It was found that direct refusals in the three social-status relationships were linguistically realized in four ways. Table 5 that follows presents the summary of linguistic realizations in Indonesian direct refusals.

TABLE 5
LINGUISTIC MARKERS AND LINGUISTIC REALIZATIONS OF DIRECT REFUSAL

Markers of Directness	Linguistic Realizations
Performative Verb	<i>Menolak</i> or 'refuse'
Expressions of inability	<i>Tidak/enggak/gak bisa</i> (cannot or may not)
Negating Expressions	<i>Tidak perlu</i> (do not need), <i>tidak setuju</i> (do not agree)
Particle 'no' directly	<i>Gak ah, enggak ah, jangan....</i> (NO.....)
Returning Expressions	<i>Unukmu saja</i> (this is for you)

First, the act of refusal was realized through a performative verb *menolak* or 'refuse'. A number of examples showed that social-status was not a determinant factor in choosing a strategy of refusing. Regardless of the social status of the addressee, some data prove that offers, invitations, and suggestions were refused directly by means of a performative verb *menolak* or *refuse*. For example, declining an offer to an addressee of higher status, some participants used the performative verb *menolak*...as presented in Example (1).

Example (1)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Terima kasih Bapak/Ibu, tetapi saya harus menolak</i> dikarenakan saya sudah punya
2	<i>tempat/ rumah dekat dengan kantor sehingga nanti bisa datang lebih awal masuk kantor.</i>
3	(Situation A)
4	Thank you very much, Sir/Madam, I have to refuse it since I have had a house which is
5	near the office, so that I can get it earlier. (Situation A)

The refusal in Example (1) is realized through the expression *saya harus menolak* (line 1) or *I have to refuse* (line 4). The refusal in Example (1) was initiated with the act of thanking (*terima kasih*), and it was closed with an explanation/excuse.

Second, it was found that direct refusal was realized through the expression of inability *tidak bisa* and its variants such as *tidak dapat...*, *kurang bisa...*, *belum bisa...*, *gak/nggak bisa...* which are equivalent to 'cannot' or 'may not'. Example (2) is the one presenting an inability to decline an invitation to an addressee of a higher status.

Example (2)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Maaf, Pak. Tapi hari Sabtu jam 7 malam nanti saya ada acara keluarga yang</i>
2	<i>mendesak sehingga tidak bisa hadir di acara makan malam di rumah Bapak. Mungkin</i>
3	<i>bisa lain waktu</i> (Situation G).
4	I am sorry, Sir. I have another agenda with my family on Saturday at seven, so that I
5	cannot come to the dinner at your home. On another occasion I will come. (Situation G)

In Example (2), the refusal to the invitation is made up of an apology (*maaf*) and an excuse or explanation, followed by the expression of inability *tidak bisa hadir* (line 2) or *cannot come* (line 5), and closed with a promise.

Besides, it was found that the act of refusal across social-status relationships was realized by means of negating expressions, of which the following are the most-frequently occurring ones: *saya tidak membutuhkannya* (I do not need it), *saya tidak berminat...* (I am not interested in...) and *saya tidak sependapat dengan Ibu/Bapak* (I do not agree with you). Example (3) presents a disagreement used to directly reject a suggestion to an addressee of a higher status.

Example (3)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Maaf sebelumnya Pak, karena ketiadaan personel yang bisa menanganinya, jadi saya</i>
2	tidak sependapat dengan saran Bapak untuk membentuk English Speaking Club di
3	<i>desa ini, Pak.</i> (Situation N)
4	I am sorry sir, due to the limited personnel, I disagree with your suggestion concerning
5	the English Speaking Club in this village (Situation N).

Example (3) is the response of a situation in which a student taking a community service course in a village has to refuse a suggestion given by the leader of the village. The direct refusal in Example (3) is recognizable from the statement *saya tidak sependapat dengan saran Bapak* (I do not agree with you, Sir). Disagreement in Example (3) suggests that the speaker refuses the suggestion.

In addition to those three ways, it was found that directness in the act of refusal in equal-social-status relationship can be realized by means of the particle *no* or *tidak* and its variants such as *gak.....*, *enggak ah,.....*, *enggak dech,.....* *jangan ah,.....* as seen in Example (4). It is the response of a situation in which a student has to refuse an offer of borrowing a motorbike. The refusal is realized in a very direct way, i.e. by way of saying *enggak dech,.....* or *no uhm.....* .

Example (4)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Terima kasih sebelumnya ya, tapi enggak dech.... Tanggung jawabnya itu lho, besar</i>
2	<i>banget. Lain kali saja kalau aku sudah benar-benar butuh. OK.</i> (situation E)
3	Thank you, but.... no uhm..... I am worried that I can't take the responsibility for watching it.
4	I will use it in case I am really in need. OK. (Situation E)

Besides, it was found that direct refusal to offer is realized by returning the offered thing. *Untukmu saja* and its variants are the expressions commonly used by participants to refuse an offer. This study proved that such an expression was frequently used to refuse an offer in HLSS and ESS relationships. Example (5) is an example of a refusal addressed to a housemaid by a master.

Example (5)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Aduh Mbak¹, enak sekali kelihatannya, tapi buat mbak saja. Aku lagi diet.</i> (Situation D)
2	Uhm,.. <i>Mbak</i> , it looks delicious, but it is for you, I am on diet. (situation D)

E. Linguistic Realizations of Indonesian Indirect Refusals

¹ *Mbak* is a specific term for calling a female housemaid aged between in her teens and thirties

This study proved that *criticizing, presenting other priority or agenda, showing a preference, and stating self-limitation* were the semantic formulas which were frequently used by participants to make indirect refusals. *Criticizing* was frequently used to refuse an offer. This is the strategy by which a refuser negatively commenting on the offered thing. A number of data showed that being offered to stay in a house free of charge, the refusers frequently refused the offer by saying...*rumah tersebut terlalu jauh* (...the house is too far away...). Negatively commenting on the distance of the house, the refusers hint that they would not like to stay in the house. An original response to an offer and its English version is presented in Example (6).

Example (6)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Terima kasih atas penawarannya. Sebelumnya, saya mohon maaf, bukan berarti saya me-</i>
2	<i>tolak penawaran yang Bapak berikan, akan tetapi, jarak antara rumah dengan kantor</i>
3	<i>terlalu jauh, sehingga saya memerlukan banyak waktu dan materi untuk pulang pergi</i>
4	<i>ke kantor. Sekali lagi mohon maaf dan terima kasih banyak. (Situation A)</i>
5	(Thank you for the offer. I am sorry, I would not like to refuse your offer, but the
6	distance between the house and the office is too far away, so that I need much
7	time and energy to travel from home to work. Again, I am sorry for this, and thank you).
8	(Situation A)

The hint of refusal in Example (6) is recognizable from the utterance saying ...*akan tetapi, jarak antara rumah dengan kantor terlalu jauh*... (lines 2 and 3). It signals that the offered party is not interested in the offered house. As such, the utterance is the hint of a refusal.

Presenting other priority or agenda is another semantic formula that commonly occurred in refusal in LHSS relationship. This is an indirect refusal strategy in which a refuser mentions a more urgent agenda other than the offered thing. This study showed that such a semantic formula was frequently used to indirectly refuse offers and invitations. ...*saya sudah ada janji dengan*... or 'I have made an appointment with...', ...*saya ada acara yang tidak bisa ditinggal di*...or 'I have another agenda in...' are a few examples of expressions commonly used to refuse offers or invitations. Consider the Example (7).

Example (7)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Terimakasih Bu/Pak atas undangannya tempo hari. Tetapi jadwalnya benturan dengan</i>
2	<i>kegiatan saya yang lain, jadi maaf sebelumnya ya. Pak/Bu, lain kali saya boleh diundang</i>
3	<i>lagi (Situation G)</i>
4	(Thank you for the invitation you extended a couple days ago, Sir/Madam. The schedule,
5	however, clashes with my other agenda. I am sorry for this. You can invite me on another
6	occasion, Sir/Madam (Situation G)

Example (7) is the response of an invitation to have dinner (situation G). The hint of the refusal is recognizable in the utterances in bold (lines 2-3 and 4-5). Stating that the given schedule clashes with other agenda, the speaker would like to show that she/he refuses the invitation.

Another semantic formula frequently occurred in the data is *showing a preference*, by which a refuser refuses an offered object by saying that he/she prefers another object or activity to the offered one. The expressions commonly suggesting a preference are *saya lebih suka* (I prefer), *saya merasa nyaman jika*.... (I feel convenient if...), and *lebih baik saya akan*...(that would be better if I...). This study suggests that such a strategy is commonly used to indirectly refuse suggestions. Example (8) is one case in point.

Example (8)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Terima kasih atas saran Bapak, tetapi lebih baik jika saya coba dulu di pertambangan</i>
2	<i>karena saya dari dulu ingin bekerja di sana, tetapi ide Anda bagus Pak. Mungkin bisa saya</i>
3	<i>coba nanti. (Situation M)</i>
4	(Thank you for your suggestion sir, but that would be better if I try to apply for a job in a
5	mining company since I have been dreaming of working in a mining company for
6	years, but your idea is good Sir. Let me try later). (Situation M)

Example (8) is a student's utterances in response to his/her thesis adviser's suggestion for applying a job in a bank. Being uninterested in banking, the student showed his/her preference: working in a mining company (line 1 or lines 4 & 5).

Stating self-limitation is another semantic formula frequently opted by the participants to refuse offers or suggestions. Using this strategy, a refuser hints his/her refusal by stating his/her limitation because of which she/he cannot accept the offer or accomplish the suggestion. Example (9) is the response of a suggestion of running an English speaking club made by a village leader (situation N). The hint of the refusal is recognizable from the speaker's admission of the limited number of people who can run the English speaking club (line 1 or 3). Stating the limitation, the speaker signals that she/he cannot accomplish the suggestion.

Example (9)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Saya rasa itu ide bagus pak, namun jujur saja sumber daya (SDM) di sini kurang. Saya</i>
2	<i>Yakin peminatnya cukup banyak. Itu yang membuat saya ragu (Situation N).</i>
3	(It sounds great, Sir, but we have limited human resource . I am sure that many people are
4	Interested in the program. It makes me doubt). (Situation N)

F. Politeness Strategies in Indonesian Refusal

This study revealed that there were two main strategies to lessen the offense, i.e. the use of redressive expressions and the use of verbose refusal.

F.1 The Use of Redressive Expressions

The most-frequently occurring redressive expressions were *apology*, *thanks*, *compliments*, and *deferential expressions*.

Apology is a redressive expression in which a speaker says that he/she is sorry for refusing something. Using this strategy, an addresser would like to show that she/he does not intend to hurt his/her addressee's feeling. The expressions frequently used by the participants in this study were *mohon maaf*, *maaf*, *minta maaf*, and *sorry*. This study suggests that apology was the most-frequently-used-redressive expression across the social-status relationships, despite the difference in intensity in each group. Quantitative data showed that apology was used 649 times (67%) in LHSS relationship, 478 times (49.48%) in HLSS relationship, and 468 times (48.44%) in ESS relationship. Example (10) is an example of refusal to an invitation of a higher-social-status person (situation H). It is a refusal made by a lodger who refuses an invitation given by his/her house mother. The refusal was explicitly stated in the utterance saying *...saya tidak bisa ikut...* (line 1), and the direct refusal was initiated with an apology at the beginning of it saying *Maaf...* (line 1). Apologizing, the speaker would like to minimize the discomfort on the part of the addresser and the disappointment on the part of the addressee.

Example (10)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	Maaf , Bu saya tidak bisa ikut ke acara Ibu, karena besok saya harus pulang dan saya
2	sudah beli tiketnya Bu. Kalau saya tunda keperluan saya, saya takut orang tua saya
3	nanti kecewa karena saya (Situation H).
4	I am sorry for not coming to your invitation, Mam, because I have to go home town
5	tomorrow, and I have bought a ticket, Mam. If I postpone the going home, my parents will
6	be very disappointed (Situation H).

Thanks or *terima kasih* intensively occurred in this study. Viewed from the intensity in using the expression of thank, people in LHSS were ranked number one, and the ones in HLSS were number two, while those in ESS were number three. It was found that 491 data (50.82%) in LHSS, 368 refusals (38%) in HLSS, and 272 refusals (28%) in ESS were softened by way of using the expression of thank. See Example (11).

Example (11)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	Sebelumnya terima kasih Pak, saya senang Anda mengundang saya, tetapi sebelumnya
2	saya sudah ada janji dengan keluarga saya untuk ke luar kota karena anak paman saya
3	menikah. Sekali lagi, terima kasih dan saya minta maaf. (Situation G)
4	(thank you Sir. I am glad that you invite me, but I have made an appointment with my
5	family for going out of town; my uncle's son is married. Again, thank you and I am
6	sorry for this). (Situation G)

Example (10) is an indirect refusal to an invitation of a higher-social-status person. The indirectness is seen from the statement saying that the speaker has made an appointment with his/her family: *'...saya sudah ada janji dengan...'* (line 2). The indirect refusal was initiated and closed with the expression of thank *terima kasih* (lines 1 and 3).

Compliment was another redressive expression massively used in the three social-status relationships. This is a strategy to minimize the threat by highlighting the addressee's self-worth. Data in this study revealed that compliment was used to initiate or close a refusal. Quantitative data suggested that compliment was used more frequently in HLSS than in other social-status relationships. In HLSS, compliment was used 160 times, and it appeared 123 times in LHSS, while in ESS it occurred 93 times. Example (12) is the one presenting a compliment used as a mitigating device.

Example (12)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	Sebenarnya bagus sekali idemu terkait dengan FB , tapi takutnya kalau punya FB nanti
2	masalah pribadiku akan dipantau oleh orang lain (Situation R).
3	Your idea concerning FB is very good, but I am worried that my personal problems will
4	be monitored by others if I have an FB account (Situation R).

In Example (12), a speaker refuses a suggestion for having an FB account (situation R). The indirect refusal is recognizable from his/her worry about the bad impact of the FB saying *...tapi takutnya kalau punya FB nanti...* (lines 1-

2) . The refusal was initiated with a compliment saying *sebenarnya bagus sekali idemu... or your idea concerning FB is very good...* (lines 1 & 3). Complimenting the idea, the speaker would like to lessen the offense due to the refusal.

Deferential expression is the one functioning to humble the addresser and enhance the addressee’s self-worth. Such an expression frequently occurred in this study, in particular among the students in LHSS relationship. The expressions frequently used were *dengan segala hormat* and *tanpa mengurangi rasa hormat* which are equivalent with ‘with all respect’. Example (11) presents a direct refusal to an offer of a higher social-status person (situation B) mitigated with a deferential expression. The directness of it is recognizable from the expression of inability *...saya tidak dapat menerima...* (lines 1-2). The very direct refusal is softened with the expression *dengan segala hormat* (line 1).

Example (13)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Saya sangat berterima kasih dengan tawaran Ibu. Akan tetapi, dengan segala hormat, saya</i>
2	<i>tidak dapat menerima tawaran Ibu dikarenakan saya masih mahasiswa semester awal,</i>
3	<i>saya ingin mendapatkan nilai yang bagus dan oleh sebab itu saya ingin konsentrasi untuk</i>
4	<i>belajar (situation B)</i>
5	Thank you for your offer, Mam. With all respect, I cannot accept it since I am a freshman,
6	I would like to have good grades, that is why I would like to focus on my study (Situation B)

The summary of the use of redressive expressions is represented in Fig. 2.

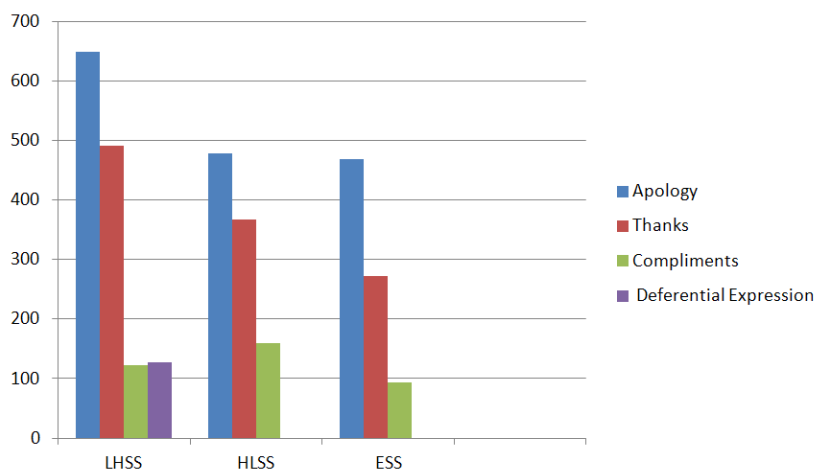


Figure 2. Graphic of the Use of Redressive Expressions in the Three Social-Status Relationships

F.2 The Use of Wordy/Verbose Refusal

This study suggested using wordy/verbose refusal was the other strategy that commonly used by research participants to minimize the offense. It was found that across initiating acts and social-status relationships, refusal was rarely realized in a single act, but in a series of ones. A great number of data showed that the Head act and the hint of refusal were accompanied with another acts functioning to minimize the offense. It was found that refusal in the three social-status relationships was made up of the combination of one up to seven acts, and the three-act combination was the one which is most frequently used. The frequency of the act combination in each social-status relationship is displayed in Table 6, and the proportion of it is presented in Fig. 3.

TABLE 6
FREQUENCY OF ACT COMBINATION IN THE THREE SOCIAL-STATUS RELATIONSHIPS

ACT COMBINATION	The Frequency and Percentage of Act Combination		
	LHSS	HLSS	ESS
One-act Combination	0	63 (6.5%)	90 (0.93%)
Two-act Combination	73 (0.7%)	266 (27.53%)	281 (29.08%)
Three-act Combination	407 (42%)	361 (37.37%)	373 (38.61%)
Four-act Combination	345 (35.71%)	217 (22.46%)	182 (18.84%)
Five-act Combination	115 (11.90%)	50 (0.51%)	36 (0.37%)
Six-act Combination	26 (0.26%)	8 (0.08%)	3 (0.03%)
Seven-act Combination	0	1 (0.01%)	1 (0.01%)
Total	966 (100%)	966 (100%)	966 (100%)

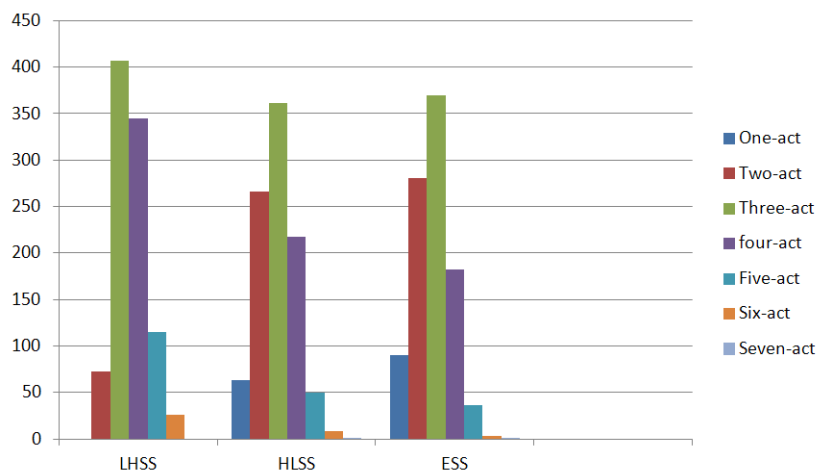


Figure 3. Graphic Representation of Proportion of the Act Combination in the Three Social-Status Relationships

As Table 4 and Fig. 3 show, three-act combination was preferred by speakers in the three groups. This quantitative finding confirmed the previous study conducted by Nadar et al (2005) reporting that the combination of three speech acts was the politeness strategy mostly used to lessen the threat in refusal.

Example (13) is a refusal to an invitation (situation L) containing a combination of four acts.

Example (13)

Line	Original Utterances and their English Version
1	<i>Sepertinya acaranya seru. Tapi masalahnya aku ada kegiatan lain yang tidak bisa</i>
2	<i>dibatalkan. Jadi maaf ya, aku tidak bisa ikut (Situation L)</i>
3	It sounds great. But the problem is that I have an uncallable agenda.
4	I am sorry, I cannot join (Situation L).

Example (13) is a direct refusal made up of the combination of four acts. The directness is recognizable from the last utterance saying *aku tidak bisa ikut* or 'I cannot join.' The head act is initiated by three other acts: showing interest '*sepertinya acaranya seru*' in line 1, excusing or explaining '*tapi masalahnya aku ada...*' (lines 1-2), and followed by apologizing '*jadi maaf ya..*' in line 2. Initiating the Head act with the other ones, the speaker would like to mitigate the threat due to the refusal.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Indirectness in Indonesian Refusals

As discussed earlier, across social-status relationships and initiating acts, indirect strategies were more dominant than the direct ones. It was evidently proved that people of lower status tended to use indirect strategies in refusing offers, invitation, and suggestions of higher status, and vice versa. Likewise, indirect strategies in refusing were preferred by people having equal status relationship. It could not be proved that directness tends to rise with an increase of familiarity and closeness. Offers, invitations, and suggestions made by friends, teammates, and classmates were mostly indirectly refused by the research participants. These findings confirmed the previous studies conducted by Amarien (1997), Kartomiharjo (1990), and Aziz (2000) reporting that indirect manner in refusing is preferred by most Indonesians.

Why is indirectness dominantly present across social-status relationships? One possible explanation is related with the characteristic of Indonesian culture. As widely believed, Indonesian culture is collectivistic (Kadarisman, 2009, Barnes, 2006), in which prominence is given to social harmony. In such a culture, social harmony has greater value than individual rights and independence. Respecting others is foregrounded, and living together in harmonious atmosphere is a collective responsibility. Besides, the Principle of Mutual Consideration (PMC) suggests that both the addresser and the addressee care for each other's feeling. Uttering utterances which potentially strike others should be maximally avoided. One of the strategies commonly used to avoid social disharmony is the use of hints. Hinting, particularly in refusal, according to Kartomiharjo (1990) is considered to be more polite than refusing by using 'no' or '*tidak*'.

Refusing is an act which can strike both the addresser and the addressee. The realization of this act might result in discomfort on the part of the addresser and the disappointment on the part of the addressee, both of which might cause social disharmony. Relying on the characteristic of the Indonesian culture, the values pertaining in the PMC, and the risk that might probably occur due to the refusal, it is plausible that most Indonesian people tend to maximally avoid the act of refusal. In case, they have to refuse, they will realize it as politely as possible. Using indirect strategies is relevant in this case. To put shortly, the desire to observe each other's face and to avoid social disharmony is the internal factor motivating Indonesians to use indirect strategies in refusal. According to Aziz (2000), indirectness is best regarded as the speaker's wisdom, which seems to operate under the Tact Maxim of Leech's politeness principle (p. 302).

B. Directness in Indonesian Refusals

Another matter worth discussing is direct strategies. If indirect strategies or hinting is considered a polite manner, are direct strategies less polite? This study suggested that direct strategies in refusal whose main characteristic is the use of negating particle 'no' are by no means less polite. How can it be? Data of this study show that the act of refusing is rarely realized in a single act, but rather it is along with other acts. As presented in Table 3 and Fig. 4, most Indonesian refusals are realized in the combination of three acts. It means that the Head act is accompanied with two other acts such as thanking, apologizing, and complimenting, all of which can soften the threat due to the refusal. Thus, direct refusal in Indonesian, can also be polite.

Thanking, as presented in Fig. 2, was very extensively used in this study across the three social-status relationships. This finding is in line with the one by Amarien (1997) reporting that thanking was preferred by Indonesian speakers speaking English in their refusals to offers. Thanking itself is the act of telling others that we are grateful for what they have done. Thanking for the offers, invitations, and suggestion given by others, a speaker would like to signal that she/he is in their debt. According to Leech (1983), it is the act functioning to maintain balance and harmony (p.125). Through this act, the discomfort and disappointment due to refusal can be minimized since the act of thanking can show the feeling of respect and interpersonal closeness between interactants. Thus, despite the directness pertaining in the refusal, the refusal remains polite due to the presence of the expression of thanks.

Apologizing is another act extensively occurred in the data. Across the three social-status relationships, the act of apologizing occurred in more than 50% of the data. This finding confirms the finding by Wijayanto (2013) reporting that Javanese commonly initiates refusals with an apology (p. 40). In addition, Gintings (2014) reported that direct and indirect refusals among people in Medan, North Sumatra are initiated with an apology, but some others are not. Nadar et al (2005) confirmed that apologizing was an act which was extensively used by Indonesians (p. 177).

Apologizing can be understood as the act of telling others that we are at fault. To Brown and Levinson (1987), apologizing is an act which threatens an addresser's positive face (p. 68). Admitting that we are at fault is in some extent self-humiliation, and that is why apologizing is psychologically difficult, particularly if it deals with bad deeds which seriously harm the addressee.

Refusing to offers, invitations, and suggestion cannot be categorized as a bad deed seriously harming the addressee. Offers, invitations, and suggestions in this study are for the benefit of given parties (the research participants), and hence refusing them do not seriously harm the addressee. In consequence, apologizing for refusal is not as psychologically difficult as described earlier. It can explain why apologizing is extensively used in this study. Due to the presence of the act of apologizing, direct refusals get more polite. Thus, apologizing can restore the equilibrium between a speaker and hearer (Leech, 1983, p. 125). To Olshtain (1987), apologizing can give support for the Hearer who was actually or potentially malaffected by a violation X (p. 156).

Another linguistic marker indicating politeness in direct refusals is the use of compliment and deferential expressions. Compliment is an act attributing credits to someone or something. As such, it can please the addressee. This study shows that complimenting is one of the preferred strategies to mitigate a refusal across social-status relationships. This finding is different from the one by Soenarso (cited in Ernawati, 2004) reporting that compliments among Indonesians are not as frequently heard as among Australians. In other words, his finding confirmed that compliments are not frequently performed by Indonesians. The difference between the present study and the Soenarso's was due to the language under the study. English as a foreign language was the language studied by Soenarso, but Indonesian as the research participants' mother tongue was the focus of the present study.

Deferential expression is a very specific strategy for downgrading the refusal. It appeared only in LHSS relationship. The expression, *tanpa mengurangi rasa hormat, dengan segala hormat, segala kerendahan hati*, all of which are equal 'with all respect' represents cultural behavior.

The presence of direct refusal along with mitigating devices discussed earlier suggests that direct refusals among Indonesians are not prohibited. They are quite likely to directly refuse offers, invitations, and suggestions by saying *tidak* or 'no', even to higher-social-status persons. However, the direct refusals, particularly the ones addressed to higher-status persons need to be downgraded by some mitigating devices since Indonesians, like other people from any other nationality, are constrained by a general guideline in communicating with others, i.e. polite. Being polite is represented in caring for each other's feeling (Aziz, 2000), minimizing face threatening acts which might bring about face loss (Brown & Levinson, 1987), and minimizing cost but maximizing benefit to others and maximizing cost but minimizing benefit to self (Leech, 1983). Thus, relying on the findings, directness in the Indonesian context does not necessarily suggest misbehavior or deliberate attempt to harm others. Rather, directness can be regarded as an attempt to balance between the desire to care for other's feeling and the need to have message clarity.

C. Politeness and Social Status in Indonesian Refusals

This study suggests that social status influences much the deliverance of politeness. Quantitative data show that despite the fact that indirectness is dominant across social-status relationships, refusals in LHSS contained more redressive expressions than the ones in other groups. Fig. 2 shows that LHSS is the group using the highest number of redressives expressions, followed by HLSS and ESS groups. It indicates that achieved statuses such as position is one of

determinant factors contributing to the politeness realization. The higher the position of the addressee, the more polite the expressions addressed to him/her are.

In addition to the quantitative data, this study revealed another evidence indicating that social status contributes much to the choice of politeness strategies. The expression of respect saying *dengan segala hormat, tanpa mengurangi rasa hormat*, and *dengan segala kerendahan hati* are only found in LHSS. Using such deferential expressions, an addresser would like to humble him/herself and enhance other's self-worth. Given that such expressions were frequently stated by people in LHSS group, it can be underlined that the social status of the addressee might be the motive behind the deliverance of them. In other words, such expressions can be used as a means to disambiguate the role of Power (P), Distance (D), and Rank of imposition (R). The use of those expressions suggests that the addressee's power as represented in his/her social status influences the choice of the strategies. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), taking deference to the humbling of the self and 'raising' of the other signals the value of P factor (p. 82-83).

VI. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

The aim of this study is to investigate whether different social-status relationships may manifest different refusal behavior. This study revealed that despite the different social-status relationships and initiating acts, Indonesian refusal is consistently patterned, i.e. they are mostly realized in indirect ways. In addition to indirect refusals, considerable number of refusals in this study is direct ones. They are, however, not realized in blatant ways. Rather, they are mitigated with a number of redressive expressions because of which the directness gets much more polite. Turning to the politeness strategies, this study showed that LHSS group used more redressive expressions than other groups.

Relying on the consistent strategies of refusal found in this study, there are two conclusions that can be drawn. *First*, Indonesian young generation, in realizing the act of refusal is constrained by a general constraint in communication, i.e. polite. Politeness, among Indonesian university students is not merely their tacit pragmatic knowledge, but it is the norm that they have to constantly hold. *Second*, social status is a social variable contributing a lot to the politeness behavior. This study suggests that the higher social status of the addressee, the more politeness the expressions addressed to him/her is.

There are some limitations to this study. To name a few, the data of this study were not naturally-occurring data since they were collected through Discourse Completion Test (DCT). Data taken from such an instrument are not as natural as the ones taken by observing natural dialogues since there are many aspects of communication are missing, such as facial expressions and intonation. Due to some obstacles, DCT was the instrument used to collect data in this study. In order to get more authentic and natural data, it is suggested that future researchers conduct studies on Indonesian refusals by using observation as the method of data collection.

The way of determining participants is another limitation of this study. Students participating in this study were restricted to those studying in colleges in which I am teaching. As such, the results of this study cannot be used for making a generalization for all Indonesian students. In order to have a more reliable portray how Indonesian university students realize the act refusal, future studies should have a bigger population with more representative samples.

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Language Learning Strategies Employed by English-major Pre-service Teachers with Different Levels of Language Proficiency

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Abstract—The study investigated the use of language learning strategies employed by English-major pre-service teachers in Midwest China in terms of language proficiency. The modified SILL was used to collect the data. ANOVA, Chi-square test, and Post Hoc Scheffe Test were performed for data analysis. The results revealed that pre-service teachers with both high and moderate language proficiency reported employing strategies significantly more frequently than those with low language proficiency at the overall strategy level and in the MET, COG and SCI categories. At the individual strategy level, 20 out of the 48 strategies varied significantly according to pre-service teachers' levels of language proficiency. 16 strategies showed positive pattern of variation, with the higher percentage of pre-service teachers with higher language proficiency than those with lower proficiency, and 4 of them showed mixed pattern of variation. The implications of these findings for ESL teaching and learning were discussed.

Index Terms—language learning strategies, levels of language proficiency, English-major pre-service teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning strategies (LLSs) have been considered to play significant roles in L2/FL learning. According to Oxford (1990, p. 1), they are “tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence”. LLSs can also help learners facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information and increase self-confidence (Chang, Liu and Lee, 2007).

Research on LLSs has enriched the L2 acquisition literature since they have provided insights into the metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective processes involved in L2 learning (Chamot, 2005). The studies originated from the research of successful language learners (e.g. Rubin, 1975; Stern 1975; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vann & Abraham, 1990; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). Then studies have been shown interest in factors affecting learners' strategy choice (e.g. Ehrman, 1990; El-Dib, 2004; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Kavasoglu, 2009; Radwan, 2011), and in relationship among LLSs, learning outcomes and other variables of individual differences (e.g. Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Wong & Nunan, 2011).

Research on LLSs began in China in the mid 1980s. Some typical studies have emerged. Wen (1995) compared differences of strategy use between 2 third-year successful and unsuccessful English majors, and found that LLSs have direct effect on language achievements. Zhang (2004) examined effects of tolerance of ambiguity on LLS use with 138 second-year English-major postgraduates. The results revealed that students with high level of tolerance of ambiguity tend to select strategies appropriately and use them effectively in tackling language tasks, while students with low level of tolerance of ambiguity would not tolerate any ambiguous language input and use their strategies aimlessly and randomly. Yang (2007) found that Ethnicity plays a significant role in the selection of LLSs, and more proficient students reported using strategies more often than less proficient students by investigating effects of ethnicity and language proficiency on strategy use by junior college students. Wong and Nunan (2011) explored the relationship of learning styles and strategy use between more effective and less effective learners studying at the tertiary level, revealing that, compared with less effective learners, more effective learners have a greater propensity for self-direction, independent learning and autonomy. Chang and Liu (2013) investigated strategy use by 50 freshmen in Hong Kong by learning motivation. The results showed that metacognitive and cognitive strategies have higher correlations with motivation, while compensation strategies have lower correlations.

Although many studies on LLSs have been done and made great achievements in Chinese context, seldom empirical study have been conducted to explore strategy use among English-major pre-service teachers in Midwest China in terms of language proficiency. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the language learning strategy use employed

by English-major pre-service teachers in the Midwest of China in terms of different levels of language proficiency, so as to fill in some research gap in the field of LLSs in China, and to offer some insights to help English learners have more knowledge of their use of strategies to improve their efficiency of English learning. The research questions were as follows: (1) What is the frequency of LLS use employed by English-major pre-service teachers in the Midwest of China in terms of levels of language proficiency? (2) Do the choices of LLSs vary significantly according to this variable at different levels, i.e. overall, category and individuals? If they do, what are the main patterns of variation?

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Key Terms Used in the Present Study

A. Key Terms of the Present Study

Language Learning Strategies

In the present study, “language learning strategies” have been considered as “some general approaches or specific actions/techniques, whether observable or unobservable, which Chinese English-major pre-service teachers generate and make use of to enhance their English language learning directly or indirectly (Zhou & Intaraprasert, 2015, p. 156)”.

Levels of Language Proficiency

“Levels of language proficiency” in this study has been determined based on the results of Test for English Majors – Grade Four (TEM-4), which is a national proficiency test targeting English majors in China. Three different levels of students’ language proficiency has been defined as high, moderate, and low according to the following criteria: if students get marks under 60, and then they have been classified as low language proficiency; from 60 to 69, moderate proficiency; and 70 and above, they has been classified as high language proficiency, which is the national rating scale for the TEM-4.

English-major pre-service teachers

“English-major pre-service teachers” refer to “students majoring in English in Normal Universities in China, whose career orientation will be primary or middle school English teachers after graduation (Zhou & Intaraprasert, 2015, p. 156)”. Students need to be trained for 4 years in these Normal Universities. Junior English-major pre-service teachers have been selected as the participants, since they have already got the results of the national English proficiency test.

B. Participants

Junior English-major pre-service teachers in the Midwest of China participated in the present study. The researcher used cluster sampling, purposive sampling and convenience sampling methods to select the participants. Three provinces: Hunan, Guizhou and Shanxi were chosen by cluster sampling. Two normal universities in each province were selected purposively. Participants were then chosen from each of the normal universities by convenience sampling. At last, 836 participants from six normal universities took part in the investigation, among which were 80 participants with high language proficiency level, 325 with moderate level, and 431 with low language proficiency level.

C. Instruments

The modified Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was used to collect the data for the present investigation. It was combined and modified according to the SILL Version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990), adapted SILL Version 7.0 (Yin, 2008), and adapted SILL Version 5.1 (Rao, 2008). A 5-point rating scale was used to value the frequency of participants’ strategy use, 1 representing ‘Never or almost never’, 2 for ‘Usually not’, 3 for ‘Sometimes’, 4 for ‘Usually’ and 5 for ‘Always or Almost always’. The pilot study was done among 90 participants in two intact classes excluded in the main study. After that, 48 strategy items were made sure based on the feedback of the participants. The classification followed the 4-category of LLSs by Oxford (2011), since Oxford (2011, p. 42) admits that “it is a unified, logically coherent system.” Among the 48 items, there are 13 metastrategies (MET), 18 cognitive strategies (COG), 7 affective strategies (AFF), and 10 socio-cultural interactive strategies (SCI). The estimated reliability (α) of the questionnaire in the main study was .92. It was much higher than the acceptable reliability coefficient of .70 (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

D. Data Analysis

The data gathered through the questionnaire was analyzed with the assistance of the SPSS program. The statistical method of ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was employed to determine pre-service teachers’ variations of strategy use at the overall and category level, the Post-hoc Scheffe test examined the variations of LLS use among different language proficiency levels, and the Chi-square test examined the variations of strategy use at the individual level.

III. RESULTS

The results of variations in the frequency of pre-service teachers’ strategy use in relation to language proficiency are presented at the three different levels of data analysis, i.e. the overall LLS use, use of LLSs by the 4 main categories and use of individual LLSs.

A. Variations in Frequency of Pre-service Teachers’ Overall LLS Use

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF VARIATION IN PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' OVERALL LLS USE

Variable		N	Mean	S.D.	Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
Language Proficiency	Low	431	2.95	.48	P < .001	High > Low Moderate > Low
	Moderate	325	3.08	.46		
	High	80	3.16	.43		

As can be seen in Table I above, the results from ANOVA and post hoc Scheffe test reveal that the frequency of pre-service teachers' overall LLS use varies significantly according to language proficiency. Pre-service teachers with higher language proficiency levels reported employing strategies significantly more frequently than those with lower levels, with the mean scores of 3.16, 3.08 and 2.95 respectively. Significant variations were found in the overall strategy use between those with 'high' and 'low' proficiency levels, and those with 'moderate' and 'low' proficiency levels.

B. Variations in Frequency of Pre-service Teachers' LLS Use under the Four Categories

The ANOVA and post hoc Scheffe test results of Table II demonstrate the significant variations in frequency of pre-service teachers' strategy use in the 4 categories in terms of the three different levels of language proficiency.

TABLE II
VARIATION IN LLS USE IN CATEGORIES ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Strategy Categories	High (n=80)		Moderate (n=325)		Low (n=431)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
MET	3.26	.58	3.11	.57	2.98	.57	P<.001	High>Low Moderate>Low
COG	3.13	.40	3.06	.45	2.92	.47	P<.001	High>Low Moderate>Low
AFF	3.29	.55	3.31	.64	3.25	.63	N.S.	—
SCI	3.00	.60	2.90	.55	2.77	.60	P<.001	High>Low Moderate>Low

As seen in Table II above, the results from ANOVA and post hoc Scheffe test show that significant differences were found in the use of LLSs in the MET, COG and SCI categories by language proficiency. Pre-service teachers with both high and moderate language proficiency levels reported employing strategies significantly more frequently than those with low language proficiency level. However, no significant variation was found in strategy use in the AFF category.

C. Variations in Frequency of Pre-service Teachers' Individual LLS Use

The Chi-square test results of Tables III to IV present the significant variations in frequency of pre-service teachers' LLS use at the individual strategy level according to language proficiency.

As suggested by Green and Oxford (1995), the pattern of variation can be classified as 'positive' (high > moderate > low), indicating that strategies are used more by students at the higher language proficiency level than the lower level, or 'negative' (low > moderate > high), with strategies being used more by students at the lower proficiency level than the higher level, or 'mixed', showing that there is a curvilinear relationship between strategy use and language proficiency.

The results shown in Tables III and IV reveal that 20 out of the 48 individual LLSs varied significantly by language proficiency, of which 16 strategies were classified as 'positive' variation pattern, and 4 strategies classified as 'mixed'. No individual strategies showed a negative pattern of variation. Table III below shows the 'positive' variation pattern in students' individual LLS use.

TABLE III
 VARIATION IN INDIVIDUAL LLS USE BY LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY CLASSIFIED AS 'POSITIVE'

Individual LLSs High>Moderate>Low – 16 strategies	% of high use (4 and 5)			Observed χ^2 p<.05
	High	Moderate	Low	
MET 9 Watching English- speaking movies or TV programs	68.8	61.2	55.2	$\chi^2 = 14.99^{**}$
COG 14 Trying not to translate verbatim	50.0	41.2	30.9	$\chi^2 = 26.49^{***}$
SCI 43 Participating in English classroom activities	48.8	38.2	27.1	$\chi^2 = 22.20^{***}$
COG 1 Thinking of relationships between what one already knows and new things one learns in English	46.3	28.9	20.2	$\chi^2 = 32.09^{***}$
COG 7 Remembering new English words or phrases by remembering the context in which they appear	45.0	38.5	29.2	$\chi^2 = 19.05^{**}$
MET 25 Having clear goals for improving one's English skills.	43.8	31.1	26.5	$\chi^2 = 13.23^*$
MET 10 Reading newspapers, magazines, and books in English	40.0	27.4	18.1	$\chi^2 = 23.09^{***}$
MET 38 Practicing English reading on the Internet	36.3	30.2	25.5	$\chi^2 = 16.72^{**}$
MET 45 Improving one's English from different websites.	36.3	22.5	16.7	$\chi^2 = 36.37^{***}$
MET 23 Planning one's schedule so one will have enough time to learn English	35.0	22.8	17.9	$\chi^2 = 14.39^{**}$
MET 24 Looking for opportunities/ chances to read as much as possible in English	35.0	30.5	23.2	$\chi^2 = 15.28^{***}$
COG 6 Reviewing English lessons often	30.0	24.6	14.2	$\chi^2 = 21.95^{***}$
COG 2 Using new English words in a sentence so that one can remember them	26.3	19.4	10.2	$\chi^2 = 23.54^{***}$
SCI 39 Getting in touch with one's friends in English, for example, writing e-mails or letters	21.3	13.2	10.4	$\chi^2 = 16.48^{**}$
SCI 46 Participating in extra- curricular activities	18.8	17.8	10.9	$\chi^2 = 25.57^{***}$

Notes: * P<.05, ** P<.01, *** P<.001

The Chi-square results in Table III above indicate that a significantly greater percentage of pre-service teachers with higher language proficiency than those with lower proficiency reported high use of 16 LLSs, including 7 metastrategies (MET), 5 cognitive strategies (COG) and 4 socio-cultural interactive strategies (SCI). Among the 16 strategies, only 1 strategy was reported high frequency of use by more than 50 percent of the students with either high or moderate or low language proficiency, which is 'Watching English-speaking movies or TV programs' (MET 9).

The second variation pattern is 'mixed', as shown in Table IV below. A significantly greater percentage of students with moderate language proficiency reported high use of 2 strategies than those with high proficiency and then those with low proficiency, which are 'Guessing the meaning of the unfamiliar English words' (COG 15), and 'Encouraging oneself to speak English even when one is afraid of making mistakes' (AFF 28). A significantly higher percentage of students with high proficiency reported high use of 1 strategy than those with low proficiency and then those with moderate proficiency, which is 'I remember new expressions by two-way translation' (COG 40). A significantly higher percentage of students with moderate proficiency reported high use of 1 strategy than those with low proficiency and then those with high proficiency, which is 'I do a lot of exam-oriented exercises before exams' (MET 47).

TABLE IV
 VARIATION IN INDIVIDUAL LLS USE BY LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY CLASSIFIED AS 'MIXED'

Individual LLSs Moderate>High>Low – 2 strategies	% of high use (4 and 5)			Observed χ^2 p<.05
	Moderate	High	Low	
COG 15 Guessing the meaning of the unfamiliar English words	53.2	51.3	42.7	$\chi^2 = 10.66^*$
AFF 28 Encouraging oneself to speak English even when one is afraid of making mistakes	46.5	45.0	42.5	$\chi^2 = 14.73^{**}$
High>Low >Moderate – 1 strategy	High	Low	Moderate	
COG 40 I remember new expressions by two-way translation	36.3	30.4	29.2	$\chi^2 = 19.40^{**}$
High>Low >Moderate – 1 strategy	Moderate	Low	High	
MET 47 I do a lot of exam-oriented exercises before exams	52.0	51.0	38.8	$\chi^2 = 11.21^*$

Notes: * P<.05, ** P<.01, *** P<.001

IV. DISCUSSION

Some previous language learning strategy studies have consistently established a positive link between language proficiency and strategy use, suggesting that more proficient learners usually use more strategies than less proficient learners (Radwan, 2011). Examples are Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Intrapasert (2000), Wharton (2000), Griffiths (2003), Wu (2008), Anugakul (2011), Gerami and Baighlou (2011), and Minh (2012). However, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) have found a curvilinear relationship between LLS use and language proficiency. Students at the intermediate proficiency level reported more use of strategies than those at the beginning and advanced level, and Magogwe and Oliver (2007) have also claimed that language proficiency influences strategy use at the primary level but not at the secondary or the tertiary level.

Based on the findings of the present investigation, both high and moderate proficiency pre-service teachers reported more frequent overall strategy use than did the low proficiency counterparts, while no significant differences between high and moderate proficiency pre-service teachers were found. This is consistent with Wharton's (2000) study that students with good and fair proficiency use strategies significantly more often than those with poor proficiency. For the

MET, COG and SCI categories, the variation pattern is the same as that of the overall strategy use as above. This is partly consistent with the results of the previous study, which shows the positive variation pattern, that is, the higher proficiency level learners use more strategies than the lower proficiency learners.

One possible explanation for the findings above is the pre-service teachers' capability of English learning, as Chamot (1987) suggests that effective learners are able to use strategies appropriately, while ineffective learners use a number of strategies as well but inappropriately, and Vann and Abraham (1990) report that unsuccessful language learners appeared to be active strategy users, but sometimes they applied strategies inappropriately. According to Prakongchati (2007), strategy use and learners' language proficiency are causes and outcomes of each other; active use of some strategies help students attain high proficiency, which in turn makes it likely that students may actively use these strategies. On the other hand, the reason for no significant variation for the high and moderate language proficiency pre-service teachers may be that both of these groups of learners have some capability of language learning, except for the low proficiency learners.

In the level of individual LLS use, 16 out of 48 individual strategies were found with variously significant variation with positive pattern of variation (high>moderate>low), among which there are 6 out of 13 metastrategies, 4 out of 10 sociocultural interactive strategies, and 5 out of 18 cognitive strategies, without any affective strategies. The possible factor for explaining this is also due to the pre-service teachers' capability of English learning, as Gerami and Baighlou (2011) indicate that successful EFL students use a wider range of metacognitive strategies, while unsuccessful peers tend to use surface level cognitive strategies. As can be seen above, the higher language proficiency learners use more metastrategies in the present study, which provide general management/control of metacognitive, meta-affective and meta-social strategies, aiming to understand one's own needs, using and adjusting the other strategies to meet those needs. Examples are: 'Watching English-speaking movies or TV programs' (MET 9), 'Having clear goals for improving one's English skills' (MET 25), 'Reading newspapers, magazines, and books in English' (MET 10), 'Practicing English reading on the Internet' (MET 38), 'Improving one's English from different websites' (MET 45), 'Planning one's schedule so one will have enough time to learn English' (MET 23), 'Looking for opportunities/chances to read as much as possible in English' (MET 24).

Another possible factor hypothesized by the researcher to explain the positive pattern of variation is due to the pre-service teachers' motivation. Ellis (1994, p. 715) defines 'motivation' as 'the effort which learners put into learning an L2 as a result of their need or desire to learn it'. Motivation is considered one of the essential variables on which good language learning depends (Rubin, 1975). According to Yule (1996, p. 195), "students who experience success in language learning are among the highest motivated to learn and motivation may be as much a result of success as a cause". Wharton (2000) claims that successful language learners who are more motivated tend to use more strategies than unsuccessful students. Ushioda (2008) also puts forward that good language learners are motivated. In the present investigation, personal motivation is assumed to be one of the factors that drive pre-service teachers with both high and moderate language proficiency employ a more variety and a greater frequency of LLSs than the counterparts with low proficiency at the overall and category LLS levels, and higher language proficiency to employ significantly more strategies than the counterparts with lower proficiency at the individual LLS level.

One more possible factor which could explain the higher use of LLSs reported by pre-service teachers with higher language proficiency is the high awareness of LLS items. According to Lee and Oxford (2008), strategy awareness is the best predictor of strategy use. Chamot (1998) has found that more successful learners have more and better metacognitive awareness. When taking a closer look at the individual LLS level, it is found that a significantly greater percentage of pre-service teachers with higher proficiency than those with lower proficiency levels try to obtain and use resources, such as 'Watching English-speaking movies or TV programs' (MET 9), 'Reading newspapers, magazines, and books in English' (MET 10), 'Practicing English reading on the Internet' (MET 38), 'Improving one's English from different websites' (MET 45); or try to create good English learning environments for themselves, such as 'Participating in English classroom activities' (SCI 43), 'Getting in touch with one's friends in English, for example, writing e-mails or letters' (SCI 39), and 'Participating in extra-curricular activities' (SCI 46); or try to use the senses to understand and remember, such as 'Trying not to translate verbatim' (COG 14), 'Thinking of relationships between what one already knows and new things one learns in English (COG 1)', and 'Remembering new English words or phrases by remembering the context in which they appear' (COG 7).

In sum, language proficiency has strong effect on the choice of pre-service teachers' language learning strategies, with the main positive variation patterns. The possible reasons for this may be due to the pre-service teachers' capability of English learning, their motivation, and their high awareness of LLS items.

V. CONCLUSION

This study investigated the use of LLSs employed by English-major pre-service teachers in the Midwest of China in terms of language proficiency. The results demonstrated that pre-service teachers with both high and moderate language proficiency levels show significantly higher frequency of overall strategy use, and use of strategies in MET, COG and SCI categories than those with low language proficiency level; while no significant variation was found in the AFF category. For the individual strategy use, 16 strategies were classified as a 'positive' variation pattern, 4 strategies classified as 'mixed', and no strategies classified as a 'negative' pattern of variation. The results can give us the

following implications: Firstly, it is better for the English teachers of the pre-service teachers to encourage them to employ a wide range of LLSs for the purpose of learning English better; Secondly, it is recommended that pre-service teachers with low language proficiency level need to be guided or trained for language learning strategy use, especially use of metastrategies, so as to become more familiar with and get used to various strategies and to apply strategies appropriately and effectively.

APPENDIX. STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL)

This questionnaire is to investigate the language learning strategy use by English-major pre-service teachers. I would like to ask you to do me a favor by making the choice of the frequency of your strategy use. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Your answers will be used for academic research only and will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Thank you for your kindly participation and cooperation!

Instructions: This questionnaire consists two parts:

Part 1 Personal information

Part 2 Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire

Part 1 Personal information

Please provide your personal information by putting a tick () in the box of the choices given or write the response where necessary.

Your university: _____

Your age: _____

Your gender: Male Female

Do you enjoy learning English?

Not at all Not very much Somewhat A lot Extremely

How long have you learned English outside of class everyday in general?

Less than 1 hour 1 to 2 hours More than 2 hours

Your score of TEM-4 is:

Under 50 50-59 60-69 70-79 Over 80

Part 2 Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire

Instructions: *The Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire is designed to gather information about the use of strategies in English. In the statements below, you will find various language learning strategy items. Please read each statement carefully and consider how frequently you employ the given strategies. '1' stands for 'Never or almost never used'; '2' for 'Generally not used'; '3' for 'Sometimes used'; '4' for 'Generally used'; and '5' for 'Always or almost always used'. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Please mark your response with a '√' in the corresponding spaces according to what you really think. Thank you for your cooperation!*

Language Learning Strategies	Frequency of Strategy Use				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I use new English words in a sentence so that I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I use vocabulary books or electronic dictionaries to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I say or write new English words several times to remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I review English lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering the contexts in which they appear.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I try to talk like native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I watch English-speaking movies or TV programs.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I read newspapers, magazines, and books in English.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I write diaries or short articles in English.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I listen to English radio programs, news or English songs on Internet, by MP3/4, or by mobile phone.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I get the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand, such as roots, prefixes, and suffixes.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I try not to translate word-for-word.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I guess the meaning of the unfamiliar English words.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I use gestures to convey my meaning during a conversation in English.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I make up new words if I do not know the precise ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I read English without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I try to predict what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5
20. If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I improve my English from my own mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I try to find out how to learn English well.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I look for opportunities/chances to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5

25. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I tell myself that there is always more to learn when learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I notice whether I am nervous or not when I am reading or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
33. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I ask my English teacher or fluent speakers of English to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I practice speaking English with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I ask for help from my English teacher or my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I try to learn about the culture of English-speaking countries.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I practice English reading on the Internet.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I get touch with my friends in English, for example, writing e-mails or letters.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I remember new expressions by two-way translation.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I try to understand the complex English sentences by analyzing their grammatical structures.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I systematically review vocabulary, texts and notes before exams.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I participate in classroom activities in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I attend extra classes at a language school.	1	2	3	4	5
45. I improve my English from different websites.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I participate in extra-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I do a lot of exam-oriented exercises before exams.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I always encourage myself not to be discouraged by poor exam results.	1	2	3	4	5

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Arab Students' Perspectives on the Value of Literature

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Abstract—While the value of literature has long been the subject of lively debate in Western universities, little attention has been given to how most Arab learners perceive it. The key concern of the present paper is to analyze literature's value for Arab students in general and for Sultan Qaboos University students in particular. To this end, the study begins with a review of the myriad benefits (social, educational and personal) claimed for literature. It then examines literature's negative social and learning impacts on SQU students. Based on a questionnaire conducted among 25 prospective SQU English majors, including Translation, Arts and English Education students, the study revealed that literature, in their view, still has a high value on account of its numerous advantages, the most important being its enhancement of their language competence, despite obsolete teaching methods likely to kill their taste for it. Finally, the paper recommends that modes of teaching create a philletic environment, and that new literature circles be created to sensitize students to the value of literature at an earlier stage of their lives in order to cultivate a stronger passion and love for literature in them.

Index Terms—SQU students, value of literature, impacts, benefits, drawbacks

I. INTRODUCTION

It is hard to deny the importance of literature in our lives as it has been a significant part of human education and civilization for so long, still represents a mirror reflecting and shaping most societies around the world, and is “made out of the lore of life” (Kantor, 2006). Literature has, indeed, brought about a number of social, economic, educational and political changes in different societies, which leaves no room for doubt that its impact is large, whether positive or negative. Thus, many scholars and educationists have demonstrated that literature has a high value and is well perceived in Western universities. Its positive effects are mainly social, personal and linguistic, while the negative effects mainly entail its irrelevance to the job market and the risk of excluding students from an active role in life.

Literature Review

Mainstream scholars and educationists argue that literature has many advantages and can contribute to the social, educational and personal development of students. The central focus of this review is to shed light on literature's value as seen in mainstream universities, and also to examine its disadvantages from the perspective of scholars, researchers and students.

Literature's social benefits: Literature, by its nature, offers many social benefits for the individual and society as a whole. For instance, Shah (2013) maintains that studying literature can help students to benefit socially and understand the struggle and suffering of humankind. Similarly, Judith Caesar (2007 as quoted in Ismail, 2008) states that through reading narratives, students can sympathize with and understand people's pain and suffering. She adds that literature leads us to raise questions and provides us with a profound understanding of different issues in life.

Shah (2013) also argues that literature is a means through which several social issues can be addressed and criticized in an attempt to bring about societal change. He further states that “literature has had a major impact on the development of society, [that] it has shaped civilizations, changed political systems and exposed injustice” (p. 20).

In a similar vein, Roe and Ross (2006) maintain that literature is a source of pleasure for readers, helps them to escape from everyday troubles, and entertains their free time. The authors add that it can help children to enlarge their horizons through varied and exciting experiences. In other words, literature, they say, helps children to “visit new places, gain new experiences, meet new people; learn about the past as well as the present and learn about a variety of cultures, including their own” (p. 33).

Roe and Ross' s argument (2006) corroborates Shah's view (2013) on literature's social benefits, arguing that, through it, children will have a chance to read about people's problems and troubles, which in turn will help them to reflect on and solve their own problems.

Similarly, Sell (2005) points out that literature represents a “cultural enrichment” since it helps to promote a better understanding of other cultures and offers closer access to any society's heritage and culture. This perspective is shared

by Hismanoglu (2005) who also views literature as a means of cultural enrichment. The author further argues that literary works with their different genres can help to provide a better understanding and a colorful picture of the social and regional background of any particular society. This can be achieved, in his view, through the different characters, their thoughts, ideas and actions.

Al-Khader (2005) adopts a similar posture toward the social benefits of literature, maintaining that it helps students to adapt to cultural differences and remove possible bias or prejudice against other cultures.

Literature's educational advantages: Literature offers many educational benefits. Extensive research has shown it to be a very useful resource if students wish to improve their language skills. Cruz (2010) states that literature is a rich, authentic source that exposes students to how language is used and spoken. Through literature, he argues, students can obtain a wide range of vocabulary and various sentence structures that will in turn help them greatly to improve their language. The author adds that "a literary text provides students with a much clearer idea about the syntactic structure of a written text and to what extent written language differs from spoken language, thus they will get used to the formation and function of sentences" (2010, p. 4).

The same view of literature's educational benefits is adopted by Adedjoja (2010) who argues that its study helps students to acquire language and become proficient. He also demonstrates that it helps students to build up a bank of vocabulary and improve their reading skills through exposure to a variety of texts.

The ideas in Kulkarni (2013) mesh with Adedjoja's assumption that reading literary works provides readers with a wide perspective on life and improves skills and abilities. Kulkarni concludes that literature increases one's knowledge and makes readers aware of the many and diverse aspects of life.

The learning benefits of literature are also emphasized by Sell (2005) who argues that literary works represent a better training for the brain than any other discipline. Through literature, the author claims, students can develop their sense of logic and acquire the ability to question and refute random views or biased ideas. Literature is also regarded as a good "linguistic model" in so far as it demonstrates to students how language is used and written appropriately, and how various situations are expressed.

Roe and Ross (2006) also assume that literature exposes children to "correct sentence patterns, standard story structures, and varied word usage" (p. 33). In addition, it also helps students to improve their language, gain new terms and vocabulary, and enhance thinking skills through reasoning exercises. To sum up, it appears from the various studies discussed above that literature offers myriad learning benefits.

Literature's personal benefits: Many scholars have argued that literature also helps students to gain personal benefits beside social and educational advantages. For instance, Al-Khader (2005) maintains that literature makes students write and speak independently and helps them to express their thoughts freely and confidently. He also points out that literature, by its nature, enables students to express their personal views freely and independently. He further argues that, through literature, students can be taught to accept random answers and not become easy victims of the "twin polarities of correct and incorrect answers" (p. 1).

Al-Khader (2005) also argues that literature "contributes in developing a new self with a fresh outlook towards others, enriches students' experiences and adds to their repertoire of knowledge" (p. 4). He adds that literature builds students' individuality and stimulates them to express their opinions in a creative manner whenever they deal with a literary text. He concludes that it also helps students to be more open and recognize the fact that there is always more than one possible option and more than one possible way of life. It is clear from the articles discussed above that literature has not only social and educational benefits but also personal advantages, which can be reflected and seen in many students.

The disadvantages of literature: Having discussed the positive effects of literature, it is essential now to consider its negative effects as well.

The irrelevance of literature degrees to the job market: One of the drawbacks of a literature degree, it is claimed, is its irrelevance to the job market. Berube (2013), a professor and director of the Institute for the Arts and Humanities at Pennsylvania State University, admits that literature, as part of the humanities, assists students to gain many written and spoken skills which can be of great use in the workplace, but says that a student can do nothing with a certificate in this field. This feeling of discomfort and anxiety about the irrelevance of a literature degree in the marketplace is also shared by most parents, as he points out. It is a waste of time and effort, according to them, to spend years studying literature and then find no job. The author concludes that literature "serves no practical purposes in the real world" (p.11).

Transforming students to bookworms: Another disadvantage of studying literature lies in the risk of turning students into bookworms. Surveying the negative effects, Esperanza (2012) maintains that students are sometimes conditioned to read particular texts which could be boring and of no interest to them. He illustrates his point with the example of an instructor who has explained everything about Emily Brontë's novel *Jane Eyre*, leaving no room for discussion. For this reason, the author believes that students should not be forced to read novels or stories they are not interested in because they will learn nothing from the experience.

Reprise: In a nutshell, mainstream researchers and scholars have stressed the idea that literature has a high value among students and unmasked both its positive and negative impacts. The positive effects are social, educational and personal, while the negative effects relate mainly to the uselessness of literature degrees for the job market and the risk of transforming students into passive bookworms (Esperanza, 2012). Many of these studies were conducted in English-speaking countries, however, thus paying scanty attention to Arab nations in general and to Oman in particular. This

paper therefore considers it important to undertake further research into the question in an Omani context. Given the scope of the paper, the investigation is limited to students in the English department only. To this effect, a questionnaire was designed and distributed to English department students at Sultan Qaboos University (henceforth SQU) in order to come up with new results and findings on the possible negative and positive effects of literature study.

II. METHODOLOGY

Since this study aims to shed more light on the value of literature and the different impacts of literature courses on prospective SQU English majors, the main concern of the questionnaire is, accordingly, to raise the following key questions and strive to come up with answers and further recommendations:

1. What is the impact of literature courses on prospective SQU English majors?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of studying literature at SQU?
3. How do English majors, including Arts, Education and Translation students, perceive literature?

A. Participants

The study involved students from three SQU English majors, namely Arts, Education and Translation. The questionnaires were distributed to 25 students, six of whom were translation students, five education students and the rest Arts students. Most questionnaires were distributed to Arts students since they take many literature courses. The participants were of both sexes, nine males and 16 females, in order to find out if there was any significant difference in their results. According to their year of study, two participants were first-year students, one was in his second year, six were in their third year, 13 were in their fourth year and three were in their fifth year. The majority, therefore, were fourth-year students. Table I below shows the range of participants according to their year of study:

TABLE I.
RANGE OF PARTICIPANTS ACCORDING TO YEAR OF STUDY

Year of study	Frequency	Percentage
1	2	8%
2	1	4%
3	6	24%
4	13	52%
5	3	12%

B. Results and Analysis

The benefits of literature: The first section of the questionnaire was divided into two parts and focused on the major advantages and disadvantages of studying literature. The first three questions focused on literature's social benefits. To begin with, 76% of the students agreed that studying literature made them sympathize with other people and understand their pains and suffering; 20% of them were neutral; while 4% disagreed with the idea that literature has social benefits. In the second question, students were asked if studying literature could help them to solve their problems. It was found that 48% agreed, 24% were neutral, and the rest disagreed. The third question asked students if studying literature could enhance their understanding of other cultures; the majority agreed that it could, which is in line with Roe and Ross's assumption on the social benefits of studying literature (2006). For further clarification, Table II below shows the percentages of students who agreed and disagreed about literature's social benefits:

TABLE II.
STUDENTS' BELIEFS ON THE SOCIAL VALUE OF LITERATURE

Statements	agree	disagree	neutral
Studying literature makes me sympathize with other people and understand their pains and suffering	76%	4%	20%
Studying literature helps me to solve my own problems	48%	28%	24%
Studying literature enhances my understanding of other cultures and various racial groups	96%	-	4%

The next five questions were about literature's educational benefits. Students were asked if studying literature could help them to gain a wide vocabulary, and all of them agreed that it could. This supports Cruz's claim that literature helps to gain a lot of useful vocabulary (2010). The next question asked students if studying literature could help them to improve their writing and speaking skills. 88% of respondents agreed, 3% were neutral and 8% disagreed. Students were also asked if studying literature could improve their reading skills through exposure to various literary genres, and the majority agreed it could; just two students who disagreed, which I assume is insignificant. The next question, which asked students if studying literature could enhance their thinking skills, elicited a positive response from 84%, while 16% were neutral. The last question in this section asked students if studying literature could enrich their minds with ideas and thoughts about life in general. The majority agreed, although two students were neutral and two disagreed.

It is clear from the data obtained that educational benefits are the most dominant advantages of studying literature. It can also be deduced that literature courses help students to increase their vocabulary and as a result increase their language proficiency. This leads us to the conclusion that students have a high esteem for literature since it is very likely to enhance and improve their language competence, as Table III below illustrates:

TABLE III.
STUDENTS' BELIEFS ON THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF LITERATURE

Statements	agree	neutral	disagree
Studying literature helps me to obtain a wide range of vocabulary.	100%	-	-
Studying literature helps me to improve my writing and reading skills.	88%	4%	8%
Studying literature improves my reading skills through exposure to various literary genres.	92%	-	8%
Studying literature enhances my thinking skills	84%	16%	-
Studying literature enriches my mind with many ideas and thoughts about life.	84%	8%	8%

After addressing literature's social and educational benefits, the questionnaire moved to focus on its personal advantages. The following questions asked students if literature could make them think freely and independently, to which 14 out of the 25 respondents agreed, while eight were neutral and three disagreed. The last question asked students if literature could help them to express their views freely, and responses showed that 17 agreed, six were neutral, and the rest disagreed, as the table below demonstrates:

TABLE IV.
STUDENTS' BELIEFS ON THE PERSONAL VALUE OF LITERATURE

Statements	agree	neutral	disagree
Studying literature makes me think freely and independently.	56%	32%	12%
Studying literature helps me to express my views freely	68%	24%	8%

SQU students also identified the following benefits of literature courses:

- Literature helps students to fill their leisure and free time by providing something useful and related to their lives.
- Literature helps students to master a huge bank of words and vocabulary and to understand other cultures.
- Literature enriches students' knowledge.
- Literature can help students to become good writers.
- Literature broadens students' minds and attitudes towards life.
- Literature helps students to analyze people's traits and qualities.
- Literature offers a picture of many ancient civilizations and illustrates the way of life of people who lived during a particular era.

The drawbacks of literature: While literature courses offer myriad advantages, there are also several disadvantages, and the questionnaire, accordingly, gave them equal attention.

The first question asked students if literature courses made them bookworms, to which nine out of 25 agreed, nine disagreed and the rest were neutral. The second question asked whether literature courses limited students to texts they were not interested in, and the majority agreed, while seven disagreed and four were neutral. The next question asked if literature courses were a waste of time and effort; 21 out of 25 disagreed, with three neutral and only one agreeing. The fourth question asked students if there was a lack of jobs in the market for literature and arts graduates. The response was that nine of them agreed, six disagreed and 10 were neutral, as they did not seem to have enough information about this issue. The next question asked if literature courses tackled any taboo issues that might be harmful to students' minds. While nine were neutral, most respondents agreed that certain issues raised in literature courses were ethically unacceptable and against their traditions and customs. For a clearer picture of student responses and impressions, the table below illustrates them in detail:

TABLE V.
STUDENTS' BELIEFS ON THE DISADVANTAGES OF LITERATURE

Statements	agree	neutral	disagree
Studying literature makes me a bookworm.	36%	28%	36%
Studying literature conditions me to certain texts I am not interested in.	56%	16%	28%
Studying literature is just a waste of time and effort.	4%	12%	84%
There is a lack of jobs in the market for literature majors.	36%	40%	24%
Literature tackles issues that are harmful to me.	12%	36%	52%
Literature pollutes and corrupts my mind by inculcating queer thoughts and ideas that conflict with my customs and religion.	16%	24%	60%

As we can see from the table above, most students agreed that literature limits them to particular texts, be they poems, stories or other literary genres, in which they are not interested; this is in line with Esperanza's assumption about the disadvantages of literature courses (2012). Other students were neutral and agreed with the claim that there is a lack of jobs for students specializing in literature and the humanities in general.

Students also pointed out that literature has other flaws, which they summarized as follows:

- Literature brings up certain ideas that conflict with students' traditions, customs and religion.
- Literature sometimes presents taboo issues that students have no desire to study.
- Literature offers classical poems and texts that are too complicated to be absorbed.
- Literature is sometimes very boring and a waste of time and effort.
- Most texts tackled in literature point out the darker side of life, which makes students desperate.

In brief, the questionnaire was a great source of new ideas, thoughts and suggestions provided by SQU students.

III. FINDINGS

This study discovered that SQU students place a high value on literature and believed that its educational effect is its most prominent benefit. The study also revealed that most students are interested in literature mainly to improve their language in general and to learn new words, which in turn will help them to increase their language competence. This finding, in fact, confirms not only Roe and Ross's assertions (2006) but also Adedoja's argument that literature helps students to build a wide range of vocabulary (2010).

In addition to language learning benefits, the study also found that literature has social advantages, the most dominant being that it helps students to understand other cultures and the customs of people from different backgrounds. This finding is in line with the claims advanced by both Hismanoglu (2005) and Al-Khader (2005) about literature's social benefits.

The study also unmasked certain drawbacks of literature such as its tendency to transform students into bookworms, which is in line with Esperanza's argument regarding the disadvantages of studying literature (2012). The study also found that literature courses restrict students to literary texts they are not interested in.

Finally, the study demonstrated that there was a lack of jobs for humanities and English major graduates, which reflects Berube's view on the irrelevance of a literature degree to the employment market (2013).

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study attempted to find out whether Arab students place a high value on literature and accordingly investigated the negative and positive impacts of literature courses on prospective SQU English majors. The research proved that literature still enjoys a high status among Arab students in general and among SQU students in particular.

The study also stressed the idea that literature has a myriad social, educational and personal advantages, of which the linguistic benefits are the most valuable and dominant. In addition, the study revealed that literature courses have several disadvantages, the most prominent of which is that they limit students to particular literary texts imposed by instructors and in which most students show no interest.

Although the project was limited in scope and only involved a relatively small number of students, it managed to identify most important advantages and disadvantages of studying literature at SQU. One of the advantages is that the study of literature enriches students' minds and widens or broadens their knowledge. One of the disadvantages, according to respondents, is that it contains old, classical texts that students find hard to absorb. In addition, it was found that literature raises taboo issues that conflict with students' religion and traditions.

Based on these findings, the study has demonstrated, on the one hand, that literature has a high value among SQU students. On the other, it also recommends that further research be conducted in order to check whether literature has the same value in other Arab educational institutions and among other Arab students. Findings also suggest that more effort should be made to identify other advantages and disadvantages of studying literature in the Arab world. Finally, this study invites the Omani Ministry of Education to reconsider the value and importance of literature for students by integrating it into the school curriculum at an earlier stage so as to inspire a love of literary works. To fulfil this aim, the paper finally suggests that modes of teaching should create a philetic learning environment and that literature circles should be created to promote interest in literature among Omani school pupils and university students.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

Arab Students' Perspectives on the Value of English Literature: Sultan Qaboos University as a Case Study

This study aims to discover the effects of literature courses on prospective SQU English majors. Kindly fill in the questionnaire, and be assured that your answers will be used only for research purposes.

Section 1: Background information

Please answer the following questions:

1. Gender: male female
2. Major: English, Education English, Arts Translation
3. Year of study:
4. Number of literature courses taken:

Section 2:

For every item, please tick next to the column that best describes your response:

SD: Strongly disagree, D: Disagree, N: Neutral, A: Agree, SA: Strongly agree.

BENEFITS OF STUDYING LITERATURE

Items	Statements	D	N	A
1	Studying literature makes me sympathize with other people and understand their pains and suffering.			
2	Studying literature helps me to solve my own problems.			
3	Studying literature enhances my understanding of other cultures and various racial groups.			
4	Studying literature helps me to obtain a bank of useful vocabulary			
5	Studying literature helps me to improve my writing and speaking skills			
6	Studying literature improves my reading skills through exposure to various literary genres.			
7	Studying literature enhances my thinking skills.			
8	Studying literature enriches my mind with many ideas and thoughts about life.			
9	Studying literature makes me think freely and independently.			
10	Studying literature helps me to express my views freely.			

DRAWBACKS OF STUDYING LITERATURE

Items	Statements	D	N	A
1	Studying literature makes me a bookworm.			
2	Studying literature conditions me to certain texts I am not interested in.			
3	Studying literature is just a waste of time and effort.			
4	There is a lack of jobs in the job market for literature majors.			
5	Literature tackles a lot of taboo issues which are harmful to me.			
6	Literature pollutes and corrupts students' minds by exposing them to foreign ideas which conflict with their customs, traditions and religion.			

Section 3:

Please read the following questions carefully and develop an answer:

1) In your opinion, what other benefits can students derive from studying literature at SQU?

.....

2) Can you think of any other disadvantages of studying literature?

.....

3) According to you, how can literature be given more value and encouraged as a major in Omani educational institutions?

.....

Thank you for your cooperation

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Paradigm Shift: A Critical Appraisal of Traditional and Innovative Roles of an English Teacher in Saudi ELT Classrooms

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Abstract—The existing teaching practices in Saudi ELT classrooms, largely reflect the implications of traditional teacher-centred classrooms. In this vein, the study discusses diverse manifestations of the most influential scholars on the stereotypical traditional role of the teacher and also highlights pressing need for redefining the role of a teacher in new perspectives. The teacher in a traditional teacher-centred classroom assumes the role of an absolute authoritative figure, who serves as the source of knowledge while learners serve as passive recipients. It is well accepted that this sort of unilateral pedagogy fails to build creativity as well as communicative ability of the learners and thus hinders their language learning process. Hence, the main focus of the study is on how innovative role of the teacher significantly altered the role of the learners and in the thick of all classroom activities they get practical experience of using the language for communicative purposes. The phenomenon of teacher's traditional and innovative role was interrogated and explored using the qualitative research tools, i.e. opinionnaire and classroom observation. The specific population included two hundred male and female EFL teachers from Jazan University to obtain representative sample for the study.

Index Terms—ELT, traditional teacher-centred, learner-centred, innovative roles of a teacher, Saudi context, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

In any teaching-learning situation, the role of the teacher carries significant importance because it is central to the situation in which the classroom environment evolves. The issue of changing roles of a teacher from traditional to innovative has been the topic of discussion in current scholarly debates and also of the present study in the context of Saudi ELT classrooms. The traditional teacher-centred approach tends to consider students as passive recipients of information, without considering the need for active participation in the learning process. A teacher centred learning environment does by definition neither facilitate nor empower learners' autonomous study-skills and subsequently their lifelong learning skills. This approach heavily relies on grades and students' motivation to do hard work solely based on competition with other students.

Recently the scholars arrived at a point that traditional teacher-centered learning runs into a variety of bottlenecks when encountered with the challenges of our modern life and an emerging globalized world. Hence, the ideal is now for a more democratic, student-centred approach, where the teacher facilitates active and communicative learning strategies among the students. Therefore, the teacher must be clear about his/her role in the classroom so that there should not be a gap between how s/he actually perceives his/her role and what s/he really practices in the classroom. In this backdrop the sole purpose of the present study is to investigate the traditional and innovative roles of an EFL/ESL teacher with a particular focus on Saudi ELT classrooms.

Objectives

The objectives of the study were to:

- highlight the sources wherein modern practitioners and methodologists prefer LCA to TCA, in teaching learning of English as L2,
- identify shortcomings of TCA in teaching-learning of English in Saudi context,
- signify the dynamic aspects of LCA in teaching-learning of English in Saudi Arabia,
- suggest ways how to make a classroom more productive and objective- oriented in teaching-learning of English as L2.

The forthcoming sections are given over to the understanding of the notion of “role” and subsequently to the “teacher’s role” in ELT classroom.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Theoretical and conceptual framework helps determine the pros and cons of a research work. This is the researchers’ own position on the research problem. The review of the existing research brought to the fore what has been done and what needs to be done in the research area under exploration. The most significant aspects have been enumerated as under:

A. *The Notion of “Role”*

The expression “role” has its roots in sociology which manifests that how an individual behaves towards others. Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (A S Hornby, 2010) describes the expression “role” as: “the function or position that somebody has or expected to have in an organization, in society or in a relationship.” In a social context, the term “role” means what people are expected to perform or supposed to do in their everyday lives. While in the domain of English Language Teaching (ELT), various methodologists have proposed many potential roles for a language teacher. The next section is given over to the understanding of the concept of “Teacher’s role in ELT Classrooms.”

B. *Teacher’s Role in ELT*

In educational system, the role of a teacher is crucially significant and has diverse manifestations in academic scenario. In the realm of English Language Teaching (ELT), the language teacher performs many potential roles. Richards and Rodgers (1986) perceive teacher’s role as part of a method in these words: “methods typically depend critically on teacher roles and their realizations”. They highlight numerous issues which relate to the teacher roles in methods:

(a) The types of function teachers are expected to fulfill, whether that of practice director, counselor, or model; (b) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place; (c) the degree to which is the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught; and (d) the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

Nunan (1989) explains that in educational context the term role refers to the parts that teacher and learners are expected to perform in conducting numerous classroom activities in restricted sense of interaction between the participants apart from their social roles in the society. Now a days, in English as a second or foreign language, the idea of a teacher as “facilitator” is considered to be more compatible than the teacher’s role as a transmitter of knowledge to the students with “tabula rasa” or blank slates. The teacher’s role has varied dimensions because it is presented diversely by different methodologists and practitioners.

In the context of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Larsen-Freeman is of the view that Littlewood (1981) assigned a very broader role to the language teacher in the frame of reference of a “facilitator of learning” instead of attributing with a narrow concept of “the teacher as an instructor or transmitter of knowledge”. He adds that Littlewood perceived the term facilitator as an umbrella term that subsequently entails various sub-roles, i.e. a manager of classroom activities in which s/he establishes situations to promote communication, an advisor where he answers students’ questions and monitor their performance and over and above a “co-communicator” in which he engages students in communicative activities.

Harmer (2001) looks at the term “facilitator” in a much extended way than Littlewood does and points out that the ultimate aim of the role of the teacher is to facilitate and promote effective learning of the students in one way or the other. In addition to this, Harmer prescribes certain comprehensive terms for the different roles of the teacher, which he or she performs in the classroom, viz. controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor, and observer. In a similar vein, he substantiates the point that the teacher also functions as a substitute for teaching devices/tools, particularly when he mimes, uses gestures, works as a language model and provides comprehensible input.

In an educational setting, Dr Intakhab Alam Khan has seen some key roles of a good teacher, i.e. the transmitter of knowledge, a role model, the facilitator, the student assessor, the curriculum assessor, the course planner, and a diamond maker. In addition to this he speaks about the general categories of a teacher, viz. (i) the teacher who genuinely teaches, (ii) who manages to teach; (iii) and who manipulates while teaching. William Arthur Ward elaborates the point: i.e. “*The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires.*” It can be added to this that a bad teacher teaches from the books, not from the heart to finish the course contents, devoid of brining change and transformation. Khalil Gibran (J Harmer: 56 Gibran 1991) puts forward his observation about learner-centred approach in these words: “*If (the teacher) is indeed wise, he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind*”. Tudor (1993) firmly believes that there would seem to be the two roles which the teacher assumes and which are the cornerstones of learner-centred approach. But before going into an in-depth understanding of such a changed view of the classroom, it is crucial to look into the traditional role of a teacher in Saudi ELT classrooms.

C. *Traditional Saudi ELT Classrooms: A Critique from the Frames of Reference of ELT Methodologists and Practitioners*

Every nation has its own national language and set of native dialects. In Saudi Arabia, the country's national language is Arabic. In the context of the present discourse, English language generally in the Arab countries and particularly in Saudi Arabia has a limited scope in everyday communication. Yet its significance in these countries cannot be denied in the backdrop of educational, technological and economic development. Many researchers are of the view that Saudi educational system bears certain crucial aspects that potentially influence and more precisely erode the students' learning. A leading Arab businessman states (Kirdar, 2002) that region would not achieve its full economic potential: "unless we revolutionize our educational system and make a total change to our mindsets". Similarly, Elyas writes that (Cassidy and Miller, 2002) Harvard study of Arab higher education established that: "widespread practices of rote learning and memorization exercises are incapable of developing capacities in students for problem solving and application of theory to practical concepts". He substantiates the point that within the Arab countries strong debates have raged that traditional Arab educational culture emphasized rote learning and teacher based pedagogy which do not support current economic development in the region.

In the words of Sultan Al-Hazmi, (2003) "EFL teacher preparation programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia can be described as nonsystematic and inadequate." He is of the view that Saudi educational authorities arrange inadequate teacher training programs for the preparation of EFL teachers in the Kingdom, which he perceives an instrumental cause for not having properly qualified local teachers for the task ahead. In this regard, he has mentioned the need for a systematic approach to pre and in-service education for EFL teachers, with a particular reference to English pedagogy. Grami (2012) observes that many researchers are of the view Saudi educational system suffers from certain issues that could potentially hinder students' learning ability. In socio-cultural context, Grami writes, McKay's (1992) observations that Saudi educational authorities are producing English material with no reference to the English speaking communities. It is very obvious that such learning material would prepare the graduates who cannot establish a logical connection between the content of their textbooks to the real life situations coupled with fail to achieve the appropriate language proficiency. He adds that McKay (1992), Gray (2000) and Whitefield & Pollard (1998) perceive that in the first year of formal education, separation between male and female students is another issue of Saudi ELT classrooms.

In typical Saudi ELT classrooms, the students are accustomed to the repetitive practices, mechanical drills, cramming of vocabulary and memorization of grammar rules. In one way or the other, customary usages and the available textbooks both assigned the teacher limitless authority. The traditional educational values due to their influential role in Saudi culture make the teacher eminent figure in the classroom who deserves immense respect while the textbooks are designed in a style which require constant elaboration or direction from the teacher. Over and above, the process of evaluation and assessment of students' performance bestows upon the teacher additional authority of an evaluator and an assessor. Rigid layout of the classroom, including the seating arrangement reflects traditional approach to language teaching where the teacher is on the front and students sitting in fixed rows, virtually means that the only person at the heights of pinnacles and veneration at any given moment of time is the teacher. Moreover, it is evident from numerous reports as well as the current practices indicate that Saudi ELT classrooms suffers lack of participation on the part of the learners. In this backdrop, a more balanced approach will work more effectively where learners will be the focus of attention and the teacher assumes less authoritative position. The shift in focus from teacher to learners brings effective outcomes only if applied in corroboration with modern collaborative cum communicative approaches. The cooperative learning can be made more effective by conducting activities of pair and group work in which the students are motivated to share their learning experiences with their peers, unlike competitive learning practices that invoke a sense of competition among the learners. Hence, it is well accepted that traditional approaches to teaching require overruled dimensions of teacher's power and control, whereas innovative language teaching demands a greater degree of autonomy on the part of the learners. The next section is given over to the idea of traditional role of a teacher in teacher-centred ELT classrooms.

D. Traditional Role of an English Teacher

In traditional language teaching, teacher plays a more important role than students. For many years, the concept of classroom management was rooted in behavioral theories of teaching and learning. In accordance with the behaviorist learning theory, teaching focuses on the external manifestations of learning rather than on the internal processes. Garrett mentions that Brophy (Brophy, 1999) is of the view that the main focus of the behaviorist model in classroom management was to employ the technique that brings the students' behavior under stimulus control (Garret, 2008). Richards and Rodgers (1986) manifest that the learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, and thus have little control over the content, pace or style of learning. He adds that these behavioral approaches in the classroom are the back bone of traditional transmission approaches to instruction.

In the wake of 1960s and 1970s, educational writings enormously revealed its focus on examination-oriented and grammar-and-vocabulary-based traditional teacher-centred classrooms. The criterion of a teacher's evaluation was entirely based on the amount of educational contents s/he crammed into the heads of the students. The more the teacher stuffed the items the best s/he would be considered. Broughton and his colleagues brought to the fore a very typical feature of traditional methodology, i.e.: "teacher-dominated interaction." That means at the core of it, the traditional method is largely teacher-focused. Dr. Abdullah Kuzu asserts that it is based on the: "traditional view of education, where teachers serve as the source of knowledge while learners serve as passive receivers." This idea corresponds to the simile of Jim Scrivener, who manifests that: "traditional teaching [is imagined to work as] 'jug and mug' – the

knowledge being poured from one receptacle into an empty one.” This widespread attitude is based on a precondition that “being in a class in the presence of a teacher and ‘listening attentively’ is [...] enough to ensure that learning will take place.” In this traditional role the teacher assumes absolute authority and firm control on the learners, while students sit quiet passively receive pearls of wisdom delivered by the teacher. Jack C. Richards highlights in his book ‘Communicative Language Teaching Today’, that in traditional methodology, “learning was very much seen as under the control of the teacher” (Richards 4). Richards and Rodgers (1986) point out numerous functions of a teacher in traditional teaching as, for instance, the teacher act as a language model, the lesson planner, the controller and the assessor of learners’ practice and performance, the organizer of grammar oriented language programs, the course planner coupled with a person responsible to select and prepare the material and decide what and how the learners ought to learn.

Here it is pertinent to have a thorough glance on the main features of traditional method of ELT. The central premise on which it resides is the traditional lecture method popular for teaching English for decades now. The teacher lectures at length on particular topics and students listen to him/her with rapt attention. Incorporating this methodology, the teacher infuses discrete items of grammar, phonology, and vocabulary into the mind of the learners, focusing mainly on the formal features of the language at the expense of encouraging students to use the language. The scholars termed it a “synthetic” approach to teaching where a teacher instills discrete bits of knowledge in the mental threshold of the learners in a linear fashion. In the words of Wilkins (1976), in this approach: “*different parts of the language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up*”. This approach finds its roots in the belief that the purpose of all teaching is to make the learning easy and simple. At one end, it breaks the contents into smaller parts and at another end; presents them in a sequential layout. This approach to language learning is explained well by Nunan (1996), who compares it to the laying of bricks in a wall, as for instance:

The language wall is erected on a linguistic “brick” at a time. The easy grammatical bricks are laid at the bottom of the wall, and they provide a foundation for the more difficult ones. The task for the learner is to get the linguistic bricks in the right order: first the word bricks, and then the sentence bricks. If the bricks are not in the correct order, the wall will collapse under its own ungrammaticality.

In this context, the teacher is ‘response-able’ to erect “the language wall” well and considered not only as the organizer and controller of all classroom activities but also as the evaluator of learners’ performance.

The traditional teacher-centred approach neglects students’ needs and interests and perceives them as receptacle of information to pour something into them and as an outcome of it hampers students’ communicative ability. So, in second language learning the significance of talk among the students has its own scope since it functions as a medium of communication between teacher-students and student- student. Long and Porter (1985) declare that teacher dominated classes not only leave negative impacts on the quantity of learner’s ability to converse with each other but also on its quality. Hence it is incumbent upon the teacher to do their level best to get their students involve in different types of communicative activities that encourage them to speak with and listen to their peers. In the light of overviewed dimensions, it can be said that in traditional teacher-centred classrooms the teacher holds dominant status in the class while learners appear to follow passively what is taught in the class. Therefore, the traditional teacher-centred approach naturally advocates for poor teacher-student and student-student interaction and eventually brings unsatisfactory outcomes of language teaching and learning.

E. Innovative Paradigm: Learner Focused Classrooms

As the whole universe is constructed with the binary oppositions in the same manner Dewey’s (1998) key observations about educational theory are based on contrasting pairs. He proposes that: “*The history of educational theory is marked by opposition between the idea that education is a development from within and that it is formation from without.*” To traditional educational approaches Dewey assigned the position of “without”, which he defines as: “*taking bodies of information and of skills that have been worked out in the past and transmitting them to the new generation.*” Long back, Dewey (1938) objected to this kind of spoon-feeding of knowledge, and pointed out the importance of the role of the learners as an active agent in their learning. Contrary to this, he attributed, “within” position to the progressive education, to which he perceived as: “*expression and cultivation of individuality...free activity... [and] learning through experience.*” He laid the foundation of what we now call “learner-centredness”, a term which has now gained tremendous currency in ELT. It is apparent in the proclamation of Tudor (1996) as he points out: “In a learner-centred approach, students are seen as being able to assume a more active and participatory role than is usual in traditional approaches.” He adds that: “a widespread desire in the language teaching community to develop means of allowing learners to play a fuller, more active and participatory role in their language study.” Leo Jones (2007) conceives the same point by articulating: “students can’t be “taught” – they can only be helped to learn.” He notices that in student-centered classrooms the teacher doesn’t relinquish its more traditional role as a source of information, advice, and knowledge. The only change which comes in his role is to help and encourage the students to develop their skills through team and cooperative working. In the context of similar discourse, Vygotsky (1995) gave observations: “The personal activity of the student must be placed at the base of the educational process, and all the teachers art must come down to directing and regulating this activity.” In Addition to this he notices that:

A psychological law states: before you want to involve the child in some kind of activity, interest the child in it being

concerned to make sure that child is ready for this activity, that all the child's strengths needed for it are exerted, that the child will act for him/herself, and that for the teacher remains only the task of guiding and directing the child's activity.

The excerpt reveals Vygotsky's conviction that a teacher should involve the learners through constant collaboration, exploitation of their social settings and their desire and readiness to act together with the teacher. At the core of Vygotsky's theory lies the idea of active dialogue and communication between student-student and student-teacher.

It is evident from numerous reports that Saudi ELT classrooms suffer lack of participation on the part of the learners. In this backdrop, a more balanced approach that benefits the educational process in general and the language class in particular will be more effective where learners will be the focus of attention and the teacher assumes less authoritative position. It has been proven through numerous studies plus actual implementation that the shift in focus from teacher to learner bears effective outcomes only if applied in corroboration with modern communicative approaches. The learner-centred approach moves around the needs and abilities of the learners. It makes the learning more meaningful, especially when the topics are relevant to the students' lives, needs, and interests. It demands from the learners to participate and interact actively in a meaningful interaction and take responsibility for their own learning. The students do not only practice information alone, but they are also motivated to work with their peers. Virtually, learners are treated as co-creators in the learning process and their innovative thoughts and ideas are paid special consideration.

The learner-centred approach in ELT is not the product of a single school of thought, but a result of the convergence of several innovative approaches on ELT. In this framework, the influence of humanistic and communicative theories is illustrious as in recent years both laid a great emphasis on "learner-centred" teaching, which makes the learners' needs and experiences central to the educational process. Hence, the language teaching in learner-centred classes with the backdrop of communicative and humanistic approaches is very flexible, maximum outcome oriented and over and above addresses the learners' interactive needs of real authentic world.

F. Innovative Role of the Teacher in Task-based Language Teaching

The present section aims to explore the teacher's role during task-based activities conducted in learner-centred classrooms to develop communicative competence of the learners. Littlejohn (1998) proposed a comprehensive definition of task: "... "Task" refers to any proposal contained within the materials for action to be undertaken by the learners, which has the direct aim of bringing about the learning of the foreign language". The definition speaks about three significant aspects, i.e. process, participation and content. The Process reflects the way or procedure teacher and learners go through from; participation refers to the manner the learners work in the classroom; content is something that learners focus on while participating in the process. Nunan (2005) defines task as:

A piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form.

Tasks are central to the communicative language teaching because they provide a context that activates learning process and inculcates reflective understanding of the language in the mental threshold of the learners. Many writers have noted that TBLT can be best understood not as a new departure, but as an offshoot of communicative language teaching that makes the use of real-life situations in the classroom and necessitates interaction among the learners. The teacher sets up a situation that students are likely to encounter in real life. In the words of Nunan, TBLT resides on: "*experiential learning*" or "*learning by doing*" which in my view is, "*learning by involving*" that develops the learners' true empathy, identity and interest towards the content. In this way, TBLT takes the responsibility of breaking the stereotypical image of traditional classrooms because the very act of trying to undertake a communicative task involves planning, interacting and using strategies on the part of the learners. It reveals that the role of the learners gets entirely changed in task-based approach to language teaching, for instance, when they experience full involvement in classroom activities by using the language in real authentic situations. However, the other roles, as, for instance, the role of a teacher as disseminator of information changed into a mediator, motivator, decision-maker, and counselor, etc. Vygotsky observes that in mediational teaching, the teacher becomes a true facilitator of learning for the language learners. He guides them to work collaboratively and helps in constructing the learning behavior through interaction in pair or group work. In the role of an advisor, a teacher observes learners' performance and declares his/her observation in terms of their strengths and weaknesses. He or she also plans the tasks for the future and stimulates the learners' intellect by presenting new language items for learning.

It is pertinent to mention that though the teacher could at best create an effective classroom environment that is conducive to language learning but he could never develop a real control over the learners' natural process of acquiring foreign language coupled with could not accelerate their ability to communicate effectively. However, the communicative skills of the learners can only be developed if they are motivated. It is well accepted that the teacher can facilitate this process by creating diverse interesting and challenging communicative activities, i.e. pair-work, group-work, and role plays. Therefore, through such collaborative activities the teacher could track the learners upon the path of acquiring and using the target language in real authentic situations of concrete actual world.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. Why do modern practitioners and methodologists feel a need for switching from teacher-centred (TCA) to learner-centred approach (LCA)?
2. What is teacher-centred approach (TCA) and its shortcomings?
3. What is learner-centred approach (LCA) and its dynamic vistas?
4. How does learner-centred approach (LCA) help in enhancing the communicative ability of the learners?

A. Delimitations of the Study

The study in hand is delimited to the understanding of the scope of paradigm shift from traditional teacher-centred to learner-centred approach in the context of Saudi EFL classrooms and the most specifically Jazan University.. The focus of the study was narrowed down to the critical appreciation of the teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches and the researcher has probed into and explored various dimensions of both the approaches with the help of EFL teachers' responses to the opinionnaire and the researcher's classroom observation.

B. Research Tools

In the present study, the researcher used a cross sectional survey to collect data from a predetermined sample that was drawn from the population of Jazan University, English Language Centre (JUELC). The opinionnaire was designed on a structured pattern in order to obtain precise and useful information from one hundred male and one hundred female EFL teachers on the specific aspects related to the study in hand. The specific population, i.e. EFL/ESL teachers of (JUELC), was focused to obtain responses on closed ended questions. The samples have not been administered randomly, but after cautious planning and judging the specialty of the respondents, so that their responses may render a true, valid and reliable picture of the determined population.

From the very outset, it was in the mind of the researchers that the selection of appropriate and relevant research methods helps identify the research problems. Thus, in order to better understand the phenomena under study, survey research design is selected for this work. As survey is one of the most common forms of research to be engaged in by the educational researchers. It allows researchers to ask a large group of people various questions about a particular topic or issue. The reliability and validity of the opinionnaire were determined by a 'pilot study' and resultantly a revised and structured version of the opinionnaire was designed to get reliable data. Moreover, for further underpinning the study, the researcher observed the existing practices in teaching-learning of English in 3+3= 6 classrooms (3 classroom with TCA and 3 with LCA). An observation sheet was also prepared by the researcher to write down a true depiction of an English classroom in Jazan, Saudi Arabia.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

At the stage of analysis, participants' responses were analyzed to highlight different roles of the teacher in teacher-centred and learner-centred classrooms and to maintain the significance of the learner-centred classrooms where the learners performed a vital role in their own learning and in the thick of all classroom activities they get practical experience of using the language for communicative purposes.

Opinionnaire: A well-calculated data have been displayed in Table-1 (Female teachers' responses) and Table-2 (Male teachers' responses):

TABLE-1
DISTINCTIVE RATIO OF FEMALE TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS 1-20 OF THE OPINIONNAIRE

Opinion No.	Total Responses	Strongly Disagree/%age	Disagree/%age	Uncertain/%age	Agree/%age	Strongly Agree/%age
1	79%	4/5%	7/8.86%	4/5%	49/62%	15/18.98%
2	ditto	2/2.53%	5/6%	3/3.79%	49/62%	20/25%
3	ditto	3/3.79%	7/8.86%	2/2.53%	52/65.82%	15/18.98%
4	ditto	2/2.53%	9/11%	12/15%	43/54%	13/16%
5	ditto	4/5%	7/8.86%	7/8.86%	52/65.82%	9/11%
6	ditto	4/5%	17/21.51%	6/7.59%	37/46.83%	15/18.98%
7	ditto	3/3.79%	13/16%	19/24%	29/36.70%	15/18.98%
8	ditto	3/3.79%	5/6%	3/3.79%	49/62%	19/24%
9	ditto	3/3.79%	21/26.58%	14/17.72%	29/36.70	12/15%
10	ditto	1/1%	4/5%	5/6%	42/53%	27/34%
11	ditto	1/1%	4/5%	5/6%	42/53%	27/34%
12	ditto	2/2.53%	2/2.53%	4/5%	38/48%	33/41.77%
13	ditto	2/2.53%	9/11%	7/8.86%	46/58%	15/19.98%
14	ditto	2/2.53%	1/1%	9/11%	33/41.77%	34/43%
15	ditto	1/1%	2/2.53%	3/3.79%	48/60.75%	25/31.64%
16	ditto	2/2.53%	0/0%	1/1%	37/46.83%	39/49%
17	ditto	2/2.53%	3/3.79%	3/3.79%	39/49%	32/40.50%
18	ditto	2/2.53%	4/5%	7/8.86%	42/53%	24/30%
19	ditto	0/0%	2/2.53%	14/17.72%	31/39%	32/40.50%
20	ditto	0/0%	2/2.53%	13/16%	39/49%	25/31.64%

Explanation Table-1: The %ages of 'female teachers' responses to all opinions 1-20 slightly fluctuate between 5-11%, except opinion – 6, 7 and 9. Similarly the %ages of the responses that agree to the opinions, swing within 41-77% to the maximum. The detail is as follows:

- (i) Only 11% teachers disagree to opinion-1.
- (ii) The %ages of the uncertain responses are negligible as compared to the ratio of the teachers who agree to the opinion.
- (iii) Very distinctively, 65% teachers agree to the statement that "the traditional method of teaching is largely teacher-centred" which definitely results in discouraging learning output.
- (iv) In addition to this, TCA is limited to lecture method.
- (v) Here teacher's role is authoritative and regarded as the only knowledge imparting agent.
- (vi) Very frankly, in TCA only teacher is improving his skills while enjoying an active role that dictates the learner merely to be a passive listener.
- (vii) 'Usage' (competency) of English is focused instead of its 'use' (performance).
- (viii) There are mixed-ability students in English classes, but all are expected to go at the same pace.
- (ix) On the other hand, in the LCA, the teacher is just a facilitator and did not spoon the knowledge.
- (x) The LCA help extend student's self-learning, communicative use of English language and the learner himself finds the information.
- (xi) The learner becomes active participant and learns by doing through certain activities.
- (xii) The student's needs are given top priority that demands the teaching practices to be flexible and adaptable.

TABLE-2:
DISTINCTIVE RATIO OF MALE TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO OPINIONS 1-20 OF THE OPINIONNAIRE

Q No.	Total Responses	Strongly Disagree/%age	Disagree/%age	Uncertain/%age	Agree/%age	Strongly Agree/%age
1	79%	10/12.65%	10/12.65%	2/2.53%	23/29%	34/43%
2	ditto	4/5%	12/15%	4/5%	27/34%	32/40.50%
3	ditto	5/6%	8/10%	6/7.59%	23/29%	37/46.83%
4	ditto	2/2.53%	3/3.79%	8/10%	37/46.83%	27/34%
5	ditto	6/7.59%	9/11%	3/3.79%	30/37.90%	31/39%
6	ditto	10/12.65%	4/5%	4/5%	43/54%	18/22.78%
7	ditto	8/10%	3/3.79%	11/13.92%	43/54%	14/17.72%
8	ditto	11/13.92%	16/20%	5/6%	37/46.83%	10/12.65%
9	ditto	3/3.79%	7/8.86%	4/5%	43/54%	22/27.84%
10	ditto	6/7.59%	10/12.65%	7/8.86%	37/46.83%	19/24%
11	ditto	6/7.59%	3/3.79%	4/5%	37/46.83%	29/36.71%
12	ditto	0/0%	6/7.59%	6/7.59%	31/39%	36/45.57%
13	ditto	2/2.53%	5/6%	8/10%	40/50.63%	24/30%
14	ditto	2/2.53%	5/6%	8/10%	39/49%	25/31.64%
15	ditto	0/0%	5/6%	8/10%	28.35%	38/48%
16	ditto	5/6%	0/0%	5/6%	38/48%	31/39%
17	ditto	6/7.59%	3/3.79%	5/6%	39/49%	26/32.91%
18	ditto	4/5%	5/6%	8/10%	40/50.63%	22/27.84%
19	ditto	5/6%	5/6%	12/15%	34/43%	23/29%
20	ditto	5/6%	6/7.59%	10/12.65%	37/46.83%	21/26.58%

Explanation Table-2: The %ages of the 'male teachers' responses to the opinions 1-20 are slightly different than that of the females' responses. The most distinctive differences are given below:

- (i) The female teachers' responses to the opinions 1-10 (TCA) as 'Disagree' are the same except some variations in the ratio. The pendulum of female teachers' response ratio moves from 5-10 % and males' responses 10-20%.
- (ii) The %age of the responses to the opinions, 1-10 as 'Uncertain' are the minimum, i.e. 2-8%.
- (iii) The ratio of 'Disagreed' responses to the opinions 1-10 fluctuates remarkably from 5-27%. Similarly, the %ages of the responses to the opinions 1-10 as 'Agreed' to remain convergent from 48-66%.
- (iv) Contrary to the TCA, the most significant aspects of LCA that came to light through the responses to the opinions, 11-20 may guarantee: (a) self-directed and self-motivated learning, (b) how a learner learns, (c) 'use' and not only 'usage' of English language, (d) communicative and problem-solving activities, (e) learner's active role, (f) student's need-oriented teaching –learning of English, and (g) graduate's better performance expected at different levels.

Classroom Observation: This is one of the oldest and the most reliable research instrument for data collection in classroom situation. The observation is a means of undertaking research into what occurs in English classroom by careful observation and keeping record of classroom events.

The researcher personally observed some English classrooms to underpin the data collected through the English teachers' responses to the opinionnaire. The observation report includes:

Teacher-centered approach

- (a) In the classroom, the teacher was quite active but students seem reluctant to participate.
- (b) In response to some simple question, a few students responded, but that too maximum in Arabic.

- (c) The use of whiteboard and then explanation of those points was a routine.
- (d) Student-student and teacher-student interaction was rare.
- (e) Classroom activities were zero.
- (f) No home assignments for practice.
- (g) The content of quizzes demanded cramming.
- (h) The teachers were over-estimating the students irrespective of the competency in English language.
- (i) Some students seemed blank-faced and uninterested in class and the obvious reason was that the teacher's lecture was not getting across.
- (j) The students were found weak in reading and writing skills.
- (k) No challenging task or creative work was observed in English classrooms.
- (l) Some students were always found without books and copies.

Learner-centered approach

- (a) In the learner-centered English classroom, the teacher was trying his best to involve the students. Here the students with good competency in English language skills were sharing their ideas with the teacher and their classmates.
- (b) The students who were weak in English were not interacting with the teacher, but on asking repeatedly, they were just mouthing words and not meaningful expressions.
- (c) Communicative use of English was observed, but limited to a few students. Others simply nodded their heads.
- (d) The majority of the students were found weak, hence the learner-centered approach too did not prove a success. This alarming state of affairs is self-evident that the competency in basic skill of English counts a lot toward better teaching-learning at college and university levels.
- (e) The English teacher seemed disappointed with regard to classroom and home assignments.
- (f) The students were interested in reproducing i.e. rotting but not ready for creative writing.
- (g) In case of group discussion within the class, maximum students were interacting in their L1, i.e. Arabic.
- (h) In this situation, the teacher was forced to use an eclectic approach, according to the changing situations.
- (i) The students were continuously being motivated by the teacher, realizing them the importance of English language a major lingua-franca of the world.
- (j) English teacher's appreciation and encouragement resulted in maximum sharing of ideas either in English or Arabic language.

V. CONCLUSION

The innovative role of a teacher as facilitator in a CLT or a TBLT classroom is absolutely different from the role of the controller and organizer of all activities that s/he plays in a traditional classroom. Facilitation involves lowering teacher's authority by endowing more powers to learners for more initiative and responsibility. In the traditional teacher-fronted classroom, the learner is always under the firm control of the teacher who decides what to do and when, while in a learner-centred classroom, the teacher rather, facilitator is expected to let go of some of his or her power. Learner-centredness bestows upon the learner greater authority to determine the course of the lesson.

The paradigm shift is not an easy as well as not an unachievable task. It can be accomplished gradually by incorporating numerous concrete as well as abstract changes, as for instance; change of physical layout of the classroom, by developing collaborative environment, by conducting communicative activities in the classroom, by organizing more but appropriate teacher training programs and by changing the mindset at both the teacher and the students' part. It can be safely said that the innovative role of the facilitator, knower and organizer that a teacher is supposed to play in communicative language learning is absolutely different from the role of an instructor/transmitter of information that s/he plays in a traditional classroom. Effective communication, confidence in using the language, understanding of cross-cultural values and problem-solving skills are the abilities that can only be acquired through the learners' personal performance and interaction with others in role plays, pair or group work activities. Therefore, it is ineluctable that passive learning methods should be replaced by an active learning pedagogy to prepare the learners for their new roles as global citizens.

VI. SUGGESTIONS

As study mainly focused on the teaching-learning of English to Saudi students so some measures have been suggested to ameliorate the deteriorating conditions of English language in KSA:

- (a) The cornerstone of English foundation is schooling where students should be prepared for higher studies.
- (b) Whether it is a school or college or university, the teaching-learning of English need to be attached to learner-centered approach.
- (c) The learner-centered approach can function smoothly only when learners have sound foundations in English language, otherwise this too will end in smoke.
- (d) The teacher-centered approach needs eradication in this swiftly moving era.
- (e) Students need to be motivated realizing them the importance of English language for a worldwide successful practical life.

(f) If the teachers want to make their students learn English in a better way, then put them in difficulty, giving them problem-solving activities and creative writing where students need to think a lot.

(g) The educationists expertise, English teachers and representatives of the ministry of education Saudi Arabia, are to put their head together to find out the root causes of the output below the line of expectations.

(h) The English teachers and students should redirect their attention to the weak schooling in English. For this they need to touch specifically the weak areas and syllabus of the college simultaneously. This swinging back and forth would definitely prove fruitful.

APPENDIX A. TEACHER OPINIONNAIRE

SURVEY OF EFL TEACHERS TO INVESTIGATE DIFFERENT ROLES OF A TEACHER IN TEACHER-CENTRED AND LEARNER-CENTRED APPROACHES IN SAUDI ELT CLASSROOMS

Dear Respondent

The researcher is a PhD scholar exploring a topic, entitled: "Paradigm Shift: A Critical Appraisal of Traditional and Innovative roles of a Teacher in Saudi ELT Classrooms." The increasing interest in learner-centred approach in ELT classrooms necessitated redefining the roles of a teacher in new context. In traditional teacher-centred classrooms the teacher bears the burden of the whole class on his shoulders and the learners merely listen to the teacher and may sometime repeat or react to the teacher's direction. While in learner-centred classrooms, the teacher assumes an innovative role of a facilitator and motivates the learners to perform a more active and participatory role in their own learning. This survey is being conducted to identify the scope and differences between innovative role of a teacher as facilitator in LCA/CLT or TBLT classrooms and the role of a teacher as transmitter of knowledge in traditional teacher-centred classrooms. In this regard your cooperation will greatly be helpful in probing into the point in debate.

Please fill in the enclosed opinionnaire carefully and don't leave any column unfilled. I assure you that all the data will be kept confidential and will be used for this research work only.

Your cooperation in this regard shall be highly appreciated.

Thanking in anticipation

Basic information about research topic

A number of previous studies and works have explored different roles of a teacher in traditional teacher-centred, learner-centred and in TBLT classrooms. But it is hard to find any research work that has focused on both the domains and also interrogated the significance of paradigm shift from traditional role of a teacher to innovative with a particular reference to Saudi ELT classrooms. The present study addresses the issue by examining that learner-centred approach knocks at students' creative ability, accelerates their learning as well as improves their communicative competence and makes them self directed learners while teacher-centred approach reduced the learners to empty receptacles to be filled by the all-knowing teacher. During 1970s-1980s the impact of learner-centered approach in language teaching has largely increased with the aurora of communicative approaches. The shift in focus changed the attention of teaching-learning process from language form to language function, or to language use in accordance with the needs of the learners (Savignon, 1997). According to Nunan (1988: 179) the change in approach to language teaching from traditional teacher-centred to learner-centred is, "an offspring of communicative language learning", requires learners to participate and negotiate actively in meaningful interaction. So, primarily this survey is designed to interrogate EFL teachers' perception about the traditional and innovative roles of a teacher with a particular reference to Saudi ELT classrooms.

Section 1: General and Demographic information

Please tick (✓) appropriate check box below.

i. Name _____ (Optional) Profession _____

ii. Gender: 1. Male 2. Female

iii. Age: 1. 25-30 2. 31-35 3. 36-40 4. 41 & above

iv. Qualification: 1. Graduation 2. M.A 3. M.Phil 4. PhD

v. Currently working in: 1. City 2. Town 3. Village

vi. Teaching experience:

(in years) 1. 1-5 2. 6-10 3. 11-15 4. 16-20 5. 21+

vii. Your medium of education: 1. Urdu 2. English 3. Arabic 4. All

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN OPINIONNAIRE:

- TTCA/TCA = Traditional Teacher-Centred Approach/ Teacher-Centred Approach
- LCA = Learner-Centred Approach
- ELT = English Language Teaching
- EFL = English as a Foreign Language
- ESL = English as a Second Language

Section 2: The Traditional Teacher-Centred Approach, and The Learner-Centred Approach

1. The opinionnaire has developed with ultimately closed ended propositions by employing Likert's five point scale. Pls encircle the appropriate number against each statement.

Prominent dimensions of a teacher's role in the traditional teacher-centred approach (TTCA)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
1. The traditional method of teaching is largely teacher-centred with the teacher hogging the lime-light.	1	2	3	4	5
2. In the traditional teacher-centred approach (TTCA) the most common teaching method used to deliver instructions is a lecture method.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The TTCA relies heavily on the old pedagogical ideals of the teacher as an authority transmitting knowledge to those "who do not know".	1	2	3	4	5
4. In the TTC classrooms, teacher spends quite a lot of class time using the board and explaining things to transmit/communicate the knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
5. In the traditional teacher-centred approach (TTCA) the learners are viewed as passive recipients of information and perceived as receptacle to be filled with knowledge given by the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5

2.

Significant aspects of students' role in the traditional teacher-centred approach (TTCA)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
6. In the traditional teacher-centred approach (TTCA) students are expected to learn the grammatical rules and items of lexis, and it is supposed that they will be able to use the language.	1	2	3	4	5
7. In the teacher-centred approach (TCA) good habits are formed by memorizing dialogues, performing drills and practicing correct sentences and not through making mistakes. Errors are avoided through controlled opportunities of production.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The TTCA claims that students learn well if they listen to the teacher with rapt attention and do not make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Repetitive practices, mechanical drills and memorization of grammar rules are certain important aspects of TCA to language teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
10. In the TTCA, teaching is geared for the average student and everyone is forced to progress at the same rate.	1	2	3	4	5

3.

Dynamic dimensions of teacher's role in the learner-centred approach (LCA)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. In the learner-centred approach (LCA) the teacher is a true facilitator of learning for the language learners.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The Learner-centred approach (LCA) allows learners to play a fuller, more active and participatory role in their own learning.	1	2	3	4	5
13. In the learner-centred approach (LCA) the teacher looks at how students learn, rather than at what there is to teach.	1	2	3	4	5
14. In the LCA learners get a hands-on practical experience of using the language for communicative purposes.	1	2	3	4	5
15. In the LCA, teacher always tries to elicit information, ideas, and answers from the students and does not consider them to be empty vessels waiting to be filled by the all-knowing teacher.	1	2	3	4	5

4.

Instrumental features of students' role in the learner-centred approach (LCA)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
16. The learner-centred approach (LCA) focuses on doing activities in the classroom relevant to the students' lives, needs and interests that make the learning more meaningful for them. These activities present the language 'alive' and relevant to the learners' real world.	1	2	3	4	5
17. The active nature of LCA helps students actually work with information and therefore lead them to learn and store knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The LCA involves learners in decision-making process and they learn by doing rather than just by listening and performing meaningless tasks which are often not in context and therefore 'unreal' to them.	1	2	3	4	5
19. The students taught in learner-centred classrooms retain more material for a longer period of time.	1	2	3	4	5
20. By its nature LCA is adaptable to meet the needs of every student.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much for your assistance. If you have any query about the survey, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher at fahmeedagulnaz@gmail.com

APPENDIX B. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SHEET

S/No	Classroom practices in teaching learning of English at college level in District Jazan, Saudi Arabia	Yes	No	Some degree
1	Teaching approach is teacher-centered.			
2	Teaching approach is learner-centered.			
3	Lecture method is common.			
4	Communicative method is in practice.			
5	Teacher is authoritative.			
6	Teacher is just facilitator.			
7	Use of whiteboard and then explaining the items.			
8	Teacher tries to elicit information from students.			
9	Students are passive recipients.			
10	Students are active participants.			
11	Teacher himself explains grammatical rules and vocabulary items without involving the learners.			
12	Students are given activities to use the grammatical items and appropriate vocabulary items.			
13	Learning by rote is encouraged by the teacher.			
14	Concepts are taught instead of cramming.			
15	Students simply reproduce the material.			
16	Students are creative in writing.			
17	Mechanical drills are in practice.			
18	Students learn by doing.			
19	All the students are coerced by the same rod.			
20	The teaching approach is eclectic, adaptable and flexible.			
21	Teacher regards students' opinion.			
22	Students exhibit sense of self respect and confidence.			
23	Students like to share with their English teacher in decision making.			
24	The overall teaching process is objective-oriented.			
25	Teacher's attitude is friendly or magisterial.			

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Aliens' Arrival and the End of the World — An Apocalyptic Reading of *Childhood's End*

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Abstract—Science fiction is a literary genre which provides the ground for scientific discoveries. One of the subgenres of science fiction is apocalyptic literature, which deals with the end of the world. Arthur C. Clarke is considered one of these apocalyptic writers whose *Childhood's End* indicates an alien invasion and the outcome of their interference with the affairs of human beings. This article intends to emphasize the apocalyptic elements within *Childhood's End* and, further, it will highlight how the writer uses this genre in order to deal with the delineation of religion and science, the mutation of children and the destruction of Earth.

Index Terms—apocalyptic literature, Aliens' invasion, Arthur C. Clarke, *Childhood's End*

I. INTRODUCTION

Science fiction is a fantastic genre that remains important today, one that makes claims for the plausibility of science. In fact, science fiction literature is work turned into fact, as some writers wrote about something imaginary in their novels and scientists later made the same thing which was once considered to be an imaginary object. One can consider Plato's *Republic* as the first utopian science-fiction literature book. Later, 1984, *Frankenstein* and *Brave New World* have been considered as science fiction; these depict government surveillance, uncontrolled technology and space weaponry. Displacement is one of the characteristics of science fiction and one can notice displacement in place, time and social conditions. Displacement offers the possibility of perspective, irony and the fantastic.

One of the subgenres of science fiction is apocalyptic literature. In 1822, the term “apocalypse”, as a new genre, was coined by a German scholar, K. I. Nitzsch. However, later on, “the first critic who attempted to identify its conventions was Friedrich Lücke, who published a study of apocalyptic literature in 1832. The attempt to identify the conventions of apocalypse continues until this day” (Linton, 2006, p. 33) and the word apocalypse means revelation; it refers to a religious background, however many novelists use this term these days to express causes which may lead to the end of the world. In Greek, apocalypse means “revelation”, but generally speaking it refers to the final book of the Bible, the Revelation of John. In literature,

[A] pocalypse is a genre of revelatory literature with a narrative framework, in which a revelation is mediated by an otherworldly being to a human recipient, disclosing a transcendent reality which is both temporal, insofar as it envisages eschatological salvation, and spatial insofar as it involves another, supernatural world. (Lewis, 2004, p. 17)

Based on apocalyptic novelists' imagination, the world is shown as ending with greenhouse effects, extra-terrestrial invasions, nuclear bombs and other technological progresses. Moreover, they focus on “the numerical models of climate change, and space guard program tracks, those asteroids in orbits that may possibly collide with earth” (Wells, 2009, p. 95). These apocalyptic novels deal with the ways people handle difficulties, face dangerous situations and are tormented as the result of a hard life. Critics “became sensitized to the apocalyptic elements in works not formally of type, but whose language, particularly imagery, touches on the themes of revelation, renovation and ending” (Childs and Fowler, 2005, p. 9). Apocalyptic texts indicate the miseries men go through by portraying sores, wounds and scars. One can notice that, in apocalyptic novels, every one of the characters can be a victim of the end of the world; therefore, both angelic and devilish characters are doomed to die; there is no difference between them. As such, apocalyptic novels reflect common suffering. According to Frank Kermode, “apocalypse depends on a concord of [an] imaginatively recorded past and [an] imaginatively predicted future, achieved on behalf of us, who remain in the middlest” (2000, p. 8). One should notice that, in apocalyptic literature, predictions of past events are narrated as prophecies. The narrator uses symbolic language in order to talk about different events implicitly. The purpose of apocalyptic texts is not to show the end of the world as such but to depict the destruction of the world and the birth of a new Jerusalem. As a result, apocalypse leads to a better future.

II. ANALYSIS

Arthur C. Clarke is the best science fiction and apocalyptic writer who foresaw *geostationary satellites* which help people to hear news from all over the world. Clarke has a scientific imagination; he writes something based on his

imagination, and later scientists invent the machine; and in his works he indicates the possibility of a settled utopia that humanity might attain. Clarke's *Childhood's End* is an apocalyptic novel in which aliens invade Earth. Human beings are going to destroy the earth in a nuclear war, but aliens interfere to prevent it and claim they have good cause. Even Stephen Hawking believes that "humankind will extinguish itself from the face of the planet through the misuse of the biological weapon" (Joseph, 2007, p. 3). In addition, one can consider the nuclear threat as the single greatest immediate peril that threatens mankind (Daley, 2010, p. 38). However, one notices that the aliens' interference and invasion lead to the disappearance of the human race and the emergence of a post-human body; the human race combines with these aliens and is transformed into senseless emotionless creatures. In Clarke's *Childhood's End*, overlords believe that the new Jerusalem will happen when the human race disappears from the face of the earth; however, they do not reveal their intention when they land on Earth. As such, this article intends to delve into the apocalyptic elements which are used in this novel to indicate man's disappearance from the earth. Before analyzing the story, a short summary of the plot can help the reader to perceive the main points of this paper.

Aliens land on Earth and they call themselves supervisors and overlords whose intention in landing is to avoid human extinction. They claim that they will not interfere in human affairs. One of the supervisors is Karellen, who is assigned to be the supervisor of Earth; he informs Stormgren, the UN secretary general, that he and other supervisors will reveal themselves to humans within 50 years. After 50 years, the overlords show themselves to humans and they are like the images of demons. These overlords are interested in psychic research. One of the families in whom the overlords are interested is the Greggsons, especially their children, Jeffrey and Jennifer Anne. Once, the overlords saved Jeffrey's life when a tsunami engulfed an island. Sixty years later, with the aliens' first arrival on Earth, Karellen reveals their purpose in landing on Earth which is to serve the overmind, the vast cosmic intelligence. The aim of the overlords is to merge humans and the overmind. Therefore, human children do not show any signs of humanity as a result of these supervisors' interference; human children communicate through telepathy and are turned into transhumans. As such, unlike the supervisors' first claim, the humans become extinct. Now that the reader knows a little about the story, an analysis is conducted in the rest of the paper.

As the novel opens, the end of the first chapter announces the aliens' arrival on Earth implicitly by stating that the "human race was no longer alone" (Clarke, 1987, p. 12). As the aliens arrive, they claim that their intention is to help humans have unity and befriend each other. They have realized that, through wars and enmity, "humanity will have lost its initiative and become a subject race" (Clarke, 1987, p. 17). The aliens call themselves overlords and they are worried about the end of the humanity, as people do not care about each other but focus only on their own welfare. One notices that by embracing the elements of science fiction, the apocalyptic narrative deals with visions of future events. Although it talks about the future, it focuses on some aspects of the present, "these fictions act as an ideological diagnosis for the present day" (Grossman, 2011, p. 11). In this novel, the narrator pays attention to atomic bombs and wars between countries which may lead to the disappearance of human beings from Earth. The aliens have complicated technology, as "there had been no warning when the great ships came pouring out of the unknown depth of space" (Clarke, 1987, p. 17). There was no warning as no one perceived their impending arrival. They came mysteriously. People never believed in *extra-terrestrial* beings, although they had seen movies about them. "Now it had dawned at last; the gleaming, silent shapes hanging over every land were the symbol of science man could not hope to match for centuries" (Clarke, 1987, p. 17). They have high-tech instruments with them and humans cannot compete with their technologies; even if centuries pass, humans cannot have the same instruments that these aliens use when they arrive on Earth. "Master psychologists were studying humanity's reactions" (Clarke, 1987, p. 17), through knowledge about men's reactions; these master psychologists can predict people's reactions to them and the way they can prevent any kind of clash between themselves and the people.

The aliens consider themselves as a guide to human beings. "And on the sixth day, Karellen, Supervisor for Earth, made himself known to the world in a broadcast that blanketed every radio frequency" (Clarke, 1987, p. 18). They believe that humans are destroying themselves and the earth; therefore, it is their duty to lead humans in the right path and they call themselves supervisors, which is a symbol of the knowledge they have. As a result, they are deemed appropriate to guide mankind. They even speak the English language very fluently in order to let all humans understand their words. It indicates how intelligent and informed they are about humans. "It was a work of superlative genius, showing a complete and absolute mastery of human affairs" (Clarke, 1987, p. 18). Humans' knowledge and reason are questioned here as aliens are portrayed as intelligent and geniuses. As a result of their intelligence, the aliens can control men. "There could be no doubt that its scholarship and virtuosity, its tantalizing glimpses of knowledge still untapped were deliberately designed to convince mankind that it was in the presence of overwhelming intellectual power" (Clarke, 1987, p. 18). The supervisors intend to persuade mankind that they are wiser than the human race; as a result, humans should be obedient and listen to them to have a better future: the utopia that these supervisors intend to provide for the future of human beings. "In fact, ['apocalypse' is] intended to interpret present, earthly circumstance in light of the supernatural world and of the future" (Webb, 1990, p. 125) and the presence of the overlords on Earth reflects how the future will be when the humans cannot trust their reason and their technology; therefore, they need to get help from outsiders.

Most of the people are convinced that these aliens have come for the sake of humans, in order to improve their future; therefore, they do not doubt the aliens' mission, in fact they needed help from otherworldly beings in order to feel

secure (Helm, 2009, p. 8). In this apocalyptic world, aliens arrive and intend to ameliorate humans' situation, and the authenticity of religion is questioned. "Science can destroy religion by ignoring it as well as by disproving its tenets" (Clarke, 1987, p. 22). The more science progresses, the more religion comes under question. As a result, men cannot rely on religion and its instructions to gain salvation or a have better future, they only can rely on these aliens who are more intelligent and have more advanced technologies. In order to achieve their goal of providing a better future for humans, the overlords' first mission is to unify different nations. If, in the past, rich and knowledgeable men were called as lords, these aliens are called overlords to indicate their upper hand and superior knowledge. As the overlords' weapons are more advanced than those of the humans, the latter prefer to befriend them rather than fight and have wars with each other. "The greatest single obstacle to the happiness of mankind had been removed" through the help of aliens (Clarke, 1987, p. 25). The obstacle was the weapons that different nations used against each other. In addition, the aliens asked for fair government in each nation; no matter who rules and what their policies, the government should be fair and without any oppression or corruption. By ordering all these things and trying to unify humans, they question humans' reason, as for all these years people could not manage to unify nations even though they had made so much progress.

Unlike human beings' idea that only Earth has inhabitants, the overlords inform them that, "your world is not the only planet we've supervised" (Clarke, 1987, p. 53). These overlords rule everywhere, and to men's surprise other creatures live on other planets. "There have been legends suggesting that Earth has been visited in the past by other races. I know, I've read the Historical Research Section's report. It makes Earth look like the crossroads of the Universe" (Clarke, 1987, p. 53). Different extraterrestrial creatures have visited Earth and it is not surprising that this time it is the overlords' turn. In order to control humans, the overlords not only adopt the English language but also studied everything related to human beings and the earth before their arrival, which helps them to control men more easily. With knowledge, they rule. The supervisors inform men that they never tried to befriend each other, rather they always sought enmity using different weapons which destroy not only humans but also the whole planet, and this will lead to the end of Earth in the near future; that is the main concern which leads aliens to visit Earth and arrange matters better.

As aforementioned, with the progress in science, religion is questioned; however, with the arrival of the overlords, humans are disheartened as they believe that there is no need to make any scientific progress given that the overlords know more than humans. Wojcik considers technological collapse to be one of the signs of apocalypse (1997, p. 99). Here the idea of science, as a way to live a better life, is rejected by humans. As a result, both religion and science have declined on Earth.

No Utopia can give satisfaction to everyone, all the time. As their material conditions improve, men raise their sights and become discontented with powers and possessions that once would have seemed beyond their wildest dreams. And even when the external world has granted all it can, there still remain the searchings of the mind and the longings of the heart. (Clarke, 1987, p. 90)

Even though humans have everything in their lives and live the dreamy life they once wished to have, they can never be satisfied as they are greedy to have more and more. Nothing can satisfy them, as wishing for more is part of human nature, which is the main reason why even the overlords' utopian world cannot satisfy men.

The overlords claim that they intend to save Earth and human beings by providing peace. People admit that "it is equally probable that we would have destroyed ourselves with cobalt bombs and the other global weapons the twentieth century was developing" (Clarke, 1987, p. 124). As a result, humans accept the overlords' dominance over them as they feel danger in their lives. "Probably the overlords have their reasons for keeping us in the nursery, and probably they are excellent reasons" (Clarke, 1987, p. 124). Humans doubt their own reason and intellect and believe that the overlords are more intelligent; therefore, they can decide more rationally. Besides, they think that they are not able to control their lives as they are not intelligent enough to improve their way of life.

Jan Rodricks intends to follow the overlords in order to perceive their true intention; therefore, he says goodbye to his family without being sure what will happen to them. This goodbye foreshadows the end of humanity. He says goodbye to all humans, as later on they will die.

The overlords assure the humans that they will be able to control the earth and the planet in the future. In fact, they question humans' reason when they handled everything, and so the humans can only follow their steps to have peace and an easy life. The overlords pretend that they are preparing the earth and humans for a forthcoming utopia, but "only Karellen knew with what inexorable swiftness the Golden Age was rushing to its close" (Clarke, 1987, p. 139). The overlords claim that the Golden Age will be achieved when men live in peace and pay attention to themselves and their planet; however, the overlords' real intention is to destroy human beings. One of the causes of the apocalypse in the future might be an "alien invasion" (Wells, 2009, p. 96).

Later on, the reader perceives how Jeffrey's life is saved by the overlords as a flood rushes toward him. "Someone told me to run" (Clarke, 1987, p. 157). He was informed by the overlords to run when he could not decide what to do himself. The overlords helped him to escape, "close your eyes, Jeffrey, and put your hand in front of your face. It seemed a funny thing to do, but I tried. And then there was a great flash – I could feel it all over – and when I opened my eyes the rock was gone" (Clarke, 1987, p. 158). They moved a rock and let him escape the dangerous situation. Later on, Jeffrey's parents perceive that they are watched by the overlords and they are not alone at home. They notice

that their son and daughter are not totally human, they have changed. The overlords change human children for the sake of their own plans. They are not normal children, they are mutants. The overlords accept that they brought "something new and wonderful into the world" (Clarke, 1987, p. 179). They intend to change the human race and they will take these mutant children with them, so they warn the parents "enjoy them while you may... they will not be yours for long" (Clarke, 1987, p. 180). They will separate these children from their parents for the sake of their experiment. Jeffrey's parents notice that their son has lost "his personality, dissolving hour by hour before their eyes" (Clarke, 1987, p. 183). There is an end to humanity, love and affection. These mutants are heartless and do not even care about their own parents, let alone other human beings. "The world was numbed... it was as though the planet was in mourning lament all that now could never be" (Clarke, 1987, p. 183). Everything is mechanical and the planet mourns for the loss of humans, emotions and sentiments. As humans have lost their faith in everything, they should cling to something which can explain all the events and phenomena that happen each moment and everywhere, and science is the thing to which humans cling. "Science, it was felt, could explain everything there were no forces which did not come within its scope, no events for which it could not ultimately account" (Clarke, 1987, p. 186).

Human beings are going to become extinct. "All the hopes and dreams of your race are ended now" (Clarke 188). It is the end of humans and humanity. Based on David J. Leigh, one should consider the tensions within apocalyptic texts. He claims that one can notice the tensions between past and present, the spiritual and the corporal world (Leigh, 2008, p. 1-2). Here, the reader notices how human beings were powerful in the past and but have lost their power in the present as they belittled their own abilities. Moreover, the reader perceives how humans trust the overlords and in return their existence will cease. Besides Leigh, John G. Gammie discusses the matter of tension in apocalyptic texts and adds to Leigh's opinions. He defines ten different types of tensions: cosmic dualism, temporal/ eschatological, ethical, psychological, spatial, theological, physical, metaphysical, sociological and cosmological/ ontological (Gammie, 1974, pp. 357-359). Of all these ten tensions, two of them, temporal and ethical, are applicable here. Within temporal tension, one perceives a difference between past and present time, as mentioned before; and within ethical tension, one recognizes the tension between good and evil forces. In the beginning, humans considered the overlords to be their friends who came to guide them and save them; however, they show their true face later on by changing human beings into transhumans. "Nor would George ever know if Jeff had turned towards them by pure chance – or if he knew, in those last moments while he was still their son, that they stood watching him as he passed into the land that they could never enter" (Clarke, 1987, p. 192). The overlords take the children and their parents cannot follow them. In this place, the overlords put children under observation. "Homo sapiens was extinct" (Clarke, 1987, p. 212). Humans were supposed to be intelligent, but they question their reason and permit the overlords to decide for them that they are extinct. The earth is destroyed by the overlords as without humans the earth does not have any meaning. "There was nothing left on Earth" (Clarke, 1987, p. 212).

III. CONCLUSION

Contrary to other apocalyptic novels which describe the end of the world with images of terror, frustration and dystopia, this novel portrays a highly developed and prosperous utopia which ends in a cataclysmic event. The overlords, rather than bringing battles and struggles to the world, make it a utopia for the human race, but actually their presence initiates the end of humanity. Not only mankind but the entire world is destroyed in drastic chaos. Through the aliens' presence, humans' intelligence is questioned; moreover, religion and science decline. Besides, the aliens turn human children into transhumans and later on they destroy the humans which leads to the destruction of the earth. One might notice that humans should use their reason to handle their life and no extraterrestrial can help them have peace and utopia.

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Diasporic Language and Identity in “Namesake”

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Abstract—The present paper attempts to indicate the way through which Lahiri investigates the issue of name and immigrant's identity and belongingness in *The Namesake*. In the ancient era an enormous number of Indians immigrated to Far East Asia to advertise Buddhism. But in the modern time the Indian Diaspora describes the people who emigrated from land of India. Nowadays, the condition is basically the story of success of the Indian Diasporas settled in America, U.K. and Europe. This study considers the term Diaspora: and its function and role in the contemporary world where the issues such as multiculturalism, identity and belongingness are observed among the Indian diasporas. The namesake by Jhumpa Lahiri have vividly depicted Gauguli family's immigrate to American. Alienation and self-identity are main lines to connect the whole story. The most significant and debatable elements that the Jhumpa Lahiri covers in this novel is to depict the issue of multiculturalism and its influence on the person's identity very beautifully and utterly. Therefore, the theme of alienation, of being a stranger in a foreign land, isolation from a group or an activity to which one should belong or in which one should be involved. Main character Ashima's feeling of isolated is prominent throughout the novel.

Index Terms—diaspora, identity, multiculturalism, alienation, immigrant

I. INTRODUCTION

As a cultural product, literature has been recognized as the source that awakes us about globalization and multiculturalism. Valuable literary works adorn realities and adds captivating pages to absorb readers' eyes as well as minds and makes them aware about the contemporary world and its issues. In this respect, Diasporic literature has been playing a significant role in depicting culture and history of nations and revealing reality about people on diaspora. According to Jasbir Jain (1998), "Language and cultures are transformed as they come into contact with other languages and cultures. Diasporic writing raises questions regarding the definitions of 'home' and 'nation'. Schizophrenia and/or nostalgia are often preoccupations of these writers as they seek to locate themselves in new cultures". Hence it is literature that represents the history in the context of present social structure.

Diasporic literature, within a post-colonial framework, considers issues like marginalization, cultural oppression, social inequality, racism and so on. Diasporic writing deals with swinging between the memory of homeland and the new land, the migrants are in a permanent mental and emotional battle between the myth and customs of the old world and; freedom and attractions of the new one. Migrants stay in a dilemma as to pursue their old traditions or break the obstacles and accept the new values and culture.

In Diaspora there is a longing for homeland to get back to “the lost origin” and “imaginary homelands” (Rushdie, 1991). People in Diaspora encounter cultural conflicts when they have to leave their cultural values and practice the new ones. Therefore, they feel distracted and lost, nostalgic and try to resist against the discourse of power. But, in the next generations these bewilderments, difficulties and desires become less severe as they are influenced by the culture of that land and also conform themselves to its values.

Although the next generations were born to immigrant parents, they enjoy their settlement in that land but “their sense of identity borne from living in a Diaspora community [is] influenced by the past migrant history of their parents or grandparents” (McLeod, 2000).

The term Diaspora was derived from Greek word *Diaspeirein* that means to spread or disperse. The ancient Greeks used *Diaspeirein* to point to people of a dominant position who immigrated to a new territory with the aim of colonization, to change the land into the empire. In the ancient era an enormous number of Indians immigrated to Far East Asia to advertise Buddhism. But in the modern time the Indian Diaspora describes the people who emigrated from land of India. Nowadays, the condition is basically the story of success of the Indian Diasporas settled in America, U.K. and Europe. With the growing of national economies Indians became a nation to flatten the world. In America, Indian Diasporas are more than 2.5 million. Most of them are well representatives of India in various aspects of life especially in academic fields, as Jhumpa Lahiri (born in 1967) is one of these elite.

Lahiri was born in London on July 11, 1967, the daughter of Indian immigrants from the state of West Bengal. Her family moved to the United States when she was three; Lahiri considers herself an American, stating, "I wasn't born here, but I might as well have been. Lahiri is recognized as an Indian-American author who won the Pulitzer Prize (2000) for *Interpreter of Maladies* (1999). Also, her first fiction *The Namesake* (2003) was considered as a main national best seller by the New York magazine book of the year. In her fiction, Lahiri often illustrates Indian immigrants who are suspended between the culture and tradition of their homeland and their new world.

Lahiri considers the human misery in her novels. She attempts to cope with psyche of her characters, to examine, psychologically the difficulties and obstacles of people especially those who were born in India but immigrated to America. So who are they, Indians or Americans? In fact, they navigate between two societies. Lahiri depicts these issues and confusion in her first novel, *The Namesake*.

II. METHODOLOGY

The Namesake is the story of two Indian generations and their confrontation with new culture and values in the west. In her autobiographical novel Lahiri narrates the story of Gogol Ganguli, the American-born son who along with his family moved into Massachusetts from Calcutta in 1960. In *The Namesake*, Gogol's parents Ashoke and Ashima are among the immigrants to America while Gogol belongs to the present success story of the Indian Diaspora in America.

The Namesake is a story of immigrants who feel homesick, wandering in an unknown island, far away from their homeland. The significant question for them is about their identity and their quest and desire for it. The story, which published in 2003 gained immediate fame and even a Hollywood film was produced based on it.

Before getting into deep analysis of the plot and to start a discussion on the theme of diasporic clash of identity in *The Namesake* it could be significant to refer to Lahiri's own statement. In an interview appeared by Houghton Mifflin Company, Lahiri states that the story is absolutely about those people "who are culturally displaced or those who grow up in two worlds simultaneously" Discussing about the difficulties and problem of people on immigration Jhumpa Lahiri remarks: "I think that for immigrants, the challenges of exile, the loneliness, the constant sense of alienation, the knowledge of and longing for a lost world, are more explicit and distressing than for their children".

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The fiction certainly has an autobiographical root as Lahiri's personal experience as a child of an immigrant family is similar to that of Gogol, the heroine, in *The Namesake*. In the same interview she declares: "I wanted to please my parents and meet their expectations. I also wanted to meet the expectations of my American peers, and the expectations I put on myself to fit into American society. It is a classic case of divided identity."

Like Gogol's story, the name of her pet unintentionally becomes her nickname. Also, Jhumpa has two other names on her passport. However, when she registered in school the teachers called her Jhumpa that is easier to pronounce. In the same interview, talking on the diasporic issue of hybrid identity Lahiri states: "The original spark of the book was the fact that a friend of my cousin in India had a pet name Gogol. I wanted to write about a pet name/ good name distinction for a long time. It is almost too perfect a metaphor for the experience of growing up as the child of immigrants, having a divided identity, divided loyalties etc."

Our names obviously refer to our identities. In a discussion with Mira Nair, director of Hollywood film on Lahiri's novel, she says, "The names we have, there is so much about them: who are we and they are the one world that exists that represents us. And yet we don't choose them. These are from our parents." Concerning the motif of immigration, cultural conflict and significance of names Lahiri shows her concern over the issue of immigration.

The present paper attempts to show the way through which Lahiri investigates the issue of name and immigrant's identity and belongingness in *The Namesake*. This study considers the term Diaspora: and its function and role in the contemporary world where the issues such as multiculturalism, identity and belongingness are observed among the Indian diasporas.

The present paper attempts to show the way through which Lahiri investigates the issue of name and immigrant's identity and belongingness in *The Namesake*. This study considers the term Diaspora: and its function and role in the contemporary world where the issues such as multiculturalism, identity and belongingness are observed among the Indian diasporas.

Names we are given by our parents help shape our identity and sense of belonging. The whole novel is about Gogol's name and how his identity is shaped based on the name he was given as a child. Many critics have pointed out the importance of names in the shaping of our identity.

"For ancient peoples, all proper nouns were originally meaningful. The name showed a road and could thus have a bearing on the child's fate. Hence, the care dedicated to its choice is understandable. There was nothing childish or absurd about this as long as the name held a meaning inherent to it, since each person's name was associated with his future and could influence his fate.... The name serves not only to identify an individual, it also confers existence. This is doubtless one of the most important functions of bearing a name: it opens up to life. (Lahiri, 2003, p. 22)

In this novel, Lahiri depicts the issue of multiculturalism and its influence on the person's identity very beautifully. According to Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2010) "Multiculturalism is a body of thought in political

philosophy about the proper way to respond to cultural and religious diversity. Mere toleration of group differences is said to fall short of treating members of minority groups as equal citizens; recognition and positive accommodation of group differences are required through “group-differentiated rights,” a term coined by Will Kymlicka (1995). Some group-differentiated rights are held by individual members of minority groups, as in the case of individuals who are granted exemptions from generally applicable laws in virtue of their religious beliefs or individuals who seek language accommodations in schools or in voting. Other group-differentiated rights are held by the group qua group rather by its members severally; such rights are properly called group rights, as in the case of indigenous groups and minority nations, who claim the right of self-determination. In the latter respect, multiculturalism is closely allied with nationalism. While multiculturalism has been used as an umbrella term to characterize the moral and political claims of a wide range of disadvantaged groups, including African Americans, women, gays and lesbians, and the disabled, most theorists of multiculturalism tend to focus their arguments on immigrants who are ethnic and religious minorities (e.g. Latinos in the U.S., Muslims in Western Europe), minority nations (e.g. Catalans, Basque, Welsh, Québécois), and indigenous peoples (e.g. Native peoples in North America, Maori in New Zealand).”

Based on the above mentioned description of multiculturalism, Gogol cannot shape his identity because of his name and also because of the fact that he is kind of torn apart between the two cultures. The culture with which he is raised as a child at home and the very different one that surrounds him outside home leave his mind in a state of confusion. All families from all around the world practice a set of rituals which is specific to their cultural background. These rituals are also an important factor in the shaping of a person's identity. The importance of the rituals has also been noted in several books.

“Every family has rituals. Rituals are the habitual ways we do both the everyday and the special tasks of life. Doing things the same way communicates to family members that they belong. Small children, in particular, love rituals; rituals provide security and a sense of meaning and purpose that may be hard to communicate in any other way. Rituals can be as simple as the time supper (which) is eaten each evening, distribution of the morning paper by sections to family members to read over breakfast, or how children and adults prepare for the night's sleep.” (Lahiri, 2003, p. 209)

Gogol's parents try very hard to cling to the traditions of India in which the first 20 years of their lives passed because for them India is home. When Gogol meets Maxine and starts living with her family, he longs for the life they have. Maxine's parents are in love and do not practice the rituals Gogol had to practice as a child although he did not like them. Maxine's mother is never worried about the dirty dishes left in the sink before going to sleep, they drink wine every night and Gerald and Lydia watch movies together whereas Gogol's parents had never been so close in this way. At some point in the book when he is asked to see his father off for a small journey he is about to make, he questions the rituals.

“Why do I have to see him off?” He knows that for his parents, the act of travel is never regarded casually, that even the most ordinary of journeys is seen off and greeted at either end.”(Lahiri, 2003, p. 144)

Lahiri does not allow Gogol's character to shape fully. It seems that he never makes the right decision. He doesn't like his name as a child and shapes a new identity when he changes his name but is not fully satisfied with it. Then he falls in love with Maxine who is the complete opposite of her parents. Gogol marries an Indian girl, Moushumi because she is also torn apart between the two cultures and he can win his mother's approval for the marriage but finally he has to divorce the girl. Gogole changes his name to Nikhil before going to college and with the new identity he is able to do the things he feared doing before like dating girls. His new identity is shaped with the single act of changing his given name. He can now more easily blend into the lives and culture of the people around him.

“Persons have changed their family names, or immigration officials have perfunctorily changed them, to bring about better “blending in” to a culture which saw itself as a “melting pot” for diverse ethnic identities.” (Lahiri, 2003, p. 208)

Both the nature of what we take to be a self and its expression are inherently cultural (Lahiri, 2003, p. 419)

For Gogol's sister, Sonia everything is different. She has successfully come to terms with the American culture. Being born after Gogol, her parents did not face any of the difficulties they had when Gogol was born. They chose her name before she was born because now they knew once they utter a name to the people at the hospital; their child will be called by that name.

“The right good book is always a book of travel; it is about a life's journey.” said by H.M. Tolinson. The namesake by Jhumpa Lahiri have vividly depicted Gauguli family's immigrate to American. Alienation and self-identity is a main line to connect the whole story.

The theme of alienation means a stranger in a foreign land, isolation from a group or an activity to which one should belong or in which one should be involved. According to Merriam Webster Dictionary” in the social sciences context, the state of feeling estranged or separated from one's milieu, work, products of work, or self. The concept appears implicitly or explicitly in the works of Émile Durkheim, Ferdinand Tönnies, Max Weber, and Georg Simmel but is most famously associated with Karl Marx, who spoke of workers being alienated from their work and its products under capitalism. In other contexts the term alienation, like anomie, can suggest a sense of powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, social isolation, or cultural- or self-estrangement brought on by the lack of fit between individual needs or expectations and the social order.”Main character Ashima's feeling of isolated is prominent throughout the novel. However there are two generations different alienation in the novel, first generation-Ashoke and Ashima and second generation their children Gogol and Sonia. They have shared different idea of alienation. It depicts the different

attitudes, outlooks and way of living of two generations in dealing with the problems in a foreign country. They face different problems as the meaning of culture differs for both the generations – the first generation being directly related to his/her homeland and second generation forming an image of culture based on the information transmitted by the first generation. But for the second generation Diaspora, Gogol and Sonia, identity problems are rather different, for they have a sense of pride and affinity with India, but it is America that is perceived as ‘home’.

“On more than one occasion he has come home from the university to find her morose, in bed, rereading her parent’s letters.” (Lahiri, 2003, p. 36)

Ashima’s homesickness is a major source of unhappiness. Beside cooking and cleaning and take care to their children, she has nothing to do at home, she has no friends. And she doesn’t even wants rise her baby at the country. She feels the distant and doesn’t fit in American.

Ashama was suffering the isolated from the first day of her journey to American, until the end after her husband’s death. She decided to go back to her own country and live there for 6 mouths per year and stay in America with her children for another six month.

“She feels overwhelmed by the thought of the moving she is about to make, to the city that was once home and is now its own way foreign. She feels both impatience and difference for all the days she still must live, for something tell her she will not go quickly as her husband did. For thirty-three years she missed her life in India. Now she will miss her job at the library.” (Lahiri, 2003, p. 278)

From the last chapter of the book shows that she was taking a shower before the party, suddenly she feels lonely, horribly, permanently alone. By this she realize she is neither belong to the country she has left for 30 years nor the country she has spent 30 years with her husband, at the end, she knows actually she is belong to nowhere. She just exhausted and overwhelmed with her husband. She lost her job also lost all the time she spends in America. She feels isolated by both countries; she couldn’t get will with Indian or American. She comes to America for her husband, but now, her husband died; she couldn’t find more reason to stay in the country she never likes before. Instead of saying that she never likes the country is better to say she never feels America to be her home. A place that she feels kind of sense of security. “True to the meaning of her name, she is without border, without a home of her own, a resident everywhere and nowhere” (Lahiri, 2003, p. 264)

Not only Ashima but Gogol also feels alienated, he feels alienated from several ways. In his marriage with Moushumi, when they go to Paris together, he wishes it were her first time there, so they can feel the same feeling and share the same experience. He didn’t feel nice when he knows that his wife feels so obviously comfortable in Paris. at the other hand, from beginning he try to away from his parents and the Bengali culture until the end he return back to Ashima, he has spent a lot time to find out who really he wants to be.

“The namesake” also focuses on the issue of the self-identity “the name” as the way to discover Gogol’s true self. Erik Erikson (1959) defines identity as a signature mark and asserts “the self is the individual” as known to the individual in a socially determined frame of reference. Where is he come from and where does he really belong. Name defines who you are and who you will be, most of the name not only a name, it was a good wish from parents. However Gogol as the main characters his name is a Russia writer’s name. As Gogol grow up, he discover that his name meant nothing. He feels unhappy and disappointed. Until the end, he knows that he is his father life’s continuing. He presents his family and Bengali culture.

“Go on. Gogol, take something,” Dilip Nandi says, drawing the plate close, Gogol frown, and his lower lip trembles. Only then, forced at six months to confront his destiny, does he begin to cry.” (Lahiri, 2003, p. 40)

When Gogol six months. Gogol is already refusing to participate in fractional Indian rituals. He doesn’t know what is happening and he was not willing to do anything asked by his parents and Bengali friends, although he has no idea what is happening around him, hence he knows there is something that’s he doesn’t like. He use cry to express his feeling inside. Later when he grows up, he discovers that his name is not from Indian nor American name, he couldn’t find the meaning of his name. Then he decide change his name to Nikhil. Changing his name is also a way shield himself from his own culture, family and past.

“Without people in the world to call him Gogol, no matter how long he himself lives, Gogol Gauguli will, once and for all, vanish from the lips of loved ones, and so, cease to exist, yet the thought of the eventual demise provides no sense of victory, no victory, no solace, it provides no solace at all” (Lahiri, 2003, p. 287)

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

From trying to find a new identity to develop a high-esteem to his father’s death, Gogol has through the long way from unhappy with the name to accept the name. He realizes changing a name doesn’t mean he can really away from his past and culture. Nobody really care what his name is. All the time only his family members will be around and call him “Gogol” He was struggling between two countries, trying to stay away from his own culture only because he want be involved by American culture. Hence, later on he found out that people without culture and special name is rootless. “He leans back against the headboard, adjusting a pillow behind his back. In a few minutes he will go downstairs, join the part, his family. But ...For now, he starts to read. (Lahiri, 2003, p. 291) he went back to his family as a adult man, he find his root is no matter he is Indian or American by the name Gogol also understand his parents more than he used

to be. He finally learned to find his own identity is not abandon or attempt either culture, but to mix the two cultures together.

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The Strengths and Weaknesses of Iranian IELTS Candidates in Academic Writing Task 2

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Abstract—This study investigated the strengths and weaknesses of Iranian IELTS candidates in IELTS writing (task 2). This paper used the analytical scoring technique based on the IELTS band descriptor of writing task 2 (public version) 50 writing samples (25 males and 25 females) obtained from four Mock-IELTS tests, taken by IELTS candidates, were used and evaluated by two raters. In order to find the contribution of each component to the total score variance, a multi regression analysis was run. The results showed that Task Response accounted for the largest amount of variance in the total scores (0.429), with Lexical Resource, Grammar Range & Accuracy, and Cohesion & Coherence accounting for 0.345, 0.226, and 0.194, respectively, meaning TR was the strongest point and CC the weakest. Descriptive analysis was run to find the highest scores achieved in each component, which was 5.0 in Task Response, 6.0 in Cohesion & Coherence, 6.0 in Lexical Resource, and 6.0 in Grammar Range & Accuracy. The strengths and weaknesses of candidates in Cohesion & Coherence, Lexical resource, and Grammar Range & Accuracy were investigated using a coding system. First, more than half of the cohesive devices used were accurate. Second, misspelling had the highest frequencies. Last, punctuation was the most counted error. Since CC is the weakest point of Iranian candidates in writing task 2, teachers are advised to address both Cohesion & Coherence and Task Response together since these two criteria are closely related. In terms of Lexical Resource, it is recommended that students be led into programs where they can improve their spelling, as it was the most problematic in the area of LR

Index Terms—task response, cohesion & coherence, lexical resource, grammar range & accuracy

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the official website of IELTS, IELTS is one of the International English Language Testing System, which tests English proficiency across the world. Administering 1.4 million tests all around the world, IELTS has today become the world's most popular English testing system.

IELTS is structurally available in two modules: Academic and General Training. Each is designed to meet particular purposes that candidates have in mind. The IELTS Academic module is designed to evaluate the capability of candidates who needs a communication aspect of language. That is, IELTS, on an international scale, assesses the language proficiency of those who intend to pursue educational purposes in English speaking environments. The IELTS General module intended to fulfill the expectation of candidates who intended to immigrate to English-Speaking countries. These expectations can be undertake work experience or training programs. This module, in other words, is designed for candidates who have vocational intentions in English speaking countries.

IELTS includes tests of all four language skills: Listening, Reading, Writing, and Speaking. The total test length is 2 hours and 44 minutes, made up of listening (30 minutes), Reading (1 hour), Writing (1 hour) and Speaking (11–14 minutes). The Speaking test is administered face-to-face with a trained examiner.

IELTS tests are held in over 500 centers. IELTS removes any diversity and discrimination to everyone who sits the test, regardless of their nationality. IELTS has a trustable quality and high security due to three reputable organizations which are *British Council*, *IDP: IELTS Australia* and *the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (Cambridge ESOL)*. Due to the high quality and controlled security procedure, lots of governments and universities rely on it.

Purpose of the Study

The reason IELTS writing module is chosen as the focus of this research is many-fold. In the first place, the writing subtest of IELTS seems to be Achilles' heels to every candidate due to many reasons, and many lose scores in writing and consequently gain a low overall band score. It seems necessary that candidates' performance be scrutinized based on IELTS marking system and under simulated IELTS examination conditions in order to have a better understanding of the blocking problems causing the yield of low scores. These problems appear to be in direct relation with the conditions under which the test is taken and the writing grading system of IELTS. The public version of this marking scheme is under study in this paper. By applying the standards, pre-designed by IELTS officials, in this band descriptor, found in the appendix, the major issues of Iranian IELTS candidates in writing task 2 are expected to be elicited.

Research questions

Based on the objectives, this study seeks to answer the subsequent questions:

- 1- What is the relative weight for the variance of each component that contributes to the overall writing proficiency scores of Iranian students?
- 2- What is the percentage of successful addressing of the task based on IELTS band descriptor?
- 3- What is the percentage of effective use of cohesion based on IELTS band descriptor?
- 4- What is the percentage of effective use of lexical items based on IELTS band descriptor?
- 5- What is the percentage of the accurate and inaccurate use of the four forms of sentences: simple, compound, complex, and compound complex?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 50 candidates (25 male and 25 female) of an IELTS House in the south of Iran. They were selected based on convenience or opportunity sampling procedures. This is because a similar sampling close to that of a real IELTS test is the underlying intention of the researcher.

These candidates were all Persian speakers, prepared to take part in a real IELTS test in the future.

Instrumentation

As cited in ielts.org (IELTS | Researchers - Band descriptors, reporting and interpretation, 2012) examiners award a band score for each of four criterion areas: Task Achievement (for Task 1), Task Response (for Task 2), Coherence & Cohesion, Lexical Resource & Grammatical Range and Accuracy. The four criteria are equally weighted on the scale of 1 to 9. The modified analytical style of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) writing scales were used (Shaw, 2002). Thus, the accessibility of more comprehensive descriptions of written language ability at each band level appears highly advantageous. Some key features such as the qualities of learners' performance, the accuracy of their performance during the task, and distinguishing all the band levels considered as important elements in assessing process.

Understanding the essential qualities at any different level, will help one to comprehend the L2 writing task better (Weigle, 2002; Hawkey and Barker, 2004). Also knowing the linguistic descriptions were turn out to be one of the effective feature of writing task which discriminate one level of performance from the other one. Such an account would also allow test-makers to make descriptors more detailed. This would be well received by IELTS raters" (Shaw, 2004).

Data Collection Procedure

The focus of the present study was the IELTS Academic Writing subtest. In this module, in a real IELTS Test, candidates were given two writing tasks, the second of which was under study in this paper. In Writing Task 2, candidates were given a topic such as the ones below to write about:

WRITING TASK 2

You should spend about 40 minutes on this task.

Write about the following topic:

Children who are brought up in families that do not have large amounts of money are better prepared to deal with the problems of adult life than children brought up by wealthy parents.

To what extent do you agree or disagree with this opinion?

Give reasons for your answer and include any relevant examples from your own knowledge or experience.

Write at least 250 words.

WRITING TASK 2

You should spend about 40 minutes on this task.

Write about the following topic:

Some people believe that international tourism has brought enormous benefit to many places. On the other hand, there is concern about its impact on local inhabitants and the environment.

Discuss both views and give your opinion.

Write at least 250 words.

40 minutes were given to the candidates. They were asked to write at least 250 words. Candidates should write well-organized, relevant, and to the point. They can support their ideas by giving examples or evidence.

In this task, candidates confront two types of tasks: a discussion and an argument task. Candidates are required to write an argument essay on the latter using their own opinions and use their own experiences to support the main topic. In the former type, a discussion essay needs to be written where each of the two given views are discussed without the interference of the candidate's personal views. In the conclusion, the writer will comment which view is acceptable to him or her. The writer can reasonably accept either ones, both, or none of the views provided the choice be supported.

Candidates receive scores on a Band Scale from 1 to 9. A profile score is reported for each skill. The four individual scores belonging to each language skill are averaged and rounded to produce an Overall Band Score.

In IELTS, each task is assessed independently. Detailed performance descriptors have been developed which describe written performance at the nine IELTS bands. Public versions of these descriptors are available on the IELTS website (www.ielts.org). The descriptors are based on the following criteria (for task 2 only):

- Task Response (TR)
- Coherence & Cohesion (CC)
- Lexical Resource (LR)
- Grammatical Range & Accuracy (GRA)

Procedure

In this study, the candidates were IELTS intending trainees who attended Mock-IELTS. Mock-IELTS (MI) is normally held twice a semester in the alleged institute (every forty-five days), and all IELTS students will have to sit for this test to see the result of five weeks of preparation for the real test. None of the candidates knew their work was going to be analyzed as this information could jeopardize the integrity of this study. Only when the MI was over, everyone was informed of the process to which every individual consented.

On all four MIs, similar procedures as in a real IELTS test were applied. In the same manner, all ID cards were checked. Cell-phones and extra belongings were collected. In the exam area, Farsi was not allowed. Introductory speech on the dos and don'ts of the test was given by the researcher. The test began at a certain time starting with listening, and then reading. Finally, with writing, the same amounts of introductory guideline as in IELTS were given. Note that the researcher had sat for the test of IELTS three times, achieving band 8 in all three tries. First the answer sheets, and then the questions' booklets were handed out. The booklets had the same cover as in a real IELTS test. The answer sheets were also the original answer sheet of IELTS writing adopted from IELTS Official Materials (2009). Having finished the tests, all the papers were collected and all the parts of the test except for writing task 2 were excluded.

Data analysis

The data collected from the scorings and analyses above were transferred to IBM SPSS statistics 19 for statistical computations and analysis. The significance level was set at 0.05. The following analyses, afterwards, respectively were done.

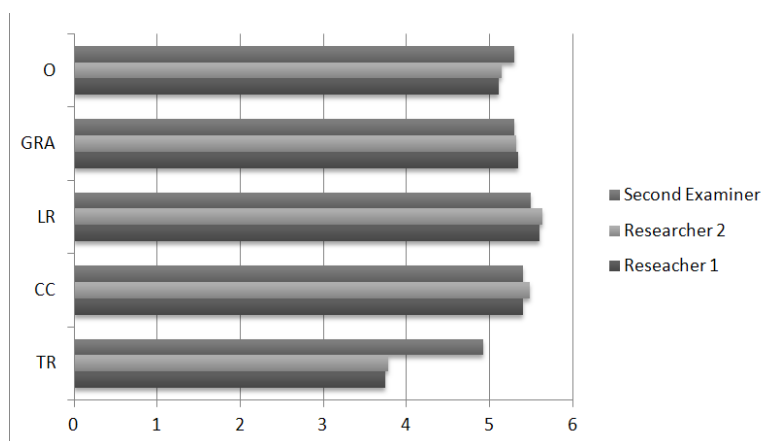
- 1) Because the researcher scored the papers twice with ten days interval, intra-rater reliability needed to be estimated by calculating a correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores (Brown, 2005).
- 2) Inter-rater reliability between the final set of scores of the researcher calculated above and the set of scores presented by the second rater was calculated in the same manner followed in step 1.
- 3) A linear regression analysis via SPSS was calculated to estimate the relative weight for the variance of each component (criterion) that contributes to the overall writing proficiency scores of Iranian students.
- 4) Independent samples *t*-test in SPSS was applied to see if there was a relationship between age, education, and language competence of candidates and the overall score they have achieved.
- 5) The coded errors were compared in terms of their frequencies to show the sources of strengths and weaknesses that Iranian IELTS candidates have.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the researcher covered all the calculations and estimations leading to the relative significance for each of the variance of each criterion (out of the four criteria of IELTS in assessing written performances) contributing to the overall writing proficiency scores of Iranian IELTS candidates are presented. Then the evaluating compositions (task 2) are statistically demonstrated and the effect of gender, educational background, age and language competence of the participants on the outcome of their written performances were measured.

The relative weight for the variance of each criterion contributing to the overall writing proficiency scores

In the first place, the descriptive characteristics were calculated and the results are summarized in Graph 1 illustrates the three ratings of the 50 essays in the present study. By looking at the bar charts, it is easily seen that both examiners had similar ratings except for TR where the researcher's colleague seems to have a dissimilar view towards the organization of an essay.



Graph 1: Comparisons of the three scorings

Intra-rater reliability

The results of intra-rater reliability are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
INTRA-RATER RELIABILITY

	Criteria	Pearson Correlation	Spearman-Brown Prophecy
1	TR	0.900	0.95
2	CC	0.708	0.83
3	LR	0.888	0.94
4	GRA	0.683	0.81
5	Overall	0.862	0.93

According to Cohen (1988) correlation scores between the scales of 0.1 up to 0.29 are considered as small correlations, between the scales of 0.30 up to 0.49 are medium correlations, and correlation scores between the scales of 0.50 to 1 are large correlations that show high inter-relations. This table indicates that the intra-rater reliability between the two scorings of the researcher is high because it falls in Cohen’s third category. The results of Inter-rater reliability also showed with the highest amount for LR (0.80) and the lowest for GRA (0.64).

In order to determine the amount of variance that is contributed by each composition component to the total scores a multiple linear regression analysis was run. The purpose was to determine how productive or significant each component was and how much variance was accounted for by each component. In this way, the weakest and strongest areas of candidates’ performance were identified.

Plotting the data of the dependent variable against each independent variable was run to find the linear relationship between the dependable and independable variables. (Norusis, 1988). The results show that the relationships between the dependent variable (total scores) and the independent variables (components) were all reasonably linear. Having run the regression analysis by SPSS, the following results were obtained.

TABLE2:
MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.975 ^a	.951	.946	.1491

In Table 2, it is clear that the coefficient of multiple determination is 0.951; therefore, about 95% of the variation in the final scores is explained by the four criterion. The regression equation appears to be very useful for making predictions since the value of R² is close to 0.1.

TABLE 3:
ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.305	4	4.826	217.205	.000 ^a
	Residual	1.000	45	.022		
	Total	20.305	49			

Table3, reveals that at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance, it is clear that at least one of the predictors is useful for predicting the overall scores; therefore the model is useful.

TABLE 4:
COEFFICIENTS

Model		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations	
		Beta			Zero-order	Partial
1	(Constant)		0.39	.699		
	TR	0.429	10.70	.00	0.78	0.84
	CC	0.194	3.84	.00	0.80	0.49
	LR	0.345	6.79	.00	0.84	0.71
	GRA	0.226	4.68	.00	0.74	0.57

Table 4 shows that At $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance, there exists enough evidence to conclude that the slopes of LR, CC, LR, and GRA variables are not zero and, hence, the scorings are useful predictors of overall scores.

Based on what is shown is Table 4, the first essential question of this study is answered. As it can be seen TR ($\beta=0.429$) is the strongest predictor of the total score, meaning Iranian IELTS candidates’ strongest point in their written performance in the test of IELTS is Task Response, which is the ability to develop a position to a given prompt in the form of a question or statement. On the other hand, Cohesion & Coherence criterion ($\beta=0.194$), the overall clarity and fluency of the message, is the weakest area in Iranians’ writing productions. That is Iranians do not seem to be able to present the message of their statements clearly and fluently. This part of the analysis is completely in line with the researcher’s expectations.

Finally, the second and the third strong points in a descending order are LR ($\beta=0.345$) and GRA ($\beta=0.226$).

To recap, TR, LR, GRA, and CC, respectively and in a descending order, cover the range of writing skills demonstrated in task 2 of IELTS by IELTS intending Iranian candidates.

TABLE 5:
COEFFICIENTS

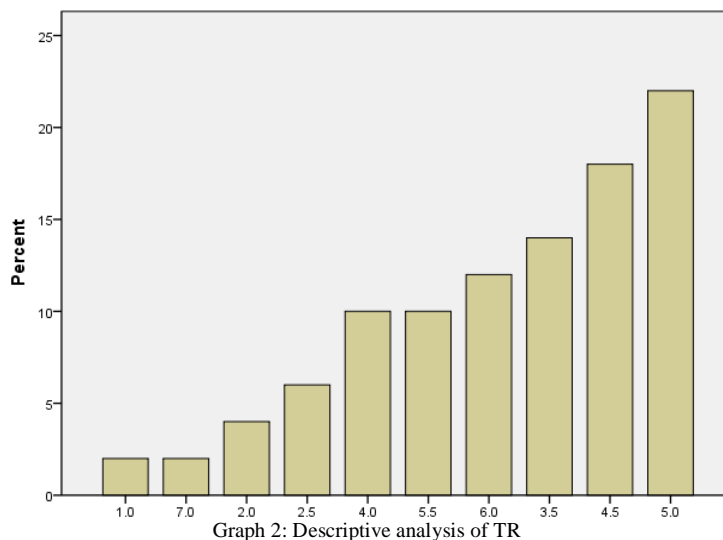
Model		Correlations	Co linearity Statistics	
		Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)			
	TR	0.354	0.681	1.469
	CC	0.127	0.431	2.319
	LR	0.225	0.425	2.355
	GRA	0.155	0.472	2.117

Table 5 demonstrates that since none of the predictor variables has a variance inflation factor (VIF) greater than ten, there are no obvious multi-collinearity problems; in other words, there is no variable in the model that is measuring the same relationship as is measured by another variable or group of variables.

To answer the second question that this study is concerned with, the data in the following table (6) and graph (2) are presented.

TABLE 6:
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF TR

N	Valid	50
	Missing	0
Mean		4.46
Std. Error of Mean		.171
Mode		5.0
Std. Deviation		1.21
Variance		1.47
Range		6.0
Minimum		1.0
Maximum		7.0
Sum		223.



As it can be seen in Table 18, the minimum and maximum scores are achieved by only 3% of the participants as shown in Graph 2. This means that only one participant's performance was completely unrelated and one participant's response addressed all parts of the task, and presented a clear position throughout the essay.

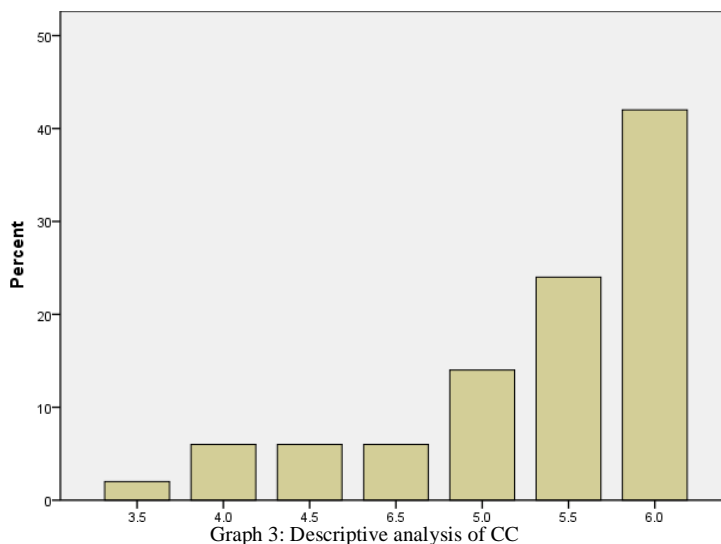
Band 6 is the range, which comprises only about 12% of participants who addressed all parts of the task although some parts may be more fully covered than others. Band 5.5 is achieved by 10%. However, over 22% of participants achieved band 5, the most frequently achieved band. These participants generally addressed the task only partially and expressed a position but the development was not always clear. Bands 4 and 4.5 are achieved by approximately 10% and 14%, respectively. These candidates responded to the task only in a minimal way, and their position was not clear. Bands 2 and 2.5 belong to an average of 5% of participants who barely responded to the task and expressed no position

Effective use of CC

In terms of CC, the third question, the following tables and graphs were developed.

TABLE 7:
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF CC

N	Valid	50
	Missing	0
Mean		5.510
Std. Error of Mean		.0984
Mode		6.0
Std. Deviation		.6961
Variance		.485
Range		3.0
Minimum		3.5
Maximum		6.5



The minimum and maximum band-scores (Table 7) in this criterion are 3.5 and 6.5, given to only an average of 4% of candidates as Graph 3 reveals. The highest score achieved is 6, which means around 40% of candidates arranged information and ideas coherently, and there is clear overall progression in their performance. Approximately, 15% to 25% of participants achieved bands 5 and 5.5. They presented information with some organization, but there may be a lack of overall progression in their compositions. Band-scores 4 and 4.5 are obtained by only about 5% of examinees. These candidates presented information and ideas not coherently and there is no clear progression in their work.

TABLE 8:
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ERRORS IN CC

		CC10 NEG	CC10 POSI	CC10 TOTAL	CC20 NEG	CC20 POSI	CC20 TOTAL
N	Valid	50	50	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.44	11.66	16.10	4.38	9.32	13.70
Std. Error of Mean		.610	.773	.871	.379	.482	.604
Mode		2	10	12 ^a	4	11	15 ^a
Std. Deviation		4.315	5.465	6.162	2.679	3.407	4.273
Variance		18.619	29.862	37.969	7.179	11.610	18.255
Range		23	23	23	10	18	21
Minimum		0	1	6	0	1	4
Maximum		23	24	29	10	19	25
Sum		222	583	805	219	466	685

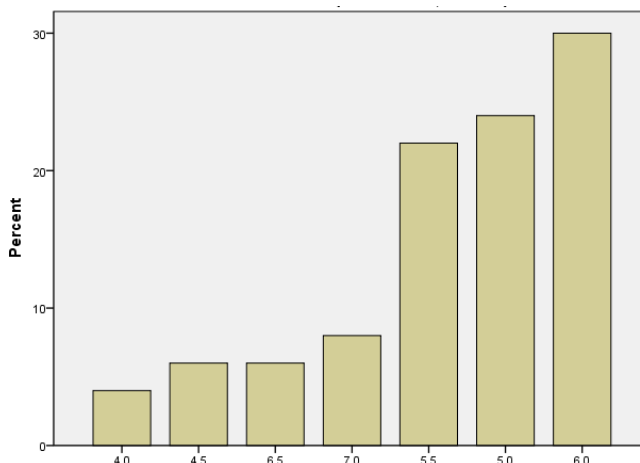
Table 8 shows out of 805 referential cohesive devices used in all papers, 222 of them were incorrect and 583 of them were correct. Moreover, in each composition an average of 4.44 incorrect and 11.66 correct referential devices (out of an average 16.10) was found.

All in all, 685 connective cohesive devices were used in all 50 papers. 466 correct instances of the correct use of these words were recorded, which left only 219 incorrect use all together. Out of 13.70 connective cohesive devices in each paper, an average of 4.38 incorrect and 9.32 correct items were spotted. In conclusion, candidates were more accurate in terms of CC than inaccurate. The analysis in this section is visually summarized in Graph 7.

Effective use of LR

TABLE 9:
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF LR

N	Valid	50
	Missing	0
Mean		5.590
Std. Error of Mean		.1027
Mode		6.0
Std. Deviation		.7263
Variance		.527
Range		3.0
Minimum		4.0
Maximum		7.0



Graph 4: Descriptive analysis of LR

Looking at the LR in Table 8, it is easily visible that minimum and maximum band-scores are 4.0 and 7.0, achieved by an average of only 5% of candidates, based on Graph 4.8. Band scores 6.0 (the highest score achieved) and 6.5 are obtained by 5% to 30% of candidates. These participants used an adequate range of vocabulary for the task and attempted less common lexical items with some inaccuracies. Bands 5.0 and 5.5 are given to an average of 21% because they used a limited range of vocabulary, which was minimally adequate for the task.

TABLE 9.1.
DESCRIPTIVE SCRUTINY OF DIFFERENT AREAS IN LR

		LR NEG01	LR POSI01	LR02	LR03	LR NEG05	LR POSI05
N	Valid	50	50	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.02	0.00	7.42	1.38	0.68	0.38
Std. Error of Mean		0.238	0.000	0.818	0.249	0.129	.099
Median		2.00	0.00	6.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
Mode		0 ^a	0	3	0	0	0
Std. Deviation		1.684	0.000	5.782	1.760	0.913	0.697
Variance		2.836	0.000	33.43	3.098	0.834	0.485
Range		6	0	23	7	3	2
Minimum		0	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum		6	0	23	7	3	2
Sum		101	0	371	69	34	19

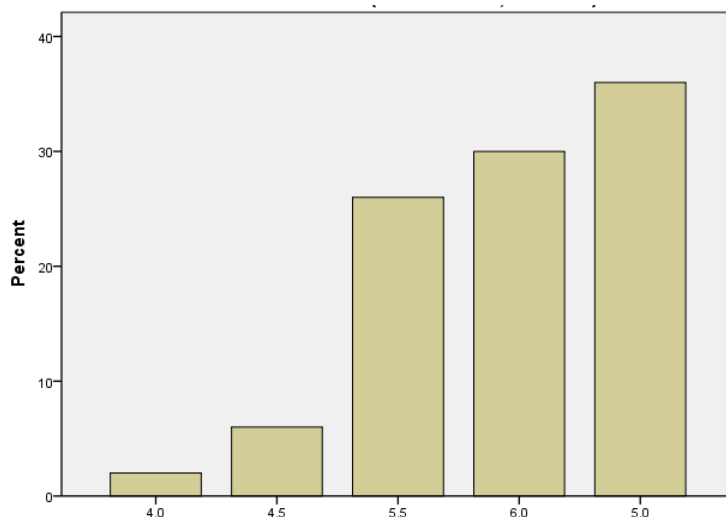
TABLE 9.2.
DESCRIPTIVE SCRUTINY OF DIFFERENT AREAS IN LR

		LR06	LR07	LR08
N	Valid	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		5.40	2.44	1.54
Std. Error of Mean		0.590	0.323	0.268
Median		4.00	2.00	1.00
Mode		1	0	0
Std. Deviation		4.170	2.287	1.897
Variance		17.38	5.231	3.600
Range		20	8	7
Minimum		0	0	0
Maximum		20	8	7
sum		270	122	77

According to Tables 9.1 and 9.2, the most serious error committed is spelling; each composition contains an average of 7.42 misspellings, and all together, 371 misspellings were counted. The next large mean belongs to uncommon lexical items with an average of 5.40 in each writing. A sum of 270 new vocabularies were used by candidates. In addition, an average of 2.44 wrong words was detected in performances, and 2.02 incorrect word formations in average exist in essays. The statistics belonging to the rest of inaccuracies and accuracies were not as significant. Range and accuracy of grammar

TABLE 10.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF GRA

N	Valid	50
	Missing	0
Mean		5.380
Std. Error of Mean		.0722
Mode		5.0
Std. Deviation		.5107
Variance		.261
Range		2.0
Minimum		4.0
Maximum		6.0



Graph 4. Descriptive analysis of GRA

As can be seen in Table 10, the minimum and maximum band-scores of GRA are 4.0 and 6.0. Less than 2% and more than 5%, according to Graph 4, achieved 4.0 and 4.5, meaning that they used only a limited range of structures with only rare use of subordinate clauses. Band 6.0 belongs to nearly 30% of participants who used a mix of simple and complex sentence forms. Band 5 and 5.5 were given to around 60% of candidates because they used only a limited range of structures and attempted complex sentences but those tended to be less accurate than simple ones. This includes well above half of the candidates in this study.

What follows next is the detailed scrutiny of the performances of GRA summarized in the following tables.

TABLE 11.1.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ACCURACIES AND INACCURACIES IN GRA

		GRA 001NEG	GRA 001POSI	GRA001 T	GRA 002NEG
N	Valid	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.68	3.16	4.84	0.78
Std. Error of Mean		0.264	0.320	0.362	0.125
Median		1.00	3.00	5.50	1.00
Mode		0	2	6 ^a	0
Std. Deviation		1.867	2.262	2.558	0.887
Variance		3.487	5.117	6.545	0.787
Range		7	8	11	3
Minimum		0	0	0	0
Maximum		7	8	11	3
Sum		84	158	242	39

TABLE 11.2.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ACCURACIES AND INACCURACIES IN GRA

		GRA 002POSI	GRA002 T	GRA 003NEG	GRA 003POSI
N	Valid	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		0.62	1.40	2.90	2.60
Std. Error of Mean		0.137	0.176	0.265	0.291
Median		0.00	1.00	3.00	2.00
Mode		0	1	2 ^a	2
Std. Deviation		0.967	1.245	1.876	2.060
Variance		0.934	1.551	3.520	4.245
Range		4	5	9	10
Minimum		0	0	0	0
Maximum		4	5	9	10
Sum		31	70	145	130

TABLE 11.3.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ACCURACIES AND INACCURACIES IN GRA

		GRA 003T	GRA 004NEG	GRA 004POSI	GRA 004T	GRA 005
N	Valid	50	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		5.48	0.66	0.50	1.16	9.52
Std. Error of Mean		0.313	0.127	0.115	0.157	0.817
Median		5.50	.00	.00	1.00	8.50
Mode		6	0	0	0	5
Std. Deviation		2.215	0.895	0.814	1.113	5.779
Variance		4.908	0.800	0.663	1.239	33.38
Range		10	4	3	4	22
Minimum		1	0	0	0	1
Maximum		11	4	3	4	23
Sum		274	33	25	58	476

TABLE 11.4.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ACCURACIES AND INACCURACIES

		GRA 006	GRA 007	GRA 008	GRA 009	GRAPL	GRASIG
N	Valid	50	50	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		0.96	1.84	0.62	0.32	3.92	0.16
Std. Error of Mean		0.298	0.251	0.166	0.088	0.567	0.072
Median		0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	2.00	0.00
Mode		0	1	0	0	0 ^a	0
Std. Deviation		2.109	1.777	1.176	0.621	4.009	0.510
Variance		4.447	3.158	1.383	0.385	16.07	0.260
Range		12	7	6	2	16	3
Minimum		0	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum		12	7	6	2	16	3
Sum		48	92	31	16	196	8

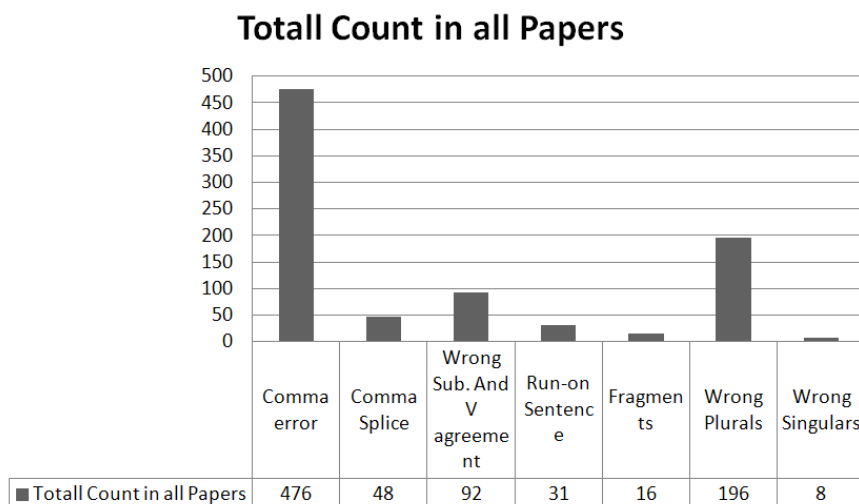
Based on Table 11.1, 242 simple sentences were used in all 50 essays. Out of these, 158 sentences (an average of 3.16 in each paper) were accurate and only 84 ones (an average of 1.68 in each) were inaccurate. Compound sentences, according to Tables 11.1 and 11.2 were 70, out of which 39 were inaccurately used and 31 accurately. Candidates used complex sentences the highest: 274 instances (Tables 11.2 and 11.3). Out of these, an average of 2.90 were used inaccurately in each paper (145 inaccurate all together) and an average of 2.60 (130 in total) accurately. Compound-complex sentences were used the lowest: only 58 times, most of which (33) were used incorrectly.

Comma splice, run-on sentences, and fragments are errors commonly found in candidates' writings. In the first one, two sentences are joined with just a comma. Among these compositions 48 instances were found according to Table 11.4. The second error (connecting two sentences using no punctuation) had a lower figure: 33 times. Fragments or sentence-like phrases had the lowest figure, which were only 16 cases.

In terms of punctuation, as shown in Table 11.3., 476 instances of inaccurate use of comma were detected, which accounts for an average of 9.52 in each paper. This area seems to be highly problematic to participants.

Lastly, as shown in 11.4, the error related to subject-verb agreement was seen 92 times in all papers. This equals an average of 1.84 in each paper. Singular words that had to be plural, as seen in 11.4, had a high figure: 196 cases, an equal of 3.92 in each written performance

In Graph 5, the summary of all counted errors in GRA is presented for a better understanding of the statistics in this section.



Graph 5. Summary of counted errors in GRA

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

As it was clear the weight of each IELTS writing component (TR, CC, LR, and GRA) on the final score (Overall) was measured, and it was concluded that what Iranian IELTS candidates show more dexterity towards, is the use of Task Response. TR is the ability to formulate and develop a position in relation to a given prompt in the form of a question or statement. The weakest point for this group was Cohesion & Coherence. As it was seen, Iranian IELTS candidates may not be able to create an essay in which the ideas are connected coherently and cohesively. They seem to have difficulty writing a composition, which shows a clear progression throughout. LR and GRA are the next criteria affecting the overall score, respectively.

Then the successful addressing of the task (TR) was analyzed. The minimum score was one and maximum 7. The most achieved band was band-score 5.

the effective use of Cohesion & Coherence was analyzed. The minimum score was 3.5 and the maximum 6.5. The highest band obtained was 6.

the skillfulness of candidates in using lexical items was scrutinized. The minimum score in LR was 4, and max 7. The highest band achieved was 6.

GRA was put to scrutiny. The lowest score was 4.0 and the highest 6.0. The highest score in GRA was 5.

Based on the result of the present study, unlike what was expected by the researcher, Iranian IELTS candidates appear to be more skillful at putting together a position and addressing all parts of the given task (TR).

Following this strong point, LR and GRA are deemed the decisive factors in determining one's total score in IELTS writing (task 2), respectively. Finally, creating a cohesive and coherent paper in which ideas are well connected is not easy for Iranians (CC), and appears to be, based on the calculations in this study, the weakest area in writing subtest of IETS for Iranian IELTS candidates.

Implications of the study

The implications of this study are many-fold. First of all, in preparing students for the test of IELTS, particularly for writing task 2, the common practice for teachers is that they have students write an essay, and then they red-pen the whole essay, commenting on grammatical errors. However, what is recommended based on the findings in this study is that grammar range & accuracy is related to candidates' prior implicit and explicit knowledge of grammar that cannot be effectively improved in such short courses like IELTS preparation classes. Instead, teachers are advised to raise students' consciousness towards the four main sentence structures: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. Teachers should also raise candidates' awareness towards the three main errors in writing, namely run-on, comma splice, and fragments. Note that raising candidates' awareness in short courses like IELTS, based on this study, might be more effective rather than taking measures to teach students such things.

TR and CC should be addressed together since IELTS intending students deem to feel difficulty with CC as it was the weakest point in this paper. Having learnt to take a stand and formulate a clear position that includes all aspects and parts of the task (TR), students should learn to organize their supporting ideas logically so that their essays display a natural progression throughout the composition (CC). Focusing on CC will help students to learn the four major cohesive devices: Conjunctive adverbs (e.g. however), coordinating conjunctions (e.g. and), relative pronouns (e.g. who) and subordinate conjunctions (e.g. as soon as). It also inculcates with them the importance of referencing (e.g. use of pronouns) more effectively. Teachers should also clarify that over or under-use of these devices may result in loss of scores. This can be done by showing candidates concrete examples.

LR in this study was plagued with misspellings. Teachers should guide students to take recommended exercises to improve their spelling. Candidates should also be discouraged to use any “big” words that they randomly learn, as they may appear inappropriate or wrong.

The implications of this study concerns material-developers as well. Books compiled or written about writing task 2 should familiarize students with all four criteria that compositions are measured against. Clear examples should be provided to illuminate ways that help candidates raise their score. Every sample printed in such books should come with an analysis of the content of the essay in relation to the four criteria. In this way, candidates’ consciousness raises effectively, and at the time of writing candidates will probably act wisely in writing the response to the task.

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Revisiting Word Exposure Frequency and Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition*

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Abstract—Incidental vocabulary acquisition (IVA) has long been an important, yet controversial topic in second language acquisition. Word exposure frequency is one of the key factors that influence IVA. Various studies have been conducted to explore exposure frequency in relation to IVA, and have not yet reached an agreement on the effect and the optimal exposure frequency. The exploration of the existing studies reveals the reasons for the conflicting results, which include insufficient reading amount, simplification of test content and lack of consideration of learners' lexical competence. To clear up the blurred picture and better understand the nature of word exposure frequency effect, future researches can be carried out in terms of research areas and methods. In terms of research areas, studies can be designed to test different aspects of word knowledge, distinguish the effect of global word frequency and local word frequency, and investigate such mediating effects as perceptual salience, and skill levels. Methodologically, the test format needs to be diversified to avoid pure multiple choice tests. In addition, more post-tests can be conducted, and qualitative and longitudinal studies should be employed as complementary to the popular quantitative ones.

Index Terms—word exposure frequency, incidental vocabulary acquisition, reading

I. INTRODUCTION

Incidental vocabulary acquisition (IVA) is believed to occur mostly through reading, especially extensive reading, as extensive reading provides readers with precious opportunities to encounter and process unfamiliar words in natural contexts. Word exposure frequency is one of the key factors that influence IVA. Various studies have been conducted to explore exposure frequency in relation to IVA, and have not reached a consensus on the effect and the optimal exposure frequency. IVA through extensive reading is generally regarded as a good way to enlarge language learners' vocabulary size, but it is also argued that word knowledge gains from IVA as a result of multiple encounter with words can be inconsequential enough to overlook, as evidenced by some existing studies. IVA is an important, yet controversial topic worth exploring and cannot be easily discarded without thorough investigation. To understand the effect of word exposure on IVA through extensive reading and learn about its optimal frequency, one should acknowledge the complexity of the learning process of IVA, and give serious consideration to such sophisticated aspects involving in IVA as word knowledge, word gains, the amount of input (i.e., the amount of reading materials learners are exposed to) and time over which learners are reading. This article is intended to explore the concept and the features of IVA, evaluate the existing studies to explain the reasons for the conflicting results and discuss the research areas and methods worth exploring in future studies.

II. UNDERSTANDING IVA

The concept of incidental vocabulary acquisition, first proposed by Nagy, Herman and Anderson in 1985, refers to "learning of vocabulary as the by-product of activity not explicitly geared to vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 2001, p.264)." It is a type of learning with no intent to learn vocabulary when the learner's primary objective is to comprehend or communicate, rather than to learn the unknown word itself. As a concept put forward as opposed to intentional vocabulary acquisition, "incidental" in incidental vocabulary acquisition signifies the involuntary nature of "picking up" new words or word knowledge while trying to make sense of the text and/or to complete other required tasks.

Related to the concept of IVA is intentional vocabulary learning, which refers to the learning of vocabulary by deliberately committing lexical information to memory. In intentional vocabulary learning, learners focus their attention on words in various exercises and activities. Such exercises and activities include learning words with annotations or vocabulary cards, playing word games, etc. Intentional learning, when learners have an evident intention of learning and retaining lexical information, often activates conscious processing of words, which is often realized through the use of techniques like rehearsal and memorizing techniques (Nation, 2004).

The essential distinction between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning in terms of psychological processing lies in the learner's initial "intention" or "consciousness." In contrast to intentional word learning as a lexicon-oriented learning with a direct and explicit focus on words and expressions, IVA is a meaning-oriented learning outcome, mainly

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resulted from extensive reading (Stanovich, 1986; Krashen, 1989; Nagy et al., 1987). Memorization of a new word, in this sense, comes as a natural result of this process. IVA is closely related to the textual context whose richness of information can lead to successful inference of word meaning and acquisition of different aspects of word knowledge (e.g., word form, word meaning, word class, etc.). One obvious advantage of IVA through extensive reading is that a large amount of reading significantly increases learners' encounter with unknown words, and provide more word learning opportunities for inferencing.

III. IVA AND WORD EXPOSURE FREQUENCY: A CONTROVERSIAL ISSUE

Exposure frequency influences word gains in two ways: one is by increasing the possibility of a word to be noticed and processed by the reader, and the other is by strengthening the association between lexical stimuli (target words) and mental responses (cognitive processing). A word of high frequency in the text, therefore, is likely to receive more attention from readers, as a frequent occurrence of a word demonstrates itself the importance in text comprehension. As a result, words exposed repeatedly in a text tend to evoke more cognitive processing and are easier to be stored, activated and retrieved later on. Word exposure frequency, among all the factors that influence IVA through reading, is the best studied. Though IVA and word exposure frequency are arguably correlated, researchers have not reached a consensus on 1) how effectively word exposure frequency can enhance IVA, and 2) how many times of exposure are needed for successful IVA through reading to occur.

Various studies have been conducted to explore the effect of word exposure frequency on IVA, and all agree that one exposure of an unknown word in a text can hardly lead to vocabulary acquisition. The acquisition percentage of the words occurring only once in a text is around 0.05% (Nagy et al., 1987). To achieve successful word acquisition, learners must be exposed to an unknown word repeatedly in a various natural contexts.

L2 vocabulary is believed to be acquired mostly through incidental language-learning activities, especially through extensive reading. Nagy et al. (1987) believes that "incidental learning of words during reading may be the easiest and single most powerful means of promoting large-scale vocabulary growth" (p. 249). Krashen (1989) even claims that students will learn all the words they need from context by reading extensively. One important reason for this claim is that IVA is closely related to the textual context whose richness of information may lead to successful inference of word meaning and acquisition of other aspects of word knowledge. While reading materials, learners learn the meanings and connotations of new words, and, with considerable accumulative amount of reading, how to use the words in certain contexts, even though their original purpose for reading is not to learn words.

Incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading is believed to be a gradual process in which gains are made in small increments with repeated encounters. Waring and Takaki (2003) proved the possibility of IVA through reading, and showed higher acquisition and retention rates among words of frequent occurrence. The authors suggested that there was a 50% chance of correctly identifying word form in the post-test three months later if learners met the word eight times or more. Tekmen and Daloglu (2006) examined the predicting power of word frequency in a text over word learning. Three groups of Turkish learners of English participated in the reading of an authentic text (*The Golden Fleece*) with about 2,400 words and four lexical tests administered over a two-week period. The results indicated that frequency was a fairly strong predictor of IVA, with 29% of the variance accounted for by exposure frequency.

Some other researchers, however, are far less optimistic, as their studies produce less positive results. Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) asked 34 intermediate L2 learners to read a simplified *Mayor of Casterbridge* (109 pages) over a ten-day period, and found that the general acquisition rate was 20% for all subjects. Similarly, Jenkins et al. (1984) found in their study that only about 25% of the learners acquiring a word after 10 times of exposure. Wu and Xu (2006) conducted a research specifically on the effect of word frequency on vocabulary acquisition and gained similar results. Fifty five Chinese non-English majors in college participated in the reading of an English story containing 3,332 words, after which a multiple-choice test and a blank-filling test on target-word knowledge were administered. The results showed that the general acquisition rate was about 20% in the two tests, and that readers might incidentally acquire a word through reading when it occurred 14-17 times in the text. Zhang and Qi (2009) combined qualitative and quantitative research methods and investigated whether seven weeks of extensive reading improved four participants' two aspects of word knowledge: spelling and meaning. The study yielded detailed, yet discouraging results: extensive reading could facilitate IVA with an average acquisition rate of 21.6% for spelling and 15.5% for meaning. Exposure frequency affected word gains to a great extent, with a significant difference between words appearing 1-3 times (16.7% in the texts and those appearing 4-5 times (26.3%). Words that were exposed 10-19 times demonstrated the highest acquisition rate (29.3%); however, the words appearing 20 or more times resulted in fewer gains (18.4%).

The other controversial issue concerning IVA is the threshold value of word exposure frequency if the frequency indeed exerts positive effect on vocabulary acquisition.

A study conducted by Saragi et al. (1978) found out that the subjects learned most of the words that were presented to them six times or more, but words that were exposed fewer than six times were learned only by half of the subjects. Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) explored IVA in relation to word frequency and learner vocabulary size. The results of their study showed that words which occurred over 8 times in text were more likely to be acquired than words that were exposed less. Wu and Xu found that readers incidentally acquired a word through reading when it occurred 14-17 times in the text.

Instead of viewing word gains as a whole, some researches investigate the effect of word exposure frequency on different aspects of word knowledge. The results indicate that the influence of exposure frequency varies across knowledge types. Orthographic knowledge benefits greatly from three times of exposure but not from an additional four and for semantic knowledge, most gains occur between three and seven times (Chen & Truscott, 2010). Waring and Takaki (2003), however, discovered that the learners needed to encounter a word at least eight times before they could recognize its form, and in an unprompted meaning test, learners were confronted with great difficulty while identifying the meaning even though the word was exposed over 18 times.

IV. MEDIATING FACTORS: UNDERSTANDING THE CONTROVERSY

The existing researches have provided abundant evidence as to whether and how extensive reading helps improve students' vocabulary learning. Concerning the effect, more and more researches support the positive effect of word exposure frequency over IVA, though some remain suspicious of the inconsequential exposure effect. The more thorny and complex issue is exactly how many times learners need to encounter a new word before they can acquire it. The factors that affect the outcomes of IVA through reading are multitudinous, including vocabulary size, and text and word characteristics (Swanborn & De Glopper, 1999). With multiple factors, together with word exposure frequency, co-functioning in IVA, the lack of control of certain variables and/or insufficient consideration of certain mediating factors in the previous studies explains the reasons why the researches fail to reach a consensus on the effect of the word exposure and times of exposure.

First of all, the generally poor results of IVA concerning word exposure effect may be due to subjects' insufficient reading amount. Vocabulary cannot be fully acquired without sufficient amount of input and learners' conscious processing of morphological and semantic information of a word. Not all the new words learners encounter can get into their lexicon. Only those words they consider important in or relevant to text comprehension are processed with the help of linguistic, interlinguistic and extralinguistic information. During the process of extensive reading, the reader's attention is focused primarily on text comprehension, not on the form or meaning of particular words. When encountering an unfamiliar word, the reader will consciously or subconsciously evaluate how central the word is in the immediate context. The unfamiliar word would be perceived as unknown and then processed usually when it causes comprehension breakdown. Once there is a need to understand an unknown word in order to comprehend a text or fulfill certain reading purposes, the reader will direct his/her attention to the word. The stronger the need is, the more likely a word is to be noticed and the deeper it is to be processed. It is observed, however, that most of the reading materials used in previous studies contained only a few thousand words and the so-called extensive reading in experiments lasted for several weeks at most. The unknown words might not have enough exposure frequency or input data for readers to notice and process, thus possibly impairing the effect of repeated exposure.

Second, the intricacies of the target words are not well controlled or explicitly indicated. Words are of different nature in learning difficulty and characteristics, and cannot be treated as equal in studies. Laufer (1997) points out that some words are easier to learn and others are more difficult. But many existing researches neglect this difference, testing words as a whole and failing to indicate the difficulty level of target words. It is highly possible that words were tested in different studies are on different difficulty levels, thus yielding contradicting results. Also overlooked are intralexical characteristics of a word like word class, context richness, grammatical function, etc. All this co-functions to affect learners' word acquisition, but in most, if not all, studies, researchers considered the number of occurrences of target words alone.

In addition, test items are often limited to word form/meaning recognition, which falsely equated gains in word form/meaning with word acquisition. Lexical knowledge is far from an all-or-nothing phenomenon, but involves various aspects of knowledge. Nation (2001) proposed a word knowledge classification, listing the aspects of both receptive and productive word knowledge, including form (sound, spelling, and word structure), meaning (associations, referents, and the concept expressed), and use (the patterns a word appears in, its collocations, and constraints on its use). More aspects of word knowledge need to be measured in separate tests. What makes tests even questionable is the fact that in most studies, only multiple-choice tests are employed, which is by no means sufficient enough to measure subtle improvements on word understanding and partial word gains.

Finally, learners' lexical competence often keeps unknown, which might result in the inaccurate measurement of word exposure effect on IVA. To make adequate word gains through reading, the reader must know 90 to 95% of the words in a given text. Learners' prior word knowledge relates not only to learners' minimum vocabulary size, but to the comprehensibility of a given text. Correct inference of word meanings is conditional upon accurate recognition of surrounding words in the context. If it is not carefully controlled, learners' language proficiency can be an influential intervening factor in the measurement of exposure frequency effect, which would make it difficult to justifiably claim the presence or absence of word exposure frequency effect. Studies should either control or measure the effect of language proficiency, and ignoring it is the last option to choose.

V. EXPLORING IVA IN FUTURE STUDIES: POSSIBLE AREAS AND METHODS

The abundant research results, though sometimes conflicting, have laid solid ground and provided valuable

implications for further studies in the field of IVA through reading. Future studies are needed to probe deeper into the issue and they can be carried out in terms of two aspects: research areas and methods.

A. *In Terms of Areas*

Future studies can measure more aspects of word knowledge, in addition to the well-studied aspects: word form and meaning. Among the aspects of word knowledge proposed by Nation (2001), apart from sound, which is hardly possible to pick up accurately through reading, the acquisition of all the other aspects can be achieved and measured in one way or another. The majority of the existing studies, if not all, probe into the receptive word knowledge and leave the productive one untouched. Though it usually takes more time to learn the effect of incidental acquisition of productive word knowledge through reading, this is not entirely impossible and is well worth investigating. In addition, more studies can be conducted to find out the effect of word exposure frequency on word class acquisition. Content words and function words carry different weight for the necessary understanding of a sentence, and learners acquire them at different paces. The same is true with different kinds of content words. Nouns, for instance, are believed to be better acquired than verbs. But this claim awaits more empirical evidence to verify. Besides, little is known about word gains of adjectives and adverbs. In this sense, more empirical studies are needed to test the findings of the existing studies, and to explore and compare word gains of other different word classes. Due to different cognitive involvement loads, learning gains may not be consistent across aspects of word knowledge. The larger gains would be most probably on word form recognition and word class, which is less cognitively demanding than the other aspects, as our processing of information moves from a sensory level of analysis, through pattern recognition, syntactic realization, to semantic enrichment. The memorization of the formal aspects, e.g., word spelling and part of speech, stays on the initial level of registering the visual images of words and the environment where they occur, which are easier to be triggered by the sight of the words. By contrast, word meaning acquisition could be the hardest of all, because reading words alone might not provide sufficient associations or information needed for meaning acquisition.

Word knowledge includes not only receptive one, but productive one as well. Nearly all the existing studies focus on the former, and neglect the latter. One generally needs less information about a word to recognize it than it does to generate it. Measurements for productive competence, such as translation tests and sentence-making tasks, can be used to gain a whole picture of how well learners retain and use words, and to compare between receptive and productive word knowledge in terms of the effect that exposure frequency has on word gains and retention.

In addition, future researches can identify three types of word frequency (i.e., general word frequency, global word frequency, and local word frequency) and investigate and compare the effects of these three. General word frequency refers to the frequency of a word that occurs in English in general, global word frequency is the total amount of a word that appears in the whole text, and local word frequency is the number of occurrences of a word within a clustered area. Words of high frequency in general do not necessarily guarantee word gains. It is learners' encounter frequency with words that counts. Words of high frequency in English are likely to be poorly acquired if their local word frequency (three times on average) is low. In the same line, words with low general frequency but high local frequency could be better acquired than words with high general frequency but low local frequency. Based on these findings, studies can go further and dig deeper to find out how frequently target words should be globally and locally arranged in a text in order to maximize the learning effect.

While frequent encounter with a word in different contexts certainly enhances the chance of picking up correct word forms, making close judgments on word classes, and inferring word meaning, exposure frequency alone might not ensure higher acquisition rates of unknown words. The chance of a word to be processed and remembered largely depends on the possibility of it being noticed. Word exposure frequency is only one of the significant determinants of noticeability identified by Schmidt (1990). The other determinants related to IVA are perceptual salience and skill levels. These two, together with word exposure frequency, all exert influence over how effectively learners can incidentally acquire words new to them. Therefore, apart from the direct correlation between word exposure frequency and IVA, equally worth investigating are the mediating effects of the two above-mentioned factors and how they co-function with word exposure frequency.

Word salience is crucial for readers to notice and then process a word new to them. Noticing is more of personal choice, which depends on the learner's assessment of target words' importance in the context. Words that are selectively attended to and carefully processed have a bigger chance to stay in the long term memory. Context is paramount in the process of integrating word knowledge into learners' lexical system. The context where an unknown word appears must provide adequate information for the reader to guess its meaning in the absence of word lists, dictionaries or any other external assistance. If the word is only peripherally significant in understanding the text, the reader is most likely to ignore the word. In Paribakht and Wesche's research (1999), learners skipped approximately half the words they identify as unknown in text reading. The more important a word is considered and the deeper it is processed by the reader, the more successful the IVA of the word is likely to occur. The knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment has to be triggered in the exact same or at least a highly familiar context. Learners' inference is key to IVA, which asks for both learners' ability and context richness to ensure IVA. Learners make reasonable guesses on the meaning of an unknown word with all available linguistic cues from the context in combination with the learner's inter- and extra-linguistic knowledge. It is, therefore, essential to understand in what context new words can be more salient to learners and learners are more likely to focus on word processing.

In any empirical study, there exist different independent variables. The effect of one factor on the dependent variable can be difficult to measure when intervening variables function simultaneously. There is no exception for the study of IVA. The factors that influence IVA, other than word exposure frequency, include learners' prior knowledge of the words, lexical competence, word inference difficulty, etc. Researchers, therefore, need to well control all the other factors to minimize their mediating effect on the target factor. Besides, learner's deliberate or accidental encounter of the target words could also be an intervening factor. To preclude post-experiment encounters, pseudo-words can be designed in studies. To achieve best resemblance to natural words, pseudo-words should be carefully designed and go through a pilot study to avoid any morphological confusions to the subjects.

B. In Terms of Methods

Methodologically speaking, the study of IVA should include different types of test. When there are multiple choice tests only, as in many existing studies, test takers can make a wild guess and have an at least 25% chance of success. Such random guessing can be prevented by one-on-one questioning and answering or learners' self-assessment of their word learning. Researchers need to gain more specific and detailed data concerning how well learners can truly learn the words new to them. In addition, two measurements at different sensitivities (recall and recognition) can be employed to assess word meaning gains. In this way, a more accurate assessment of the degrees of IVA and partial word gains can be achieved and the effects of frequency on different aspects of word knowledge can be investigated respectively. The accuracy rate of word recognition is argued to be considerably higher than that of word recall, but more studies are needed to verify the claim.

Besides, both quantitative and qualitative analyses can be adopted. The statistics generated from quantitative analyses help find out the general patterns of the effect of word exposure frequency, and qualitative data yield more detailed and specific information. Previous studies, mainly based on collected quantitative data, have yielded some insightful results, but it is observed that some hold conflicting views, and some give presumptive reasons accounting for phenomena or patterns emerging from the quantitative analyses. There is no easy way to truly understand in what way and to what extent learners process and acquire word knowledge, unless researchers can find some hard evidence. Qualitative analyses can be used as a complement to quantitative ones. Interviews with subjects, for example, can provide more thorough and subtle analyses of the IVA progress and minor gains that may not be captured by vocabulary tests.

Longitudinal studies (i.e., arranging more exposure time for learners to read) can also be conducted to test the effect of word frequency. The existing studies usually test the effect after several hours' reading, seven weeks at most. Recalling any word learning experiences through reading, we find that the amount of time which extensive reading invests is crucial for word gains and for the development of many other language-related skills as well. No one can considerably expand his/her vocabulary size overnight. It usually takes months, even years to notice visible progress. The lack of sufficient reading time might be the reason why some studies argue the effect of word exposure frequency on IVA is so trivial and insignificant that it can be neglected. A longitudinal study of one year or more will probably reveal some insightful findings that have had been veiled.

Last but not least, the delayed posttest can be designed in a more refined way to test the retention of more aspects of word knowledge over different periods of time. The existing studies usually examine the retention of word meaning only. Since different types of word knowledge require different encoding processes and may be retained for different periods of time, future studies can measure the retention of various aspects of word knowledge and probe into the effect of exposure frequency on IVA with respect to each aspect.

VI. CONCLUSION

IVA has long been a controversial, yet important topic in second language acquisition. Researchers have not come to the agreements as to the significance of word exposure frequency effects on IVA and the threshold value of exposure frequency that predicts substantial word gains. Various careful studies have been conducted to probe into these issues and presented important, insightful findings. Yet, a comprehensive review of these studies reveals such problems as the short time span of the experiments, the simplification of test content and the casual choice of subjects. All this may well explain the inconsistency in the findings.

To clear up the blurred picture and better understand the nature of word exposure frequency effect, future researches can be carried out in two main aspects: research areas and methods. In terms of research areas, studies can be designed to test different aspects of word knowledge, distinguish the effect of global word frequency and local word frequency, and investigate such mediating effects as perceptual salience, and skill levels. Methodologically, the test format needs to be diversified to avoid pure multiple choice tests, more post-tests can be conducted, and qualitative and longitudinal studies should be employed as complementary to the popular quantitative ones.

Vocabulary acquisition is believed to be one of the fundamental aspects in developing language proficiency. Though this view is widely shared, many language learners find enlarging vocabulary size rather demanding and cannot be easily accomplished. Few learners, especially advanced learners, intentionally memorize new word lists, as they view this as an unproductive, time-consuming task. Practical experience and previous studies have proved the feasibility of learning new words through reading. Teachers and learners both have learned extensive reading can be an effective, though probably time-consuming way to considerably enlarge their vocabulary size and acquire word knowledge. The

existing studies provide solid evidence and insightful findings concerning the effect of word exposure frequency on IVA. Answers have been found to questions like to what extent and in what way IVA helps language learners pick up words new to them in reading contexts and how long this effect can last. Future studies that are more sophisticated and refined in research areas and design can describe and explain in depth how word exposure frequency influences IVA, co-functions with other factors, and provide more practical and specific suggestions as to how to learn words effectively through reading.

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The Effect of Iranian Advanced EFL Learners' Knowledge of Collocation on Their Writing Ability

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Abstract—It is widely acknowledged that collocations are one of the most important concerns in EFL classes and materials. The significance of second language learners possessing some knowledge of collocations is now widely recognized. Also, collocations play significant role in second language learning, especially at the intermediate and advanced levels. The present study intended to investigate the influence of knowledge of collocation on writing ability of advanced EFL learners. Eighty Iranian advanced students participated in this study and their writing ability was analyzed to determine the collocations they produced. The participants' productive collocational knowledge was measured by free-writing tests: three topics were given to them to choose one of topics and write a composition. Their receptive collocational knowledge was measured by a multiple-choice test. Results of the study indicated that knowledge of collocation has not positive effect on production of collocation in free writing by EFL learners but it has positive effect on comprehension of collocation by EFL learners and there is a significant relationship between the receptive knowledge and productive knowledge of collocations.

Index Terms—collocation, writing ability, knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

Effective communication is the result of learning a second language and learning the second language includes the use of four main skills including speaking, writing, listening and reading (Rahimi, 2011). One important case in this regard is how many vocabulary one acquires vocabulary constitutes the greatest unit of the meaning in any language (McCarthy, 1988). Currently, learning vocabulary is the most focus in second language pedagogy and research also, how learners learn vocabulary completely and how one can best be learnt are important issues in applied linguistics (Lewis, 2006).

Vocabulary learning includes knowing a word in the language and this involves knowing many facets about words such as word use, word meaning and word form (Nation, 2001). Word form is one aspect of language, either spoken or written. If words are difficult to pronunciation, they will usually learn difficult but *if* words pronounce easily they will stored easily in the long memory of in learners (Nation, 2001). Word meaning includes knowing a word and it involves understanding its form and meaning, its concept and referents and also all forms of combination with the word. When words are analyzed into parts such as prefixes and suffixes understanding of word meaning can be achieved, it can help the learning of the words. Knowing the grammatical functions of words and word combinations such as collocations as well as the restraints on use such as word frequency and appropriateness is word use (Nation, 2001).

Vocabulary plays a significant role in learning a foreign language and there is a dimension to vocabulary knowledge that should be considered, which is how far a learner knows the possible combinations of words. In other words, apart from grammar and lexical meaning, a right sentence must have the agreement between words; otherwise, it sounds unnatural or even makes no sense (Phuong, 2012).

The main aspect of knowing a word refers to the word usage by learner and how learners learn a new word to use it in different contexts correctly. With regard to use word correctly, it is important to note that words are used as chunk not in such as pre-constructed clauses and phrases (Hong, 2011). He also added language learners memorize these chunks of language and in using the language they draw on the chunks. When language users want to express their ideas more efficiently they use active chunks and they depend on larger units of language such as collocations. It reveals that important purpose of acquiring vocabulary is closely related to the proper use of collocations.

So, this paper intended to investigate the effect of Iranian advanced EFL learners' knowledge of collocation on their writing ability. In addition, this study investigated learners' use of collocations by analyzing the learners' written works and comprehension. Two or more words which intend to co-occur in a language as combination of two or more words in particular context constitute collocations (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1968).

According to Namvar (2012) during any EFL course in Iran, grammar is the most focus not vocabulary and students and the teachers themselves may not be familiar with word combination correctly. When students learn the words, they learn them in isolation and memorize them individually by translating them to their mother tongue. So, they memorize new vocabulary not as a chunk but words individually (Namvar, 2012). So, students can not pronounce collocation when they use them.

Bahns and Eldaw (1993) believed that when EFL learners want to produce oral and written collocations most of them face problems.

It is difficult to learn collocation knowledge simply because there are many collocations. Native speakers have many—possibly millions—of lexical chunks in their heads, they draw them to produce fluent, accurate and meaningful language (Lewis, 1997). This leads to a conflict for language learners.

Teachers face great challenges in helping their students develop collocational competence. Classroom time is inadequate even for learning the basic vocabulary. In practice, collocation teaching is neglected (Farghal and Obeidat 1995).

As a matter of fact most native speakers, try to write accurately and effectively even on what they are well aware of, but it is clear that writing skill is the most difficult skill for most second and foreign language learners. It is hard for a non-native speaker to do something that an average native speaker usually finds a daunting job to do. So, lexical chunks and collocations have always a difficult task for second and foreign language in writing.

Perhaps Iranian English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners have a good knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary but they have problems in English language use in a collective way. Students may have acquired a huge of vocabulary, they still lack collocational knowledge. Also, students who do not have collocational knowledge may have good vocabulary storage in their mind, but produces unnatural language. Wray (2002) stated that learners need collocation in order to acquire high level of competence in a second language, because they improve both accuracy and fluency.

The purpose of this research is advanced students who fear to be got them a writing task.

Literature Review;

The significance of collocations in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) have been considered in many researchers (Namvar 2012, McCarty 2008, Sadoughvanini 2012, Marton 1977). But each researcher has considered collocations from a different dimension Empirical studies about the knowledge of collocations among different groups of ESL or EFL learners showed that when learners try to produce appropriate word combinations they face difficulty because they have not enough collocational knowledge (Howarth, 1998). So, many researchers have considered translating collocations difficulties in linguistic dimension. Others have been researched about error analysis while other one has considered use of collocation and in another case its relation to proficiency in speaking and/or writing.

The word collocation itself can be traced as far back as the 17th century, when it was used by Francis Bacon in his *Natural History* from 1627. Supposedly, the first time it was used as a linguistic term was more than a century later, in 1750, by Harris, who use it to refer to the linear constellation words (Palmer 1993, as cited in Gyllstad, 2007). Robins (1967) stated that collocations studies started 2300 years ago in Greece. The Greek Stoics associated collocations to meaning and used the notion of collocation to study the meaning relationships between words. Based on these ancient scholars, words "do not exist in isolation, and they may differ according to the collocation in which they are used" (Robins 1967, as cited in Namvar, 2012, p. 43),

In 1991, Aghbar and Tang used cloze-test for EFL students, which consisted of 30 verb-noun collocations. The result showed that collocations including 'take and find' are early-acquired verbs and low proficiency student comprehended them easily.

Zhang (1993) measured the correlation between the EFL learners' use of lexical collocation and their writing fluency. He used 60 freshmen and divided them into two groups. They consisted of 30 native and 30 non-native English speakers. He assigned two tasks consisted of one fill-in-the-blank collocation test in order to measure knowledge of collocation and use one writing task to recognize the collocation use and writing proficiency. He realized that native English writers were better than non-native writers on the collocation test, and native writers did better than **11011**-native writers in writing. So, he found that among college freshmen, collocational knowledge showed proficiency in their writing.

Translation and a cloze task were administered by Bahns and Eldaw (1993) in order to measure German knowledge of English verb-noun collocations. Participants consisted of two groups. They included 58 German university EFL students.

A cloze test containing 10 sentences were given to one group: each had a *verb+noun* collocation with the verb missing and German-English translation test consisting of 15 sentences were given to another group. The findings revealed that because of lack of collocational knowledge all the learners couldn't answer well. So, they found collocation is a problem not only for learners and advanced students but also teachers have difficult in this regard.

Al-Zahrani (1998) realized that among the different academic years there was difference subjects' knowledge of lexical collocations. The knowledge of lexical collocations improved with the subjects' academic years. Also, he investigated that there was a positive relationship between collocational knowledge and language proficiency.

Hsu (2002) studied the relationship between use of English lexical collocations and online writing among Taiwanese college English majors and non-English majors. The results showed that there were a positive relationship between EFL learners' frequency of lexical collocations and their writing.

Hassan Abadi (2003) researched on Iranian EFL learners. He studied about learning English lexical and grammatical collocations by them. Hassan Abadi examined learners' collocations types, so he realized that learners showed different performance according to the patterns of collocation "in favour of verb-noun collocations" and they learnt lexical collocations easier than grammatical ones.

Mallikamas and Pongpairroj (2005) studied the university students' receptive and productive knowledge of English collocations in multiple-choice, error recognition and gap-filling tasks. Results indicated that students had difficulty dealing with the collocations in both reception and production tasks.

Koc (2006) investigated to show to what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, developed collocational awareness in students, and whether such instruction has any enhancing effect on the retention of vocabulary. The results of the quantitative data showed that vocabulary instruction in collocations had better results in terms of vocabulary retention. Also, findings of this study, explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, is highly recommended for developing collocational competence and better retention of vocabulary.

Seesink (2007) studied vocabulary teaching and collocations in order to find how it can help to promote students' writing ability. He realized that focus on collocations had a positive effect on the students' results. Participants included Arab, Chinese, Japanese and Korean. Students learnt collocation through an online program. But, in her study she did not reveal what kinds of collocations were used by learners and what types of collocations were difficult for them.

Mongkolchai (2008) also considered the university students' knowledge of English collocations. The Jesuits showed that the students' ability with the *noun + noun* pattern was at the highest level, whereas *adverb + adjective* at the lowest level. The students' errors explained the students' insufficient knowledge of English collocations, negative transfer from Thai, the students' strategy of using synonyms, etc.

Definition of collocation;

According to McCarten (2007) collocation is two or more words which used together. For example, we use *heavy rain* in a sentence but not *heavy sun*, or we apply *make* or *come to a decision*, but we don't *do a decision*.

So, *heavy rain* and *make a decision* are collocations and we say that *heavy* combines or collocates with *rain*; or *heavy* and *rain* are collocates of each other.

Deveci (2004) said that relationship between words is collocation. They involve structural patterns and combinations of words. So, *take a break* which is an example of idiom, and word combinations like *get on a bus* are collocations.

Lewis (1998) categorized collocations in the following way:

1. Strong: many collocations are strong or very strong. For example, we use *rancid butter*, but that does not mean that other things cannot be rancid.

2. Weak: it consisted of words which co-occur with a greater than random frequency. Many things can be long or short, good or bad. However, some things are more predictable, which could be called collocation; for example, *white wine* or *red wine*.

3. Medium strength: "words that go together with a greater frequency than weak collocations. Some examples are: *hold a meeting*; *carry out a stud*" (Lewis, 1998 as cited in Deveci, 2004).

Research questions:

The following research question will be answered in this study.

Research question 1: Does knowledge of collocation have any effect on production of collocation in free writing by EFL learners?

Research question 2: Does knowledge of collocation have any effect on the comprehension of collocation by EFL learners?

Research question 3: Is there any relationship between comprehension and production of collocation knowledge by EFL learners?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants of study

The participants in this study were 80 Iranian male and female students at Navid institution. Their ages range from fifteen to twenty five. English language is their foreign language while their first language is Persian. The participants were those who had already passed primary and intermediate level courses, based on the placement test administered by the institution, and were studying in advanced level.

Instrument

The study involved a multiple choice-test and a free writing test. The data collection instruments used in this study consisted of a writing task and multiple-choice test. SPSS (statistical Package for the Social Sciences) V19 analysis was used as quantitative analysis.

Writing task

Students were asked to choose one topic and write composition base based on these following topics:

- 1- One of the traditional festivals in Iran
- 2- Short history
- 3- I felt so excited when I looked at the ...

Multiple-choice test

In multiple-choice test about 30 items were selected from the work book and student’s book of Master Class items were based on the contents of this book. It is scored base on correct answer.

Material

The materials to be used in this study were student’s book and work book of Master Class book (Haris and Stewart. 2007) which was taught for advanced students in Navid institution.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Data analysis

In this research both inferential and descriptive statistics will be used. Descriptive statistic consists of tablet and bar graph. Inferential statistic is used to check the effect of knowledge of collocation on writing ability of EFL learners.

1. Descriptive Statistics:

The sample consisted of 80 students.

TABLE 1.
STATISTICS FOR MC TEST AND FREE WRITING

Variable	MC test	free writing
N	SO	80
Mean	21.21	2.49
Std Deviation	5.291	1.293
Skewness	-0.074	0.641
Kurtosis	-0.714	3.000
Minimum	10	0
Maximum	30	8

Table 1 presents statistics for variables MC test and free writing. Results indicated that the MC test mean was 21.21 with standard deviation 5.291, ranged between 10 and 30. The Skewness and Kurtosis were -0.074 and -0.714, respectively, in the accepted range (between -1 and 1).

The free writing mean was 2.49 with standard deviation 1.293 ranged between 0 and 8. The Skewness was 0.641 in the accepted range (between -1 and 1). The Kurtosis was 3 to be a little high, so it may be deviated the normal distribution.

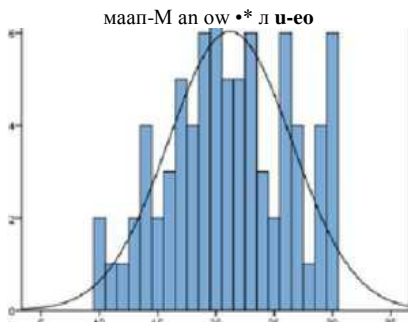


Figure 1. MC test Histogram with the normal curve

Figure 1 shows the distribution of MC test with the normal curve. It showed that the distribution was close to the normal distribution.

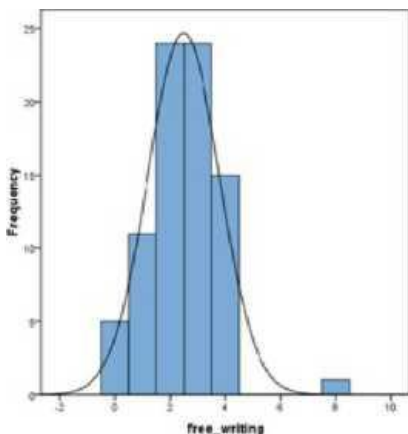


Figure 1. Free writing Histogram with the normal curve

Figure 1 shows the distribution of free writing with the normal curve. It showed that the distribution was close to the normal distribution. However there was an extreme data at 8.

2. Inferential Statistics:

In this section we intended to study research hypotheses by either parametric or non- parametric tests. Since the former requires the normal distribution for variables, firstly, we investigate the normality of the variables distributions by Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

TABLE2.
KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST OF NORMALITY FOR MC TEST AND FREE WRITING

Variables	Z	P(Sig.)
MC test	0.713	0.689
free writing	1.379	0.045

The above table shows results for Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Since p -value was greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) for MC test, the statistics was not significant which means that the distribution of MC test was normal For free writing variable the p-value in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was lower than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) which means the test was not significant and the free writing distribution was not normal.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Research question 1:

To investigate effect of know ledge of collocation on the comprehension of collocation by EFL learners, regarding MC test scores which were between 10 and 30, we compared the scores with the expected value of 20. According to table 1 the mean of MC test (M 21.21) was greater than 20. The statistically significance of the difference was tested by the one-sample t-test as presented in the following table

TABLE 3.
THE ONE-SAMPLE T-TEST FOR THE MC TEST

statistics Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Test value = 20			
					Mean Difference	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Overall effect	80	21.21	5.291	0.592	1.212	2.05	79	0.044

As shown in table 3, the t-test was significant at the level of 0.05 ($t=2.05$, $df=79$, $p=0.044 < 0.05$). Thus the difference between the MC mean and the expected value (20) was significant. In other words, the MC test mean was significantly above the expected average. So, knowledge of collocation has positive effect on comprehension of collocation by EFL learners.

Research question2

To investigate effect of knowledge of collocation on production of collocation in free writing by EFL learners, regarding free writing scores which deviated the normal distribution and were between 0 and 8, we divided data into three intervals: 1) low scores for 0 or 1 scores, 2) moderate scores for 2 or 3 scores, and 3) high scores for 4 or above 4. Then the chi-squared test was used in which frequency differences between low, moderate and high intervals were tested as presented in the following table.

TABLE4.
THE CHI-SQUARED TEST FOR THE FREE WRITING

Interval \ Statistics	Observed N	Expected N	Chi-Square	df	p (Sig.)
Low (0 - 1)	16	26.7			
Moderate (2 - 3)	48	26.7			
High (4 and higher)	16	26.7	25.6	2	0.001

As shown in table 4, the chi-squared test was significant at the level of 0.01 ($X^2=25.6$, $df= 2$, $p=0.001 < 0.01$). Thus the difference between the observed frequencies for free writing was significant. In other words, the number of students with moderate free writing was significantly higher than the others. Thus we infer that the free writing of students was moderate. This rejects the research hypothesis.

Research question 3

Since the free writing variable had no normal distribution, effect of knowledge of collocation on the comprehension of collocation can be tested by the non-parametric Spearman correlation test.

TABLE 5.
SPEARMAN CORRELATION BETWEEN MC TEST AND FREE WRITING

Statistics	Spearman Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
Van able s			
MC test and free writing	0.231	0.039	80

As presented in the above table, the correlation between MC test and free writing was significant at the level of 0, 05 ($r=0.231$ $N=80$, $p=0,039<0.05$). Thus there was a significant relationship between MC test and free writing. The Spearman correlation was 0,231 which is an average correlation. Two variables were directly correlated since the correlation was positive. It means that the free writing is increased with increasing the MC test. This approves hypothesis 3.

Conclusion:

The study showed that Iranian advanced students were weak in the test of free writing collocations. The researcher thought this situation was bad. The students at this level did not perform well on the test of production of collocations. Thus, the students who are already weak in collocational knowledge do not make a statistically significant progress in their knowledge of collocation after graduation in an institution. It seems that they not only do not learn collocations in the writing, but they also seem to forget some of the vocabulary they knew at the beginning. So, increasing the students' knowledge of lexical collocations might seem beneficial for their writing proficiency. Accordingly, language teachers could enter collocation to their syllabuses to increase the teaching of collocations and introduce the notion of collocations into their classroom practice. Beyond doubt, sufficient materials for acquiring knowledge of lexical collocations are very important for both language teachers and EFL learners. Researcher suggested three main sources for teaching and learning collocations; textbooks, collocational dictionaries and corpora, First of all, language teachers could use textbooks to train students to familiar with collocations and help students to become aware of collocations in the classroom. Furthermore, dictionaries are good instruments for EFL learners to improve their collocational knowledge. Language teachers could introduce some collocational dictionaries to students and train them to make full use of collocational dictionaries especially in writing classes. It will help learners to master collocations well, and learn how to be independent in learning collocations, lastly, an on-line corpus database would be a useful source to help EFL learners access rich collocations collected from native English-speaking communities.

Richards and Rogers (2001) recommended that teaching activities in the classroom should "draw students' attention to lexical collocations and try to enhance their retention and use of collocations" (p. 137). Language teachers, therefore, should increase exposure to collocations in order to train the students to use collocations appropriately and eventually help the students to become independent learners of collocations in their future learning. So, the emphasis on collocations in the classroom could be one feasible and effective technique for teachers to improve their students' language performance.

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Variation of Politeness Strategies among the Iranian Students

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Abstract—The present study examined certain politeness strategies (bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, off-record and don't do face threatening act) used by the Iranian students in their interactions with university service providers in the library, computer lab and restaurant contexts based on Brown & Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. In order to elicit the strategies, 177 students at Ilam University were exposed to five scenarios with multiple options representing different strategies of politeness. The result indicated the participants' insistence on self-serving goals. Negative and positive politeness strategies were the most frequent ones, but indirect strategy was the least favored one applied by the students and only a minor portion of students chose avoidance of face threatening act strategy. Examining the effect of gender on the politeness strategy use, the findings revealed statistically significant differences between male and female respondents in three scenarios. Further, the respondents' mother tongue was not found as a determining factor in the kind of politeness strategies the Iranian respondents would adopt.

Index Terms—bald on record, politeness, positive politeness, negative politeness, off-record, FTA

I. INTRODUCTION

The way a language speaker behaves in a specific situation represents, to some extent, his/her personality and the culture wherein he/she has grown up. Thus, one needs to be cautious about his/her behaviors and language use during communication. Besides, interlocutors can state their meanings in a variety of forms and through different strategies which, no doubt, leave different impressions on the addressee. Impolite or aggressive talk may lead to conflict while it is less likely that conflict happens between the interactants once one's meaning is conveyed politely. Hence, politeness is regarded as a significant strategy to be attended to in our daily conversations.

Mills (2003) defined politeness as "the expression of the speakers' intention to mitigate face threats carried by certain face threatening acts toward another" (p. 6). The concept of "face" was originally derived from Goffman (1955) who defined it as "an image of self-delineated in terms of approved social attributes" (p. 224). Brown & Levinson (1987) believed that certain kinds of acts such as apology, request and criticism intrinsically violate the face needs of the speaker and hearer. They called these acts face threatening acts (FTAs) and proposed two dimensions of face namely, positive face and negative face. According to Tracy (1990) "positive face concerns the desire to be appreciated and approved of by selected others and negative face concerns a person's want to be unimpeded and free from imposition" (p. 210). Following Goffman's concept of face, Brown & Levinson (1978) introduced politeness theory which focuses on five strategies that people choose in order to redress the severity of the face threatening acts (FTAs). These strategies which are shown in the chart below include bald on-record, positive and negative politeness with redressive action, off-record (indirect) and avoidance of FTA.

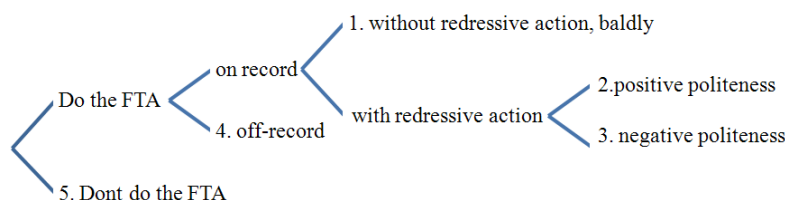


Figure 1. Five Politeness Strategies (Brown & Levinson 1978: 74)

By "bald on-record" which is the least polite form of committing FTA, they mean conveying the message explicitly and unambiguously. For instance, when the speaker addresses the hearer by the sentence "lend me your car" the speaker has committed a bald on-record FTA. Conversely, if the hearer responds with "Um, I don't know, let me see..." he/she has committed off-record FTA which is conveyed by hint and implicature. Meanwhile, the speakers have the possibility

to threaten their addressors' face with redressive actions through positive or negative politeness. Imagine that in the above example the speaker says "what a beautiful dress! By the way I came to borrow your car". Since the speaker initiates his/her request with complimenting the hearers' dress, the threat to the addressor's face has been mediated by positive politeness. The speaker has another option to resort to negative politeness and say "You couldn't lend me your car, could you?" The last strategy is avoidance of FTA which is the most polite form.

Lakoff (1975) considered politeness as a kind of behavior which has been "developed in societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction" (p.64). Dimitrova-Galaczi (2005) believed that politeness embodies many aspects: it is a familiar expression for everyone and also the concept that has attracted a lot of researchers' attention; it has lexical, syntactic, pragmatic, socio-cultural, non-verbal and kinesthetic manifestations and may have different interpretations cross-culturally. Lakoff (1977) proposed three principles to establish politeness: "don't impose", "give option" and "make A feel good". Scollon and Scollon (2001) emphasized the fact that the level of politeness a speaker uses during interaction can be assessed by three factors, i.e. the power between the speaker and hearer, social distance between addressor and addressee and the ranking of the imposition.

In line with the above mentioned issues, the present study is intended to investigate the variety of politeness strategies among the Iranian students during their interaction with university staffs. The effects of gender and mother tongue on the choice of these strategies are also investigated.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Izadi & Zilaie (2012) attempted to reveal the most frequent positive politeness strategies in the Persian speakers' email compositions. The researchers collected 60 emails written by 25 male and female Iranian speakers whose relationship was friendly. To investigate and code these emails, Brown & Levinson's (1987) classification was employed. Analyzing the data revealed that "in group identity markers" was the most widely used strategy. Use of expressions such as *joonam* (dear) and *azizam* (dear) was one of the examples of this strategy use. The next frequent strategy was "presupposing or sharing some common ground". "Giving gift to hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)" was another favored strategy. As an instance of this strategy was frequent use of greeting in the Persians' emails.

Agis (2012) investigated the effect of gender on the use of politeness strategies in a Turkish series. The researcher's data consisted of 761 utterances by male and female subjects. Then, based on Brown & Levinson theory (1987), they were classified to strategies of positive politeness, negative politeness, bald-on-record, and bald-off-record. The findings indicated that males used more negative politeness strategies in the workplace while females used more positive politeness strategies. In the case of interaction with younger people such as children and friends, females were found to use more positive politeness while males used more bald-off-record strategies. Another difference was in the case of talking to older relatives in which males employed more positive politeness strategies while females used more negative politeness strategies.

Wagner (2012) conducted a study in Cuernavaca, Mexico in order to determine common politeness strategies in the participants' apologies. A sample of 200 naturally occurring apologies was collected and encoded. The result of the positive and negative politeness strategies' frequencies revealed that negative politeness strategies were more preferable to the members of Cuernavaca speech community.

Cheung (2009) attempted to investigate the role of culture in the use of politeness strategies. The author's data were based on a movie clip directed by Wayne Wang. Since participants of the movie were from two different cultures, i.e. China and United States, politeness strategies were interpreted differently. According to the data, damaging ones' own positive face was realized as being polite in the Chinese culture though it was not recognized as a strategy by the American interlocutor. In order to demonstrate positive politeness toward his addressee, the American participant agreed with Chinese woman's comment regarding the unseasoned food. However, it was realized as on-record FTA and a threat to the positive face from the Chinese woman's point of view. Off-record strategy and remaining silent were the other strategies the Chinese woman used to protect her addressee's face.

Pariera (2006) examined the way people use politeness strategies in emails when talking about taboo topics. 29 university students were asked to write emails to their closest friend and also a stranger and describe the picture that had been shown to them. Contrary to Brown & Levinson's (1987) theory, she found that negative politeness strategies were used more frequently toward friends than strangers. Participants also employed more off-record strategies with close friends than with strangers. In line with Brown & Levinson theory, Bald on record was used more toward close friends.

Newton (2004) analyzed interactions of 22 factory members. After recording and transcribing these interactions, three episodes of a complaint, a refusal and a directive were chosen for closer analysis. In contrast with politeness theory, he found that the participants in the three episodes used bald on record speech acts which typically enhance the severity of threat to face. However, he argued that such talk implies solidarity among the members.

Shigeru (2004) asked 4 graduate students to observe and record their conversations with others considering frequency of committing FTA and the type of the applied strategy in committing the FTA. Findings made it clear that negative politeness was often applied when FTAs were committed and in some cases, students kept silent without doing any FTA. Their silence was justified by the fact that gracefulness is rewarded in the Japanese culture.

Isik (2003) compared linguistic strategies of politeness among Turkish and English native speakers in conflict-generating service encounters. The participants were asked to read five scenarios and choose one of the politeness strategies they would adopt in the given situations. The results showed both similarities and differences between the two groups. In one scenario, Turkish speakers chose bald on record strategy to maximize the conflict while English speakers chose bald on record strategy that minimized the conflict. In another scenario, the majority of Turkish speakers chose negative politeness while a smaller number of English speakers chose negative politeness. On the contrary, some of the English speakers chose bald on record to save their addressee's face or commit no FTA. Positive politeness was the most favored strategy by both English and Turkish speakers in the third scenario. In the other two scenarios, positive and negative politeness strategies were the most selected ones by both groups of participants.

Akbari (2002) conducted a study among the mono-lingual Persian students to identify the range of politeness strategies and to compare them to those of English speakers based on Brown & Levinson (1987). Two groups of 30 university students completed an open-ended questionnaire, consisted of written situations. This questionnaire was supplemented by naturally occurring conversations among the Persians. She categorized these strategies into positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record, each one followed by several sub-categories. Though, in some cases a considerable amount of similarities was found between the two languages; an exact consistency was not demonstrated.

As can be seen, a considerable number of researchers have been interested in examining politeness strategies in different geographical contexts. However, a majority of them has examined politeness in the corpus like emails or movies and the speech acts such as apology, request and complaint. Thus, the present study intended to investigate this issue in semi-real life interactions and elicit the kind of politeness strategies the Iranians adopt during interactions with university staffs.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To maintain a smooth relationship with communicators, one needs to observe certain unwritten rules. Politeness, as one of these rules, plays a crucial role in the daily interaction. In Coulmas's (2005) terms "speakers make many choices when speaking, including the politeness level of their utterances" (p. 84). This politeness level is realized through different strategies they employ. As representatives of academic generation of the society, students are expected to be more cautious with their behaviors. Since a major part of the students' interactions within the university context is toward the university staff, they were addressed for the investigation. During in-campus interactions, the students may directly/indirectly, politely or rudely address the face of the university staff in a variety of ways in situations where their expectations are not satisfied. Since no study has been conducted on the variety of politeness strategies the Persian students employ in their interactions with university staff, this study sought answer to the following questions:

RQ1: What politeness strategies do Persian students adopt during their interaction with the university staff?

RQ2: Do male and female students adopt similar politeness strategies during their interactions with the university staff?

RQ3: Is there any difference between native and non-native Persian speakers in terms of politeness strategies they adopt during their interactions with the university staff?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants of the study included 177 undergraduate university students, 97 of whom were female and 70 male. They were studying in different majors of Humanity, Science and Engineering faculties at Ilam University. Since Ilam is a city in which Persian is spoken as the second language, only 63 respondents were monolingual Persian speakers. The rest of participants were native speakers of Kurdish, Laki, Arabic and Turkish. They spoke Persian as their formal /second language.

B. Instrument

Since the present study intended to explore the linguistic reflection of politeness among the Persian students, the researchers administered Isik (2003) questionnaire. She based her thesis on five conflict-generating scenarios used in Spencer-Oatey et al. (2002) research. Isik used these scenarios and devised multiple-choice items for each one within politeness framework theory.

The participants of the study were exposed to five scenarios followed by different options representing bald on record aiming to maximize the threat to the interlocutor (bald max), bald on record aiming to minimize the threat (bald min), positive politeness aiming to maximize the threat (positive p max), positive politeness aiming to minimize the threat (positive p min), negative politeness (negative p), off record (indirect) and don't do FTA strategies. The students' interlocutors in these five scenarios were five university staffs from the library, computer lab and restaurant. The students were asked to choose one option which is approximately close to the option they would say in their real life.

C. Procedure

Participants were asked to read five scenarios and choose the option they would say in the given situation. In the first scenario, the student who is talking to his/her friend about an important project is warned by the librarian to be silent. The respondent has the possibility to obey the rule or convince the librarian to continue his/her talking in a variety of forms represented by different strategies. In the second scenario happening in the computer lab, the student's computer does not work well and the technician refuses to help the student. The third scenario occurs in the library again. But, here, the student is accused of an overdue book and s/he is not given the book unless the fine is paid. In the restaurant scenario, the student receives a wrong dish and has the possibility to ask the original food he had ordered or eat the wrong dish. In the last scenario, the student cannot find a book s/he is looking for. Hence, s/he needs to ask the librarian to help her/him.

V. RESULT

The students were asked to read the following scenarios and choose the statement they would express in the given situation.

1. *You are studying in your university library, in an area where no talking is allowed. You are talking quietly with a friend about an important piece of work you are doing together, and using the books to help you. A member of the library staff comes over to you and says politely, 'Sorry, this is a silent area. If you want to chat, you need to go out.' However, you don't think you're disturbing anyone.*

As it is shown below in Table 1, the most selected strategy was positive politeness strategy aiming to minimize the conflict ("We are sorry; you're right. We didn't mean to disturb anyone."). The next selected strategy was on record strategy ("O.K. We will try to keep quiet." in order to minimize the conflict. Although the importance of talking about the project from the view point of the student has been emphasized in the scenario, majority of the students ignored their goal and consequently obeyed the rules by using three different strategies ("positive politeness", "bald on record" and "don't do FTA"). On the contrary, achieving ones' goal was of great importance for only 31.2% of students, no matter what language they speak. The least chosen option by the students was indirect strategy.

To answer the second question of the study, cross tabulation calculation was conducted to determine the extent to which males and females chose different strategies. As seen below in Table 1, the biggest difference in the strategy choice was in the case of bald on record (minimizing the threat) wherein females tended to use this strategy more than males. Another difference was in the case of positive politeness strategy (minimizing the threat) wherein females showed their tendency to use this strategy more than males.

With regard to the respondents' mother tongue, the major differences was associated with bald on record (minimizing the threat) wherein more percentage of non-Persian speakers inclined to use this strategy than the Persian speakers. Another major difference was in the case of positive politeness (minimizing the threat) in which non Persian speakers were more inclined to employ this strategy than the Persian speakers.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY OF THE TYPES OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS IN THE FIRST SCENARIO

		Frequency of the strategies						
		Bald (max)	Bald (min)	Negative P	Positive P(min)	Positive P (max)	Off-record	Don't do FTA
Female	Percent	2.9	17.3	8.7	17.9	4.0	0.6	4.6
Male	Percent	5.8	9.2	8.7	11.6	1.2	2.3	5.2
Total	Percent	8.7	26.5	17.4	29.5	5.2	2.9	9.8
Persian	Percent	2.9	5.8	5.3	14	2.9	1.7	4.1
Non-Persian	Percent	6.4	20.3	12.2	15.8	1.8	1.2	5.9
Total	Percent	9.3	26.1	17.5	29.8	4.7	2.9	10

2. *You are studying in one of the computer rooms at your university. Your computer has crashed twice, and when it crashes a third time, you go to a technician to ask for help because it is wasting you a lot of time. He simply says, 'Sorry, this happens all the time. I can't do anything.*

As it is shown below in Table 2, almost half of the participants selected negative politeness strategy ("I'm sorry but I must work now. Could you possibly take another look?"), implying that achieving ones' goal is of special importance in this situation. Overall, 77.9% of the participants, regardless of their mother tongue used three different strategies to insist on self-serving goals. Only 20.3% of them ignored their goal in this situation. This finding is in contrast with the above scenario's finding wherein the majority of Iranian students ignored their goal.

As Table 2 below indicates, females tended to employ negative politeness strategy more than males. Males, instead, adopted other strategies such as bald on record, positive politeness (minimizing), off-record and no don't do FTA more than females. On the other hand, non-Persian speakers adopted more negative politeness strategy than Persian speakers.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY OF THE TYPES OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS IN THE SECOND SCENARIO

		The strategy choice						
		Bald (min)	Positive P (max)	Bald (max)	Positive P(min)	Off-record	Negative P	Don't do FTA
Female	Percent	3.5	7	5.2	1.7	0	36	2.9
Male	Percent	4.7	5.8	6.4	4.1	1.7	17.4	3.5
Total	Percent	8.2	12.8	11.6	5.8	1.7	53.4	6.4
Persian	Percent	2.3	6.5	5.3	1.8	0	18.7	2.3
Non-Persian	Percent	5.9	6.4	6.4	3.5	1.8	34.5	4.1
Total	percent	8.2	12.9	11.7	5.3	1.8	53.2	6.4

3. You go to the library issue desk to borrow some books, but the librarian says that you need to pay a small fine for an overdue book. You know very clearly that this is wrong, because you returned the book on time the previous week.

As Table 3 indicates, Positive politeness ("I'm sure I've returned it on time. I'd be so glad if you could take another look.") was the most favored strategy among the respondents. Since the student is required to pay in this situation, insisting on ones' self-serving goals is of special importance again. As a result, 87.2% of male and female students refused to pay and consequently maximized the conflict with the librarian. Indirect strategy was the least chosen strategy like the previous scenarios.

Table 3 also indicates that females tended to use more positive politeness and bald on record (maximizing the threat) and also more negative politeness strategies than males. Moreover, non-Persian respondents were more tended to use these strategies than Persian ones.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY OF THE TYPES OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES USED BY MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS IN THE THIRD SCENARIO

		Frequency of the strategies						
		Positive P (min)	Negative P	Off-record	Positive P (max)	Bald (max)	Bald (min)	Don't do FTA
Female	Percent	2.3	15.8	0	27.5	9.9	0	1.2
Male	Percent	3.5	11.7	1.2	15.2	7	2.3	2.3
Total	Percent	5.8	27.5	1.2	42.7	16.9	2.3	3.5
Persian	Percent	3	9.5	0.6	15.3	7.1	0.6	1.2
Non-Persian	Percent	2.9	18.9	0.6	27.1	9.4	1.8	2.4
Total	Percent	5.9	28.4	1.2	42.4	16.5	2.4	3.6

4. You and a friend go to the university restaurant for dinner. It is extremely busy and when you eventually receive your food, it is not what you ordered. You are disappointed, although this dish looks quite appetizing. A moment later, the waiter asks you, 'Is everything all right?'

In this scenario, 72.3% of the Iranian students, regardless of their mother tongue insisted on getting the food they had originally ordered and only 26.5% of them tended to eat the wrong food.

According to Table 4, more percentage of females used negative politeness strategy than males. This finding is consistent with that of the previous scenarios. A major difference between the Persian and non-Persian speakers in their strategy choice was in the case of bald (minimizing the threat) wherein more non-Persian speakers employed this strategy than their Persian counterparts.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCY OF THE TYPES OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS IN THE FOURTH SCENARIO

		Frequency of the strategies						
		Off-record	Bald (min)	Positive P	Bald (max)	Negative P	Positive P (min)	Don't do FTA
Female	Percent	0	8.2	12.9	12.9	15.3	6.5	0.6
Male	Percent	1.2	8.2	15.9	10	5.3	1.2	1.8
Total	Percent	1.2	16.4	28.8	22.9	20.6	7.7	2.4
Persian	Percent	0	4.2	10.1	10.1	8.9	3	1.2
Non-Persian	Percent	1.2	12.4	19.6	12.5	11.3	4.7	1.2
Total	Percent	1.2	16.6	29.7	22.6	20.2	7.7	2.4

5. You are looking for a book that you really need for your work, and according to the computer catalogue, nobody has borrowed it. However, you cannot find it on the shelf, so you go to the information desk to ask for help.

The most selected strategy was negative politeness ("Sorry, I couldn't find the book on the shelf. Could you possibly help me find it?") (Table 5). The next selected strategy was positive politeness ("Excuse me, I tried hard but couldn't find this book. I'd be so glad if you could help me."). A very small percentage of the participants selected off record strategy ("Excuse me; this book isn't on the shelf."). Although off record strategy was the least selected strategy in the previous scenarios, in this situation "don't do FTA" was the least.

As shown in Table 5, negative and positive politeness, and off-record strategies have been chosen by more females than males. Bald on record, positive politeness and negative politeness were the strategies which non-Persian speakers used more than Persian speakers.

TABLE 5.
FREQUENCY OF THE TYPES OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS IN THE FIFTH SCENARIO

		Frequency of the strategies					
		Bald on record	Positive P	Negative P	Off-record	Don't do FTA	
Female	Percent	4.1	19.9	24.6	7	0.6	
Male	Percent	7	11.7	17	5.8	1.8	
Total	Percent	11.1	31.6	41.6	12.8	2.4	
Persian	Percent	1.2	12.9	15.3	5.3	1.8	
Non-Persian	Percent	10	19.5	25.3	7.7	0.6	
Total	Percent	11.2	32.4	40.6	13	2.4	

Table 6 below represents Chi-Square test results for the given scenarios. With regard to the first and fifth scenario, it can be claimed that the relationship between gender and the participants' selection of the politeness strategies is not statistically significant. However, for the second, third and fourth scenario, gender appears determining in the kind of politeness strategies the respondents apply.

TABLE 6.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS OF THE FIVE SCENARIOS WITH REGARD TO GENDER

		Female	Male	Chi-Square	df	Sig
Gender	First scenario	56%	44%	10.543	6	0.104
	Second scenario	56.3%	43.6%	13.902	6	0.031
	Third scenario	56.7%	43.2%	12.138	6	0.059
	Fourth scenario	56.4%	43.6%	16.061	6	0.013
	Fifth scenario	56.2%	43.3%	7.035	5	0.218

Table 7 shows that in all the five scenarios a statistically significant difference was not found between the respondents whose mother tongue was Persian or other languages speaker in Iran. In other words, the students' mother tongue was not a determining factor in the kind of politeness strategies they would employ.

TABLE 7.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS OF THE FIVE SCENARIOS WITH REGARD TO MOTHER TONGUE

		Persian	Non-Persian	Chi-Square	df	Sig
Mother tongue	First scenario	36.7%	63.6%	32.167	30	0.360
	Second scenario	36.9%	62.6%	27.638	30	0.590
	Third scenario	37.3%	63.1%	21.303	30	0.878
	Fourth scenario	37.5%	62.9%	19.499	30	0.929
	Fifth scenario	36.5%	63.1%	28.974	25	0.265

VI. DISCUSSION

As can be seen in the result section, it was found that the students did not respond consistently in all the scenarios. In the first scenario, more than half of the participants used the strategies to redress the threat to the librarian's face. These findings were against the findings from Isik's (2003) study who concluded that the majority of Turkish participants maximized the conflict and attempted to achieve their goal. The potential reason for this contrast can be the fact that being silent in the library is an accepted rule for everybody in Iran. The "observing silence signifies your personality" note in a number of libraries implies this unwritten rule. All the Iranian students have been grown up in a culture wherein behaving deferentially is encouraged, specifically in interaction with the people in power. The librarian in this scenario can be perceived as the one in power because s/he has the authority to reject the student or even invalidate the student's library card. Besides, the student him/herself is absolutely aware of the inappropriate behavior and thus, s/he does not insist on the goal. Hence, the students do their best not to maximize the conflict with the librarian. However, the participants are not unanimous on choosing a specific strategy. In other words, their selection of the alternatives has been distributed among the five strategies.

The findings in the second scenario are undoubtedly reasonable, because the major responsibility of the computer rooms' service provider is providing the best service to their customers and thus, the student's needs must be satisfied anyhow. As a result, no withdrawal is done on the part of the student. Accordingly, contrary to the previous scenario, majority of the students attempted to achieve their goals. The contrast can be justified with regard to the fact that talking in the library is not considered an appropriate behavior and therefore, no persistence can be seen on the part of the participants.

In the third scenario, the student is required to pay for the excuse s/he does not agree with. Thus, the participant sees him/herself self-righteous and does his/her best to defend his/her stance and not to give up. As a result, achieving one's

goal is highly significant for him/her. In other words, Iranians are rarely willing to keep a smooth relationship with their interlocutors when they have the right side and when a significant issue such as paying is involved.

Although a specific politeness strategy was not observed among the majority of the participants in the fourth scenario, a large number of the students insisted on accomplishing their purpose, i.e. getting the food they had originally ordered. Again, this finding was inconsistent with Isik's finding (2003), wherein the majority of English native speakers did not have any problem to eat the wrong dish. In this scenario, the students perceived the restaurant as the service provider to whom they paid for the service. Thus, similar to the second scenario, due to high expectations, the students were not willing to ignore their goals.

In the fifth scenario, the student is required to make a request to accomplish his/her goal. All the students are attentive to the significant role of politeness in their life. They have been taught from childhood to utilize polite markers such as "please" during their interactions in order to guarantee meeting their needs. Accordingly, they attempt to approach their goal in the most polite form.

Regarding the gender effect on the choice of politeness strategies, a statistically significant relationship was found between gender and the strategy choice in the second, third, and fourth scenarios. In these three scenarios, negative politeness was more favored by females than males. Furthermore, some percentage of males used indirect strategies, while none of the females used indirect strategy. As for the second and third scenario, females employed more positive politeness strategies to maximize the conflict than males who employed positive politeness to minimize the conflict. In other words, females insisted more on their goal attainment than males. In contrast, in the fourth scenario, males more favored positive politeness to increase the conflict than females who were more likely to use positive politeness to reduce the conflict. Quite conversely, the relationship between the students' strategy choice and their mother tongue was not found significant. Stated otherwise, the politeness strategies the Iranian students use is not affected by their mother tongue. Perhaps because they all interacted in Persian, the official language of the country which is often used in formal contexts similar to those of scenarios in questionnaire.

VII. CONCLUSION

This article investigated politeness strategies used by the Iranian students. Since the participants insisted on self-serving goals in four scenarios, it can be concluded that accomplishing one's goal is of high importance for the Iranian students. Negative and positive politeness strategies were the most selected ones aiming to redress the FTA to the interlocutor in all the scenarios. However, bald on record was one of the most popular strategies in the first and fourth scenarios. Although according to Brown & Levinson's politeness theory "don't do the FTA" and off-record (indirect) strategies are the most polite forms the speakers can apply, they were selected by a minor portion of the participants in these five scenarios. However, this finding does not suggest impolite or less polite reactions on the part of the Persians, because negative and positive politeness strategies as the most selected options appear absolutely polite in the Persian interactions. Use of the statements such as "could you..." and "I'd be so glad..." is one of the politeness indications in the Iranian context. In addition, lack of the most polite forms of politeness among the respondents may imply that the Iranians tend to communicate unequivocally instead of conveying their meaning indirectly or preferring not to talk. On the other hand, being self-righteous is a determining factor in the way the Persians react to their interlocutors and probably that is why they preferred to use the less polite forms of strategies. In other words, when they have incontrovertibly right side, they persist on accomplishing their goal and accordingly threaten their interlocutors' face.

Further research seems to be necessary for establishing the ways in which the Iranians employ politeness strategies. More scenarios are required to construct a more comprehensive measure of politeness, including the perceived power between the interactants. Since this study has been conducted among Iranian students at Ilam University, further investigations could examine this concept among other universities and populations in Iran to estimate a national norm. Additionally, to obtain a more precise estimate of the Persians' use of politeness strategies, future studies might combine self-reporting techniques with other technique such as interviews and observations.

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An Empirical Study on the Role of Vocabulary Knowledge in EFL Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—Existing literature supports the positive effects of vocabulary teaching on students' comprehensive English proficiency. However, there have been some imperfections in the research process such as the research framework being somewhat narrow and the statistical instruments being a little conservative, which makes it difficult to form differentiated instructional strategies aimed at different levels of students. Therefore, this paper, based on mature vocabulary testing instruments, incorporates vocabulary breadth, depth, listening comprehension into one study framework and conducts an empirical study by innovatively using quantile regression models, so as to analyse the relationship between the two vocabulary dimensions and listening comprehension at different levels of students. The study results show that both vocabulary breadth and depth influenced listening scores significantly, but the overall effect of vocabulary depth was significantly greater than that of vocabulary breadth; at three levels of listening scores, the enhancing effects of vocabulary breadth showed a gradual increasing trend, while the influence of vocabulary depth shows no significant increase. This study will offer important pedagogical implications to English vocabulary teaching strategies in EFL classes.

Index Terms—vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth, listening comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Virtually every scholar of language recognizes that vocabulary knowledge is the basis and precondition for studies in second language acquisition. Many studies have shown that vocabulary knowledge is an important factor for successful reading comprehension in EFL (e.g. Hu & Nation 2000; Mecartty 2000; Qian 2002).

However, few studies have explored the relationship between lexical knowledge and listening comprehension, especially the listening comprehension in EFL. Thus, teachers and students have been long puzzled about the exact role that vocabulary knowledge plays in L2 listening comprehension.

Many researchers have pointed out that vocabulary usually involves two dimensions of breadth and depth (e.g. Qian, 1999; Read, 1993). However, among the few studies about vocabulary and listening, more attention has been put on the effect of vocabulary breadth. Recently, more and more researchers tend to acknowledge the essential role of vocabulary depth in listening. Nevertheless, not a few empirical studies have been conducted on the exact roles of vocabulary breadth and depth in EFL listening comprehension.

The emphasis in the study to be reported is on both dimensions of vocabulary knowledge. The analysis emphasis will be on the role of vocabulary knowledge related to listening comprehension.

A. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to provide a review of the research literature related to the role of vocabulary knowledge in listening comprehension and then to conduct an experimental study to test the respective effect of vocabulary breadth and depth on different parts of listening comprehension so as to provide an empirical support for vocabulary teaching in EFL listening class.

B. Significance of the Study

The study on the role of vocabulary knowledge in listening comprehension for EFL learners is important to the practice of vocabulary teaching in EFL listening classes. This empirical research will provide teachers and students with a relatively complete understanding about the correlation between vocabulary and listening, and thus enhance their awareness about the importance of vocabulary in listening and help improve their teaching and learning methods in terms of vocabulary. The study will also be of importance to others seeking information related to this topic.

C. Definition of Terms

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

Vocabulary Breadth: the size of a learner's vocabulary, that is, the number of words for which the learner has at least some knowledge of meaning (Staehr, 2009)

Vocabulary Depth: relates to how well one knows a word and is defined as the quality of lexical knowledge that reflects how well a learner knows individual words and how well words are organized in the learner's mental lexicon. (Staehr, 2009)

CET 4: College English Test held nationally twice a year for non- English majors in China

D. Method of Approach

To conduct a brief literature review about the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension, and then to summarize and synthesize the recent relevant studies.

To design an empirical experiment consisting of three pen-and-paper tests: vocabulary levels test (Nation, 1990), productive levels test (Laufer & Nation, 1999) and CET-4 listening comprehension test. The quantitative research methods of Pearson Correlations analysis and a Multiple Regression Analysis programmed in SASS 9.3 will be employed as the primary analysis tools for the data collected.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

It has long been recognized that there are many dimensions of vocabulary knowledge. Among the varying dimensions, breadth and depth are two primary dimensions of vocabulary knowledge. (Nation, 2001.) So the few studies about the relationship between lexis and listening mainly focus on the correlation of the two lexical dimensions and listening comprehension.

It was claimed that vocabulary knowledge is the main obstacle to successful listening comprehension for EFL learners (Kelly, 1991), but this claim has not been fully supported by empirical results. Bonk (2000) investigated the relationship between knowledge of lexis in listening texts and gist comprehension of the texts. Fifty-nine Japanese university students of low-intermediate to advanced English ability were tested using first-language recall protocols as comprehension measures, and dictation as measures of lexical familiarity. The research was based on four texts of increasing amounts of low-frequency lexical words. The two variables were found to be only moderately associated (45%). Good comprehension frequently occurred with text-lexis familiarity levels at 90+ percent levels. But the study results also show that some learners obtained good comprehension although they knew less than 75% of the word types in the text and other learners knew more than 90% of the word types but did not obtain good comprehension. Bonk relates this finding to learners' ability with comprehension strategies, but "part of the explanation may be attributed to the measures used to assess word knowledge and listening comprehension" (Staehr, 2008, p.140). So this study by Bonk offered an equivocal result about the relationship between lexis and listening comprehension.

A slightly clearer picture is found by Milton, Wade and Hopkins (forthcoming), who investigated the relationship between two receptive vocabulary size measures (the X_Lex and the A_Lex) and the IELTS test with 29 EFL learners. The study produced modest, significant Spearman correlations between vocabulary size (the X_Lex) and the reading and listening components of IELTS (0.54 and 0.52, respectively).

"An important issue in studies of how much vocabulary is needed to read a text or listen to a movie is what amount of text coverage is needed for adequate comprehension to be likely to occur" (Nation, 2006, p.61). Hu and Nation (2000) examined the relationship between text coverage and reading comprehension for non-native speakers of English with a fiction text, finding that a 98% text coverage would be needed for most learners to gain adequate comprehension. Then Nation (2006) reported on the trialling of fourteen 1,000 word-family lists made from the British National Corpus, and used these lists to see what vocabulary size is needed for unassisted comprehension. In this study Nation transferred this 98% lexical coverage found in reading to listening comprehension, suggesting that a vocabulary of as much as 6000–7000 word families is needed to gain adequate comprehension in spoken discourse. These figures are to some extent supported by an analysis of the spoken CANCODE corpus conducted by Adolphs and Schmitt (2003).

A study by Staehr (2008) about vocabulary size and the skills of listening, reading and writing similarly found a substantial correlation between vocabulary size and a listening comprehension test. Vocabulary size could predict 39% of the variance in the listening scores and 6000-7000 word families have been suggested for adequate listening. Staehr's another study (2009) got the result that a lexical coverage of 98% is needed for coping with the spoken texts that constitute the listening test.

A recent study by Zeeland and Schmitt (2012) directly investigated the lexical coverage in regard to listening comprehension, to determine whether it is reasonable to transfer the 98% text coverage got in studies about reading to listening. Results showed that most native and non-native participants could adequately comprehend the spoken texts with only 90% coverage, but the non-natives showed considerable variation at this level. At 95% coverage, non-native participants also demonstrated relatively good comprehension, but with much less variation. Based on a 95% coverage figure, language users would need to know between 2,000 and 3,000 word families for adequate listening comprehension. The figures show a little difference from Nation's (2006) calculation of 6,000–7,000 word families based on a 98% coverage.

Although a small number of studies have provided empirical research for the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension in L2, few of them have focused on the depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Staehr (2009) presents an empirical study to investigate the role of vocabulary knowledge in listening comprehension with 115 advanced Danish learners of English as a foreign language. The dimensions of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge were found to be significantly correlated with listening comprehension. Vocabulary breadth could predict 49% of the variance in the listening scores. However, after the vocabulary depth was included in the regression model, only 51% variance in listening comprehension could be achieved. Another study by Frances H. Mecarty (2000) of Denver University examined the relationship of lexical and grammatical knowledge with reading and listening comprehension by foreign language learners of Spanish, finding that lexical and grammatical knowledge

were significantly correlated to listening, but only lexical knowledge explained the variance in listening (13%). The inconsistency in research results mainly comes from the different levels of participants and the measurement instruments. In Staehr's research, the participants were 115 advanced Danish learners of English as a foreign language, 40% of whom once stayed in English-speaking countries for at least 5 months. The vocabulary breadth and depth knowledge were respectively measured by the Vocabulary Levels Test by Schmitt (2001) and the Word Associates Test by Read (1993). While in Mecarty's (2000) study, the 154 participants were "from a large Midwestern university in their final semester of a four-semester basic Spanish language sequence" (p. 328) and the test score was based on word-association tasks and word-antonym tasks. Taking sophomore English majors as the subjects, Zhang (2011) examined the relationship between lexical knowledge and listening comprehension of TEM4 (Test for English Majors) and found that lexical breadth accounted for 27% variance of listening comprehension, 24% variance of dictation and different variance of other parts, while the depth explained 2% variance of listening comprehension and dictation respectively. This study result about vocabulary depth is consistent with that in Staehr's (2009) research.

From above studies, we can see that, despite the minor differences in specific figures, researchers are close to agreement on the role of vocabulary breadth in listening comprehension. However, the study results about vocabulary depth have been few and inconsistent. What's more, there have been some imperfections in the research process, such as the research framework being somewhat narrow and the statistical instruments being a little conservative, which makes it difficult to form differentiated instructional strategies aimed at different levels of students. Therefore, this paper, based on mature vocabulary testing instruments, incorporates vocabulary breadth, depth, listening comprehension into one study framework and conducts an empirical study by innovatively using quantile regression models, so as to analyse the relationship between the two vocabulary dimensions and listening comprehension at different levels of students. This study will offer important pedagogical implications to English vocabulary teaching strategies in EFL classes.

This paper will try to answer two questions:

- 1). How are vocabulary breadth and depth correlated with listening comprehension in general.
- 2). To what extent can vocabulary breadth and depth predict the variance of listening comprehension at different English levels.

III. TEACHING IMPROVEMENT PROJECT

A. Participants

120 non-English majors (80 females and 40 males respectively) participating in this study were chosen randomly from 3 natural classes in a medical university, with some extreme cases of especially being poor in English ticked out according to their academic performances in English exams. All the participants were sophomores and from different majors ranging from clinical medicine, nursing, psychology and laboratory medicine. They used the same English textbooks and attended the same English classes twice a week taught by the same teacher and they shared similar educational background. Moreover, all of them have learnt English for at least 8 years and have prepared for the coming CET 4 in December for several months. All of them were quite serious about their performances in the CET4, which would be linked to their bachelor's degree.

B. Instruments

1. Test for breadth of vocabulary knowledge. Tests measuring vocabulary breadth in this study are based on Nation's Vocabulary Level Test (the 1990), which has been widely used in vocabulary research context and can provide a valid estimate of learners' vocabulary knowledge at the different frequency levels (Staehr, 2009). This kind of test is divided into five levels: 2000-word level, 3000-word level, 5000-word level, the university word level and 10000-word level. The 2000- and 3000-word level contain high-frequency words; the university word level represents one type of specialized vocabulary; and the 5000-word level is on the boundary of high- and low-frequency words. Finally, the 10000-word level contains low-frequency words (Nation, 1990, P. 261) and few EFL learners can achieve this level. In accordance with participants' reading vocabulary level and the requirement of Chinese New College English Syllabus (To master the vocabulary of about 4795 words and 700 phrases, of which about 2000 words are active vocabulary), the first four word frequency levels in Vocabulary Levels Test were chosen to test the participants. At each level, there are 10 groups comprising six words and three definitions. The participants are required to match the three definitions on the right with three of the six words on the left.

For example: (From 2000-word level)

1. copy
2. event (6) end or highest point
3. motor (3) This moves a car
4. pity (1) Thing made to be like another
5. profit
6. tip

The total score for this test was 120 points, with each blank one point.

2. Test for depth of vocabulary knowledge. Productive Levels Test (Version A) by Laufer and Nation (2001) is used to test students' vocabulary depth. Like the Vocabulary Levels Test, the Productive Levels Test involves the sample words from the same five word frequency levels. Each word level consists of eighteen sentences in which the target words are removed but the initial letter(s) given as clues to write it down. The students are required to complete the underlined words with initial letter(s) as clues according to the meaning of each sentence. Given their reading vocabulary level and the requirement of Chinese New College English Syllabus, the first four word frequency levels in Productive Vocabulary Levels Test were chosen to test the participants. In scoring the vocabulary test, each correct answer was given one point (grammar mistakes were ignored). The total score for this test was 72 points.

For example: (From 2000-word level)

I'm glad we had this opportunity to talk.

3. Listening comprehension test. In the case of listening comprehension test, the scores were extracted from CET4 held on December 19th, 2014. All the subjects took part in the test and the exam results came out in March, 2015. CET is the most formal and large-scale nationwide English proficiency test in China with relative high validity and reliability. It is designed for all the college non-English majors who have finished the required English course to check their language proficiency after approximately one and half years' study. The Listening Comprehension part in CET-4, which takes about 30 minutes to complete and is read at the speed of 130 words per minute, contains three main sub-sections: Section A includes 15 multiple choices for short and long dialogues belonging to Listening Conversations part; Section B contains 3 short passages in the form of also multiple choices; and Section C is compound dictation requiring not only receptive knowledge but also productive knowledge. And each text is played only once, except the compound dictation which was played three times. Additionally, the accents of the recordings are native-like English, either British English or American English. The task types are ranged in multiple choice and sentence completion (see Table). As for the listening material selection, it is authentic and sourced from native English magazines and newspapers ranging from daily conversations, academic lectures, broadcast programs to interviews, concerning the subjects that vary from natural science and social science to humanity science, etc.

TABLE:
STRUCTURE OF CET-4 LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Testing contents	Task type s	Score
Conversations	Short dialogues	Multiple choice
	Long conversations	Multiple choice
Passages	Passages	Multiple choice
	Compound dictation	sentence completion

The total score for listening comprehension is 35 points.

C. Procedures and Data Collection

Date collection was conducted through the vocabulary tests in the second week of December, 2014, the very week before the nationwide CET4. With the help of the fellow teachers, the survey was administered in regular English classes. The students were asked to finish the Vocabulary Levels Test first and then the Productive Levels Test. Before they went down with the test, the examiners spent a span of time instructing the requirements specifically with the examples illustrated explicitly, making sure every testee was well equipped during the testing. When doing the vocabulary tests, the participants were asked to finish each part on their own without looking up dictionaries or turn to their classmates for help. The whole survey session was under the supervision of the English fellow teachers. The testing time for vocabulary was 60 minutes, the first 30 minutes for Nation's Vocabulary Level Test and the second 30 minutes for Productive Levels Test (Version A). After the first 30 minutes, the testing papers for vocabulary breadth were collected so that students could focus on the second test. For the sake of the effectiveness and authenticity of the experiment, the participants were told that all the tests would be documented and scored as one part of their daily evaluation which would contribute to the final score in the end of the semester.

And data for the listening test were collected at the beginning of March, 2015 after the exam results for CET4 2014 were released to public.

After all the data were collected, the quantitative research methods of Pearson Correlations analysis and a Multiple Regression Analysis programmed in SASS 9.3 were employed as the primary analysis tools for the data collected.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH RESULTS

When designing the model, the multicollinearity between the independent variables results in greating parameter estimation interval, which is easy to make wrong judgment in hypothesis testing. Therefore, we should be first to check the presence of multicollinearity among the independent variables, generally using Spearman rank correlation coefficient index. In table 1, the correlation coefficient between breadth score (CHGD) and depth score (CHSD) is 0.758, and correlation test P value is less than 0.05, that is, reject the null hypothesis. There is significant correlation between the two independent variables, so, they are not suitable for us to establish simultaneous regression models with the dependent variable, namely listening score (TLCJ). The regression models should be established respectively.

What’s more, from table 1 we can see the correlation test results between the dependent variable(TLCJ) and the two independent variables(CHGD and CHSD) show significant correlation, suitable for the establishment of regression models.

TABLE 1
CORRELATION TEST RESULTS BETWEEN VARIABLES

Variables	breadth score	depth score	Listening score
Breadth score	1.000	0.758	0.368
depth score	0.758	1.000	0.408
Listening score	0.368	0.408	1.000

The existing research literature, when assessing the relationship between vocabulary mastery and language performance, usually employ classical least-squares linear regression method, for three reasons: linear estimate method is easy to calculate; when the random disturbance items are uncorrelated with independent variables and comply with a same-variance normal distribution whose mean is zero, the least square method shows unbiasedness, effectiveness and some other good properties; least squares provides a general method of estimating conditional mean value function. However, the inescapable fact is that, when data show Leptokurtosis or have outliers and heteroscedastic cases, the normality, independence and variance homogeneity assumption of least squares are difficult to meet, which results in poor stability. In addition, the least squares regression assumes that the independent variables can only affect the dependent variables’ conditional distribution position, but fail to depict the conditional distribution in greater detail and to describe the basic characteristics of the conditional distribution. In order to overcome the disadvantages of least squares, Koenker and Bassett in 1978 proposed the quantile regression (Quantile regression) idea. The basic thought is to perform regression to independent variables according to the conditional quantiles of dependent variables, then regression models on different quantiles are established. So, this method can accurately describe the influence of independent variables on the variation range and conditional distribution of the dependent variables, and at the same time capture the characteristics at tail distribution.

Therefore, to realize the transverse and longitudinal quantitative analysis evaluation about the relationship between vocabulary mastery and students’ English listening proficiency at different English levels, this paper pioneered to introduce the concept of fractional regression to data mining and model design. The 2 model forms eventually established are shown in formula 1:

$$TLCJ = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 CHGD + \varepsilon \quad \text{Quant}_\theta(TLCJ|CHGD) = \beta_{TLCJ}^\theta CHGD$$

$$TLCJ = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 CHSD + \varepsilon \quad \text{Quant}_\theta(TLCJ|CHSD) = \beta_{TLCJ}^\theta CHSD$$

In the formula above, CHGD stands for the breadth of vocabulary, CHSD for the depth of vocabulary, and TLCJ for listening scores. $\text{Quant}_\theta(TLCJ|CHGD)$ represents the conditional quantile of TLCJ that corresponds to quantile theta ($0 < \theta < 1$) in a given case of CHGD (Liu Shenglong, 2008). And the coefficient vector β_{TLCJ}^θ corresponding to θ is estimated by minimizing the absolute deviation, i.e:

$$\beta_{TLCJ}^\theta = \text{argmin}\{\sum \theta |_{TLCJ} - CHGD\beta| + \sum (1 - \theta) |_{TLCJ} - CHGD\beta|\}$$

Using Bootstrap intensive algorithm technology to achieve the estimation of regression coefficient, means obtaining samples’ confidence interval by continuous sampling with replacement, thus to infer the coefficient. The estimation results from the 2 models are shown in Figure 1, Figure 2, Table 2 and Table 3.

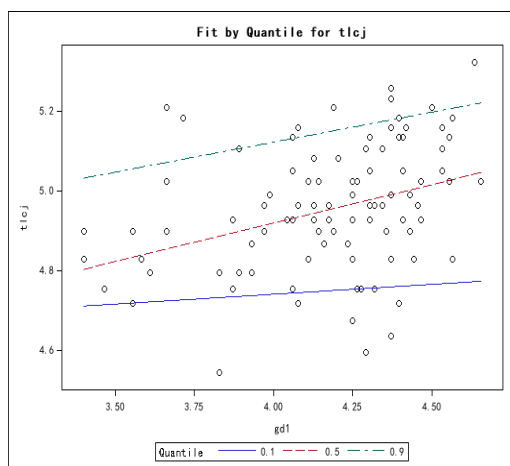


Figure 1 Vocabulary breadth and listening scores

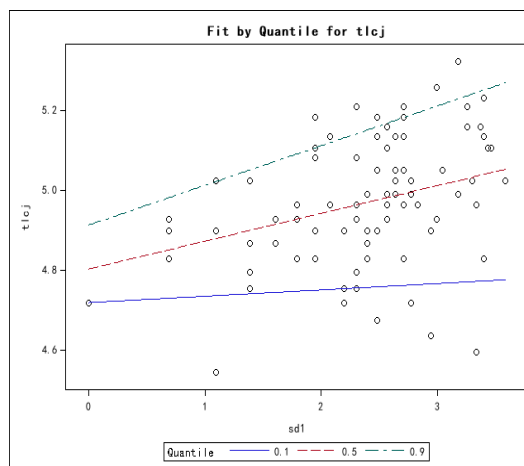


Figure 2 Vocabulary depth and listening scores

TABLE 2
QUANTILE REGRESSION RESULTS OF VOCABULARY BREADTH AND LISTENING SCORES

quantile	variable	coefficient	S.E	the lower limit of the 95% confidence interval	the upper limit of the 95% confidence interval	P_ value
0.2	constant term	102.800	11.646	79.693	125.907	0.000
0.2	breath	0.371	0.184	0.006	0.737	0.046
0.5	constant term	111.071	9.524	92.158	129.985	0.000
0.5	breath	0.464	0.145	0.177	0.752	0.002
0.8	constant term	117.929	15.520	87.108	148.749	0.000
0.8	breath	0.643	0.203	0.240	1.046	0.002

TABLE 3
QUANTILE REGRESSION RESULTS OF VOCABULARY DEPTH AND LISTENING SCORES

quantile	variable	coefficient	S.E	the lower limit of the 95% confidence interval	the upper limit of the 95% confidence interval	P_ value
0.2	constant term	111.500	6.422	98.748	124.252	0.000
0.2	depth	1.125	0.512	0.108	2.142	0.031
0.5	constant term	130.793	4.071	122.708	138.878	0.000
0.5	depth	1.069	0.292	0.488	1.650	0.000
0.8	constant term	148.000	9.055	130.019	165.981	0.000
0.8	depth	1.300	0.624	0.060	2.540	0.040

As Table 2 and Table 3 show, the dependent variable fits the independent variables well, and in cases of 0.2, 0.5, 0.8 quantiles, the regression coefficients of the 2 models all show significance at 0.1 significance level. If the quantiles 0.2, 0.5 and 0.8 are respectively regarded as the low, the middle and the high grade levels, following conclusions can be drawn:

a. Conclusion one: From the transverse perspective, both vocabulary breadth and depth influenced listening scores significantly, but the overall effect of vocabulary depth was significantly greater than that of vocabulary breadth.

b. Conclusion two: From a vertical view, at the lower, middle, and higher levels, the enhancing effects of vocabulary breadth showed a gradual increasing trend, i.e. vocabulary breadth teaching can greatly improve the listening scores of high level students more than the scores of other two level students; while the influence of vocabulary depth shows no significant difference at three levels of listening scores.

V. TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

The study results above have great implications to vocabulary teaching in EFL listening classes:

Firstly, both vocabulary breadth and depth influenced listening scores significantly, so via these study results, we could help students realize the importance of vocabulary study for their listening proficiency. Secondly, in actual English classes, vocabulary teaching should appropriately tilt to vocabulary depth, requiring students not only to remember the literal meaning of words, but give enough attention to lexical collocation, semantic field, etc. Teachers should lead students to lay stress on the accumulation and mastery of active words that are listed in textbooks. Thirdly, with the advance of students' English level, teachers should strengthen the teaching of vocabulary breadth by increasing students' reading quantity and diversifying their reading materials.

The factors affecting listening comprehension are various, such as cognitive strategies, emotion, motivation, attention, etc. This paper just investigated the influence of vocabulary at two dimensions. And, limited by the testing instruments, we can only test the relationship between reading vocabulary and listening comprehension. If conditions permitting, a study can be conducted to investigate the correlations between listening vocabulary and listening comprehension, and that would be of more practical significance to EFL listening.

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The Relationship between the Accuracy of Self- and Peer-assessment of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners and Their Learning Styles

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Abstract—Within the last few decades, with the growing emphasis on learner-centered curriculum, self-assessment and peer-assessment have become of particular interest in educational assessment. This study aimed at examining the relationship between the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment on the paragraph writing performance of a sample of Iranian intermediate EFL students and their learning styles. To do so, 7 paragraphs during 7 sessions were written and then self- and peer-rated by 62 students from Touba Language Institute in Tehran. Kolb's learning style inventory was used to determine the students' learning styles including diverging, assimilating, converging, and accommodating. The results revealed a significant and positive relationship between the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment of the students and their learning styles. The findings indicated that the students with converging learning style were the most accurate raters of their own performance, while those with diverging style were the least accurate ones. Furthermore, the students with accommodating learning style were the most accurate raters of peer-performance, whereas those with assimilating style were the least accurate ones. The obtained results may offer EFL teachers and educators the opportunity to design alternative assessment methods addressing learners' individual differences including learning styles.

Index Terms—learning style, peer-assessment, self-assessment, writing performance

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, language curriculum has witnessed a paradigm shift both in teaching and testing (Farhady, 2003). In testing, there is a shift “from psychometrics to a broader model of educational assessment, from a testing and examination culture to an assessment culture” (Gipps, 1994, p. 1). In line with this movement, the alternative means of assessment are considered as effective tools. These alternative assessments include the use of portfolios, conferencing, diaries and learning logs, teacher checklist, observations, self-assessment, and peer-assessment (Brown & Hudson, 1998; Huerta-Mac ás, 1995). Among the alternative assessments, self- and peer-assessment have gained much more interest owing to growing emphasis on learner independence and learner autonomy (Patri, 2002). Both self- and peer-assessment have significant pedagogical values. Some benefits of using self-assessment in educational contexts are enumerated by Oskarsson (1989) including, the promotion of learning, raised level of awareness, improved goal-orientation, expansion of range of assessment, shared assessment burden, and beneficial post-course effects. With regard to peer-assessment, studies have suggested that peer-assessment might increase reflection and generalization to new situations and promote self-assessment and greater meta-cognitive self-awareness. Furthermore, peer-assessment promotes a sense of ownership, personal responsibility, and motivation (Topping, 1998).

Despite the potential benefits of both self- and peer-assessment, most teachers have doubts about the accuracy of these techniques as measurement tools. This uncertainty stems from the variation in self- and peer-assessment validity which suggests potential difficulty in accurate interpretation (Ross, 1998). In this regard, a number of factors have been identified as being responsible for the variability seen in self- and peer-assessment results, the most important of which are the domain or skill being assessed, students' individual characteristics, and the ways in which questions and items are formulated and delivered (Butler & Lee, 2010). Yet, very few empirical studies have so far investigated the role of learning styles in the accuracy of self- and/or peer-assessment in an Iranian context. The primary objective of this study, therefore, was to examine the relationship between the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment of Iranian EFL learners and their learning styles while assessing their writing performance.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Self- and peer-assessment as a means of advancing learning

Self-assessment and peer-assessment are considered as useful techniques in advancing students' learning. By providing students with opportunities to evaluate their performance as well as giving them feedback based on the results of their assessment, students can become more aware of their own learning process and performance, and in turn they can become more proficient learners (Butler & Lee, 2010). In the literature, as a result, the role of self- and peer-assessment in improving learners' second or foreign language learning has been investigated extensively.

In an Iranian context with regard to writing performance, Javaherbakhsh (2009), for instance, investigated the impact of self-assessment on Iranian advanced EFL learners' writing performance. The results indicated that by using self-assessment as a learning technique, the students' writing performance was improved. In another study, Birjandi and Siyyari (2010) investigated the effect of doing self- and peer-assessment over time on the paragraph writing performance and the self- and peer-rating accuracy of Iranian English major students. The findings indicated that self- and peer-assessment were effective in improving not only the writing performance of the students but also their rating accuracy. Peer-assessment, however, turned out to be more effective in improving the writing performance of the students than self-assessment. Birjandi and Hadidi (2012), also, explored the role of self- and peer-assessment in promoting writing performance of Iranian intermediate TEFL students who participated in four experimental groups and one control group. The first experimental group did journal writing as a self-assessment technique, the second group self-assessed their own writings, the third group employed peer-assessment, and the fourth group had both self- and peer-assessment. The results revealed the maximum improvement in writing in the second and third groups, in which the students employed self-assessment and peer-assessment, together with teacher-assessment.

Self- and peer-assessment as measurement tools

The inherent subjectivity of self- and peer-assessment has traditionally been considered a threat to their validity as measurement tools (Butler & Lee, 2010). As a result, most studies on self- and peer-assessment have predominantly been interested in investigating the validity and reliability of these techniques. The results of such studies have been mixed, however (Bachman & Palmer, 1989; Blanche & Merino, 1989; Ross, 1998). Previous studies have indicated that there are many factors affecting learners' accuracy in self- and peer-assessment. For instance, Blanche (1988) has concluded from a comprehensive literature review that factors such as past academic record, career aspirations, peer group, or parental expectations, and lack of training in self-assessment can affect the subjectivity of learners in self-assessment. These and other factors are briefly explained in what follows.

Learners' language proficiency level is a factor which may affect the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment. In general, studies report that less proficient students tend to overestimate their language abilities, whereas more proficient students tend to underestimate their abilities (Blanche, 1988; Heilenman, 1990; Ross, 1998). Heilenman (1990) suggests the reason for this: "The more experience that learners have in a domain ... the more likely they are to be aware of the limits of their skills and knowledge" (p. 190).

One of the factors which can affect the results of self-assessment and/or peer-assessment is the domain or the skill being assessed. Ross (1998), for instance, conducted a meta-analysis of validation studies on self-assessment and found that self-assessing one's receptive skills has been found to be more accurate than for productive skills at least among adult learners. To Strong-Krause (2000), however, the converse was true; learners were more accurate in oral production than in other skills. He investigated task types which could best predict placement into English courses as a second language program. Results indicated that the speaking self-assessment was the best predictor, while the listening, writing, and reading self-assessments had lower correlation values, respectively.

Another factor that appears to affect the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment is how the items themselves are constructed. In this regard, Bachman and Palmer (1989) investigated self-rating of communicative language ability by implementing different questions types including ability, difficulty, and recognition. The results indicated that among these three types, the most effective appeared to be difficulty items. This suggests that, according to Bachman and Palmer, "foreign/second language users may be more aware of the areas in which they have difficulty than they are of the areas they find easiest." (p. 23) For Heilenman (1990), however, the claim that difficulty questions may be more effective than can-do questions on self-report instrument merits further research. To do so, he investigated the role of response effects (tendencies to respond to factors other than item content) in the self-assessment of second language ability by using can-do items as well as difficulty ones. While can-do items were positively worded, difficulty items were negatively-worded. According to Heilenman, while students paid attention to question content, they may also be responding to question wording. Based on the results, students ranked themselves significantly higher on can-do than on difficulty items. They found it more difficult to disagree with a negative item than to agree with a positive one.

Many scholars have recommended that before the actual assessment, learners should be trained on how to use self- and peer-assessment. According to Oscarson (1989), training can increase the reliability of learners' self-ratings. Similarly, Birjandi and Siyyari (2010) mention that the more practice and training the students have, the more accurate they get in their ratings. Jafarpur and Yamini (1995), however, reported the ineffectiveness of training on self-assessment accuracy and stated that in their study training helped the students to the extent that they were able to make judgments about their peers only. According to Jafarpur and Yamini, "... had the students received more training in the use of ... questionnaires, they would have been in a better position to make sound judgments about their own language abilities." (p. 74)

In the literature, the effective role of teacher or peer feedback in the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment has also reported. Patri (2002), for instance, investigated the agreement amongst teacher-, self- and peer-assessment of oral presentation skills of Chinese students in the presence of peer feedback and concluded that when assessment criteria was firmly set, peer-feedback enabled students to rate their peers more accurately, but the same was not found to be true with self-assessment. To have such influence of peer feedback on the accuracy of peer-assessment, according to Patri, it is necessary to consider students with similar English proficiency and same level of training. Only when it is the case, can teacher- assessment be supplemented with peer-assessment at least in the context of oral skills (Patri, 2002).

Complexity of a task may also affect the accuracy of the assessment. In this respect, Khabiri, Sabbaghan, and Sabbaghan (2011) aimed to investigate whether increasing task complexity increase the accuracy of peer-assessment of L2 oral production among female Iranian EFL learners. Three tasks were used in this study; the first and the simplest task was a descriptive narration, the second was a persuasive speech being more complex than the first task, and finally the third task was a debate being the most complex one. Absolute Mean Deviation (AMD) for each item of peer-assessment rating scale calculated to investigate the degree of agreement among participants who have assessed a particular speaker. Small AMDs were an indication of high degree of agreement among peer assessors. The results indicated that the AMDs of peer assigned scores decreases as task complexity increased. According to the authors, the AMDs decreased because complexity requires more attention and awareness. This increase in attention and awareness allowed the learners to be more accurate in their assessments.

Another affecting factor is the role of affective and psychological variables. Related to this, Alfallay (2004) investigated the role of some selected psychological and personality traits of EFL learners and the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment in oral presentation tasks. The selected traits were motivation types, self-esteem, anxiety, motivational intensity, and achievement. The study concluded that learners possessing the positive side of a trait were more accurate than those who have its negative side, with the exception of students with high classroom anxiety.

Finally, the assessors' severity, bias, attitudes, etc. are also examined as factors affecting the self- and peer-assessment accuracy. Saito and Fujita (2004), for instance, conducted a study on the comparison among peer-, self-, and teacher-assessment of L2 writing products in a Japanese context and reported a striking similarity between peer-assessment and teacher-assessment. About rater severity, results of this study showed that the group of self-raters included both the most lenient and severest raters. As to item difficulty, Saito and Fujita mentioned that for all three groups of raters, items related to mechanics, content, and length were easier on which to earn scores. Moreover, students had positive attitude toward using and receiving peer rating and also regarded themselves as being the least reliable among the three rater groups. In a similar study, Matsuno (2009) reported that many self-raters, particularly high-achieving students, underestimated their own writing performance. Peer-assessors on the other hand were shown to be internally consistent and their rating patterns were not dependent on their own writing performance. They also produced relatively few bias interactions. In addition, peer-raters were the most lenient raters; however, they rated high-achievers lower and low-achievers higher. In general, self-, peer-, and teacher-raters assessed grammar severely and spelling leniently.

As the findings of these studies indicated, self- and peer-assessment practices are affected by many factors, some of which are students' level of proficiency, the domain or skill being assessed, type of the questions, the amount of training and practice as well as teacher or peer feedback, complexity of a task, affective and psychological factors, etc. By controlling the effect of these factors and increase the effectiveness of self-assessment and peer-assessment, the optimal results may be achieved in educational settings.

Learning styles based on Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory

One of the main individual differences among learners is their different ways or styles of learning. There is a vast number of learning style classifications, among which Kolb's (1984) learning style inventory following his *Experiential Learning Theory* (ELT) seems very useful to indicate learners' differences. Like self- and peer-assessment, experiential learning aims to enable the learner to become increasingly self-directed and responsible for his or her own learning (Kohonen, 1992). ELT defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 41). The ELT model portrays two dialectically related modes of grasping experience including *Concrete Experience* (CE) and *Abstract Conceptualization* (AC) and two dialectically related modes of transforming experience including *Reflective Observation* (RO) and *Active Experimentation* (AE) (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Based on these four modes of learning, four learning styles are identified including, *Diverging*, *Assimilating*, *Converging*, and *Accommodating* (Figure 1). The basic characteristics of the learners with these learning styles are described as follows: (adapted from Kolb & Kolb, 2005, p. 5)

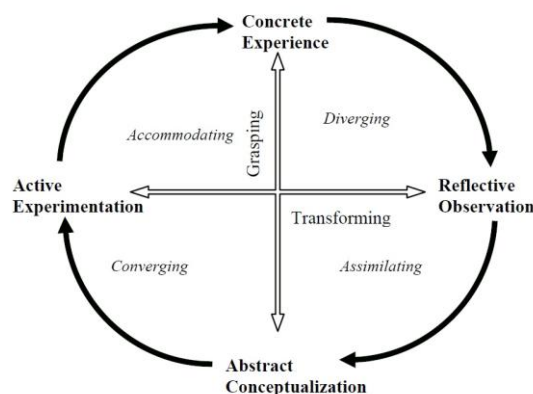


Figure 1. The experiential learning cycle and basic learning styles (Adopted from Kolb & Kolb, 2008, p. 6)

Diverging. An individual with diverging style has CE and RO as dominant learning abilities. People with this learning style are interested in people and tend to be imaginative and emotional. In formal learning situations, divergers prefer to work in groups, listening with an open mind to different points of view and receiving personalized feedback.

Assimilating. An individual with an assimilating style has AC and RO as dominant learning abilities. People with this learning style are less focused on people and more interested in ideas and abstract concepts. In formal learning situations, assimilators prefer readings, lectures, exploring analytical models, and having time to think things through.

Converging. An individual with a converging style has AC and AE as dominant learning abilities. People with this learning style prefer to deal with technical tasks and problems rather than with social interpersonal. In formal learning situations, convergers prefer to experiment with new ideas, simulations, laboratory assignments, and practical applications.

Accommodating. An individual with an accommodating style has CE and AE as dominant learning abilities. People with this learning style have the ability to learn from primarily “hands-on” experience and rely more heavily on people for information than on their own technical analysis. In formal learning situations, accommodators prefer to work with others to get assignments done, to set goals, to do field work, and to test out different approaches to completing a project.

Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

With regard to Kolb’s experiential learning theory, it might be suggested that any assessment should encourage students to apply their knowledge to a new experience, reflect on it, review and adapt strategies and try again (Meier, 2010). Yet, not all activities involve reflection, conceptualization, and experimentation. Although teachers grade or mark each piece of work, in many cases, there is a gaping hole in the learning cycle (Farhady, 2003). In this respect, self- and peer-assessment can provide learners with the opportunity to have a new experience of assessment, to reflect on their weakness and strength points, to conceptualize how to progress in learning, and finally to involve actively in the assessment process leading to a new experience. In the language assessment literature, however, Kolb’s experiential learning cycle is rarely examined.

From a different perspective, it is believed that matching learners’ learning with their preferred learning styles appropriately can greatly influence and improve learners’ learning performance, especially for EFL learners (Reid, 1987). Therefore, when learning styles may have a role in language learning, does it have the same impact on language assessment and more specifically on self- and peer-assessment? Although such a question seems to be of utmost importance, little work has been done in this regard. Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate whether there was any relationship between the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment of Iranian intermediate EFL students and their learning styles in the context of assessing students’ writing performance. In addition, the study also sought to investigate whether there were significant differences between teacher-rating and student-assessment when the learning styles were taken into consideration. In other words, how did the participants who possess those learning styles rate their own performance and how did they rate the peers’ performance? The research questions, therefore, to which this study aimed to find the answers, are:

RQ₁: Is there any relationship between the accuracy of self-assessment of Iranian intermediate EFL learners and their learning styles?

RQ₂: Is there any relationship between the accuracy of peer-assessment of Iranian intermediate EFL learners and their learning styles?

RQ₃: Are there significant differences between teacher-assessment, self-assessment, and peer-assessment of Iranian intermediate EFL learners with regard to their learning styles?

Given the above research questions, the following null hypotheses were proposed:

RH₀₁: There is not any significant relationship between the accuracy of self-assessment of Iranian intermediate EFL learners and their learning styles.

RH₀₂: There is not any significant relationship between the accuracy of peer-assessment of Iranian intermediate EFL learners and their learning styles.

RH₀₃: There are not significant differences between teacher-assessment, self-assessment, and peer-assessment of Iranian intermediate EFL learners with regard to their learning styles.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 62 female intermediate EFL students, making up four classes in Touba language institute. Due to the limited number of the students in one class, the study was conducted in four different classes. There were 13, 16, 16, and 17 students in each class, respectively. All the participants were Iranian female students with mostly Persian language background and were mainly high school students. They ranged in age from 16 to 20 years old, with a few exceptions over the age of 20. In each class, the students were exposed to the same content and instructional method with the same instructor who was an experienced English language teacher, holding a Master degree in TEFL.

Instruments

Proficiency test

The participants' proficiency level was determined by means of the *Preliminary English Test (PET) for Schools* (version 2004). *PET for schools* is a test that shows how a pupil can deal with everyday written and spoken English at an intermediate level. It follows exactly the same format as *the Preliminary English Test (PET)* and the level of the questions is identical. The only difference is that the content and treatment of the topics in *PET for Schools* have been particularly targeted at the interests and experience of teenagers and school pupils.

Learning style inventory

To elicit the learning styles of the participants, Kolb's learning style inventory version 3.1 (2005) was employed after obtaining the official permission. The format of the inventory is a forced-choice format that ranks an individual's relative choice preferences among the four modes of the learning cycle. This is in contrast to the more common normative, or free-choice, format such as the widely used Likert scale, which rates absolute preferences on independent dimensions (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). The participants should read an item and then rank their responses, on a scale of 1-4, to each of the 12 items on the inventory.

Writing scale

The writing scale employed for scoring the paragraphs of the participants was adopted from *ESL Composition Profile* developed by Jacobs et al. (1981). Both raters (teacher and the researcher herself) used this scale to score the participants' paragraphs, and the participants themselves used it for the purpose of self- and peer-assessment. In Jacobs' scale, scripts are rated on five aspects of writing; content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics with a brief description for each part. The ESL composition profile, however, was not used in its original form since it was too difficult for the participants of this study to use due to their limited experience on English writing performance. Therefore, all the descriptions and the components of the scale were simplified; they were translated to Persian, the wording of the descriptions was made simpler and less technical, and the phrasal structures were changed into complete sentences to reduce the complexity of the descriptions. The Jacobs' scale is a weighted scale with mechanics being the least weighted (5%) and content the most (30%). However, in this study, items were weighted equally with a 4-point rating scale.

Procedures

Data were collected during regular class time and over a period of 4 weeks from 9th to 16th session in an 8-week semester. The reason for collecting the data during these sessions and not right at the beginning of the semester was to ensure that the researcher became familiar with the students and the teacher's teaching style. Furthermore, it should be ensured that all the participants had enough experience to write a paragraph on a given topic in English, for lack of experience in the domain or skill being assessed may cause inaccuracy in the results of self- and peer-assessment (Bachman & Palmer, 1989; Heilenman, 1990; Ross, 1998). The whole procedures were identical for four classes. In order to answer the main research questions, the following procedures were pursued:

Administrating proficiency test. As a first step, the PET for Schools was administrated to all the students to determine their proficiency scores.

Administrating learning style inventory. As a next step, Kolb's learning style inventory was given to the students to identify their learning styles including diverging, assimilating, accommodating, and converging. Official permission was obtained to use version 3.1 (2005) of this inventory in the current study.

Observing paragraph writing instruction. To familiarize with the students, classroom context, and teacher's teaching style, the researcher observed three sessions of instruction in one of the classes. Since the basis for self-/peer-assessment was the learners' writing performance, the focus of the observation was on the writing instruction, in particular. As it is common in many conversation classes, the course offered an integrated approach to learning four language skills and grammar and vocabulary were taught simultaneously. However, none of the participants had received extensive writing instruction before this course. Particularly, during this course there was an attempt to make paragraph writing instruction an integral part of the course in all classes. Paragraph writing instruction was based on

Arnaudet and Barrett's Paragraph Development (1990), based on which several methods of paragraph development were introduced to the students.

During the writing instruction sessions, the students were instructed how to develop the essential parts of a paragraph including a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a conclusion. In addition, they became familiar with the basic components of the paragraph writing including content, organization, choice of words, grammar usage, etc. Teacher monitoring as well as peer collaboration were the main instructional techniques for paragraph writing instruction in these classes.

Training self-/peer-assessment. After receiving paragraph writing instruction for eight sessions, the participants were introduced to self-assessment and peer-assessment through a training session. The training session lasted for about two hours of class time, the main purpose of which was to explain the assessment criteria (rating scale).

In order to familiarize the participants with the rating scale, the researcher elaborated on the scale items by explaining what they should focus on while assessing their own and their peers' writing performances. After elaborating on the items, the researcher explained the descriptions provided for each item by giving some examples. In order to clearly establish the assessment criteria, each student received a sample paragraph rated before by the researcher based on the same scale. The errors were corrected and the necessary feedback was given by the researcher on the erroneous parts. The participants used this sample as a guideline to rate their own as well as their peers' paragraphs. After becoming familiar with the scale, the participants practiced assessing three samples together in class consisting of a good, an average, and a poor one which had been rated by the raters in advance. All the students reported by rising their hands what score they had given to each item. The researcher questioned some students why a particular score was given and explained why certain scores were more appropriate than the others and tried to prevent too much diversity in the ratings. Having rated all the samples, the students compared their own ratings with those of the raters and the rating ambiguities were tried to be resolved.

Practicing self- and peer-assessment. Having been introduced to the scale and practiced the paragraph rating, the participants were asked to write a paragraph (100-150 words) on a topic chosen by the instructor based on the students' familiarity with it. That is, those topics were chosen for paragraph writing with which the students had become familiar during the course. Owing to the time-restriction, the students were asked to write the paragraph as a homework assignment and bring it back the next session. Some copies of each paragraph were made by the participants to subject them to peer and teacher assessments.

To do peer-assessment, it was necessary to assign the students into some style-alike groups. Based on the results of the learning style inventory, there were 22 accommodators, 18 assimilators, 13 divergers, and 9 convergers. Table 3.1 shows the distribution of the students with different learning styles in each class.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDENTS WITH DIFFERENT LEARNING STYLES IN EACH CLASS

Learning style	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4
Accommodators	7	5	7	3
Assimilators	7	4	4	3
Divergers	3	4	3	3
Convergers	0	3	2	4

To do peer-assessment more easily, the groups whose members were more than four (five and seven) were divided into two sub-groups; seven-member groups were divided into groups three and four members and five-member groups were divided into groups two and three members. Therefore, each group consisted of two to four members.

Every session, the students were asked to rate their own as well as their peers' paragraphs based on the scale and give the necessary feedback to peer-performance in English or even in Persian. First, they self-rated their own paragraphs. Then, each student handed a copy of her own writing to all group members to do peer rating. Peer-assessment practice was repeated for all group members. That is, in a four-member-group, for example, each student rated three peers' paragraphs. Depending on the number of the students in each group, it lasted for about 15-30 minutes for the learners to rate their own and their peers' paragraphs. Having assessed their own and their peers' performances, the students handed all the copies to the researcher. Both the researcher and the teacher rated the writings and gave them back to the students in the next session. Every session, the students received all the ratings and comments of the previous session and could compare their own self-assessment score with those of the other raters. The same procedure was followed for seven sessions in all classes. During this time, the students were gradually liberated from the researcher's guidance and support and could rate the writings more independently.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Before answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses, the results of the proficiency test as well as the learning style questionnaire were analyzed.

Analyzing data obtained from proficiency test. At the beginning of the study, the PET for Schools was administrated to all the students to determine their proficiency scores. Table 2 provides the descriptive statistics for the participants' proficiency raw scores out of 62.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON PARTICIPANTS' PROFICIENCY SCORES

Classes	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Class 1	17	70.00	90.00	79.7059	5.64319
Class 2	16	72.00	87.00	77.5000	7.71146
Class 3	16	70.00	86.00	75.1250	6.50000
Class 4	13	73.00	89.00	77.7692	6.15296
Valid N (listwise)	13				

Since the level of English language proficiency was a relevant factor to the self-/peer-assessment skill of the participants (Heilenman, 1990; Ross, 1998), the proficiency means of the groups were compared to see how different they were from each other. To start with, a between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run in order to check the homogeneity of the groups in terms of their English language proficiency. The mean scores of the four groups on the language proficiency test were compared. The result showed that the difference among the groups was not statistically significant [$F(3, 58) = .464, p > .05$]; therefore, the groups could be considered as homogeneous in terms of their English language proficiency (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
ONE WAY ANOVA FOR PET SCORES

Classes	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	59.768	3	19.923	.464	.708
Within groups	2489.587	58	42.924		
Total	2549.355	61			

Analyzing data obtained from learning style inventory. As a second step, Kolb learning style inventory was used to identify one's learning style. Table 4 shows the number and percentage of each learning style within 62 students. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics of the four learning orientations for the whole sample.

TABLE 4
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF THE STUDENTS WITH DIFFERENT LEARNING STYLES

Learning styles	N	%
Accommodator	22	35.48
Assimilator	18	20.96
Diverger	13	29.05
Converger	9	14.51

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR LEARNING STYLE ORIENTATIONS

Learning orientations	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AE	62	17.00	44.00	30.7419	5.82514
RO	62	12.00	40.00	25.0161	7.38073
AC	62	13.00	42.00	29.2903	6.92675
CE	62	15.00	43.00	25.8226	7.29591
Valid N (listwise)	62				

Reliability analyses. The internal consistency of the learning style inventory was computed by using Cronbach's Alpha. Furthermore, the inter-rater reliability between two raters was calculated by using Pearson correlation coefficient. The learning style inventory was pre-tested with 20 students similar to the population of the main study (Table 6). The results of this study are lower than the studies reviewed by Kolb and Kolb (2005, p. 14), but lie within the acceptable range.

TABLE 6
RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR LEARNING STYLE INVENTORY VERSION 3.1

Measure	N. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
AC	12	.65
CE	12	.62
AE	12	.70
RO	12	.66

To ensure the learners' accuracy in rating self- and peer-performances, the correlations are calculated between self- and peer-assessment scores and scores obtained through various types of external measurements such as objective tests, final grades, and teachers' ratings (Butler & Lee, 2010). In this study, teacher-assessment was the criterion measure to check the accuracy of the students in assessing self- and peer-performances. Both the teacher and the researcher herself rated the paragraphs by following the same rubric. Inter-rater reliability was calculated for the average scores of both raters rating the paragraphs during seven sessions. The degree of association between the ratings provided by two raters was $r = .93$, which is significant at the 0.01 level (Table 7).

TABLE 7
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION FOR INTER-RATER RELIABILITY

	R1	R2
R1 Pearson correlation	1	.934**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
N	62	62
R2 Pearson correlation	.934**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
N	62	62

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

Testing the research hypotheses. The numerical data for answering the research questions 1 and 2 came from paragraph writing performance scores given by two raters and the students themselves across seven sessions. The final scores were the average of self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher-assessment rounded to the closest integer. Hence, research hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested by correlating the average scores of self-assessment (SA) and peer-assessment (PA) with the average score of teacher-assessment (TA) with regard to the students' different learning styles. The results are presented in Table 8 for accommodating, assimilating, diverging, and converging groups.

TABLE 8
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN TA, SA, AND PA OF ALL GROUPS

Assessment Variable	SA-TA	PA-TA	SA-PA
Accommodators (N= 22)			
Correlation coefficient (r)	.735**	.879**	.556**
Significance	.000	.000	.007
Assimilators (N= 18)			
Correlation coefficient (r)	.668**	.594**	.619**
Significance	.002	.009	.006
Divergers (N= 13)			
Correlation coefficient (r)	.613*	.751**	.262
Significance	.003	.003	.388
Convergers (N= 9)			
Correlation coefficient (r)	.836**	.803**	.809**
Significance	.005	.009	.008

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

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

In all groups, the correlations were statistically significant ($P < .01, .05$), with the exception of the correlation between SA and PA of the diverging group. In the case of the accommodating and diverging groups, the correlation between PA and TA was higher than that of SA-TA. In the assimilating and converging groups, however, the correlation between SA and TA was higher than that of PA-TA. The highest coefficient obtained in this study was between TA and PA ($r = .87$) for the accommodative learners. In addition, the lowest coefficient was between TA and PA for the assimilative learners ($r = .59$). Therefore, the accommodators were the most accurate raters of peer-performance, whereas the assimilators were the most inaccurate ones. Regarding self-assessment, the highest coefficient was that of convergers ($r = .83$), while the lowest one was that of divergers ($r = .61$). Hence, the most accurate self-raters were the convergers, whereas the least accurate ones were the divergers.

As the results indicated, the students with converging learning style were the most accurate raters of their own writing performance, whereas those with accommodating style were the most accurate raters of their peers' performance. Therefore, the null hypotheses 1 and 2 were rejected, and it could be claimed that there were significant and positive relationships between the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment of the Iranian intermediate EFL learners and their learning styles.

Before answering the last question, it was revealed that the data were not normally distributed ($p < .05$). Table 9 shows the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Consequently, the non parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the means of SA-TA, PA-TA, and SA-PA in all groups. The results are presented in Table 10 for all learning style groups.

TABLE 9
TEST OF NORMALITY

Classes	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
TA	.176	62	.000	.907	61	.000
SA	.132	62	.008	.902	63	.000
PA	.123	62	.021	.948	62	.011

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

TABLE 10
MANN-WHITNEY TEST STATISTICS FOR ALL GROUPS

Assessment Variable	SA-TA	PA-TA	SA-PA
Accommodators (N= 22)			
Z-Value	-4.312	-2.512	-2.000
Significance	.065	.079	.260
Assimilators (N= 18)			
Z-Value	-6.602	-1.629	-2.096
Significance	.547	.103	.036
Divergers (N= 13)			
Z-Value	-1.796	-2.827	-.601
Significance	.072	.005	.548
Convergers (N= 9)			
Z-Value	-1.927	-.526	-.882
Significance	.054	.526	.378

As seen in the Table, all differences between the mean scores of the accommodators are statistically non-significant ($Z = -4.31, -2.51, \text{ and } -2.00; p < .05$). For the assimilators, the only significant difference is between the means of SA and PA ($Z = -2.096, P < .05$). With regard to the divergers, the only significant difference is between the means of PA and TA ($Z = -2.827, P < .05$). There were no significant differences between TA, SA, and PA in the case of the convergers.

The only significant difference between PA and TA was found for the divergers. Despite the high coefficient obtained between PA and TA ($r = .75$), the significant difference between the means of TA and PA implies that the divergers rated peer-performances differently from those of the teachers. That is, they overrated peer-performance much more than the other groups. Moreover, the only significant difference between SA and PA obtained for the assimilators which indicated that they rated self-performance differently from that of peer-performance. That is, they overrated self-performance much more than peer-performance comparing to other groups. Hence, it could be suggested that self- and peer-assessment of the accommodators and the convergers whose differences were statistically non-significant were consistent with teacher-assessment. It means that their given scores were much closer to those of the teachers.

The results of Mann-Whitney U-test indicated that there were some significant differences between the mean scores of PA and TA, and SA and PA in diverging and assimilating learning style groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis 3 was rejected in these two groups but supported in the converging and accommodating groups in which there were not significant differences between self-, peer-, and teacher-assessment.

V. DISCUSSION

The study revealed the role of learning styles in the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment. This is in line with the studies of Cassidy and Eachus (2000) and Cassidy (2006) who reported the relevance of learning styles to the students' self-assessment skill. In the current study, Kolb's learning style inventory was used to identify the participants' different learning styles. Based on the results, it seems that learners with active-experimentation mode of learning (convergers and accommodators) were more accurate than those with reflective observation (assimilators and divergers) in estimating of their own and their peers' performances since they indicate an active orientation to learning that relies on experimentation. As Kolb and Kolb (2005) describe the characteristics of the individuals with active-experimentation mode of learning, they enjoy problem solving, small group discussion, peer feedback, and self directed assignments and so for these learners the practice of self- and peer-assessment can be beneficial to actively engage in learning and assessment. Furthermore, learners with abstract conceptualization (convergers and assimilators) were more accurate than those with concrete experience (accommodators and divergers) in rating self-performance since they indicate an analytical, conceptual approach to learning that relies on logical thinking and rational evaluation (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). In addition, learners with concrete experience were better in peer-performance estimation (accommodators vs. convergers and divergers vs. assimilators) since they are extroverted, emphatic, and people-oriented individuals who enjoy peer works and may be lenient in rating peer-performance. For these reasons the convergent learners were the most accurate raters in estimating of their own performance, whereas the divergent learners were the least accurate ones. Moreover, the accommodative learners were the most accurate raters in rating peer-performance, while the assimilative learners were the least accurate ones.

As the results indicated, the highest coefficient was found between teacher-assessment and peer-assessment ($r = .87$). This is in line with the studies of AlFallay (2004), Patri (2002), and Saito and Fujita (2004) who reported the high coefficients between teacher-assessment and peer-assessment ($r = .92, .85, \text{ and } .72$, respectively). In general, all correlations obtained in this study were significant and relatively high (ranged .55 to .87). One possible explanation could be that the assessment criterion (questionnaire), was clear enough for the students to rate the samples. According to Oscarson (1989), if the items are delivered in the students' first language, they can assess their own or their peers' performances more accurately compared to when the items are delivered in their target language. Another reason may be related to the presence of the training session (AlFallay, 2004; Birjandi & Siyyari, 2010, Patri, 2002) although Jafarpur and Yamini (1995) reported the effect of the training on only peer-assessment accuracy. Number of the practice sessions may also affect the results. It was expected that each assessment session would add to the accuracy of

ratings assigned. This is in line with the study of AlFallay who believes that long period of practice yields homogeneous groups with respect to rating their own performances and those of their peers. In addition, it familiarizes students with their peers' language ability. Finally, it seems that the presence of teacher and peer feedback can lead to the accurate estimation of students in self- and peer-rating (AlFallay, 2004; Patri, 2002).

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

As the findings of this study indicated, the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment of the learners was affected by their learning styles. This conclusion revealed the fact that language assessment is a multifaceted process affected by various psychological and personality traits of the raters (AlFallay, 2004). In this regard, students' learning styles should be emphasized as well. Teachers should design a variety of assessment methods that cater for the learning style preference favored by the majority of the students in the class. The findings of this study showed that the majority of the students preferred accommodating and assimilating learning styles. This means that both hands-on and reflective activities should be emphasized in the class to attune to the diversity of students' learning preferences. In addition, the study suggests that peer- and self-rating can be valid and reliable assessment tools. The high correlations obtained here between teacher-, self-, and peer-assessment support this claim. This reemphasizes the need to integrate self- and peer-assessment into language teaching and testing.

The present study focused on Kolb's learning style inventory to elicit the participants' different learning styles. Future research is needed to examine whether the application of other learning style instruments can affect the accuracy of self- and peer-assessment. Moreover, this study investigated only the students' self- and peer-assessment on their paragraph writing performance and so in other skills or sub-skills it needs further research. In addition, this study was conducted with the students of intermediate level. As such, generalizations to elementary or advanced levels would not be appropriate without further research. Finally, owing to the access of sampling only 62 female students were selected to participate in the present study, which implies follow-up research with more participants.

As a concluding remark, it should be noted that self- and peer-assessment are valuable learning activities even in the absence of high coefficients between student-assessment and teacher-assessment. Although the unreliability of self- and peer-assessment limits some teachers to use them only for developmental purposes (Saito & Fujita, 2004), one should keep in mind that even experienced teachers are not always reliable markers and so it seems unreasonable to expect inexperienced students always to demonstrate reliability (Falchikov & Boud, 1989). This means that the limitations should not downgrade the pedagogical values of self-assessment and peer-assessment in language education.

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Revisionism for Modernizing Experience in *The Golden Bowl*: A New-historical Perspective

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Abstract—The present article intends to show how the bi-partite structure of Henry James's *The Golden Bowl* makes it possible for the author to recycle its discourse through a strategy of revisionism. With the emergence of new theories and critical perspectives in the humanities of the 1970s and after, it seems that this strategy of creative writing has been considerably theorized also. A hypothesis behind the insertion of theory and practice here is that revising the previous literatures has come to be strategic for modernizing experience and creating new knowledge. For example, mainly based on Foucault's contributions to literature, new historicism takes history and literature as interconnected, while it takes their interconnection as implying that the revisionism of the bygone periods' literatures is a way for revivifying the historical situations of their production. In a literary work, the author-text-reader connections on one side, and the relation between power and literature on other side are features on which a new historicist focuses for historicizing the work. The present study also attempts to provide James's reader with some theories and examples of revisionism in his novel for restructuring its discourse and making it applicable to the present time conditions.

Index Terms—revisionism, new-historicism, *The Golden Bowl*, literature, history, modernizing experience

I. INTRODUCTION

New Historicism is rooted in old historicism in which, as Charles E. Bressler (1994) says, "history serves as a background to literature" (p. 128). In an old-historical approach to literature, it was the literary object as an aesthetic product which was primarily important, and the historical background of the text's production had only a secondary position. Old historicists also believed in the objectivity of the historian in his scholarships as well as in the accuracy of his data. Therefore, in old historicism the literary text was regarded to reflect the historical background of its production.

However, although new historicism has many things in common with old historicism, from many perspectives it is different from the latter. If old historicism regarded history as linear, new historicism takes it opposite to linear, and finds it often broken, disrupted, and even contradictory. And if the former used to take history as objectively narrated and therefore as trustworthy, the latter sees it as a discourse which is, like other discourses, influenced by power, subjective, and in risk of the historian's prejudice.

In new-historical studies history has a double meaning. It signifies what has happened in the past as well as our knowledge of what has happened in the past. In addition to the past happenings, history signifies our retelling or representing of such happenings in language also. Along with this double meaning of history in new historicism, a research method in it is the analysis of certain literary texts, Edmund Spenser's "The Faerie Queen" or Jonathan Swift's satires for example, to find about a past worldview, a bygone discourse, or the ways of perception of a certain historical nation like the English people in the Renaissance times or the Neo-classical Period.

It should be noted that all such forms of being are manifested in language. So, a discourse in this sense is primarily a language 'event' that is linked not only to the gesture of writing or to the articulation of speech, but also to the situation that has provoked it, to its consequences, and to the statements before and after it. And, on the contrary to old historicism, new historicism does not study literature as detached from other discourses, but studies it, Raman Selden (1989) says, "in the context of social, political and cultural history" (p. 94). In new historicism, literature as a discourse is not superior to other discourses, but is, like them, influenced by power.

Other concerns of new historicists, which the present research takes to critically analyze, are the nature and function of discourse for Michel Foucault, its historical disruptions, the formation of what Foucault calls "episteme", as well as the method he proposes for the study of discourse. After that, the paper will examine the application of power in *The Golden Bowl* for both repression and creation. It takes to analyze literature as a discourse which is not for liberation but for controlling through the creation of certain kinds of subjects which are desired by the power system. The creation of characters in literature with pre-determined mentalities is perhaps mainly for the institutionalization of power, which means for the reader to socialize himself through self-disciplining.

Additionally, new historicism regards a literary text as a triadic space for the contribution of the author, the text, and the reader. This renders literature a discourse for examining problems like: the concerns of the reader and his society, the production of power through interpretation, and the formation of the text in the reader's consciousness. The relation of power and subject, subject-making in literature via a search for 'truth', the modes and functions of surveillance, and

the text as culture in history are among other concerns of a new-historical approach to literature which the present article will attempt to discuss.

The present article will also deal with the bi-partite structure of *The Golden Bowl* to discuss its revisionism as a writing strategy called new-historical. The focus of my argument here is the productive power of the book's revision. In the first part of James's book, Maggie Verver's discourse is too inadequate for the people around her to accept and believe in. However, in its second part, which is a revision or a re-telling of the first, James repeats Maggie's discourse to update it via a negotiation between Maggie and her friends and the use of her strategic silence, and by so doing to make it acceptable for the people around her.

In addition, what James the revisionist calls the "Absolute" is discussed as a possibility for modernizing the novel's experience. It is also a space for James's reader to find "a way out" of whatever hinders renovating the novel's discourse. Moreover, in a series of metaphors the reviser illustrates how the discourse of the first part of his book was cancelled for the emergence of that of its second part.

II. DISCUSSION

A. *A Theory of New Historicism*

New historicism takes its roots perhaps from the old historicism of Johann Gottfried von Herder. Nevertheless, the base of the arguments of the present paper is Michel Foucault's literary contributions.

In *Critical Theory since Plato* we read "Foucault's interests had always been nothing if not historical and concerned with events" (Adams and Searle, 2004, p. 1259). When Foucault turned from his archeological studies to focus on (Nietzsche's) 'genealogy', it seems that he took the term to mean the historical development of 'power relations'. In this way, in a new-historical analysis of literature, history, which means the change or development of events in time, often stands in the center, because a bi-lateral connection is there regarded between history and literature. On one hand, a literary text reflects the determining forces of the historical situation of its production while on other hand the text is shaped by a totality of forces including the historical ones. And Foucault's researches in the 1970s and 1980s excited the English and American Renaissance scholars to regard history as subjective, non-linear, and as having no definite goal in its movement.

Another tenet of new historicism is that it takes history as subjective. Due to history's subjectivity, this critical approach formulates no single universal set of principles, and proposes no unitary theoretical model of research. Instead, it suggests particular models of investigation that are appropriate to certain times and places. It also regards literature not superior to other human discourses like philosophy, religion, politics, and sociology, but as a discourse that is, like them, the product of human imagination, subject to the dominating ideology, and a means of control by the power-structure in the time of its production.

However, history's subjectivity and the fact it is controlled by power render it into disrupted (disconnected) 'epistemes' of which the logic and purpose of a higher layer can go even counter to the logic and purpose of a lower one. Foucault says an episteme is a "totality of relations that can be discovered, for a given period, between the sciences when one analyses them at the level of discursive regularities" (2004, p. 148). A sense of his definition is that discourses change historically; that is, in different historical eras different relations are at work among the sciences. For example, the discourse of the 16th-century Shakespearean poetry is different, both in form and content, from the discourse of the 17th-century metaphysical poetry, the 19th-century romanticism is different from the Victorian realism, and the modern aesthetic consciousness in the fiction of the first half of the 20th century is different from the postmodern discourse in contemporary fiction.

Notwithstanding, not all scholars have a clear idea about the meaning of 'discourse' for Foucault. "Lynda Nead, ... , argues that Foucault is not consistent in his use of the term, and that consequently there is some uncertainty about the precise meaning of it as it is used even in a single work of Foucault" (Hawthorn, 1992, p. 66). But Hawthorn himself claims that "for Foucault discourses are 'large groups of statements' – rule-governed language terrains defined by what Foucault refers to as 'strategic possibilities'" (p. 65).

Therefore, it can be suggested that discourse is, in a Foucauldian sense, a cluster of statements in a certain historical period which ground the production of thought, reasoning, and intellectual communication as well as the inauguration of the logic of truth(-making). Such statements can be produced in theology, literature, philosophy, sociology, political science, etc. It goes without saying that defined as a cluster of statements, discourse is a dimension of language. However, it is not a linguistic dimension of language but a semantic one; that is, a dimension of whatever is concerned with the meaning, with the semantics, of language. In addition, it is concerned with laying the foundations of thought and reasoning, or with what Mas'Ud Zavarzadeh (1985) calls the "frames of intelligibility" (p. 607) in succeeding historical eras.

Discourse as a tradition for the production of truthful reasoning is also far from a continuously legitimate tradition, for in the history of its evolution it often goes through disruptions, discontinuities. A reason for such disruptions is the influence of the power structure on history and on the process of historicizing discourses. These subtle effects make the literary scholar doubt about the authenticity of such historically-made "discursive formations". In addition, the blind and non-linear movement of history should make the critic analyze the art object only in the context of the certain historical period in which it was produced.

But the idea is a bit more complicated than it seems, for if discourses are, on one hand, historically disrupted, on other hand all discourses of a same period are interconnected also. The disrupted and discontinuous nature of a discourse makes it essential that it is analyzed in the historical context of its production. Foucault's proposition for the study of discourse is strategic. The method he proposes for it is analyzing the episteme. He claims that

This episteme may be suspected of being something like a world-view, a slice of history common to all branches of knowledge, which imposes on each one the same norms and postulates, a general stage of reason, a certain structure of thought that the men of a particular period cannot escape — a great body of legislation written once and for all by some anonymous hand (2004, p. 148).

New historicism regards the discourse of a certain era interconnected to all other kinds of discourse in the same era in the making of which the social and historical strata of the time and place have important roles. It finds the literary text perhaps as the best space for the simulation of the interconnection of all these diversified discourses.

B. New Historicism in Fiction

Thus, in new historicism a piece of fiction is no longer an autonomous object. It is a cultural production which is itself a totality of forms, tools, mechanisms, etc. that are devised mainly by the power system for controlling the subjects. This leads to Foucault's refusal to accept that knowledge is simply there for liberation. He says "knowledge is not made of understanding; it is made for cutting" (qtd. in Nealon, 1992, p. 111).

New historicism sees (literary) knowledge not necessarily for producing citizens or making nations but as in the business of surveillance also, as in the service of the authority for easing the exercise of power for the subjugation of citizens. In such a context of double application of literature, criticism takes mission to direct knowledge and to formulate the individual and collective consciousness.

Thus, new historicists note that we cannot expect literature to open a way to our freedom, because its purpose is, among other things, the legitimization (naturalization) of the production of certain kinds of subjects with previously designed mentalities as the power needs. Freundlieb (1995) argues that for new historicists "the will to truth is simultaneously a will to power because the 'truth' that is 'discovered' is precisely what shapes or even constitutes the subject" (p. 332).

This subject-constituting power is a mechanism which grounds the production of a certain kind of people with neutralized or disempowered subjectivities who therefore only ease the legitimization of power. A new-historical scholar of literature wants to see how, under the guise of a search for 'truth', a literary work represents the creation of men and women in society who readily accept the necessities of the power structure. Instead of resisting the hegemony of power, these people easily come to terms with it and support its institutionalization. Therefore, for changing themselves into good citizens through moral conducts and acts of socialization, these citizens search for "self-disciplining" programs in which they attempt to make connections with themselves and bestow an aesthetic dimension on their own lives. This is why Freundlieb calls literature an "apparatus of ethical surveillance and normalization" (p. 330).

An aesthetic object, a story by Henry James for example or by Thomas Pynchon, is the product of a cultural system of which the author, the text, and the reader are major components. The importance which new historicism attaches to the author's life is that the aesthetic object reflects not only the concerns of the author but also those of the society in which the object has been produced. In line with this argument, what makes a James or a Pynchon is itself part and parcel of the culture in which they have lived and produced their oeuvres. The fact that the young James has often traveled between Europe and America, the various teachings that he has received from his tutors in great European cities like London, Paris, and Bonn, as well as what he has picked up from the European social and artistic opportunities like museums and libraries, have grounded the expansion of his imaginative outlooks and helped him to produce, later on in his life, a prose fiction a central theme of which is the interconnection of the past and the present of certain nations in the making of their cultures and civilizations.

Another issue of a new-historical analysis of James's fiction is the change in his studies when he was an undergraduate student. He firstly attended the Harvard Law School, but shortly after that he started to prefer literature to which he devoted his life. The reason of this radical adjustment can be found both in his personal interests and in the social backgrounds of his life. Personally, after reading law for some times, he made up his mind that he was more talented and more interested in literature than in the former discipline. Socially, he realized that American fiction and criticism were in a chronic state of extreme shallowness which he imagined could help to put right if he read literature.

This signifies that a new-historical study of fiction pays close attention to the text for showing the influence on it of the social and cultural situation of its production. However, in addition to representing how an author's mentality expands and tracing the fulfilment of his inclinations and responsibilities, such a care which new historicism pays to the social conditions of the text's production is often for representing subject-making power relations and modes of surveillance in such texts.

The representation of power relations in a work of fiction renders reading into a political gesture of truth-making. If a relation is naturally a two-dimensional entity, it guarantees the production of an in-between space where power is rooted not in the presence of a single side but in the participation of both sides of the relation. The source of such a relational power is neither something pre-given nor something out of the power structure, but is an integral part of it from which it therefore cannot be divided. This is to mean that what brings this kind of power into being is the dynamic

interaction of the two parties of the relation. This kind of power is therefore no longer given by a sacred agency from the heavens, and it is no longer central, transcendental. It is nodal, relational.

This means that a new-historical analysis of a literary text searches for the centers of power not out of the structure but within it, like something which is bound to the rules and regulations of the structure. The integration of power and structure, an exciting representation of which is *The Golden Bowl*, is a functioning guarantee of the modern liberal democracies.

In addition to power as relational, power is, from the eye of Foucault, both repressive and constitutive, productive and destructive. However, Foucault seemingly suggests that we should close our eyes on its repressive dimensions, and should focus on it only as productive. He says

The individual is no doubt the fictitious atom of an "ideological" representation of society; but he is also a reality fabricated by this specific technology of power that I have called "discipline." We must cease once and for all to describe the effects of power in negative terms: it "excludes," it "represses," it "censors," it "abstracts," it "masks," it "conceals." In fact, power produces; it produces reality; it produces domains of objects and rituals of truth. The individual and the knowledge that may be gained of him belong to this production. (ptd. in Freundlieb, 1995, p. 332).

An aftermath of power as productive is that there is not any universal culture or aesthetic norm, but there is a wide spectrum of cultures and norms that are much different from each other. As cultural products, literary texts are also culturally bound. Like other kinds of aesthetic objects, they take root from the innermost resources of peoples in different times and places. And the historical diversity of discourses is the guarantee of the emergence of diversified literary norms and aesthetic conventions. Such norms and conventions reflect both the cultural influences upon the authors and the feeling and behavioral standards of the author who produces the text.

Therefore, the next new-historical principle of literary analysis is the fictional text as a piece of culture in history. A new-historical reading of literature is a search for how it reflects a certain historical situation; that is, how a series of past happenings is narrated in language situations and how the reader reconstructs (historicizes) them in the act of reading. If both fiction and history are narrative discourses, fiction interacts with the historical conditions of its production to create reality and engineer people's subjectivities.

This in turn indicates that history is subjective, because it is narrated by the people whose consciousness is controlled by the power system. The school, the media, the pulpit, and the hospital are among the controlling apparatuses in the hand of power. It also indicates that such discourses are nodal rather than hierarchical.

Literature, history, and criticism are discourses between which no dividing line can be drawn, because to produce meaning a great text of fiction interweaves them so artistically that they cannot be un-woven again. The "periodicity" of history and discourse has excited new historicists to propose that they should undertake their job like an archeologist. To provide data as to a bygone people, the archeologist digs in deep layers of the earth and uncovers the (symbolic) leftovers of their lost civilization. Then, he discovers the interconnection of those leftovers to provide a formula about the bygone people. Likewise, in order to develop a formula for the formation and functioning of an 'episteme', a new-historical researcher digs in different discourses, regimes of thought or knowledge, of a given past era, uncovers the connections of these discourses, and provides the rules of the functioning of the episteme. In this sense, an episteme is the coming together of different discourses and the unifying principles or patterns of their interaction in a given historical era. Foucault asserts that these "epistemes exist in their own right; they are neither moral nor immoral, but amoral" (qtd. in Bressler, 1994, p. 132). The amorality of the episteme excites the 'archeologist of knowledge' to focus on how different layers of a bygone people's culture have interacted to render its members into a unified nation. As well, he is excited to zoom on the structure of power in the nation, the circulation of power in it, and how it has renewed itself in the passage of time.

Like what Stephen Greenblatt has done in his Shakespeare and Renaissance studies, a new-historicist investigator searches for meaning in the substrata of history and national cultures. However, new-historicists argue that there is not any general or universal episteme, for epistemes are to a large extent under the influence of power, and are therefore fully disrupted, and quite disconnected in logic and content. The non-linearity and disruption of history and its being influenced by power imply that our subjectivities are also not independent from culture and power, and that experience is the outcome of our interaction with cultural structures in history. And experience is earned in the act of reading when we find occasion to historicize the characters' feelings and thoughts in what Foucault calls "the being of language," and to simulate the spaces where such characters experience the world around them.

C. *New Historicism in The Golden Bowl*

1. *Allegory of the Revision*

Henry James's prefaces often want to teach us how to read his stories, and from the preface to *The Golden Bowl* the present reader takes to unravel a theory of new-historical reading of the novel. The novel spaces two texts or discourses one of which goes counter the other one, so that the superior text finally demolishes all the traces of the inferior one and erects its own logic and structure. From a naïve girl in the first text, who understands neither her husband (Prince Amerigo) nor her friend (Charlotte Stant), Maggie Verver develops in the second text to a girl with discriminating powers of mind who unweaves the thought patterns of her opponents, regains her husband's love, and helps them appreciate her subtle techniques of silence in a way that they can no longer reject her discourse. Her techniques of silence, as well as her dialogic power, which is a structure-making power also, invite James's characters and reader to

complement his text, so that at the end of it, although in our hand we have his book, in our mind we have a story that is re-told, historicized, by his reader and character which guarantees not only the renovation of the former's consciousness but that of the latter's also.

James's preface also reports his experiences about when he was revising the novel. In the original text (story), there was a 'case' which was to be represented as well as an individual 'view' of the case which was to be accounted for. If it is right to suggest that in the composition of the original text the writer was 'irresponsible' to his 'ideal', in its revision he says "I track my uncontrollable footsteps, right and left, while they take their quick turn" (James, 1995, p. xviii). But his revised text is bound in movement to the original. In this way, the author of *The Golden Bowl* pictorially and poetically exposes us to the deepest truths. There is an "embarrassed truth" through which this painter-poet-author remembers he has already glanced. But the revised story takes its main 'amusement' from how the teller recognizes the original truth "betrays itself," how it excites the reporter to filtrate a new outlook into his consciousness. A part of the pleasure of this language game of revision comes from an indirect report as to how the imagined agents succeed in "disavowing the presence of" a previous outlook and replacing it with a new one.

As a previous discourse is cancelled and a new one is inaugurated, it involves the society in the process of an embarrassing understanding, because it has to disregard the semantics of the previous discourse and justify its subjectivity with the new one. The literary representation of such a restoring game, *The Golden Bowl* for example, is a struggle for recognition through historicizing the experience of characters who have partaken in the making of the original story. The people of the story take their existence from participation in the act of recognition. These acts are to be represented mainly in "the consciousness of but two of the characters" (James, 1995, p. xviii): that of Prince Amerigo in the first part of the book, and that of Princess Maggie in the second.

A set of relations is represented in the name of Amerigo, while another set is shown in the name of Maggie. Although the Prince is entangled in a deep embarrassment, his concerns and interests are not much different from our own ones. However, the Princess is the representation of a "highly individualized *though* highly intelligent" (James, 1995, p. xviii) consciousness. The fact that she is "a compositional resource, and of the finest order" (James, 1995, p. xviii), signifies that James renders her into an occasion, into an apparatus, for repealing a previous episteme for the initiation of a new one.

However, in the presentation of the Princess almost nothing is calculable, because having a great variety of narrative materials at his disposal, in their selection the author feels quite free. The Jamesian compositional strategy here is that the Prince and Princess should be each a 'center of recognition'. We, as readers, enter these centers mainly in two ways. One is the door the Prince opens to the Princess while another one is the door the latter opens to the former. In the first part of the story the things are to help the Prince to hand himself over to the reader. This formula repeats itself in the second half of the story also where we read mainly to know the Princess.

However, this is not to mean that the Jamesian game in this novel is already complete, for a "consummate application" of these structural techniques is needed by the reader. The texts of Prince and Princess will unravel their mysteries only in a process of analytical negotiation in reading, for it is in reading that their images and pictures add to the hallucination of our being in literature, and make it into a vivid experience of understanding. In the act of reading, these images are invoked into figures and scenes for adding to our curiosity about the nature and development of the historical experience, so that in this historicizing process the interior of the past lives reveals itself to us in the form of renewed visible appearances. In this way, it can be suggested that a new-historical approach to fiction is for re-invoking such hallucinated past lives to flow into our consciousness and make our souls 'artistically' competent to absorb the truth of those lives and render them as understandable methods and formulas. *The Golden Bowl* illustrates how image and picture can develop, in the imagination of the author and reader, into visible appearances that work for sending the things of a previous era into disappearance and certifying the emergence of a new period with different laws of knowledge and principles of cognition.

James argues that the 'garden' of story-writer differs from that of the painter: story is a more dramatic illustration of the imaginary than painting, a more deeply enacted representation of life, and more suggestive. Picture cannot be modified to different situations and applications, since it is more stable in value than story, and it sooner becomes stale and rigid. But the vivid imagination of the author allows him to use the "plastic possibility" of the story perhaps in unlimited ways for the formation of a newly imagined world. And story is a freer simulation, and more productive, of (the truth of) life than painting, and it is more critical. The increasing unfaithfulness of the signifier to the signified in the modern and postmodern fiction opens up a possibility for it to create numberless imaginative environments where invented people pass virtual lives and institute successive discourses.

In the preface to James's book, we also read that for the composition of his story he has used "the street-scenery of London" (1995, p. xxi). This scenery is

a field yielding a ripe harvest of treasure from the moment I held up to it, in my fellow artist's company, the light of our fond idea--the idea, that is, of the aspect of things or the combination of objects that might, by a latent virtue in it, speak for its connexion with something in the book, and yet at the same time speak enough for its odd or interesting self" (1995, p. xxi-xxii).

The author confesses that although the implements of this scenery were at the risk of inconsistency, but they generated in him and his "fellow searcher" a "mere pleasure of exploration," a deep sense of curiosity which would

excite them “to ‘back’ the prodigious city” (1995, p. xxii) of London. However, in their backward exploring quest in the history of the city, it seems that what is more important for James is not the scenery implements but “the looking itself” which is “so often flooded with light the question of what a ‘subject’, what ‘character’, what a saving sense in things, is and isn’t” (1995, p. xxii). He is touring the scenery not for the things exhibited in the shop windows or if and how much they are or are not artistic, but more likely for enlightenment about the formulas of tastes, subjectivities, sensibilities, etc. of the typical English or even European man in the Renaissance times, for example.

Approaching James’s text in this way, one can claim that it is the ‘history’ (of Renaissance) which is at the center of it and to which it is a ‘response’. So, the idea of literature in it emerges from the idea of the past lives and appearances, that is, from the idea of things as they really were in history, but as the author has translated the formulas of their existence into appropriate content of his story. Thus, (understanding) the London life as a bridge or canal for leading James to the historical being of the European consciousness in a major subject of the novel.

This novel is, among other things, the story of how (London) life can be studied as a manifestation of the English prototypical discourse in history. James acknowledges that “the small shop” in the London scenery at the outset of the novel is “but a shop of the mind, of the author’s projected world, in which objects are primarily related to each other” (1995, p. xxii). Therefore, it is perhaps right to suggest that this Jamesian shop is not a real and concrete shop but is a phenomenon which has only been projected onto the mind of the author and the building blocks of which are relations. In addition, we should and can read “the Prince’s and Charlotte’s and the Princess’s visits” (1995, p. xxii) only in the space of this phenomenological being. Also, the author notifies the reader that this projected structure will remain incomplete unless the reader participates in its fabrication. The present reader is not sure if such a close and productive contribution between literature and reader for restructuring the geometry of the presence in history of the English people is not particular to the fiction of James.

If “shop” for mind in James’s preface signifies also his characters’ participation in the exchange of ideas for recycling the golden bowl of the English Renaissance consciousness, a feature of this projected construction is that no part of it stands divided from its other parts. However, another feature of it is that it lacks any center, while it will not cease its continuous becoming. The unceasing permutation in the subjectivity of men and women testifies discursive disruptions in the course of history.

When James was revising the text of *The Golden Bowl* for the New York Edition of his works, he said in the preface that the pursuit of the plot was secondary to the idea of rereading the tale. He realized that re-reading the tale, he could be faithful to the performing movement in its original form: “the march of my present attention coincides sufficiently with the march of my original expression” (1995, p. xxiii). Revising the text of this novel does not mean that James has re-written the whole of it, but only that he has read it again to recycle its discourse, to make it digestible for the modern reader.

Therefore, the author as reader is paradigmatic for the reader as author. The former does the revision perhaps without any “bewilderment or anguish”. Retelling story, James says he is “passive, receptive, appreciative, often even grateful” (1995, p. xxiii) to his previous footprints when he was telling the original one. In opposition to when he was revising his earlier texts, now he needs to make few amendments, because he does not see any “disparity of sense” between the original composer and the reviser of the text. His present act of revision is as similar to that of the original story-teller as the paper puppets are applicable to the shadows on the wall (in a puppet show).

Accordingly, the consciousness represented in the revised story is similar to that in the original version: in the rhythm of the motion as well as in the system of representation. The metaphor that James creates here is extraordinary: the previous virtual environment is like “a shining expanse of snow spread over a plain” (1995, p. xxiii) on which the reviser is treading. On the substructure, there are the footprints of the original intruder, but these footprints are just hidden under a solid layer of fresh snow that is perhaps the allegory of the new (social) changes, the problems of modernizing the text and adapting it to the needs of the modern reader. James says he could occasionally have deviated from the original track, but suggests that in the justification of his new steps to the previous footprints he had, on the whole, little problems. However, some amendments are appropriate to the dramatic ‘necessity’ of the new times.

Revising his text, and under the impact of a “sudden large apprehension of the Absolute” (James, 1995, p. xxiv), James seems to have acted quite intuitively. He frees himself from the influence of all theories of writing or philosophies of mind to find a short cut to the innermost regions of human consciousness. For James the reviser of his text, as well as for his reader, a source of inspiration is “deviations and differences” between the original text and its revision which appear in the act of reading.

In a new-historical analysis of literature superimposition is strategic also. In superimposition there is often a negotiation between old and new discourses of a people while the analyst focuses on their deviations as a field of research. As he works on such discursive deviations in the history of that people, he discovers the source, logic, and direction of knowledge in their historical evolution. In this sense, writing fiction and reading it are equal, for in reading fiction we also wrestle with the problems of composition, and renovate ourselves through the infusion of our perspectives and those of the text. It is in such horizon infusions, when a previous logic of experience is modified, that the conditions of our previous being are demolished, and our history regenerates itself through deviation from its previous course.

2. The “Absolute”

The "Absolute" is, as Stephen Donadio (1978) puts it with reference to the philosophy of Friedrich Hegel, the activity of the artist who "corresponds in essence to the striving of the spirit to realize itself completely in the world" (p. 60). In such a self-realizing attempt, the artist becomes inclined to tread on new ways for discovering himself. The science, art, knowledge, etc. of the new era welcome him to unrecognized horizons. In this "flat interregnum," he consciously waits to partake in setting up new systems of thought. Therefore, he observes a process of transformation in which the previous statements are cancelled and new norms, institutions, and systems of value impose themselves upon the subjects. With the gradual cancellation of trite discourses and the installation of new ones, the imagination of the typical artist flies over the altitudes that are necessarily other than the previous ones.

In this sense, it is through the art of revisionism that man historicizes literature and recreates himself. Art makes man, and man (re-)makes history. And the Jamesian "Absolute" is the space for the redemption of the artist in the temple of his consciousness through revisionism, the application of the new textual potentialities to free himself from compulsion and attain freedom of choice through introducing new epistemes. In the domain of the absolute, the revisionist writer, like his characters and readers, consciously endeavors to update himself through updating his art.

James implies that in a Kantian sense also revising a text is an act of enlightenment. As an "ausgang" (or a "way out"), it is a quest for new knowledge, because it gives a chance to the author to leave the previous norms of composition behind and introduce new logics of meaning. Thus, could it be argued that "the sense of the absolute" implies the application of the power of language, or of discourse, in re-reading a text for renewing the grammar of a previous epistemology? The "absolute" is the ground for "deviations and differences" to increase in the text, the possibility to go into the exterior of the text to see what the text originally wanted to say but has failed to say. It is therefore the logic of hatching the eggs of a new text in the shell of the previous one(s). Revising a text is to renew its narrative by removing the dust of oldness on the face of it, to turn its characters into new persons whom the reader can know and with whom he can sympathize.

If, as Mary Cross (1993) says, "There is an increasing disproportion between what she [Maggie] says and the accumulating surplus of what she means" (p. 185), re-reading or revising *The Golden Bowl* is to load its discourse up with new implications so as to enable her to interfere between the word and its referent. James and Maggie use this strategy for looking over the text to see how it can be impregnated with new meanings.

Here James and Maggie intend artistically to control the meaning, and their solution is "to preserve the word, the appearance, even as she makes off with or replaces its reference" (Cross, 1993, p. 185). They try to understand the language, not as an absolute essence, but as a virtual apparatus, as a collection of signs with relations and differences; and they want to re-fill in the gaps between the word and its referent. Maggie attempts to exercise her power over the text by interfering with the meanings that the words produce. She will create her text within the one that Charlotte has already written for her, and she will try to possess it in a way that it affirms her recently renovated self.

In the preface to his novel, James uses two additional figures which support the sense of the metaphor glanced at above and which I therefore would like to discuss in a few sentences. In the first one, the agents of revisionism are the "alert winged creatures, perched on those diminished summits and aspired to a clearer air" (1995, p. xxvi) in the environment. For the present reader, this is the metaphor of the reader's imagination which suddenly comes to sit on the deserted strongholds of the text for the importation of new codes and the circulation of new meanings. In this sense, rereading a literary text is an intellectual challenge for transcending experience as well as showing how power is enacted in society.

The second image, which is rather sensual, is even more exciting. Primarily, "The 'old' matter is there, reaccepted, restated, exquisitely re-assimilated and reenjoyed – believed in, to be brief, with the same 'old' grateful faith" (1995, p. xxvi). But when a sense of 'doubt' juxtaposes itself with the sense of faith in the imagination of the artist, we see him "perforating as by some strange and fine, some latent and gathered force, a myriad more adequate channels" (James, 1995, p. xxvi) to dramatize how his faith to the old is dethroned to give way to his doubt for the possibility of inputting new ideas and asserting new values. The perforated channel in the arena of the text seems to be for rendering it a field of conflict between the old and the new. And the artist's lingering between the two is the economy of a purposeful negotiation between faith and doubt for the emergence of new epistemes.

Thus, revising a story is not necessarily rendering its previous meanings futile, but to manage the emergence of a mixture of a present and a previous discourse, the possibility of a mutation of the 'archeology of knowledge' to apply it to new conditions. In this sense, re-reading or revising a text is a possibility for historicizing literature by injecting new life into it.

3. Maggie Verver's "Performative Self-Contradiction"

In the first part of James's novel, Maggie Verver is extremely naïve, and so her discourse is unable to compete with those of her rivals. Her problem is that she is inadequate to establish useful connections between herself and the people around her. However, in the second part of the novel she historicizes her discourse of the first part; that is, she renews her discourse to produce meaningful connections between her moral outlook and the outlook of the folks around her about marriage and the Lancaster Gate celebrations. In her magnificent language performances, she creates a dynamic space for canceling the plots of her husband and mother-in-law and compelling them to admit the development of her newly established discourse.

At the end of the novel, Maggie is aware about the affair of her husband and her mother-in-law. But when the latter and her father are on the way back to America, she meets her, not to take revenge of her by informing her that she knows everything about her misdeeds, but to pretend that she thinks she is a good and moral woman and that she does not think anything wrong about her (or if she meets her to take revenge, she does so in her own way which is Jamesian). Maggie's self-contradiction here is a method of remaking her identity through the promotion of her perspective, for what would the outcome have been if Maggie had done otherwise?!

Her self-contradicting renunciation guarantees epistemological initiations which provide James's character and reader with good occasions to think about how they can change their being, how they can insert themselves in the social context through their critical thinking; for their minds could otherwise be misguided and their energy misused. To put it another way, if Maggie had not pretended negligence about the affair of Charlotte and her own husband, we would have lost the chance to think critically about their and our better choices. And it would mean the deterioration of our social beings and the cancellation of our histories. Maggie's self-contradiction guarantees the remaking of her critical self, for hereby she finds the space to care for herself and to conceptualize herself.

III. CONCLUSION

New historicism is rooted in old historicism. But the former is much different from the latter; and it seems to be a more developed stage of old historicism. But new-historicism is mainly based on the ideas of Michel Foucault the well-known French archeologist, historian, and philosopher. In Foucauldian new historicism, standing at the center of attention is history with two meanings (a) the events which have happened in the past, and (b) our perception of those events. History as perception means that it is neither quite trustable nor wholly uncoverable. However, it also means that it is both subjective and at the risk of prejudice.

Also, in new historicism literature is interconnected with history while their connection is a double one. On one hand, a literary text mirrors the social, political, etc. situation of the era of its production, while on other hand the text is the product of that certain situation.

And a literary text is a triangular field where the author, the text, and the reader stand interconnected. Regarding the first angle, new historicists pay close attention to how the realities of the author's private and social life affect the production of a literary text. As to the text, text as culture in history and text as a field of negotiation (interpretation) are among the more important issues of new historicism. And regarding the reader, they focus on even more important problems: the formation of the text's discourse in the reader's consciousness, reading as writing, the development of readership, and by so doing, the application of surveillance, and the issues of repression and creation. These debates put new historicism among the social and political approaches to literature.

As well, the present reader believes that *The Golden Bowl* can interestingly be approached new historically. James has written it in two texts (parts) in a way that the second text is a revision of the first. Thus, it is mainly revisionism which renders it applicable to this mode of analysis. In "Book First" of the novel, Maggie Verver's discourse is too inadequate to be accepted by the people around her, because although she is a sincere friend, a morally good wife, and a loving daughter-in-law with a humanistic outlook, she cannot excite them to accept it.

However, in its "Book Second" James re-writes her story in a way that the forces of revisionism make it into an acceptable discourse for Maggie's opponents. Interpretive negotiation and a telling gesture of silence are two historicizing strategies in the hands of James the reviser which enable Maggie's second text to include whatever her first text had futilely attempted to include. Here James uses literary language both as a means of creation and as a means of control. On the one hand, he uses language for creating new experiences, because each time it enables his character to develop new relations with herself and change her outlook to a better one in a self-disciplining procedure. On the other hand, he uses language as a controlling mechanism, as a means of surveillance.

Therefore, literature for creation and literature for control are two further features of language that render James's novel applicable to a new-historical analysis. Both of these language features are the forms of what Stephen Greenblatt (1980) calls the "self-fashioning," of literature, which he claims "is always, though not exclusively, in language" (p. 9). However, if for Greenblatt the fashioning power of literature lies in representation which signifies the lack of a sharp contrast between life and literature, for Foucault it lies in the other dimensions of language: in whatever renders the literary text a fertile ground for recycling or historicizing experience through revisionism, and through reading and critical interpretation.

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A Moodle-based Model for Teaching Written Translation Theory and Practice*

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Abstract—This study aims to do an experiment under the Moodle-based model with the assistance of College Learners' Exercises Online (CLEO) for the teaching and learning of Translation Theory and Practice (TTP) designed by the researcher of the present study and then applied to college learners in China. The participants were 80 English majors divided into an experimental group (EG) and a control group (CG). The research instruments were pre-tests and post-tests, a closed-ended questionnaire, and the TTP-CLEO system used on the platform of Moodle along with other blended teaching methods. Pre-tests and Post-tests were administered to both groups before and after the experiment followed by the questionnaire to EG participants for collecting data. The results demonstrate that after the experiment for one semester, the EG participants' attitude towards the instructional model was affirmative and the Moodle-based model with other blended methods for teaching TTP could significantly improve the participants' translating scores as well as stimulate their interests in working on the platform of Moodle installed with online translating exercises through the Internet, while the CG participants made limited progress in the traditional model of learning. Indications were made on the research findings with suggestions for TTP teaching.

Index Terms—Moodle-based teaching model, instruction, online exercises, translation theory and practice

I. INTRODUCTION

As one of the five basic language skills, translation is regarded as the last but the most difficult skill to be mastered in foreign language (FL) learning. It is also listed in China as one of the several individual accomplishments for English majors when entering college. The Teaching Syllabus for English Majors in Colleges and Universities (TSEM) states that the course of Written Translation aims to cultivate the learners' fundamental ability in written translation, especially to master the basic theory of English-Chinese translation, as well as the techniques for translating words and expressions, long sentences, and contexts in various styles between English and Chinese. Wei (2010, p.38) points out three stages of language-skill learning: (1) "listening and speaking" stage, in which speaking most symbolizes one's language ability; "listening, speaking, reading, and writing" stage, in which writing most represents one's foundation in language; and "listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translating", in which translating demonstrates one's ultimate and overall attainments in the source and target languages and cultures. Written Translation is hence a course that can examine what the students have learned during the first and second stages, and therefore symbolizes their potential competence in the specialty of English language.

Translation Theory and Practice (TTP) is at present a compulsory course for all English majors at college and universities in China. Due to its scheduled class hours (two periods per week within one semester), the so-called Translation Theory and Practice is quite limited for the students either to learn theory or to practice translating techniques in the "teacher-centered" settings, where a superficial understanding of translation could be merely attained. Whereas, the demands for a "talent" are very much concrete and practical in the contemporary society. Dr. Danica Seleskovitch, principal of a translating school in Paris, proposes a "plug and play" standard for translators, "Qualified translators and interpreters are people properly trained for immediate employment with less or no need for an adjustment period." (cited from Bao, 2003, p.45) Mu Lei (1999) also believes that the ultimate proficiency of an undergraduate is usually embodied in oral and written translation. Pitifully, a great number of college graduates including those English majors are far from satisfaction in their ability in translation. Lin Wusun (cited from Wei, 2010) once definitely claimed that even the elite English majors who were assigned to work in the National Foreign Language Bureau needed at least three or four years to become competent for their translating jobs. It is of no surprise when we hear that so many countless public signs and slogans in English were awfully translated by the undergraduates from the English specialties (cited from Xu, 2002).

It is believed that limited translation teaching as a course at college cannot simply be equal to the teaching of translating skills as a professional training programme (Wei, 2010). Wei claims that Written Translation has been for long a knowledge-based course in use of one-fold traditional teaching materials and prescriptive methods in Chinese

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colleges and universities, in which the learners have to force themselves to receive the teacher's doctrine-like theory without plenty of translating practice and possible interactions between learners and the teacher for practical translating techniques. Nevertheless, Social Constructivist Learning Theory emphasizes that knowledge has its rational characteristics of personal experience which could not be independent of the subject of knowledge, i.e., the person who is studying the knowledge him/herself (See Cheng, 2005). Humanistic psychologists assert that the central process of learning is nothing of a teacher's instruction but students' learning itself, and thus the innovation of teaching along with related trainings must be focused on the value of practice concerning the students' attitudes, emotions, and learning styles (Miech *et al.*, 1996).

With the development of e-learning technology nowadays, changes have occurred in the learning styles of different majors, and technological teaching environment is paid attention to rather than technology itself. As a result, the application of technology to education has become an inevitable tendency nowadays. Li (2011) holds that a really effective e-learning model involves not only networks but also the theories of teaching design and language learning, as well as all possible opportunities for learners with different learning habits, interests and demands to decide where, when and what to learn autonomously after class. Since the 2000s, Chinese scholars (Xu, 2002; Bao, 2003; Wan, 2002; Zheng, 2001; Jing, 200; etc) have appealed to college and universities to carry out innovations in TTP for better course improvement.

Moodle (i.e., Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment), developed as a course management system for free by Martin Dougiamas, an Australian scholar, is popularly employed by more than 2000 organizations all over 100 countries (cited from Brandle, 2005). It is a software to establish a system platform of interactive online learning communities for both learners and teachers. This platform has been greatly reported in previous studies (Dougiamas & Taylor, 2003; Brandle, 2005; Bunchua, 2006; Corich, 2005; Shi, 2009; Wang, 2007; Wu & Lu, 2004; Ding, 2006; Lang & Yan, 2006; Ma & Zhang, 2006; Yan & Hu, 2007; etc.). It is stated that different sessions like course preparing, presenting, marking, reviewing, and checking can be involved together into the Moodle platform via the Internet. On the one hand, the whole process of TTP course instruction may become much more integrated and informationalized in the platform where the teacher's own individual course design is supposed to be better applied and then the path of the teacher's professional development for this course can be recorded for further continuous self-examination. On the other hand, this platform is believed to help establish an all-round developmental assessment system including learners' portfolios in learning rather than the traditional single assessment system in the past.

Due to the fact that this type of platform is still rarely found employed for TTP teaching in Chinese colleges and universities, the researcher of the present study developed an online courseware named TTP-CLEO (college learners' exercises online for translation theory and practice) with Moodle as its platform. The courseware was designed in two categories, i.e., theory and practice. The former includes matching exercises, single and multiple choices, filling-in-the-blank exercises and the latter includes practical exercises of words and expressions translating, supplemental translating, and sentences translating, as well as limited number of sequence exercises. For each group of the exercises the system can automatically display test results and answers for the practicers. All these activities are never found employed in any of the textbooks published in China for the teaching of TTP. It is worth mentioning that all these types of TTP activities designed by the researcher are never found employed in any of the textbooks published in China for the teaching of TTP. In the present studies, the learners were required to practice the Moodle-based TTP-CLEO online in/after class on the Internet; meanwhile the course instructor used blended teaching methods to teach the course, such as PPT presentations, source-and-target-language textual analyses, especially, checking and managing via Moodle the learners' operations on the platform, along with various types of online communications with the learners like recording and responding to their frequencies of visiting Moodle, sending back their submitted supplemental exercises annotated with comments, providing abundant additional reading materials for their spare-time readings, etc(hence called Moodle-Based Teaching Model or MBTM). With the aims of making the teaching and learning of TTP relatively more inter-correspondent for bringing out the best in both theory and practice, this study mainly investigated the subject for related replies to the following research questions (RQs).

RQ1: Is there a significant difference between the use and none-use of the MBTM with the assistance of College Learners Exercises Online for TTP (TTP-CLEO) which are assumed to eventually improve the learners' ability in written translation?

RQ2: Do the English majors have affirmative or negative attitudes towards MBTM which are supposed to stimulate their interests in learning such a course?

RQ3: If the informants' attitudes are affirmative, in what aspects do they believe MBTM are valuable for them to learn such a course?

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The present study is of quantitative research. The samples include two classes of English majors at the School of Foreign Studies, Guangdong Institute of Petrochemical Technology, one of which is assigned as the experimental group (EG), and the other as the controlled group (CG). Both classes undertook pre-tests and post-tests before and after the

experiment of the MBTM for one semester. Additionally, a questionnaire survey was carried out among EG participants who were merely taught under the MBTM.

B. Participants

The original pool of participants in this study consisted of two third-year classes of 80 English majors at the School of Foreign Studies, Guangdong Institute of Petrochemical Technology. There were 40 students in the experimental group (EG), and 40 in the control group (CG), both selected and scheduled to have TTP course this semester. They had all finished two years' fundamental courses at the same levels, propitious to the experiment and survey.

C. Instruments

1) Pre-test and Post-test: The two tests were given in use of the same test papers made up of two passages: one in English for Chinese translation and the other in Chinese for English translation. The pre-test aimed to collect comparing data for the validity of the experiment in order to identify the participants' ability in written translation, and the post-test was to verify the effectiveness of the experimental group's learning under the Moodle-Based Teaching Model (MBTM) of "College Learners Exercises Online" specially designed for TTP learning (short for "TTP-CLEO") by the researcher of the present study course.

2) The TTP-CLEO courseware: It was designed and developed by the researcher of the present study in use of Adobe Captivate 4 for the teaching and learning of written translation theory and practice that were made inter-correspondent for bringing out the best in each other. The TTP-CLEO sources were designed especially in two categories, i.e., theory and practice (For examples, see Appendix B). For each section of the exercises the system could automatically display test results and answers for the practicers, which were all undertaken on the platform of Moodle in/after class in addition to other blended teaching methods as called Moodle-Based Teaching Model or MBTM previously.

3) Questionnaire: The Moodle-Based TTP-CLEO Questionnaire, designed by the researcher of the present study, was a close-ended five-point Likert scale with 28 items of belief, ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" with values 1–5 assigned from left to right for them respectively. Although it's controversial to treat Likert-scale questions as interval data for there's no guarantee that the distance between "strongly disagree" and "disagree" is the same as the distance between "disagree" and "neutral", for example. However, such data obtained via these questions are still considered valuable for the study to explore what the informants have felt about the MBM for their TTP learning. The Questionnaire was then administered to the experimental group (EG) to measure the levels of their attitudes towards the application to their learning. The possible range for the Questionnaire is 28 to 140, with lower scores indicating less affirmative attitude and higher scores indicating more affirmative attitude of the participants towards the model, under the condition that 11 items (i.e., items 3, 4, 5, 7, 13, 14, 15, 20, 22, 25, & 28) are reversely scored for their meaning totally opposite to all the others' in direction. For instance, value 1 for "25. We don't like the MBM and TTP-CLEO, but the traditional model" refers to the EG learners' strongest negative attitude towards the experiment, while value 5 "23. Even though I often encounter 'Sorry, try again', I never lose heart for the practice is amazing" refers to the EG learners' strongest affirmative attitude. To check the reliability of the questionnaire, it was administered to 30 English majors at the same school. According to a general formula for Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, $\alpha = n(1 - \sum \sigma_i^2 / \sigma_x^2) / (n-1)$, the scale achieved an alpha coefficient of .713 ($n=58$) which indicated an acceptable internal reliability.

D. Data Collections

There were two types of data collections, i.e., the two tests and one questionnaire survey. The tests were administered to the two groups of English majors mentioned above. The questionnaire was administered to the experimental group (EG) only. In order for the participants to understand the scale better, the questionnaire questions were written in Chinese. The number of the subjects in both groups who did the pre-test and post-test papers and the EG who filled out the questionnaire guaranteed adequate sample size which covered exactly all the participants for the present study.

E. Data Analyses

The data from the two tests and the questionnaire were tallied and tabulated with the assistance of the SPSS computer program. The researcher employed descriptive statistics, One-Way ANOVA, and frequencies of the responded individual items to analyze the data in order to find answers to the first two research questions (RQs). Factor analysis was used for a reply to the third RQ.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results for and Discussion on the 1st RQ

1. Pre-test Results and Analyses

The pre-test aimed to find out whether there was a significant difference between the experimental group (EG) and the control group (CG) before experiment. Prior to the tests, it was assumed that there was no significant difference between the two groups. With the performance of pre-test, the results were collected and analyzed in use of Descriptive Statistics (See Table 1) and then the variance of the mean scores between the two groups were analyzed in use of One-Way ANOVA (See Table 2).

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRETEST MEAN SCORES OF BOTH GROUPS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental group (EG)	40	43	85	68.18	8.006
Control group (CG)	40	55	85	69.88	6.529

TABLE 2
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE PRETEST MEAN SCORES BETWEEN BOTH GROUPS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Experimental group(EG)	Between Groups (Combined)	1222.608	19	64.348	1.008	.492
Control group(CG)	Within Groups	1277.167	20	63.858		

Table 1 shows that the mean scores of the EG were 68.18 (SD=8.006); while the mean scores of the CG were 69.88(D=6.529), simply 1.7 bigger. The descriptive statistics indicate that the written translation levels of EG and CG were similar before the experiment. With P-value larger than 0.5($P=0.492$), Table 2 shows no significant difference between EG and CG in written translation before the experiment was implemented. Therefore, the research is applicable.

2. Post-test Results and Analyses Compared with Pre-test Results

The post-test was designed to find out whether there was a significant difference between CG and EG after applying the MBTM to TTP course. We assumed that there was significant difference between the CG and EG participants after the experiment. The results of the pre-tests and post-tests of both groups were collected and analyzed in use of descriptive statistics (See Table 3) and then the mean scores of both groups' two types of tests were compared in use of One-Way ANOVA (See Table 4).

TABLE 3
COMPARATIVE RESULTS OF THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST MEAN SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP (CG)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest of CG	40	55	85	69.88	6.529
Posttest of CG	40	55	88	71.40	6.400

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF THE CONTROL GROUP (CG)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pretest of CG	Between Groups (Combined)	1517.783	19	79.883	2.505	.054
Posttest of CG	Within Groups	637.717	20	31.886		

Table 3 shows that the pre-test mean scores of CG were 69.88 (SD=6.529); while the post-test mean scores of CG were 71.40(D=6.400), merely 1.52 bigger. The statistics displays that the CG learners' translating ability level after the experiment was not so high, and the P-value as shown in Table 4 was just a bit bigger than 0.5 ($P=0.54$), which demonstrates insignificant difference between their pre-test and post-test mean scores after the experiment.

The results show that students in the control group, who had never been taught under the MBTM with the help of TTP-CLEO, have not improved so much in translating scores after a semester's learning, and the mean scores between the pre-test and post-test of the control class were nearly the same. It indicates that the CG participants have made little progress in their practical ability in written translation merely under the traditional face-to-face instructional model of TTP course.

TABLE 5
COMPARATIVE RESULTS OF THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST MEAN SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (EG)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest of EG	40	43	85	68.18	8.006
Posttest of EG	40	61	93	79.75	7.434

TABLE 6
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (EG)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pretest of EG	Between Groups (Combined)	2019.825	18	112.212	4.910	.000
Posttest of EG	Within Groups	479.950	21	22.855		

Table 5 shows that the pre-test mean scores of EG were 68.18 (SD=8.006); while the post-test mean scores of EG were 79.75(SD=7.434), about 11.57 bigger. The statistics displays that the EG learners' written translation ability after the experiment was higher than their written translation ability before the experiment. With P-value smaller than 0.5

($P=0.000$), Table 6 demonstrates significant difference between their pre-test mean scores and post-test mean scores after the experiment.

The results indicate that with the help of the MBTM, the test results of the experimental group show that students' ability in written translation has improved at a certain degree which was 17 % higher than their pre-test mean scores. After applying the model, students have made significant progress in their performance of translating practice and the MBTM can improve students' translating scores with a proven effect of application of such an instructional model.

TABLE 7
COMPARATIVE RESULTS OF THE POSTTEST MEAN SCORES BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP(EG) AND CONTROL GROUP (CG)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Posttest of EG	40	61	93	79.75	7.434
Posttest of CG	40	55	88	71.40	6.400

TABLE 8
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF BOTH GROUPS (EG)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pretest of EG	Between Groups (Combined)	1517.783	19	79.883	2.505	.024
Posttest of CG	Within Groups	637.717	20	31.886		

Table 7 shows that the post-test mean scores of EG were 79.75 ($SD=7.434$), while the post-test mean scores of CG were 71.40($D=6.400$) which was 8.35 smaller. Compared with the means of pre-tests, the EG students' post-test translating scores increased much by 17%, and the CG students' post-test translating scores increased just a little by 2.17%; Table 8 also shows significant difference between the two groups' post-test mean scores ($P=0.24$), which indicates that the written translation level of EG after the experiment was significantly higher than that of the CG after the experiment.

The results demonstrate that with the help of the MBTM, the test results of the experimental class show that the participants' translating ability has improved impressively higher than the control class. After applying the MBTM, the participants have made significant progress in their performance of written translation, which indicates the MBTM can improve students translating scores with the assistance of TTP-CLEO.

B. Results for and Discussion on the 2nd RQ

The responses from the participants on the experiment are very important for the researcher and the present study as well as for course instructors to take advantage of the strengths of teaching reform so as to overcome their weaknesses effectively. As to the first half of the second hypothesis, Table 9 displays the descriptive statistics on what attitudes the EG participants were holding after the experiment.

TABLE 9
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OVERALL MEAN SCORES OF THE EG

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall of the beliefs on MBM TTP-CLEO	40	3.46	4.50	3.9313	.254

Table 9 shows that the mean scores of the EG participants were 3.9313 ($SD=0.254$) standing for 110.8 which was 78.6% out of 140 as the biggest range of the 28-item 5-point Likert scale. As higher scores indicate more affirmative attitude of the participants towards the model, the statistics demonstrate that 78.6% in general of the EG participants believed that the TTP-CLEO under MBM could positively improve their ability in written translation. Table 10 displays the highest and lowest frequencies of individual items.

TABLE 10
HIGHEST AND LOWEST FREQUENCIES OF MEAN SCORES OF THE INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

Type of Frequency	Items	N							
			Mean	SD	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Highest	To learn TTP well, we should actively prepare and review the lessons regularly, and be patient in doing translating exercises, not just pushy for a sudden success.	40	4.72	.452	0	0	0	27.5	72.5
	We don't like the MBM and TTP-CLEO, but the traditional model.	40	4.58	.549	0	0	2.5	37.5	60
	TTP-CLEO is valuable in improving my translating theory and practical ability.	40	4.5	.641	0	0	7.5	35.0	57.5
	I don't work very hard either at TTP-CLEO or the exercises in the textbook.	40	4.48	.554	0	0	2.5	47.5	50.0
Lowest	Each time when I failed while doing the online translating exercises, I would know about translating and myself better.	40	3.28	1.012	0	32.5	15.0	45.0	7.5
	I feel it easier to do translating exercises of TTP-CLEO than reading what are said in the textbook.	40	2.98	1.230	12.5	32.5	5.0	45.0	5.0
	I prefer working at TTP-CLEO even to reviewing the textbook.	40	2.90	1.236	12.5	32.5	17.5	27.5	10
	After one semester's study, I have learnt that translating is something very easy in fact.	40	2.33	1.047	17.5	55.0	7.5	17.5	2.5

As shown in Table 10, the 1st highest frequency of item is "To learn TTP well, we should actively prepare and review the lessons regularly, and be patient in doing translating exercises, not just pushy for a sudden success" ($M=4.72, SD=0.452$), which indicates that participants accepted MBM and TTP-CLEO that they believed could lead them to improvement step by step. The second highest is "We like the MBM and TTP-CLEO, not the traditional model" ($M=4.58, SD=0.549$), which clearly demonstrates their interests in the model for their TTP learning. The third highest is "TTP-CLEO is valuable in improving my translating theory and practical ability" ($M=4.5, SD=0.641$), which well indicates that the model stimulated their interests in learning written translation theory and practice, and that they recognized the benefits of the model. The fourth highest is "I work very hard both at TTP-CLEO and the exercises in the textbook" ($M=4.48, SD=0.554$), which shows that the participants positively feel like doing the online exercises in their free time.

Four lowest frequencies of items are also shown in the table above. The first lowest is "After one semester's study, I have learnt that translating is something very easy in fact" ($M=2.33, SD=1.047$), which indicates that the participants believed that there was still a long way to go for the learning of such a course, and one semester's study was really not enough for them. The second lowest one is "I prefer working at TTP-CLEO even to reviewing the textbook" ($M=2.98, SD=1.230$), which stands for the importance of a mixed learning approaches and teaching methods for the participants, not totally dependent on TTP-CLEO itself. The third lowest is "I feel it easier to do translating exercises of TTP-CLEO than reading what are said in the textbook" ($M=2.90, SD=1.236$), which means that the learners had a clear head in selecting learning sources according to their own demands. The fourth lowest is "Each time when I failed while doing the online exercises, I would know about translating and myself better" ($M=3.28, SD=1.012$), which indicates that there was still a lot to do for a further development of the MBTM and TTP-CLEO in future so that the learners could learn better from what they were taught at college and university.

C. Results of Factor Analysis of the MBTM for and Discussion on the 3rd RQ

According to Table 11 and Table 12 as below, each of the factors is described based on the content or relationship of the majority of the anxiety items which appear to share common characteristics under the same factor. Eventually, four extracted factors were taken as shown in the reports on the rotated component matrix of factor analysis for the questionnaire, in which eight items were deleted based on its low factor loading and communality.

TABLE 11
THE SUMS OF SQUARED FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE INITIAL FACTORS FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings (Eigenvalues)		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.111	14.684	14.684
2	2.890	10.323	25.007
3	2.589	9.246	34.253
4	2.232	7.971	42.224

TABLE 12
REPORTS ON THE RESULTS OF THE ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Items	Component			
	1	2	3	4
23. Even though I often encounter “Sorry, try again”, I never lose heart for the practice is amazing.	.688			
9.I prefer working at TTP-CLEO even to reviewing the textbook.	.669			
11.I feel it easier to do translating exercises of TTP-CLEO than reading what are said in the textbook.	.663			
17. I did not comprehend TTP-CLEO so much before; but I feel like doing it now.	.571			
28.TTP-CLEO is not valuable at all in improving my translating theory and practical ability.	.518			
26. I like the teaching model blended with textbook, PPT presentations, and TTP-CLEO exercises together.	.497			
20. What we have learned are not so useful for improving our translating ability.		.803		
15.I do not work very hard either at TTP-CLEO or the exercises in the textbook.		.730		
5. I don't want to have bad attendance records even though I have no interest in translation class.		.577		
6. I like translation class for I can learn what I've never experienced and it is useful and practical.		.557		
2.To learn TTP well, we should actively prepare and review the lessons regularly, and be patient in doing translating exercises, not just pushy for a sudden success.		.542		
12. I don't care if I will make mistakes while doing online exercises, but I'm really concerned about my translating ability.			.646	
24. I prefer the theory-based practical exercises which can help us learn the course systematically.			.630	
7. Generally, I do exercises in the textbook more than online.			-.570	
10. I thought translation was easy, but I now understand a translator needs to be skillful in both English and Chinese.			.537	
8. Each time when I failed while doing the online translating exercises, I would know about translating and myself better.			.526	
1. After one semester's study, I have learnt that translating is something very easy in fact.				.668
13. I am confident when doing theory exercises; but I fail in practice exercises so many times that I finally give up.				.529
3. I cannot understand what the teacher is presenting through PPT courseware in class.				.515
16. The arranged hours for translation class are too limited, while TTP-CLEO is really a beneficial make-up.				.457

The results of varimax rotation method reveal four extracted categories of factors each of which was given a name by the researcher of the present study in accordance with the interrelation and common inner-characteristics they share that provide answers to RQ3 as follows:

Factor 1: *Amazing TTP-CLEO*, made up of 7 items (i.e., 9, 11, 17, 22, 23, 26, 28), accounting for 14.684 percent of the variance among the 28 questionnaire items. This factor indicates that the EG informants felt interested in doing the online exercises specially developed by the researcher of the present study.

Factor 2: *Strong Motivation*, made of 5 items (i.e., 2, 5, 6, 15, 20), accounting for 10.323 percent of the variance among the 28 questionnaire items. This factor indicates that the EG informants' motivations were simulated under the MBTM while learning the TTP course.

Factor 3: *Needs of Self-development*, made of 5 items (i.e., 7, 8, 10,12, 24), accounting for 9.246 percent of the variance among the 28 questionnaire items. This factor indicates that the EG informants were strongly conscious of what to do for their self-development in translation.

Factor 4: *Feeling of Achievement*, made of 4 items (i.e., 1, 13, 3, 16), accounting for 7.971 percent of the variance among the 28 questionnaire items. This factor indicates that the EG informants felt a bit satisfied with such a teaching and learning model under which they could make improve their translating ability.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study undertook research into the effect of an application of the Moodle-Based Teaching Model (MBTM) with the assistance of College Learners Exercises Online for Translation Theory and Practice (TTP-CLEO) plus other blended methods, which were supposed to improve the learners translating ability. Through one semester's experiment, the experimental group (EG) was found more significantly progressive in translating ability with higher post-test scores than the pre-test scores, while the control group(CG) taught face to face merely, although also improved a little in post-test scores, actually made very limited progress which was insignificantly different compared with its pre-test scores. The analyses of the data from the closed-ended questionnaire administered to EG participants demonstrates their affirmative attitudes towards MBTM for teaching and learning TTP with online translating exercises, which as well need to be further developed and improved. Four aspects were found through factor analysis as “Amazing TTP-CLEO”, “Strong Motivation”, “Needs of Self-development”, and “Feeling of Achievement,” which illustrate the potential causes for the participants' attitudes after the experiment. One thing is for sure that the innovation of applying modern technology to the seemingly boring and actually difficult TTP course teaching and learning is possible and feasible,

dependent on how the course is taught and organized, and what the learners feel they could achieve from what they are taught and what they have learned.

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APPENDIX A. PRETEST AND POSTTEST PAPER: WRITTEN TRANSLATION PRACTICE OF CATTI

Section 1 English-Chinese Translation (英译汉) (60 points)

Translate the following passage into Chinese. The time for this section is 120 minutes.

Parents are required by law to see that their children receive full-time education, at school or elsewhere, between the ages of 5 and 16 in England, Scotland and Wales and 4 and 16 in Northern Ireland. About 93 percent of pupils receive free education from public funds, while the others attend independent schools financed by fees paid by parents.

Many, aged 3-4 years, children attend nursery schools and classes (or, in England, reception classes in primary schools). Pre-school education may also be provided in some private day nurseries and pre-school playgroups (which are largely organized by parents).

The Government has stated its commitment to a major expansion of pre-school education and wants all children to begin school with a basic foundation in literacy and numeracy. From September 1998 it is providing free nursery education in England and Wales for all 4 year olds whose parents want it, and is committed to staged targets for provision for 3 year olds thereafter. Local education authorities, in partnership with private and voluntary providers, have drawn up "early years development plans" for securing these objectives. The plans are designed to show how co-operation between private nurseries, playgroups and schools call best serve the interests of children and their parents. From April 1999, early years development partnerships and plans will be expanded to deliver quality childcare integrated with early education. In addition, the Government is working with local authorities and others in England to establish "early excellence centers" designed to demonstrate good practice in education and childcare.

In Scotland, local education authorities have been taking the leading role, from August 1998, in planning and co-ordinating pre-school education and in providing places, working in partnership with voluntary and private providers. The Government planned to give all children in the pre-school year access to quality, part-time education by the winter of 1998.

Northern Ireland has a lower compulsory school age of 4 and a single school entry date in September each year. A pre-school education expansion programme, undertaken through partnership between the education and library boards, other statutory providers and the private and voluntary sectors, has provided additional pre-school places.

Section 2 Chinese-English Translation (汉译英) (40 points)

Translate the following passage into English. The time for this section is 60 minutes.

向一位著名的女作家祝贺她八十岁寿辰，这样的机会是不多的，所以我去年十月五日到冰心家里去的时候，心情非常激动。我解释说希望她给我讲一下她是怎样成为诗人的。“我已有多年没有写诗了，”她微笑着说，“可是我还是爱读好诗。”

冰心很幸运地有鼓励她学习和写作的父母。一九一九年她在北京一所女子学院念书时，一个事件改变了她生命的整个道路。那就是五四运动，一个由北京学生发动的爱国民主运动。群众游行示威的场面给她以深刻的印象。她投身于斗争中，并被学生会任命负责宣传工作。她写了诗歌、文章和故事，以抨击帝国主义和各种形式的封建主义。

她在1923年到美国去学文学，在旅途中和在美国居留中写下了她的感受。这些都收在一个集子里出版，就是《寄小读者》。这本书使她声誉突起。这不仅是因为她是一位女作家，而是因为书中的高尚的情操。有不少较年轻的作家说，是冰心的作品使他们走上了其后所走的道路。

APPENDIX B. A QUESTIONNAIRE OF MOODLE-BASED MODEL FOR TTP TEACHING

Directions:

Welcome to participate in the survey study of Moodle-Based Model for TTP Teaching. It consists of 28 items, for each of which a set of choices is prepared. Actually, no one of the prepared choices stands for any fixed answer that can be correct or wrong, and good or bad. You do not have to write down your name, but do respond to each item truthfully, with what you really feel about, so that the researcher could have real, reliable data in the study, and that you may know about yourself in faith through filling out the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your sincere cooperation.

Please read each of the items and comprehend its meaning. Then, according to the extent to which you feel the item is related to your own real, practical situation, tick ONE number in the relative set of values 1-5 as below:

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=Neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

Do not choose "3" unless the other four are not applicable to your own situation. Although there is no serious time

limit, you do not have to ruminate over each of the items, but offer your response based on your first impression. Please completely fill out the questionnaire and remember to choose only ONE number for each item.

NOTES Please tick only one number from 1-5 based on the real situation of yourself as displayed in each of the 28 items in the column on the left side. Remember: Only ONE “√” for each of the items can be placed in each set of the boxes on the right side.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. After one semester’s study, I have learnt that translating is something very easy in fact.	1	2	3	4	5
2.To learn TTP well, we should actively prepare and review the lessons regularly, and be patient in doing translating exercises, not just pushy for a sudden success.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I cannot understand what the teacher is presenting through PPT courseware in class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. For me translation theory is not so important and we can improve our translating ability only if we do translating exercises much as possible ourselves.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I don’t want to have bad attendance records even though I have no interest in translation class.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I like translation class for I can learn what I’ve never experienced and it is useful and practical.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Generally, I do exercises in the textbook than online.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Each time when I failed while doing the online translating exercises, I would know about translating and myself better.	1	2	3	4	5
9.I prefer working at TTP-CLEO even to reviewing the textbook.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I thought translation was easy, but I now understand a translator needs be skillful in both English and Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel it easier to do translating exercises of TTP-CLEO than reading what are said in the textbook.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I don’t care if I will make mistakes while doing online exercises, but I’m really concerned about my translating ability.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I am confident when doing theory exercises; but I fail in practice exercises so many times that I finally give up.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel it too boring to do TTP-CLEO.	1	2	3	4	5
15.I do not work very hard either at TTP-CLEO or the exercises in the textbook.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The arranged hours for translation class are too limited, while TTP-CLEO is really a beneficial make-up.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I did not comprehend TTP-CLEO so much before; but I feel like doing it now.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Students really need to have a fixed translation textbook; or they could have a sense of loss.	1	2	3	4	5
19. It’s interesting when some learners are required to work at the TTP-CLEO on the teacher’s computer in class.	1	2	3	4	5
20. What we have learned are not so useful for improving our translating ability.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I’d like to do translating exercises both in textbook and online.	1	2	3	4	5
22. It seems that reading the textbook quietly is easier than doing the TTP-CLEO exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Even though I often encounter “Sorry, try again”, I never lose heart for the practice is amazing.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I prefer the theory-based practical exercises which can help us learn the course systematically.	1	2	3	4	5
25. We don’t like the MBM and TTP-CLEO, but the traditional model.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I like the teaching model blended with textbook, PPT presentations, and TTP-CLEO exercises together.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I really gain theoretical and practical enlightenments from the teacher’s presentations in class.	1	2	3	4	5
28.TTP-CLEO is not valuable at all in improving my translating theory and practical ability.	1	2	3	4	5

(Notes: Items 3,4,5,7,13,14,15,20,22,25,&28 must be reversely scored in data analysis.)

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Contributory Role of Pre-task Planning in Improving Iranian EFL Learners' Writing of Argumentative Essays: The Case of Accuracy and Complexity

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Abstract—Generally, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an approach which places a high premium on the utilization of tasks as fundamental units of planning language instruction in L2 writing classroom. Accordingly, the present study sought to investigate the extent to which pre-task planning can influence the accuracy and complexity of the sentence structures in the argumentative essays written by male and female Iranian EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level. As such, a Quick Oxford Proficiency Test (Q.O.P.T) was administered to a population of intermediate students learning English in a language institute in Isfahan. Based on their scores, two intermediate samples, 25 each, were randomly selected and labeled as control and experimental groups. While learners in the control group received writing instruction by a product based approach, the learners in the treatment sample were taught by a task based approach focusing on pre-task planning. At the end of the treatment, a full term, the analysis of the data obtained from the essays written by the participants revealed that pre-task planning improved the accuracy and complexity of the structures in the essays written by both male and female learners in the treatment group compared with those in the control group. Additionally, the results indicated that there was a meaningful interaction between pre-task planning and gender.

Index Terms— task, task-based language teaching, pre-task planning, argumentative essays, accuracy, complexity

I. INTRODUCTION

Interaction with individuals having different cultures, attitudes, and social backgrounds through the medium of foreign languages has always been of a great interest to both scholars of the field. However, for a considerably long time the prevailing method in language teaching was Grammar Translation Method (G.T.M) which primarily concentrated on teaching long lists of words as well as grammar and translation from the source language into the target and vice versa. Essentially, the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) placed a very high premium on the reading skill rather than the ability to communicate in the target language and such an orientation eventually evoked intense debates concerning its pedagogical efficacy. It seems that negative reactions towards GTM began to grow since the goals of language learning were redefined in light of paradigm shifts resulting from new developments in psychology and linguistics. Such a fresh outlook necessitated a reevaluation of the existing methods and their substitution with new methods and approaches which focused on the communicative aspects of language teaching and learning. Evidently, the resulting outcome was the introduction of new approaches like Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

Focusing on “communicative competence” and paying attention to the integration of all language skills were advocated by concerned practionairs such as Richard and Rodgers (2001) and Brown (2007). In fact, the primary attention in CLT was diverted to the functional, communicative aspects of language rather than the formal features of language since communicating in L2 required of the learners to use language in real life contexts. Accordingly, CLT places an appreciably great emphasis on fluency rather than accuracy. Brown’s (2007, p. 241) seminal statement about CLT describing it as an approach and not a method is a logical proof substantiating why many other new methods have been derived from it. Consequently, task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) defined as a “logical development of CLT” (Richard & Rodgers, 2001; p. 233) assumes that tasks are the most fundamental units of planning content and formats of presentation in methods accommodated within the umbrella term of TBLT (Ellis, 2000, 2003; Littlewood, 2004).

Many practionairs have considered tasks as a crucial resource in curriculum design, material development and methodologies whose central goal is the negotiation of meaning in ELT. However, task-based language teaching (TBLT) offers a totally different rationale for the application of tasks in language teaching and offers certain essential criteria for devising, choosing and sequencing tasks in communicative language programs. Here tasks are utilized as the main

output units in instruction, practice and even in evaluation. The reason is that task-based instruction is deeply rooted in theory and research motivated by the cognitive approach to language teaching and the psychological reality underlying psycholinguistic theories.

It is interesting to note that the ability to write in a foreign language has been gaining a remarkable momentum so much so the instruction in writing is assuming a more fundamental role in most language teaching programs. In the past, however, writing skill was not considered as an important skill and was not investigated by the researchers. Thus the dominant approach in teaching writing was the “product approach” which only exposed the L2 learners to the formal features of language such as grammar, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling. According to Badger and White (2000), product-based approaches only focused on the linguistic knowledge and sentential features of language utilizing group imitation for teaching how texts develop in English.

Unsurprisingly, the recent developments in language teaching profession directed the swing of the pendulum more towards the teaching of writing through the process-based approaches to text production in L2 contexts. This approach helped improve the efficiency of writing methods and techniques because the primary attention was given to the processes involved in producing the written text not the final text or features of texture. According to Harmer (2001), the process approach may be defined as processing any piece of writing through various stages such as pre-writing, revising, redrafting to meet the requirements which represent the skills crucial for writing a text. Therefore, pre-writing and during writing processes drafting play a significant part mainly because process based approaches consider writing as a dynamic and meaning-centered activity whose main goal is to help learners to satisfy their writing needs. As such, process based approaches have been reported to be more efficient than the product-based approaches. Alternatively, the main objective in generic approaches was to teach writing in terms of sociocultural and linguistic norms characterizing the underlying goals of various communicative tasks. In other words, the concept of genre refers to the recognizable and recurring patterns of daily, academic and literary texts occurring within specific cultures. It seems that genre approach has certain principles in common with the process approach even though it also enlists some of the principles of product-based approaches.

Later developments in the theory and practice of writing caused the majority of writing experiments to focus on various writing modes and their rhetorical structures. Clearly, rhetorical modes are patterns of organization used to impinge a particular effect on the readers (Stifler, 2002). Consequently, essays with specific purposes and text organizations are classified as different rhetorical modes, for example, description, narration, exposition, and argumentation etc. In the early stages of learning to write in fluent and accurate style at intermediate and advanced levels, the specified pedagogical purposes such as improving, developing, training and practicing language play a pivotal role (Ramies, 1987). In this case, writing is seen as a complicated process through which the writers express and create thoughts and ideas. Notably, in comparison with L1 writing, learning to write in a foreign language is a hard and complicated process taking considerable time and effort. Overall, the role of English writing instruction in foreign language educational context is crucial in turning learners into skillful writers (Weigel, 2002).

It seems that composing a paragraph accurately and fluently is by no means an easy task. As relevant studies indicate, the ability to write cannot be separated from language learning and without language learning an effective acquisition cannot be actualized. In fact, writing is a hard laden task not only for native speakers but also for non-native speakers. Iranian EFL learners are no exception in this matter. Over the last decades, the interest in writing as one of the most important communicative skills in English language teaching has inevitably gained momentum (for more information, see Hayes & Flower, 1986).

It is a commonly held belief that a piece of writing conveys the writer's thoughts encoded in the form of a composition provides a bridge between the readers and the writers. Mao (2002) has introduced the term “Games rules” as an effective metaphor reflecting how the writers should organize the whole writing process of text creation into a coherent structure with regard to particular topics. These guidelines are used for the readers to decode written text correctly. Although writing is generally taught as a product-based approach, this study uses the task-based approach to teaching writing. There is a general support to the claim that planning in advance impacts positively on language production, especially where fluency and complexity are concerned. Studies by Crookes (1989), Foster and Skehan (1996), as well as Wendel (1997), among others, report that pre-task planning affects fluency positively.

On this basis, the present study aimed to find out the contributory role of pre-task planning in improving Iranian EFL learners writing argumentative essays with regard to accuracy and complexity. The current study also sought to measure the extent to which pre-task planning can affect accuracy and complexity in argumentative essays written by Iranian male and female EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Willis (2001), language learners can communicate in the foreign language they are learning as a result of task-based language teaching (TBLT). Similarly, Willis (2004) points out that task-based instruction (TBI) is considered as a meaning-focused approach emphasizing the use of language in real world for achieving specific objectives. In TBLT, all of the four language skills are considered as significant. As such, task-based language teaching is supported by an increasingly larger number of SLA studies and theories. As an illustration, Nunan (2004, p. 76) states that “... it [task-based language teaching] is supported by a rich and growing research agenda”. Such a view towards

task-based language teaching makes it different from other methods of language teaching so much so Richards and Rodgers (2001) consider tasks as research tools widely employed in SLA. In the same vein, way, Ellis (2003) asserts that, language use samples can be elicited through tasks in SLA studies. In other words, the process of second language acquisition may be identified through tasks. Thus, SLA studies provide a scientific basis for task-based language teaching whose underlying theories and hypotheses including input hypothesis, interaction hypothesis, and output hypotheses also foster the necessity of applying task-based language teaching techniques.

Clearly, the application of task-based approach within a communicative framework for language teaching can be traced back to Bangalore Project running from 1979 to 1984. The project, the result of dissatisfaction with the structural approach to English language teaching, was intended to encourage the learners' focus on meaning assuming that grammar construction by the learners is an subconscious process. (Menhert, 1998 & Prabhu, 1987).

The Malaysian Communicational Syllabus as another application of task-based approach reported in 1975 by Richards and Rodgers (2001). Additionally, enlisting Holliday's macro skills as the point of departure for curriculum development, Nunan (2004) introduced the Australian Language Level (ALL) which a version of a task-based curriculum. The Bangalore Project also called Communicational Teaching Project (CTP), was conducted in eight schools and was seen as an effort towards task-based teaching (Menhert, 1999). Actually, Howatt (1984) believes that "whatever happens Bangalore Project has set the context for one of the most interesting arguments of the eighties, if not beyond" (p. 288). With regard to the evaluation of the Bangalore Project, Bretta and Davies (1985) have also reported that Prabhu's learners were more successful, compared to their counterparts who were taught traditionally.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Tasks have long been ignored despite their crucial role in the writing process. Teaching writing seems to be too difficult and time-consuming in comparison with the other language skills, so insufficient attention has been paid to the teaching and practicing of writing in the class (Zeng, 2005). It is clear that students need a sufficient amount of knowledge to generate and create great ideas in order to write a satisfactory text reflecting a specific rhetorical purpose. Unfortunately, Second language learners in Iran including those studying in private language institutes receive little practice in writing in English due to time limitation, students' limited proficiency, and poor motivation.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of Task-based language teaching, more specifically pre-task planning and its contributory role in improving the writing skill of Iranian EFL learners at an intermediate proficiency level. The main objective was to examine the students' writing power in terms of such factors as accuracy and complexity. To this end, this study was an attempt to touch upon the following research questions.

1. To what extent does pre-task planning influence **accuracy** and **complexity** of argumentative essays written by Iranian **male** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level?

2. To what extent does pre-task planning influence **accuracy** and **complexity** of argumentative essays written by Iranian **female** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level?

Based on these research questions, the following null hypotheses were designed:

H01: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *accuracy* and *complexity* of argumentative essays written by Iranian **male** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

H02: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *accuracy* and *complexity* of argumentative essays written by Iranian **female** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

V. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in the present study were chosen from among Iranian EFL learners studying English in one of the language institutes in Isfahan (Iran). A Quick Oxford Proficiency Test (Q.O.P.T) was administered to choose 50 out of 100 participants with an intermediate level of proficiency. The reason for choosing intermediate students among other levels was that they were required to write essays of 250 words, and seemingly, the students at the elementary level possessed a limited English proficiency and lacked the proper resources of writing compositions. On the other hand, the advanced students with a high level of English proficiency, already having learnt the proper mechanisms of writing, were not suitable for gauging the effect of pre-task planning on accuracy and complexity of writing argumentative essays, and as a result, they were also excluded. The selected sample included 20 males and 30 females. They were all Persian native speakers who learned English as a foreign language. This study was carried out in summer 2013 and the age range of the participants was from 19 to 23. In fact, their average age was 21.

The selected sample was divided into two groups; namely, control and experimental. From the 50 intermediate learners selected as the result of Quick Oxford Proficiency Test, 25 learners were randomly assigned to the control group (11 males and 14 females) and another 25 served as the experimental group (9 males and 16 females).

B. Design

A Quick Oxford Proficiency Test was administered to measure the students' writing ability in order to achieve maximum possible homogeneity among the subjects regarding their general English proficiency. The selected sample was assigned randomly to control and experimental groups. All participants were then taught how to develop an argumentative essay through a pre-task planning phase during which they were required to write an argumentative essay in 25 minutes.

C. Materials

This study enlisted two kinds of materials. First, a Quick Oxford Proficiency Test was administered to choose 50 EFL learners at an intermediate level of proficiency. The subjects were chosen on the basis of their scores on the Quick Oxford Proficiency Test, that is, those participants who scored 3/5 - 5 were chosen as the targeted subjects. Second, an argumentative essay writing task in which a topic of general interest was selected from IELTS and was given to the students. Afterwards, 30 written texts, 15 of which were produced by students in the control group and 15 by students in the experimental group, were manually typed in to a computer. The AntConc 3.2.1 w software was employed to count the number of words.

D. Procedures

In this study, planning was operationalized at two levels (a) no planning (NP) for the control group, (b) pre-task planning (PTP) for the experimental group.

In the no planning condition, the participants performed the task under normal classroom settings. The control group consisted of 25 learners who were asked to write an essay in 40 minutes. The essay writing was performed based on a structure based approach. In the pre-task planning condition, the topic was introduced and the instructor encouraged the students to activate the related schemata and the background knowledge. Like the no planning stage, they were required to finish the task in 40 minutes by preparing an essay consisting of at least 250 words. Afterwards, the written texts were analyzed in terms of fluency.

VI. RESULTS

The results related to the null hypotheses under investigation will be presented for both control and experimental groups:

A. Null Hypothesis/H01

H01: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *accuracy* and *complexity* of argumentative essays written by Iranian **male** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

1. Accuracy

Accuracy of written essays by males in the control group was compared with those produced by the experimental group through measuring the average number of T-units per text. The results of the above-mentioned comparison for T-units and the accuracy have been illustrated in the following tables.

Regarding the essays written by the male participants in the control and experimental groups, the descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the means are represented in Table 1. Table 1 depicts, among other things, the mean scores, and standard deviations of the writing accuracy of male participants in the control and experimental groups. Descriptive statistics clearly indicates that the mean score of male control group (MCG) is 6.09 while that of male experimental group (MEG) equals 10.33. To see if the difference between the mean scores is statistically large or not, Table 2 demonstrates the results of a relevant statistical t-test: should be examined.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING WRITING ACCURACY OF MALES IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACCURACY	MCG	11	6.0909	1.86840	.56334
	MEG	9	10.3333	1.16228	1.05409

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS COMPARING WRITING ACCURACY OF MALE PARTICIPANTS IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Errors Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Accuracy	Equal Variances Assumed	3.938	.063	-3.736	18	.002	-4.24242	1.13563	-6.62830	-1.85655
	Equal Variances not Assumed			-3.550	12.412	.004	-4.24242	1.19518	-6.83694	-1.64791

The two means obtained from two independent groups were compared and an independent Samples *t*-test was used for analyzing the data. Table 2 shows the results of the Independent Samples *t* test according to the means of T-units per text for male essays in the control and experimental groups. For T-units, the level of significance was 0.21 (bolded in Table 2, under [Sig/2-tailed] column); the difference between the two groups was significant. In fact, there was a significant difference between male essays regarding the average number of T-units in both control and experimental groups. Since the value under Sig. (2-tailed) is .02, it is obvious that *p* is less than our specified level of significance (i.e., .02 > .05), indicating a statistically significant difference between male participants in the two groups. Writing fluency of males, as a result, had indeed been affected by the pre-task treatment utilized in this study.

To understand the differences between the means for the male participants in the control and experimental groups, Figure 1 was used:

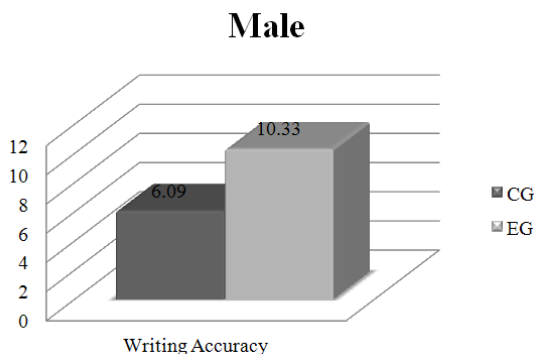


Figure1. Graphical representation of the writing accuracy mean of the male

Clearly, Fig. 1 shows that there was a difference in the average number of T-units per text for both groups. In comparison with male participants in the control group, participants in the experimental group wrote more accurately. Based on the results drawn from the study, there was a significant difference between the mean values of accuracy in argumentative essays written by the males in the control and experimental groups; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in this regard.

2. Complexity

Grammatical complexity of essays written in the control and experimental groups was measured through calculating the proportion of clauses comprising T-units. The two measures of complexity of written essays by the males in the control group and experimental groups were compared. The possible results of this treatment on writing complexity of male participants are dealt with in the next two tables.

TABLE 3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING WRITING COMPLEXITY OF MALES IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
COMPLEXITY	MCG	11	1.4418	.14573	.04394
	MEG	9	1.4789	.12139	.04046

Table 3 illustrates the descriptive statistics of grammatical complexity including the number of male participants in the control and experimental groups, their mean scores, and standard deviations. As can be seen, the mean score of MCG is 1.44 while that of MEG equals 1.47. To check if the difference between the mean scores is statistically meaningful or not, Table 4 was used:

TABLE 4. INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS COMPARING WRITING COMPLEXITY OF MALE PARTICIPANTS IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	<i>t</i> test for Equality of Means							
		<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Errors Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Complexity	Equal Variances Assumed	.278	.605	-.609	18	.550	-.03707	.06088	-.16498	.09084
	Equal Variances not Assumed			-.621	17.985	.543	-.03707	.05973	-.16257	.08843

Table 4 illustrates the results of the independent Samples *t*-test in terms of the means of the complexity for the control and experimental groups. Considering the Sig. (2-tailed) value which is .550 (i.e., *p* > .05), the difference

between the mean of complexity in the two groups is not significant. This would imply that no statistically significant difference between the complexity scores of males in the two groups was observed.

B. Null Hypothesis/H02

H02: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *accuracy* and *complexity* of argumentative essays written by Iranian **female** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

1. Accuracy

In this stage, the accuracy of the scripts produced by females in the control and experimental groups has been scrutinized separately. Here, the difference in percentage values should be investigated. In other words, the second research question was examined to find out the impact of pre-task planning on the degree of development in accuracy of the writing task. Accordingly, the written essays by females in the control group were compared with those produced in the experimental group in terms of mean values which are clearly observed in the following tables. Each table is further supplemented by relevant bar charts displaying the degree of improvement. It should be kept in mind that the results will be presented in two tables; while the first refers to the results of descriptive statistics pertinent to the comparison of female participants' accuracy scores in the control and experimental groups, the second depicts the results of the comparison for the T-units, and the accuracy.

It was clearly observed in Table 3 that the essays written by the females in the control and experimental groups are compared regarding the average number of T-units per text. Apparently, the means for the second sub-measure of fluency that is average number of T-units per text in the experimental group produced by the females is higher than those in the control group.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING WRITING ACCURACY OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS
IN THE CONTROL & EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACCURACY	FCG	14	6.9286	2.46403	.65854
	FEG	16	12.3125	3.04891	.76223

Table 5 displays, the mean scores, and standard deviations of writing accuracy of female participants in the control and experimental groups. The mean score of females in the control group (FCG) is 6.9286, while that of females in the experimental group (FEG) equals 12.3125. To see if the difference between the mean scores is statistically significant or not, the *t* test table should be considered.

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS COMPARING WRITING ACCURACY OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS
IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	<i>t</i> test for Equality of Means							
		<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Errors Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ACCURACY	Equal Variances Assumed	.547	.466	-5.268	28	.000	-5.38393	1.02200	-7.47740	-3.29046
	Equal Variances not Assumed			-5.345	27.848	.000	-5.38393	1.00730	-7.44781	-3.32005

In table 6, it is observed the the Sig. (2-tailed) value is 0.000 (i.e., $p < .05$). This means that the difference between the accuracy scores of females in the two groups is statistically large. Figure 4.5 indicates the mean in bar form.

Using the following bar graph can help much to have a better picture of what has happened.

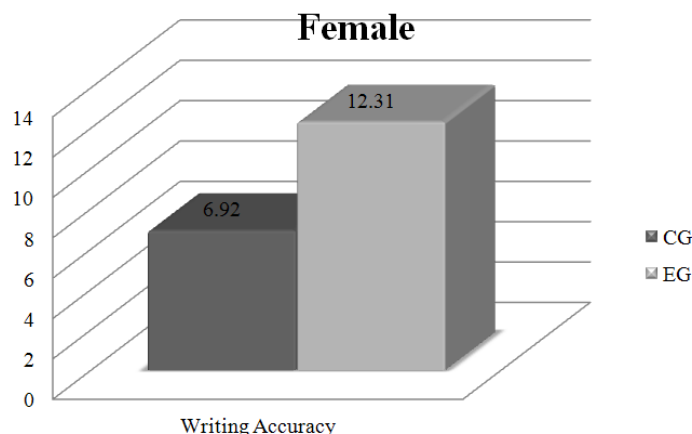


Figure 2. Performance Profile of the female participants in Control and Experimental Groups

According to Figure 2, the mean value for the argumentative essays written by females in the experimental group was higher than those in the control group. Although improvement in writing can be seen in both groups, the degree of improvement in the use of clauses was higher for pairs than individuals. Pairs had progressed about 24% more than individuals in this regard. The difference in percentage was significant.

Consequently, the pre-task treatment used in this study turned out to affect writing accuracy of the female participants. Therefore, the null hypothesis *H02* is rejected.

2. Complexity

In Table 7, the number of female participants in the control and experimental groups, their mean scores, and standard deviations are displayed with regard to the proportion of clauses associated with T-units. As such, the complexity of the texts produced by females in the control and experimental groups has been scrutinized separately. It is clearly observed that the mean score of FCG is 1.44 while that of FEG equals 1.71.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING WRITING COMPLEXITY OF FEMALES IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
COMPLEXITY	MCG	14	1.4471	.16569	.04428
	MEG	16	1.7144	.12749	.03187

To see if the difference between the mean scores is statistically large or not, one needs to look up the relevant information in Table 8

TABLE 8
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS COMPARING WRITING COMPLEXITY OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS
IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Errors Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Complexity	Equal Variances Assumed	.593	.448	-4.986	28	.000	-.26723	-.05360	-.37703	-.15743
	Equal Variances not Assumed			-4.898	24.305	.000	-.26723	.05456	-.37976	-.15470

In able 8, the Sig. (2-tailed) value is .000 (i.e. $p < .05$). This implies that a statistically significant difference exists between the complexity scores of females in the two groups. As the above table indicates, there is a significant difference between the complexities of scripts produced by females in the both group; therefore, the null hypothesis *H02* is rejected.

Figure 3 is the bar chart showing differences of means related to complexity:

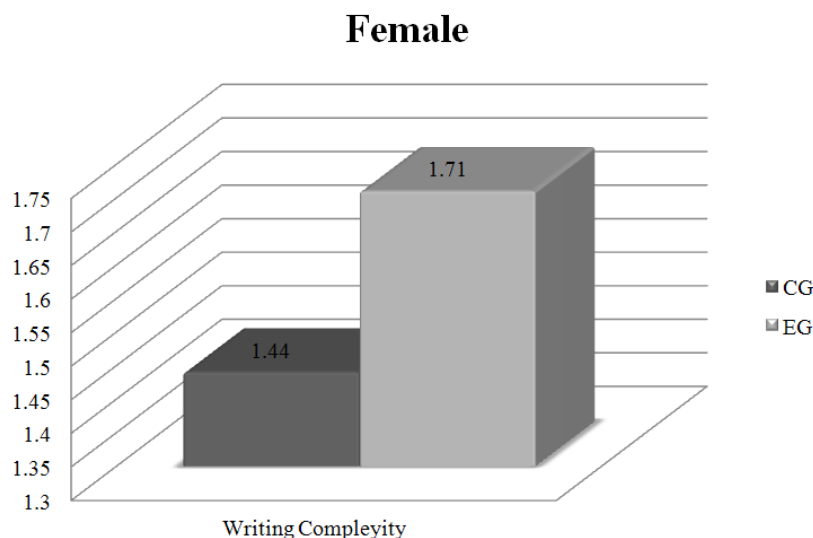


Figure 3. Graphical representation of the writing complexity mean of the female

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As you recall, the first research question of this study addressed the influence of pre-task planning on accuracy and complexity, in written argumentative essays by **male** EFL learners. The results indicated that the accuracy of the written texts by the male participants in the experimental group was higher than those in the control group. In other words, the experimental group outperformed the control group. With regard to the complexity, although there was a considerable progress in the use of clauses/T-units by the male participants in the experimental group, the complexity of the written texts was not significant in comparison to the complexity of the written texts by the males in the control group. In other words, task-based instruction helped learners to produce significantly more accurate texts. (Here, it is worthy to mention that for the null hypothesis to be rejected, the observed value of p must be smaller than the significance level of .05 [$p < .05$]. If the observed p -value is equal or greater than the significance level of .05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.) It was shown in Tables 1 and 2 that there was a significant difference between the accuracy of male essays in the control and experimental groups. Since the p -value for accuracy of the texts written by the male in the experimental group is .002 and it is smaller than .05, the null hypothesis is rejected in this regard. This means that the difference between the accuracy scores of males in the two groups is statistically large. Clearly pre-task planning results in greater accuracy of language written production. Figure 1 earlier demonstrated a growing tendency in using error-free T-units. The important point to mention is that the treatment used in this study has caused the participants to produce more error-free T-units. As it can be inferred from figure 1, the male participants in the experimental group developed a growth in the number of T-units per text.

The difference between scripts produced by male subjects in the control and experimental groups in terms of complexity constituted the second stage of the study. Tables 3, and 4 shows that there is no significant difference between the complexity scores of males in the two groups. The findings imply that although there was a meaningful progress in the use of clauses/T-units by the males in experimental group, the complexity of the written texts was not significant in comparison to the complexity of the written texts by the males in the control group. Generally speaking, pre-task planning had offered the advantage of improving the writing accuracy while it did not lead to producing more complex texts by the male participants. This is supported by the study of Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) according to which writing tasks within a task-based framework lead to the production of more accurate texts but not more complex texts. Rahimpour (2011) also gained the same results concerning the complexity of essays written by the Iranian male EFL learners.

Referring to the second question of the study about the influence of pre-task planning on accuracy and complexity of argumentative essay writing by **female** EFL learners at intermediate level, the results show a significant difference between essays created by the participants in the control and experimental groups. According to the table 5, and table 6 which represents the results of pre-task planning on writing accuracy of the female participants, the accuracy of written texts is significant. It means that pre-task planning has helped the female participants in the experimental group to write more error-free T-units. Figure 2 also shows that the writing accuracy mean of the female participants in the experimental group produce more accurate texts than those in the control group. Regarding the second question about complexity of essays written by female participants in control and experimental groups at intermediate level, table 7, and table 8 demonstrate the result. The effect of pre-task planning on complexity is noticeable. Figure 3 represents the grammatical complexity in terms of clauses/T-units used by the participants. It can be concluded that pre-task planning appears to have an appreciable impact on writing accuracy, and complexity and helps to produce more accurate, and

complex texts by the female participants. The findings of the present study also support those of Biria and Jafari (2014), who investigated the impact of tasks on individual and collaborative writing of different sexes. Their findings also indicated that there were significant differences in the performance of individual and paired learners with the pairs producing more complex texts as well as more accurate sentences.

In sum, this study sought to scrutinize the efficacy of pre-task planning on improving writing, regarding accuracy and complexity of essays written by Iranian intermediate learners. The results obtained from the scripts written by male participants revealed that pre-task planning improved accuracy but not complexity. On the other hand, **the comparison of the essays written by the females in both group revealed that they produced more accurate and complex texts.** That is the task-based approach was more effective than the traditional approach in teaching argumentative essays writing to the Iranian EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

APPENDIX A. NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE FOR EACH MEASURE IN CONTROL GROUP

Male Participants	Words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	289	23	29	6	9	14
2	285	21	28	7	8	14
3	284	21	27	6	7	15
4	278	18	25	5	6	12
5	273	17	25	8	6	13
6	265	19	26	3	7	14
7	254	17	25	5	7	13
8	248	16	24	4	6	12
9	237	16	23	3	5	11
10	220	12	20	2	3	9
11	215	11	19	3	3	9

Female Participants	Words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	295	23	28	5	10	15
2	287	23	29	7	8	15
3	286	22	30	8	9	15
4	283	21	30	9	10	16
5	281	19	27	8	8	15
6	270	19	28	7	9	16
7	269	19	27	8	9	16
8	261	18	26	7	7	14
9	255	18	24	2	5	12
10	245	15	23	4	4	10
11	235	14	24	9	5	11
12	231	16	21	5	6	10
13	224	14	22	3	5	11
14	219	11	20	1	2	8

APPENDIX B. NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE FOR EACH MEASURE IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Male Participants	words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	334	25	35	10	14	30
2	329	23	33	10	13	24
3	325	22	32	10	10	16
4	316	21	33	12	14	19
5	313	21	29	8	12	18
6	288	20	31	11	9	16
7	278	19	33	14	9	24
8	265	19	28	9	7	15
9	247	18	24	6	5	11

Female Participants	Words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	332	27	42	15	18	38
2	329	26	43	17	17	39
3	324	24	43	19	15	33
4	312	23	40	17	15	28
5	309	23	40	17	14	31
6	299	22	41	19	11	31
7	280	22	37	15	14	25
8	283	20	33	13	10	20
9	276	19	29	10	7	19
10	265	19	32	13	12	16
11	261	20	35	15	12	19
12	258	20	34	14	13	18
13	252	19	35	10	11	17
14	249	19	34	15	10	16
15	245	17	34	17	9	15
16	241	17	26	9	9	13

APPENDIX C. QUANTITATIVE MEASURES OF FLUENCY OF THE CONTROL GROUP

	Participants	N	Mean
Words	Male	11	258.90
	Female	14	260.07
T-units	Male	11	17.36
	Female	14	18
Clauses	Male	11	24.63
	Female	14	25.64

APPENDIX D. QUANTITATIVE MEASURES OF FLUENCY OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Participants	N	Mean
Words	Male	9	299.44
	Female	16	282.18
T-units	Male	9	20.88
	Female	16	21.06
Clauses	Male	9	30.88
	Female	16	36.12

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Schema-based English Achievement and Teacher Effectiveness

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Abstract—This study explored whether the domain of teacher effectiveness as well as its underlying factors or genera relate significantly to English achievement when it is measured by schema-based cloze multiple choice item tests (S-Tests) and their tailored versions. To this end, the English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale (ELTAS) designed by Khodadady, Fakhrabadi and Azar (2012) and validated by Khodadady and Dastgahian (2014) with 1483 grade four senior high school (G4SHS) students in Iran was employed as a measure of the domain consisting of eleven genera, i.e., Qualified, Social, Proficient, Humanistic, Stimulating, Organized, Pragmatic, Systematic, Prompt, Exam-Wise, and Lenient. The S-Test designed by Khodadady and Ghergloo (2013) was also administered to 440 of 1483 G4SHS with whom the ELTAS had been validated. The participants' performance on the S-Test, the tailored S-Test as well as grade three final English examination were correlated with the domain and its genera. The results showed varying types and degrees of significant relationship between English achievement and the domain as well as its underlying genera. The findings are discussed and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—language learning, teacher effectiveness, achievement, S-test

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to determine what attributes of English language teachers render their teaching effective, Khodadady, Fakhrabadi and Azar (2012) [henceforth KF&A] collected those explored by Borg (2006), Brosh (1996), Elizabeth, May, and Chee (2008), Ghasemi and Hashemi (2011), Hildebrand, Wilson and Dienst (1971), Irby (1978), Park and Lee (2006), Pishghadam and Moafiyani (1998), Sherman et al (1987), Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009), and Suwandee (1995) and added them to the attributes brought up in teacher evaluation forms designed by various schools and universities in Canada and Iran. By resorting to their teaching experiences, KF&A also added a few attributes to their collected pool of features and designed their Effective English Language Teachers' Attributes Scales (ELTAS).

Khodadady and Dastgahian (2014) followed Khodadady (2010) and administered the ELTAS to 1483 grade four senior high school (G4SHS) students in Mashhad, Iran, and submitted their data to Principal Axis Factoring and Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. The results showed that the scale consists of eleven factors, i.e., Qualified, Social, Proficient, Humanistic, Stimulating, Organized, Pragmatic, Systematic, Prompt, Exam-Wise, and Lenient. These factors which were established statistically are viewed as genera in the microstructural approach of schema theory (Khodadady, 2013). The adoption of statistical factors as cognitive genera helps explain the construct of teacher effectiveness as a cognitive domain having a hierarchically perceived relationship with its constituting genera, species and types as shown in Figure 1. [The cognitive structure of single/phrasal words or schemata comprising psychological measures such as the ELTAS was first brought up by Khodadady and Bagheri (2014) and Khodadady and Dastgahian (2013)].

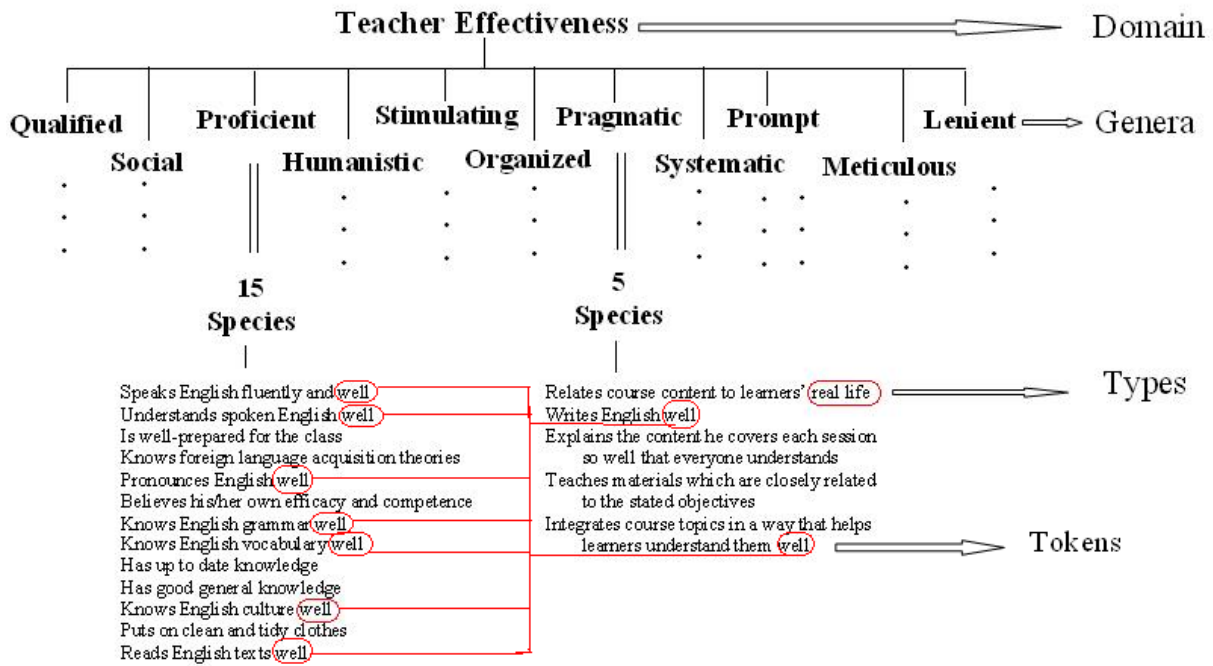


Figure 1. Tokens, types, species and genera constituting the cognitive domain of teacher effectiveness

For G4SHS students, the first factor represents the genus of a *Qualified* teacher who checks and marks assignments regularly, identifies and solves learning problems, evaluates learners regularly and monitors their progress during the term, assigns tasks requiring group work, knows learners’ abilities, talents and weaknesses, identifies and pays attention to individual needs and differences, involves all students in learning and teaching processes, motivates students to learn English and do research, evaluates both qualitatively and quantitatively, tailors teaching to student needs, provides equal opportunities for participation, discussion and asking questions, takes learners attitudes towards learning into account even if they are negative, helps learners in and out of the class, teaches English tailored to students’ ability levels, handles discipline through prevention, gives sufficient number of assignments, is demographic in his/her approach, is interested in students, e.g., calls them by their names, and their learning, is willing to negotiate changes to course content, is available to answer questions, specifies methods of evaluation clearly, encourages achievements and discourages unacceptable behaviours, exercises authority to control the class whenever necessary, and encourages and improves creativity in learners.

As the second factor underlying the ELTAS, the *Social* genus specifies a teacher who is cheerful and benevolent, has a good sense of humor, is friendly, is a dynamic and energetic person, establishes strong rapport with students, is good-tempered, caring, and patient, creates a relaxed and pleasant atmosphere in the class, is comfortable interacting with others, teaches English enthusiastically, maintains a welcoming environment for all students, creates self-confidence in learners, and follows social codes and values and treats learners well.

Contributing to his effectiveness, a *Proficient* teacher meets the requirements of the third genus established by G4SHS students when he speaks English fluently, pronounces English well, knows English vocabulary well, understands spoken English well, knows English grammar well, has up to date knowledge of course content, reads English texts well, has good general knowledge to answer the questions not directly related to the course content, teaches English in English, knows English culture well and knows foreign language acquisition theories. He also puts on clean and tidy clothes and is well-prepared for the class.

As the fourth factor underlying the ELTAS, the *Humanistic* genus represents an EFL teacher who respects all ideas, listens to student’s opinions, responds logically to suggestions and criticisms, accepts constructive criticisms, is flexible and understands learners well, respects learners as real individuals, pays attention to students of all abilities, helps learners spot and overcome their weaknesses, and avoids discrimination and treats all fairly. The last attribute of *Humanistic* genus, i.e. avoiding discrimination, loaded acceptably neither on this factor nor on any other factors for grade three senior high school (G3SHS) students in KF&A’s study, showing that students in senior high schools become more conscious of discrimination when they enter grade four.

As the fifth genus constituting teacher effectiveness, the *Stimulating* factor represents an EFL teacher who employs multimedia materials such as CDs and tapes, arouses interest in learning English through interesting activities, employs interesting learning activities and assignments, teaches how to learn English outside the classroom, e.g., watching certain programs, provides opportunities to use English through meaningful activities, chooses interesting materials to teach, and has creativity in teaching.

For G4SHS students an *Organized* teacher embodies the sixth genus of teacher effectiveness domain when he presents information at the right pace based on students' level of learning, reduces English language learning anxiety, enjoys teaching English, employs methods of evaluation consistent with course outline as initially presented, employs appropriate evaluation techniques, and states course objectives clearly.

As the seventh genus of teacher effectiveness domain, the *Pragmatic* factor specifies an EFL teacher who teaches materials which are closely related to the stated objectives, explains the content he covers each session so well that everyone understands, writes English well, relates course content to learners' real life, and integrates course topics in a way that helps learners understand them well. The schema *Pragmatic* has been borrowed from Applied Pragmatics. According to Crystal (1991) it "focuses on problems of interaction that arise in contexts where successful communication is critical, such as medical interviews, judicial settings and counseling" (p. 271).

Enacting the eighth genus of teacher effectiveness domain, a *Systematic* EFL instructor teaches systematically, organizes course content well in terms of hours and sessions, leaves and enters the class on time and divides class time appropriately for the different language skills based on lesson objectives. The teacher also possesses *Prompt* genus as the ninth factor underlying the ELTAS of G4SHS students when he is prompt in returning test results and returns tests/ assignments in time for subsequent work.

As the tenth genus involved in the domain of effective teaching, an *Exam-Wise* teacher emphasizes important points and materials and answers questions carefully and convincingly to G4SHS students. As the last factor underlying the ELTAS, the *Lenient* genus, however, represents an EFL teacher who ignores cheating, gives good grades, i.e., does not take it hard, and designs simple and easy tests. It is the only genus whose constituting species or attributes remain the same to both G3SHS and G4SHS students.

Upon validating the ELTAS with 1483 G4SHS students, Khodadady and Dastgahian (2014) [henceforth K&D] correlated the scale and its underlying genera with the students' self-reported scores on grade three final English examination (G3FEE) held nationally at the end of grade three high school year. Their results showed that not only the teacher effectiveness domain but also its eleven genera correlate significantly with the G3FEE. The present study is designed to find out whether the domain and its genera relate to English achievement when it is measured by a schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test) developed on the textbook G4SHS students study for their English course.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Out of 1483 G4SHS students who took the ELTAS in K&D's study, four hundred forty, 297 female (67.5%) and 143 male (32.5%), took the S-Test designed by Khodadady and Ghergloo (2013). Their age ranged between 16 and 21 (Mean = 17.86, SD = .57). They were studying in ten schools among which Rangraz, Hekmat, Malek Ashtar, Imam Ali and Azadegan were public whereas Nokhbegan Toos and Imam Reza were private high schools. Alameh Tabatabaee was the only semi-public school whose G4SHS students took the S-Test. The participants were speaking Armenian (n= 1, .2%), English (n= 10, 2.3%), Persian (n= 416, 4.5%), Kurdish (n= 6, 1.4%), and Turkish (n= 7, 1.6%) as their mother language. Most of them were studying sciences (n=208, 47.3%) followed by humanities (n=184, 41.8%). Mathematics was, however, studied by just 48 (10.9%) participants.

B. Instrumentation

A Demographic Scale and English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale were used in the study. Two measures of content-based English achievement were also employed: A schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test) and grade three final English examination (G3FEE).

1 Demographic Scale

The Demographic Scale (DS) utilized in this study consisted of four questions dealing with the age, gender, and mother language of participants.

2 The English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale

The English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale (ELTAS) developed and validated by K&D was used in this study. It consists of the noun phrase "My English teacher ..." providing the context for the 92 linguistic statements representing certain cognitive species such as "accepts constructive criticisms." Each species was presented along with five choices with which the participants were required to completely agree, agree, to some extent agree, disagree or completely disagree. K&D administered the ELTAS to 1483 G4SHS students in Mashhad, Iran, and extracted eleven genera described in the introduction section of this paper. The ELTAS is a highly reliable measure of English teacher effectiveness domain at G4SHSs ($\alpha=.98$). The alpha reliability coefficient reported for its Qualified, Social, Proficient, Humanistic, Stimulating, Organized, Pragmatic, Systematic, Prompt, Exam-Wise, and Lenient genera are 0.93, 0.93, 0.90, 0.88, 0.84, 0.78, 0.80, 0.80, 0.77, 0.73 and 0.39, respectively.

3 Schema-Based Close Multiple-Choice Item Test

The Schema-Based Close Multiple-Choice Item Test (S-Test) developed by Khodadady and Ghergloo (2013) was employed to measure the participants' EFL achievement in this study. By resorting to the microstructural approach of schema theory (Khodadady, 2008), they parsed, codified and statistically analyzed the schemata comprising the

textbook *Learning to Read English for Pre-University Students* (Birjandi, Sarab & Samimi, 2012) taught to G4SHS students as shown in Table 1. As can be seen, the eight reading passages and vocabulary sections of the textbook consist of 5790 schema tokens and 1578 schema types in general. More specifically, they comprise 2915 (50.3%) semantic, i.e., adjectives, adverbs, nouns and verbs, 2256 (39.5%) syntactic, i.e., conjunctions, determiners, prepositions and pronouns, and syntactic verbs, and 586 (10.2%) parasyntactic tokens, i.e., abbreviations, interjections, names, numerals, para-adverbs and particles. In terms of types, however, the textbook comprises 1174 semantic (74.4%), 209 syntactic (13.2%) and 195 parasyntactic (12.4%) schemata.

TABLE 1
THE LINGUISTIC SCHEMA DOMAIN TOKENS AND TYPES COMPRISING THE PRE-UNIVERSITY ENGLISH TEXTBOOK

Linguistic Domains	Tokens		Types	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Semantic	2915	50.3	1174	74.4
Syntactic	2286	39.5	209	13.2
Parasyntactic	589	10.2	195	12.4
Total	5790	100.0	1578	100.0

Khodadady and Ghergloo (2013) chose at least one paragraph from each of the eight lessons comprising the textbook *Learning to Read English for Pre-University Students* (Birjandi, Sarab, & Samimi, 2012) to develop the S-Test. From the nine paragraphs forming the test, they selected ninety single/phrasal schemata, deleted and offered them as the keyed responses. In order to find out whether the test takers could activate their knowledge of the deleted schemata given as the keyed responses and relate them to the schemata comprising the paragraphs, three competitives, traditionally known as distracters (Khodadady, 1999), were chosen from among the 1578 schema types comprising the content of the whole textbook. As the first and second S-Test items given below show, the competitives have syntactical, semantic and discoursal relationships with the keyed response.

Two Example S-Test Items

Aerobics is a word for ... (1) oxygen, and aerobic exercise is any kind of activity that ... (2) your muscles use oxygen.

1	A	lacking	B	needing*	C	avoiding	D	missing
2	A	makes*	B	builds	C	produces	D	creates

The three competitives, *lacking*, *avoiding* and *missing*, of the first item, for example, are all syntactically related to the keyed response *needing* in being verbs. Semantically, *needing* shares the semantic feature of "being essential" with the competitives *lacking* and *missing*. However, the contextual schema *aerobics* does not qualify as an animate agent to *miss* or *lack* a substance such as oxygen and thus *lacking* and *missing* become discursively inappropriate to be chosen as the keyed response. Similarly, *avoiding* indicates the necessity of keeping away from something during aerobics, however, it does not relate to the keyed response in that its semantic feature of "keeping away" renders it unacceptable.

Khodadady and Ghergloo (2013) administered the 90-item S-Test to two hundred eighty three G4SHS students in Dargaz, Iran, in order to explore its empirical validity with a C-Test developed on the same text. The results showed that the S-Test is a highly challenging measure of content-based English achievement because its mean score was 39.90. The high difficulty level of the test resulted in having almost one third of items, i.e., 29 out of 90, function well, i.e., they had the acceptable item facility indices falling between .25 and .75 and item discrimination indices of .20 and higher. The alpha reliability coefficient of the test is .75. It enjoys high empirical validity because it correlated at the highest possible level with the 100 item C-Test when it was concurrently administered to the same test takers, i.e., $r = .99, p < .01$.

4 Grade Three Final English Examination

The grade three final English examination (G3FEE) designed by the Ministry of Education was also employed to measure the participants' English achievement. It consists of 13 sections containing various types of questions ranging from restoring one missing letter to writing complete response to questions based on pictorial inputs. It is held nationally and the students' responses are marked by two teachers and their scores are reported out of 20. The cut-off scores of 10 and higher are adopted as indicators of passing the English course successfully. According to Dastgahian (2014), the KR-21 reliability coefficient of the G3FEE taken by 1483 students is 0.73.

C. Procedure

While administering the ELTAS to 1483 G3SHS students, the researchers brought up the relevance and necessity of administering the S-Test designed by Khodadady and Ghergloo (2013) as a measure of English achievement and asked their teachers whether they could provide them with another session to administer the test. The teachers of 440 students in the ten schools mentioned earlier in section 2.1 agreed to hold the test provided that the researchers supplied them with their students' scores on the S-Test. Upon coordinating with the teachers the test was administered to their students in a single session after two weeks. Both the ELTAS and S-Test were administered under standard conditions lasting for about 30 and 90 minutes, respectively. The participants' scores on the S-Test were reported to the teachers as agreed.

D. Data Analysis

For determining the internal validity of S-Test and establishing its tailored version (e.g., Kamimoto, 1993) the functioning of its items were statistically determined by employing two indices. Point biserial correlation coefficients were estimated as the item discrimination (ID) values by correlating each individual item with the total score obtained on the S-Test. Following Thorndike (2005), items whose IDs fell below 0.20 were considered as malfunctioning and removed from validity analyses for the tailored version of the S-Test. The number of correct responses given to each item was also divided by the total number of answers to obtain item facility (IF) indices. Baker (1989) was followed and the IFs falling below 0.25 and above 0.75 were considered malfunctioning. Cronbach's Alpha was estimated to determine the internal consistency of the 90-item S-Test and its tailored version. Finally, Pearson correlations were employed to explore the relationship between the ELTAS as well as its genera with both the S-Test and its tailored version. All statistical analyses were performed by using IBM SPSS statistics 20.0 to explore the hypotheses below.

H1. The S-Test and its tailored version will correlate significantly with the ELTAS.

H2. The S-Test and its tailored version will correlate significantly with the genera underlying the ELTAS.

III. RESULTS

Table 2 presents the descriptive as well as the reliability estimates of the ELTAS and its eleven underlying factors as established by 1483 G4SHS student in K&D's study and 440 of those student in the present. As can be seen, the mean score of the scale taken by the latter (360.60) is slightly higher than that of the former (349.31). The higher magnitude of the mean scores of the latter group holds equally true for the factors as well, e.g., 89.34 for 440 G4SHS student vs. 87.39 for 1483. As it can also be seen, the participants in this study have reliably evaluated their English teachers' effectiveness as a domain measured by the ELTAS ($\alpha=.98$) and their Qualified ($\alpha=.94$), Social ($\alpha=.94$), Humanistic ($\alpha=.91$), Proficient ($\alpha=.88$), Stimulating ($\alpha=.85$), Systematic ($\alpha=.81$), Pragmatic ($\alpha=.79$), Organized ($\alpha=.76$), Prompt ($\alpha=.76$), Exam-Wise ($\alpha=.71$), and Lenient ($\alpha=.40$) genera.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF ELTAS AND ITS UNDERLYING FACTORS

No	Factor	No of items	K&D study (n=1483)			This study (n=440 of 1483)		
			Mean	SD	Alpha	Mean	SD	Alpha
1	Qualified	24	87.39	15.912	.928	89.34	16.357	.935
2	Social	14	55.55	10.480	.930	57.97	9.750	.935
3	Proficient	15	62.76	9.056	.901	65.31	7.632	.877
4	Humanistic	9	34.51	6.832	.883	35.20	7.307	.907
5	Stimulating	7	22.55	5.890	.844	23.83	6.007	.853
6	Organized	6	22.88	4.381	.782	23.69	4.037	.758
7	Pragmatic	5	18.97	3.969	.802	19.63	3.803	.789
8	Systematic	5	20.53	3.716	.801	20.68	3.843	.806
9	Prompt	2	7.57	2.005	.772	8.01	1.909	.758
10	Exam-Wise	2	8.42	1.569	.732	8.66	1.455	.710
11	Lenient	3	8.16	2.514	.391	8.29	2.520	.402
	ELTAS	92	349.31	54.345	.976	360.60	53.242	.977

Table 3 presents the psychometrics of the 90 items comprising the S-Test. As can be seen, out of 90 items 39 (43.3%) have functioned well, i.e., 6, 7, 23, 32, 40, 42, 45, 46, 47, 49, 51, 52, 53, 54, 56, 57, 59, 60, 62, 63, 65, 66, 67, 69, 70, 73, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 81, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, and 90. These results show that the S-Test enjoys a higher level of internal validity than a language proficiency test such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) does. Khodadady (2012) administered a disclosed TOEFL consisting of 115 multiple choice items i.e., 30 structure, 25 written expressions, 30 vocabulary, 30 reading comprehension items, to 430 university students and tailored the items. His findings showed that only 47 items (40.9%) had functioned well.

TABLE 3
PSYCHOMETRICS OF 90 ITEMS COMPRISING S-TEST

No	IF	ID	No	IF	ID	No	IF	ID	No	IF	ID	No	IF	ID
1	.96	.366	19	.78	.408	37	.90	.470	55	.82	.622	73	.57	.506
2	.81	.248	20	.28	.146	38	.87	.416	56	.48	.411	74	.77	.565
3	.91	.224	21	.80	.329	39	.76	.493	57	.70	.458	75	.68	.495
4	.93	.289	22	.77	.278	40	.53	.383	58	.87	.556	76	.68	.467
5	.91	.207	23	.75	.300	41	.76	.429	59	.61	.453	77	.71	.427
6	.75	.203	24	.87	.281	42	.54	.416	60	.72	.522	78	.54	.355
7	.70	.278	25	.77	.413	43	.81	.473	61	.78	.524	79	.58	.424
8	.79	.361	26	.81	.383	44	.89	.541	62	.48	.507	80	.85	.537
9	.86	.365	27	.80	.486	45	.63	.426	63	.48	.302	81	.67	.578
10	.78	.410	28	.79	.491	46	.58	.382	64	.79	.481	82	.76	.556
11	.83	.440	29	.82	.426	47	.61	.510	65	.42	.332	83	.76	.551
12	.78	.319	30	.82	.446	48	.79	.562	66	.74	.549	84	.58	.497
13	.87	.360	31	.76	.454	49	.69	.255	67	.65	.428	85	.74	.556
14	.89	.403	32	.69	.395	50	.83	.524	68	.88	.534	86	.70	.601
15	.80	.362	33	.80	.489	51	.57	.362	69	.53	.362	87	.65	.457
16	.87	.454	34	.88	.374	52	.50	.395	70	.75	.602	88	.70	.500
17	.90	.376	35	.76	.307	53	.55	.456	71	.88	.593	89	.62	.509
18	.84	.328	36	.90	.454	54	.75	.476	72	.86	.568	90	.70	.410

Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics as well as the reliability estimates of the original S-Test consisting of 90 items and its 39-item tailored version. As can be seen, in addition to having internal validity, the S-Test enjoys a high level of reliability ($\alpha = .95$). As it can also be seen, its tailored version is highly reliable ($\alpha = .91$), too. These results are compatible with other studies in which S-Tests have been employed for research purposes. Khodadady, Pishghadam, and Alaei (2012), for example, designed a 43-item S-Test on *English Book 3* (Birjandi, Nouroozi, & Mahmoodi, 2010) and administered it to 477 G3SHS students and reported an alpha coefficient of .94.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ORIGINAL AND TAILORED S-TESTS (N = 440)

Tests	Mean	SD	Mean IF	Mean ID	Skewness	Kurtosis	Alpha
S-Test 90	66.32	16.090	.74	.42	-1.021	.929	.95
S-Test 39	24.55	8.625	.63	.43	-.245	-.552	.91
G3FEE	16.69	2.69	-	-	-.886	.515	-

As it can also be seen in Table 4 above, neither the alpha reliability coefficient of the G3FEE nor the mean IF and ID could be estimated because the researchers could not have access to the participants' responses as regards the items comprising the examination. KR-21 formula provided by Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) was therefore employed and the coefficient of .66 was obtained. In addition to having a relatively low value, it does not reveal the reliability level of the examination because the assumption upon which the formula is based, i.e., having items of the same difficulty, is violated (see Thorndike, 2005)

Table 5 presents the correlation coefficients obtained between the ELTAS as well as its eleven underlying factors, the G3FEE, S-Test and its tailored version. As can be seen, the ELTAS correlates significantly with the G3FEE ($r = .27, p < .01$), explaining 7.29% of variance in each other. Among the eleven genera forming teacher effectiveness domain, the *Pragmatic* and *Qualified* genera correlate the highest with the G3FEE ($r = .29, p < .01$) followed by *Exam-Wise* ($r = .28, p < .01$). *Social*, *Organized*, *Humanistic*, *Systematic*, *Lenient*, and *Proficient* genera. They reveal successively lower significant relationships with the G3FEE, i.e., .25, .25, .23, .19, .18, and .17, $p < .01$, respectively. These results are largely in line with K&D's findings and establish stronger relationships between teacher effectiveness domain and English achievement on the one hand and nine genera of the domain and English achievement as measured by the G3FEE on the other.

TABLE 5
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ELTAS, ITS GENERA, G3FEE AND S-TEST

Scale and genera	G3FEE N=440	S-Test 90 N=440	S-Test 39 N=440	Scale and genera	G3FEE N=440	S-Test 90 N=440	S-Test 39 N=440
ELTAS	.272**	-.080	-.113*	Organized	.250**	-.085	-.105*
Qualified	.288**	-.107*	-.153**	Pragmatic	.292**	-.042	-.087
Social	.254**	-.055	-.074	Systematic	.193**	-.127**	-.159**
Proficient	.172**	-.070	-.099*	Prompt	.093	-.100*	-.147**
Humanistic	.226**	-.045	-.080	Exam-Wise	.284**	-.034	-.086
Stimulating	.067	.013	.057	Lenient	.178**	.018	-.011

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

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

However, as it can be seen in Table 5 above, the ELTAS does not correlate significantly with the 90-item S-Test. It does, nonetheless, correlate significantly but *negatively* with its tailored version ($r = -.11, p < .05$) confirming the first hypothesis partially. Five genera forming the domain of teacher effectiveness correlate significantly with the tailored

S-Test as well, i.e., *Systematic* ($r = -.16, p < .01$), *Qualified* ($r = -.15, p < .01$), *Prompt* ($r = -.15, p < .01$), *Organized* ($r = -.11, p < .05$), and *Proficient* ($r = -.10, p < .05$). These results partially provide a positive answer to the second hypothesis that *the S-Test and its tailored version will correlate significantly with the genera underlying the ELTAS*.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Neither learning nor teaching language has been discussed in the literature recently by relating it to testing. Brown (2007), for example, neither treated testing anywhere in his *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* nor devoted any entry to introduce it in his glossary. Similarly, Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) defined testing as “the use of TESTS, or the study of the theory and practice of their use, development, evaluation, etc” (p. 377) without associating it with *Teaching & Applied Linguistics* as the main theme of their dictionary. The same position is held by Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 592) in the fourth edition of the dictionary. Khodadady (1999), however, argued that “testing is an indispensable part of language teaching or pedagogy” (p. 62). The findings of the present study support his position.

As a measure of teacher effectiveness domain, the ELTAS explains 7.4% of variance in G4SHS students’ achievement when it is measured by G3FEE whereas similar measures of the domain fail to do so. Feizbakhsh (2010), for example, could not establish any significant relationship between Characteristics of Successful Iranian EFL Teachers Questionnaire (CSIEFLTQ) designed by Moafian and Pishghadam (2008) and English achievement of her 1461 participants, implying that there is no relationship between teacher effectiveness and testing achievement. Feizbakhsh could not establish any significant relationship between the two domains because the CSIEFLTQ does not include the attributes through which EFL teachers test their learners’ English achievement. These attributes are evaluated by their learners through the schema tokens, types and species which constitute the measures such as the CSIEFLTQ and ELTAS.

In addition to establishing a significant relationship between teaching and testing, the ELTAS validated by Khodadady and Dastgahian (2014) highlights the effect of subjective and objective testing on EFL learners’ evaluation of their teachers’ effectiveness as a schema domain. As a subjective test held nationally, the G3FEE explains 7.4% of variance in the domain ($r = .272, p < .01$), showing that the more effective the teachers, the higher the learners achieve English. G3FEE is, however, subjective because no one knows how providing the missing letters of 16 mutilated words given as eight isolated sentences such as “There are two kinds of illnesses. Ph_sical and m_ntal” show English achievement and deserves a score of four out of 40. The test takers do, however, receive a score of three out of 40 if they restore six missing words in six isolated sentences such as “A lab is a suitable place to do some ... on acid”.

In contrast to G3FEE, the S-Test designed by Khodadady and Ghergloo (2013) is an objective measure of English achievement whose 90 keyed responses, 55 semantic (61.1%) and 35 syntactic (38.9), are presented along with three competitiveness in nine paragraphs. The G4SHS students had to comprehend the meaning of the keyed responses in the context of paragraphs in order to select them from among 270 competitiveness comprising the materials taught during the school year. While scoring an item such as “A lab is a suitable place to do some ... on acid” is subjective to some extent and depends on the marker, the keyed responses of the S-Tests are determined in advance and can even be machine-marked. The very objectivity of the 90 item S-Test has resulted in its being unrelated to the ELTAS as a measure of teacher effectiveness domain.

It is further argued in this paper that the S-Test does not relate to the ELTAS because it contains 50 items whose answers were known to both low and high achievers. Its 39-item tailored version, however, relates significantly but *negatively* to the ELTAS ($r = -.113, p < .01$) because it could differentiate achievers from each other. The performance of high, middle and low achievers on the test does in fact reveal the nature of negative relationship as shown in Figure 1. As can be seen, the achievers’ mean scores on the domain are different. The difference, according to the One-Way ANOVA analysis, is significant, i.e., $F(2, 436) = 8.45, p < .001$. The Scheffe Post hoc test, nonetheless, showed that the 78 high achievers (mean=341.76, SD=65.68) rated their EFL teachers’ effectiveness significantly lower than their 299 middle achiever counterparts (mean=367.36, SD=47.46)

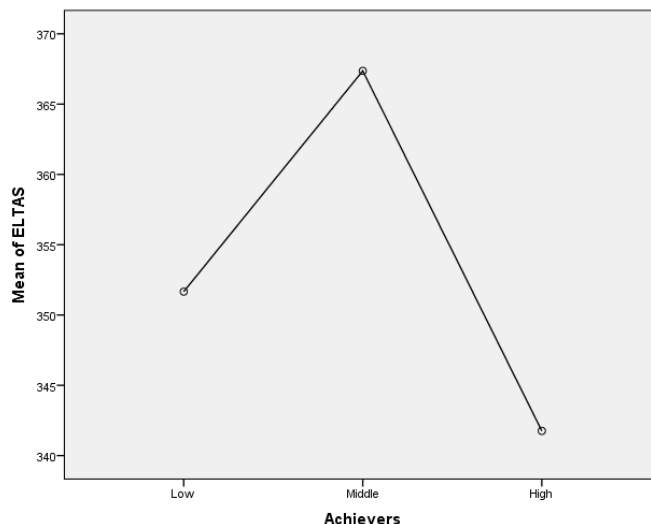


Figure 1. High, Middle And Low Achievers' Evaluation Of Their Teachers' Effectiveness

Similar significant but *negative* relationships were found between the tailored S-Test and Systematic ($r = -.159$, $p < .01$), Qualified ($r = -.153$, $p < .01$), Prompt ($r = -.147$, $p < .01$), Organized ($r = -.105$, $p < .05$), and Proficient ($r = -.099$, $p < .05$) genera of the domain. The relationships are negative because the evaluation of high achievers regarding the five genera of their teachers' effectiveness is lower than their low and/or middle achieving classmates. One Way ANOVA analysis of ratings on Systematic genus, for example, showed the three groups of achievers' evaluation of systematic genus differed significantly from each other, i.e., $F(2, 436) = 12.16$, $p < .001$, as shown in Figure 2. The Scheffe post hoc test showed that high achievers rated the systematicity of their teacher (mean=18.86, $SD=4.59$) significantly lower than both middle (mean=21.20, $SD=3.46$) and low achievers (mean=20.45, $SD=3.93$) did.

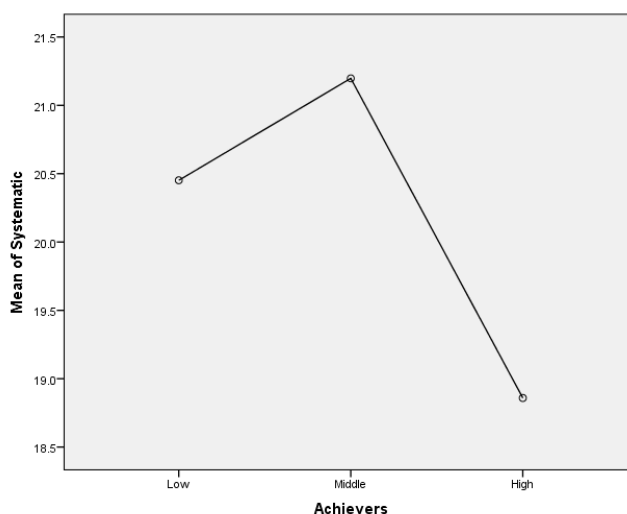


Figure 2. High, middle and low achievers' evaluation of their teachers' Systematic genus

In sharp contrast to G3FEE, the S-Test does not show any significant relationship with Lenient, Social, Humanistic, Exam-Wise, and Pragmatic genera of teacher effectiveness domain, indicating that S-Tests enjoy discriminant validity (e.g. Kline, 2005). In other words, S-Tests measure English achievement as an ability which is different from teachers' being Lenient, Social, Humanistic, Exam-Wise, and Pragmatic in their classes. G3FEE is, however, designed in a way which allows teachers to teach English to their learners on Lenient, Social, Humanistic, Exam-Wise, and Pragmatic grounds. The inclusion of these non-ability genera in their evaluation of learners' English attainment, results in high achievers' negative evaluation of their ability-based Systematic, Qualified, Prompt, Organized, and Proficient genera.

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Reflections on Communicative Language Teaching and Its Application in China*

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Abstract—The emergence of English as a global language has imposed a profound influence on the methodology of foreign language teaching. Communicative Language Teaching, an influential approach in language teaching, came into being decades ago and later was introduced into China. Nowadays, it has become one of the most important approaches in the field of foreign language teaching worldwide. The present paper discussed the historical and theoretical background of Communicative Language Teaching and its two versions and its main characteristics. After having explored its application in China, directions for future improvement are pointed out.

Index Terms—communicative language teaching, historical and theoretical background, application

I. INTRODUCTION

The history of foreign language teaching can be traced back to thousands of years ago along the course of the history of the communication between people speaking different languages. The past few decades alone have witnessed a whirlwind of transitions in foreign language teaching, especially in the field of English language teaching, from grammar translation to direct method, to audiolingualism, to cognitive code, and many other methods (T. Pica, 2000). Among them, Communicative Language Teaching has attracted much attention from the field of language pedagogy, and at the same time has triggered much debate as well (D. Woods & H. Cakir, 2011; R. Najjari, 2014; W. Littlewood, 2014). As has been pointed out by Sandra J. Savignon, (2007), in the field of second language teaching, Communicative Language Teaching has become a buzzword frequently mentioned, and the same is true of foreign language teaching. What is more, Communicative Language Teaching has attracted the attention from teachers and educationists of related field all over the world. According to Littlewood (2014), much has been argued about the question of whether the Communicative Language Teaching will come to the end of its life or whether it will continue to prosper in numerous fields of language teaching after approximately 40 years of development. In Littlewood's point of view, instead of only being "a label for a specific approach as an umbrella term to describe all approaches that aim to develop communicative competence in personally meaningful ways", Communicative Language Teaching also "provides a framework for defining issues that research and exploratory practice need to address" in the upcoming years in future (Littlewood, 2014). In addition, Littlewood holds that over the past few decades Communicative Language Teaching has helped teachers and researchers in related areas to tackle plenty of issues of value and brought in large quantities of opportunities, based on which we could step forward (*ibid.*). However, in Littlewood's opinion, it has also led to plenty of questions and dilemmas in the theoretical field and the practical realm" (*ibid.*).

II. HISTORICAL AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.64), the Communicative Language Teaching could date back to the changes in the British language teaching tradition originating from the late 1960s. At that time, applied linguists in Britain began to call into question the theoretical assumptions underlying situational language teaching. As stated by Howatt (1984, p.280), the situational approach had come to the end of its life by the end of the 1960s. According to Howatt (*ibid.*), there would be no future in being obsessed with the fantasy of being able to predict language on the foundation of situational events. And he holds that English language teachers and researchers in related fields should attach importance to a closer examination of the language itself and they should shift their attention back to the traditional concept that holds that speeches carried meaning in themselves and conveyed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and writers who used them (1984, p. 280).

At that time, the European countries gradually became closely linked with and dependent on one another, so they

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were forced to teach adults the major languages of the European Common Market and the council of Europe as well (ibid.). Just as Savignon (2007) has argued, people could travel and exchange information and knowledge within the European Union at their own will, thus facilitating the need and the opportunity for language learning and intercultural comprehension. In addition, “mass travel for business and pleasure over continental motorway networks and air routes, electric media, mass movements of immigrant labor and at managerial level in multinational corporations, supranational economic, cultural and political institutions, interdependence of imports or exports in an increasingly unified market, all conspire to render hard national frontiers within the Council for Cultural Cooperation area increasingly obsolete. (J. L. M. Trim, 1979)”

Communicative Language Teaching derived from a theory of language which regards language as communication. The aim of language teaching is to develop “communicative competence”, which has been named by Hymes (1972). He employs the name “communicative competence” to contrast the notion of “competence” proposed by Chomsky. For Chomsky, “competence” is defined as “the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his knowledge of the ‘ideal speaker-listener’, operating within ‘a completely homogeneous speech community’.” It distinguishes itself from “performance” which is seen as “the actual use of language in concrete situations”, and will show numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in mid-course, and so on”(ibid.). Thus, performance is “an incomplete and a degenerate reflection of the ideal speaker-listener’s competence, and as such is considered to be of little relevance to the theoretical and descriptive linguist (ibid.). Hymes criticizes Chomskyan linguistics with its narrow concept to view competence as a ‘Garden of Eden view’, for it dismisses central functions of use by relegating them to the area of performance. He argues that Chomsky restricted the notion of competence to the scope of perfect knowledge, and Chomsky ignored the related and complicated sociocultural factors, which could only exist in the field of theory, in the ideal world of linguists. He further points out that Chomsky’s competence was a kind of grammatical competence, an ideal sort of power human beings endowed at birth, and compared Chomsky’s notion of performance to an emergency pushing the perfect language-user out into a fallen world (ibid.).

Different from the “competence” proposed by Chomsky, “communicative competence”, according to Hymes, means “the knowledge both of rules of grammar, vocabulary and semantics, and rules of speaking---the patterns of sociolinguistic behavior of the speech community” (Jack C. Richards, 1998, p.145). Hymes holds that communicative competence is what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. According to Hymes, there are four sectors of communicative competence (1972, p.281):

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

What is more, Savignon employs this term to describe the capability of language learners to communicate with other speakers, and this ability to give and take meaning was discriminated from their capability of merely recite dialogues or their perform on discrete-point grammatical tests (Savignon, 2007). In 1980, Canale and Swain further develop the theory of “communicative competence”. The four components of communicative competence classified by them are: grammar competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence (cited in Wei, 2004).

In addition, Halliday’s language theory also contributes much to the linguistic foundation of Communicative Language Teaching. He defines language as “meaning potential”, that is, as sets of options, or alternatives, in meaning, that are available to speaker-hearer. “At each of the levels that make up the linguistic coding system, we can identify sets of options representing what the speaker ‘can do’ at that level. When it comes to grammar, or to other domain of linguistics, each of these can be looked upon as a series of strategies, together with the tactics of structure formation (Halliday, 1973). In Halliday’s opinion, linguistics is concerned with the description of speech acts or texts, so the factual usage of language should be paid attention to, including all the functions of language, and all components of meaning as well (Halliday, 1970, p.145). And later he describes seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language (Halliday, 1975, p.11-17):

1. The instrumental function: using language to get things;
2. The regulatory function: using language to control the behavior of others;
3. The interactional function: using language to create interaction with others;
4. The personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;
5. The heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover;
6. The imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination;
7. The representational function: using language to communicate information.

His concept of the basic functions of language and other language theory is linked with the theory of Hymes in that both of them relate language to extra-linguistic phenomena. All of these provide theoretical foundations for Communicative Language Teaching.

According to what has been summarized by Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.71), Communicative Language Teaching holds the following communicative view of language.

1. Language is a system of for the expression of meaning.

2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

As for the learning theory of Communicative Language Teaching, little has been written about that. Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.72) describe the three principles of learning theory as follows:

1. Communicative principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning;
2. Task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning;
3. Meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

III. TWO VERSIONS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS

Communicative Language Teaching consists of a strong version and a weak version. The strong version of Communicative Language Teaching holds the opinion that Communicative Language Teaching is not only a question of activating a kind of inert knowledge that has already existed in language learners, but at the same time it is a problem of fostering the growth and development of language itself from the perspective of language learners. The weak version attaches great value to supplying learners with abundant chances to use their English to communicate with other learners in authentic context (Rao, 2002).

Howatt (1984, p.279) describes the former as “using English to learn it” and the latter as “learning to use English”. He holds that the weak version which has become somewhat standardized practice in the past few years, and the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and characteristically has been stressed, and additionally, teachers and researchers have intended to develop such activities into programs of language teaching in a wider scope (Howatt, 1984, p.279). The ‘strong’ version of communicative teaching, on the contrary, proposes the view that language is learned and gained in the process of language communication, and therefore, “it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the knowledge, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself” (ibid.).

According to Larsen-Freeman (1986, p.132), the most prominent feature of Communicative Language Teaching is that as long as we are doing something, we are doing it with the agenda of communication. W. Littlewood (2000, p.86) classified the communicative activities into two categories: pre-communicative activities and communicative activities. The purpose of pre-communicative activities is to grant the learners control of fluency over linguistic form, and the standard of success or failure is whether the learner produces acceptable language. On the contrary, in the process of communicative activities, the use of linguistic forms is secondary compared with the communication of meaning. It is expected that the learner should enhance his skill starting from an intended meaning, choosing suitable language forms from his total repertoire, and producing them fluently (ibid.). The criterion for success is whether the meaning is conveyed effectively (ibid.).” He also pointed out four contributions of communicative activities to language learning, that is, providing ‘whole-task practice’; improving motivation; allowing natural learning; creating a context which supports learning (ibid.). In order to give students an opportunity to practice communicating meaningfully in different contexts and different roles, various communicative activities could be introduced, such as games, role plays, simulations, and problem-solving tasks.

The second characteristic of Communicative Language Teaching is that “activities in the Communicative Approach are often carried out by students in small groups” (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p.132). By way of small group activities, students could interact with each other in order to maximize the time allotted to each student for learning to negotiate meaning.

The third characteristic of Communicative Language Teaching is its “learner-centered and experience-based view of second language teaching” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p.69). In Communicative Language Teaching, classroom performance should not be dominated exclusively by the teacher, but by both the teacher and students. As for the role of the teacher, he or she should not be the dominant authority in the classroom, but should do necessary things and organize activities to facilitate the communicative process in the classroom while making sure that students feel secure, unthreatened and non-defensive (Rao, 2002). According to Breen and Candlin (1980, p.99), the teacher has two roles: firstly, they should foster the communication and connection among all students in the classroom and provide various activities and texts; and the second role for them is to play the role of an independent participant within the communication-in-classroom group (ibid.). They further point out that the two main roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher: first, the teacher should be an organizer of resources and as a resource himself; second, the teacher should be a guide in the process of classroom activities, and the third role is the role as a researcher and learner, rich in terms of appropriate knowledge to contribute, experienced in the nature of learning and organizational capacities (ibid.). What’s more, Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.78) add other roles assumed for the teacher, such as the analyst of learner language needs, the counselor, the group process manager.

On the other hand, students in Communicative Language Teaching are no longer regarded as passive recipients, but as active participants in communication activities. Breen and Candlin (1980, p.110) define the learner’s role within Communicative Language Teaching as follows: the learner assumes the role of negotiating between the self and with other learners in the process of classroom activities which he takes part in.

IV. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING'S IMPLEMENTATION IN CHINA

Rao (2002) pointed out that, after realizing the fact that the traditional grammar-translation method and audiolingual method are far from being capable of developing learners' communicative competence, English language teachers and researchers in China started introducing Communicative Language Teaching into the English teaching in both junior and senior high schools, colleges and universities in the early 1980s. From the very beginning of learning the English language, students are encouraged to develop communicative competence "by means of meaningful drills and communication activities" (ibid.).

However, the outcome of teaching English exclusively using Communicative Language Teaching did not show the expected result. Although Communicative Language Teaching has gradually been introduced into the Chinese EFL classrooms as early as in the 1980s, we could not see its presence in most of English language teaching classrooms in China (ibid.). Rao pointed out that for on the one hand, the students preferred the traditional classroom work and had a negative attitude towards the communicative-type activities; and on the other hand, the teachers felt frustrated with Communicative Language Teaching, both due to students' negative response and due to their lack of training in using Communicative Language Teaching and low English proficiency (ibid.).

Generally speaking, many factors may contribute to this phenomenon. The first reason might be what has been pointed out by Littlewood (2000, p.39), "the situation in which learners are asked to perform sometimes bear little outward resemblance to those which they will encounter outside the classroom... partly as a result of this lack of similarity with real-life situations, the learner's social rule is unclear and generally irrelevant to the purely functional purpose of the interaction." As for the solution to this problem, Littlewood proposed that the range of communicative activities should be extended in order to help learners "experience a wider range of communicative needs in situations more similar to those outside the classroom and under the influence of more varied and clearly defined social conditions" (ibid.).

The second reason might be the students' misconception of Communicative Language Teaching. Students in China more often than not hold the opinion that Communicative Language Teaching does not guarantee them sufficient grammar knowledge, and this is in contrast with their goal of learning English, that is, to pass all kinds of standardized grammar-based examinations (Li, 1984). As a consequence, it is the responsibility of the foreign language teacher to make the students aware that grammar is merely a tool or resource that could be used in the use of language instead of treating it an aim or end in itself. What is more, just as has been pointed out by David Nunan (1988, p.95), the teacher could start with organizing traditional learning activities and gradually attempts to introduce more communicative activities with the growth of acceptance from the perspective of the learners. In a word, the students should be made to fully understand the features of Communicative Language Teaching to avoid their misconceptions of Communicative Language Teaching.

The third reason might be that the students cannot balance the relationship between linguistic competence and communicative competence. It is very important that either of them should not be biased towards or against, and instead the two should be combined and interpreted. From the perspective of foundation, linguistic competence refers to correct, spontaneous and flexible use of the language system, and communicative competence is concerned with rule of using various strategies to use the language appropriately and readily by the learners, including tactics to tackle problems in communication. Linguistic competence is the basic foundation of communicative competence. Without the foundation of linguistic competence, there is no communicative competence to t. But the students should be made aware that communicative competence does not derive from linguistic competence automatically. Consequently, the students should actively participate in various communicative classroom activities such as debating, role playing, simulations and true-to-life interaction with the intention to develop communicative competence.

The final reason might be that the lack of materials available to some Chinese students in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) situation prevent them from getting exposed to the authentic English language. However, up to date, with the development of modern science and technology, this problem has been solved in many parts of China's developed cities and areas, where most students have access to the Internet conveniently. As is commonly known that the Internet is a good resource of authentic materials for English learning, through which students could watch original English movies and TV series whenever they want and they could make friends with people from the English-speaking countries and even chat online with them. What is more, exchange study programs are common in universities and overseas students are commonly seen on campus. As a result, students could make friends and chat with foreign students face to face. In addition, students in the underdeveloped areas to whom the Internet is not available can learn English by listening to the radio, watching TV, or reading English novels and magazines.

Up to now, much has been achieved by the English Language teachers, educationists and researchers of various levels from relative fields. The past few years have witnessed in China large quantities of experiments and researches conducted commonly known as task-based language teaching, problem-based language teaching, project-based language teaching, cooperative language learning, computer-assisted language learning etc., most of which were viewed as the development within the Communicative Language Teaching (W. Littlewood, 2014). For instance, Qin & Dai (2013) has proposed a the ecological task-based teaching model informed by sociocultural theories after exploring the general practice of lack of attention to the sociocultural context and holism of language learning process in the field of the English language teaching. In another experiment in a vocational college, He (2013) applies task-based language

teaching in English teaching and compares it with the traditional PPP approach. By means of comparison of the results and analysis of the questionnaires between the experimental class and controlled class, He draws the conclusion and proves that task-based language teaching appears to be more facilitative than the PPP approach in arousing students' interest and improving students' academic records, thus to promote students' autonomous leaning ability. Furthermore, Yan (2012) employed task-based model in giving lectures on thesis writing for students who learn English as a second major and found that the tasked-based thesis writing course turned out to be more effective. In addition, there have been studies related to the teaching of translation, listening and speaking, language theories, advanced English based on the task-based or the project-based approach (Fu & Li, 2012; Ouyang Xudong, 2012; Zhang Feng, 2012; Zhang Mingfang, 2012).

V. CONCLUSION

The past few decades witnessed the development and prosperity of Communicative Language Teaching in China and in the whole world. After the review of the historical background as well as the theoretical background of Communicative Language Teaching, the application of Communicative Language Teaching in China is discussed. Up to now, with the changes in the subjects of language teaching and the overall environment in the society (Huang & Xia, 2013), great numbers of studies related to communicative language teaching have been witnessed in China and other countries, for example, numerous schools and educators have been experimenting tasked-based language teaching, problem-based language teaching, project-based language teaching, computer-assisted language learning etc. (A. Hadadi et al., 2014; D. Woods & H. Cakir, 2011; Qin & Dai, 2013; R. Najjari, 2014). We are sure that with the joint efforts domestic and abroad, the English language could be learned more efficiently all over China and all over the world.

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Translation and Anxiety: A Study of Anxiety Effect on Translators' Performance in Terms of Speed and Accuracy

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Abstract—Translation is a mental process needing sufficient concentration. Anxiety is mental too, but a mental disorder that makes mind busy and can lead to lack of concentration. Since translation requires concentration, the present study investigated the impact of anxiety on translation speed and accuracy. To this purpose, first a Michigan English Proficiency Test was given to one hundred M.A. students of translation to select the most proficient among them. Then, Beck Anxiety Inventory (Beck 1993) was administered to forty participants who were at the same level of language proficiency in order to determine the extent of their anxiety. The selected participants were then asked to translate ten paragraphs about anxiety to estimate their translation accuracy and speed. The analysis of their performance showed that anxiety affects translation accuracy insignificantly, but there is a significant difference between translation speeds of translators with different levels of anxiety.

Index Terms—accuracy, anxiety, mental disorder, performance, translation speed

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, all people around the world have connections with each other, with translation being a bridge among them for communication, because every nation speaks a specific language which is difficult to learn by people of other nations. So, translation is an important tool for communication among people of different languages. Many people try to learn others' languages, but learning all languages is impossible and, therefore, they hand over the task of mutual communication to mediators, i.e. translators.

Translation is a complex act of communication in which the SL–author, the reader as translator and translator as TL–author and the TL–reader interact. The translator starts from a present frame (the text and its linguistic components); this was produced by an author who drew from his own repertoire of partly prototypical scenes. Based on the frame of the text, the translator-reader builds up his own scenes depending on his own level of experience and his internalized knowledge of the material concerned (Snell-Horby 1988, p. 81).

Feeling of anxiety affects almost everyone's life during his/her lifetime and may be regarded as a normal part of human life. Anxiety is actually a situation which affects mind and leads to decentralization, and anxious people cannot do their own tasks. . In translation, anxious translators cannot focus on the text and cannot present a good translation because decentralization does not allow them to get the concept of the texts to be translated. This study tries to find the relation among anxiety, translation speed and translation accuracy to find out if anxiety affect accuracy and speed of translation in a significant way.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Catford (1965) believes that translation is the replacement of the source language textual elements by the target language textual elements. Toury (cited in Lefevere 1992, holds the view that translation is a kind of activity which inevitably involves at least two languages and two cultural traditions whereby an original text is rewritten by the translator into a different language. Newmark (1988) considers translation as a craft in which the translator tries to replace a written message in one language by the same message in another language. Munday (2002), as a more recent authority, is of the opinion that in the translation process the translator changes an original written text in original verbal language into a written text in a different verbal language. Among all these, just to mention a few, Toury's definition is a culturally-oriented one focusing on the socio-cultural patterns of source and target languages.

Concerning the translation process, a very general view is that in translation there are two processes involved: the translator analyzes the SL form in order to find out the meaning and second the translator produces or chooses proper

TL form for this meaning (Mollanazar 2005). It should be added that since each language has a distinctive form and pattern of its own and there is thus no one-to-one relationship between any two languages, the same meaning may be expressed in another language in quite a different grammatical or lexical form (Vahid Dastjerdi, 2008). As for accuracy in translation, according to Khomeijani Farahani (2005, pp. 77-78) based on what Larson proposed in 1984, the process of evaluating the accuracy of translation can be done in 2 possible ways: one way is recognizing the key words of the ST and their equivalences in the TT and comparing how close they are; i.e. determining whether the translator could convey the same and exact meaning of the ST by selecting the best target equivalents and whether s/he could achieve an acceptable accuracy or not (as cited in Manafi Anari & Ghodrati, 2009). Another way is using back translation; i.e. translating the TLT into the SL, then, carrying out a contrastive analysis and if the retranslated text is reasonably close to the SLT, the translation has got the acceptable accuracy. Also, Waddington (2001, p. 313) has proposed a translation quality assessment method based on Hurtado's (1995) model: Waddington's "Method A" introduces three groups of mistakes which may exist in a translation (as cited in Manafi Anari & Ghodrati, 2009). The first group of the mistakes, which consider the understanding of the ST message, is related to the accuracy of the translation; it contains inappropriate renderings affecting the understanding of the source text and divides them into eight categories: countersense, faux sense, nonsense, addition, omission, unresolved extra linguistic references, loss of meaning, and inappropriate linguistic variation--register, style, dialect, etc. (<http://zh.scribd.com/doc/91811779/Gender-and-Translation-Accuracy>)

Anxiety is an aversive motivational state that occurs in situations in which level of perceived threat to the individual is high. State anxiety is interactively determined by trait anxiety and by situational stress (Eysenck, 1992). In order to provide an explanation to account for the negative effects of anxiety on cognitive performance, Eysenck et al. (2007) developed ACT based on a large research review, and an update to the previous processing efficiency theory (Eysenck & Calvo, 1992). One of the main predictions associated with both processing efficiency and attentional control theories is that anxiety impairs mostly the central executive. In accordance with Baddeley (1986), the central executive is a central component of the working memory that controls, monitors and updates the working memory functions it has limited capacity and intentional control is its main role.

Anxiety is generally accepted as being an unpleasant emotion. Researchers in mainstream psychology have suggested that anxiety might have at least two distinguishable components: a mental component normally termed cognitive anxiety or worry, and a physiological component normally termed somatic anxiety or physiological arousal (Woodman and Hardy, 2001, p. 290-291). Janelle, Singer, and Williams (1999) have found that anxious subjects often focus on irrelevant internal and external information.

According to Drawish's model (2003), in the translation process, the translator possesses two sets of parallel linguistic and cultural repertoires. Each repertoire has a subset of components and units with codes and flags embedded in each one of them. When the translation analysis begins, the two parallel repertoires move constantly to match and replace lexis, grammar, stylistics, phonology, cultural and situational equivalents and to give universal concepts language properties. In the transfer of text from the source language to the target language, all (or nearly all) the attributes of text/discourse travel from one repertoire to the other through the Concept "lens", which is also in constant focusing converting concepts invoked by the flagged attributes in context in the source language repertoire through the activation of matching attributes in the target language. This binary action-reflex mechanism results in the translation product.

Based on what was stated above, the present study aimed at investigating the effects of the psychological process on translation. Actually, the researchers investigated the impact of anxiety, which is a psychological process, on the translation in terms of speed and accuracy. Thus, the following research question was addressed:

Does anxiety affect translators' performance in terms of accuracy and speed?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Instruments

The following three main instruments were used in this study:

1) The Michigan English Test (MET)- an examination for test takers who wish to evaluate their general English language proficiency in social, educational, and workplace contexts. Listening recordings and reading passages reflect every day, authentic interaction in an American-English linguistic environment (http://www.newamericacollege.org/?page_id=964). An MET Speaking Test is also available.

2) Beck Anxiety Inventory (1997). This test includes twenty one common symptoms of anxiety. Each symptom has four options: Not at all, mildly but it didn't bother me much, moderately - it wasn't pleasant at times, and severely - it bothered me a lot. The point for the first option is 0, 1 for second, 2 for third and 3 for the last. Each participant should carefully read each item in the list. Indicate how much they have been bothered by that symptom during the past month, including today, by circling the number in the corresponding space in the column next to each symptom (See Appendix A).

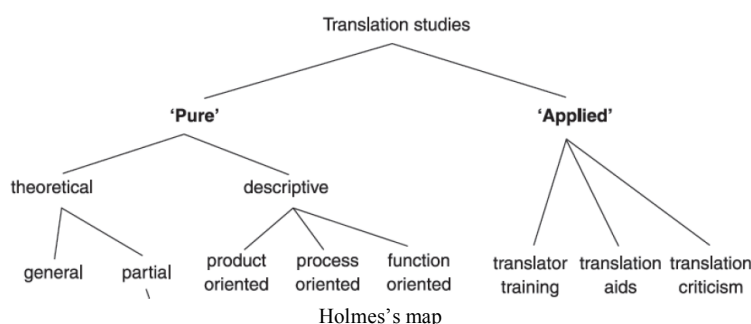
3) The last instrument used in this study was a text about anxiety including 10 paragraphs which were selected from a thesis entitled "Intellectual Ability in Children with Anxiety: A Replication and Exploration of the Differences" by

Munson (2004). This was written in The Department of Psychology at University of Florida. Each paragraph comprises five to eight lines (See Appendix B).

B. Participants

The total population for the present study was initially 100 (N = 100) students of English translation studies at Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan branch, and Sheikhbahai non-governmental institute of higher education. Their language proficiency level was obviously not the same. Their age range was between 22 and 51 years. They were all first, second and third semester MA students. To choose homogenous participants from this population, the placement test, i.e. Michigan English Test, was administered and those who scored one standard deviation above the mean were selected (No. 40) to be tested with Beck Anxiety Inventory.

C. Model of the Study



The focus of this study was on the process part of Holmes map (Figure 1. above) and thus, it was process-oriented. So, the data were studied based on Beekman and Callow (1989, p. 34) who defined accuracy as "only as the translator correctly understands the message, can he begin to be faithful", and it is only then that "he can translate clearly & accurately. Based on this, translation accuracy and speed by the researcher, the rater and results of anxiety test were investigated to see if there were any significant relations among anxiety, speed and accuracy of translation.

D. Procedures

The following procedures were put to effect to achieve the purposes of this study: First, a Michigan Test was given to one hundred M.A. translation students to select homogenous ones among them. Then, Beck Anxiety Inventory test was given to 40 selected participants who were at the same level of language proficiency. As a third step, 10 paragraphs about anxiety were given to them for translation. Then, their translations were checked by a rater to investigate the accuracy and time of the translators' renderings. The time suggested by the rater for the translation of all the paragraphs was 121 minutes, based on the level of the participants' language proficiency. Finally, based on the requirements of the chosen model stated above, translation accuracy as well as time span (i.e. speed) were examined to show the possible relation among anxiety, speed and accuracy of translation?

IV. RESULTS

The total results obtained from the analysis of the data are shown in the following table (See the details in the tables of Appendix C) which reveals three conditions of the translators' anxiety, i.e. low anxiety (group 1), moderate anxiety (group 2) and high anxiety (group 3). The table contains some examples of translation under specified anxiety conditions. Making decision about translation accuracy was done based on the translation accuracy criteria explained in previous sections.

TABLE 4.1.
EXAMPLES OF TRANSLATIONS

Sentence	Translation	Accurate/Inaccurate	Level of participants' anxiety	Translation Time (min.)
Conflicting evidence has been reported about whether children with anxiety disorders <u>experience</u> negative consequences into adulthood.	شواهد متناقضی در مورد کودکان بسیار مضطرب گزارش شده است که عواقب بدی را در دوران بزرگسالی خواهند داشت.	Inaccurate	Low	90
The relationship between anxiety disorders and memory deficits has also been shown in children.	رابطه ی بین اختلالات اضطراب و کم حافظگی هم در کودکان نشان داده شده است.	Accurate	Moderate	120
Several explanations for the negative impact of anxiety on working memory have been offered in the literature.	توضیحات متعددی در مورد تأثیر منفی اضطراب بر حافظه فعال در تحقیقات پیشین ارائه شده است.	Accurate	High	135

The above table shows some of the translators' renderings with different levels of anxiety and reveals that translation speed is different among translators with different level of anxiety. Also, as the following figure indicates there is no significant difference in terms of translation accuracy in connection with low, moderate and high levels of anxiety.

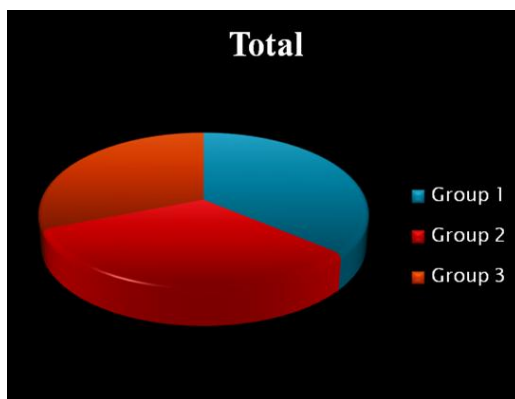


Figure 4. 1. Translation Accuracy

Figure 4.2 below shows the translation speed of translators with low, moderate and high level of anxiety.

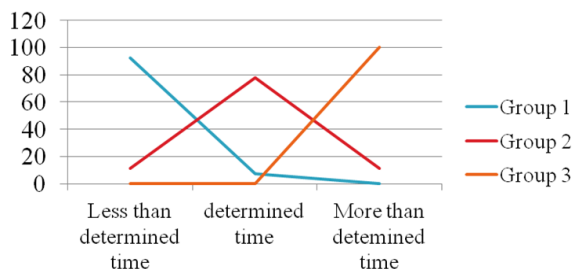


Figure 4.2 Participants' Translation Speed

The analyzed examples of the participants' translations shown in the tables of this study indicate that anxiety affects translation speed significantly. Actually, 92.59 % of translators in group one translated the texts in a shorter time than expected by the rater, and 7.40% of the translators translated the texts within the determined time. In the group two, 77.77% of translators translated the texts in the specified time, 11.11% of translators translated texts in a time quite different from the determined time. Among the translators in the third group, 100% of translators translated the texts in a shorter time than the specified time. All this shows the significant the impact of anxiety on translation speed.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Based on the results of the study and according to Beekman and Callow's (1989) definition of accuracy as well as the decisions of the rater, it was revealed that more than 90% of all three groups (low, moderate and high level anxious participants) translated the texts accurately. Actually, most of the translators translated lexical and syntactic items of the texts accurately, while false translations were also seen in all three groups. This shows that anxiety did not affect translation accuracy to a significant extent, because even the translators with low levels of anxiety translated the mentioned features in some cases flatly.

As for translation time or speed of translation, as it is seen in the charts, the translators with low level of anxiety translated the texts in a shorter time than the determined time, moderate anxious translators translated the texts within the determined time and translators with high anxiety translated the texts in a longer time than expected. It indicates clearly that anxiety affects translation speed, i.e. anxious people concentrate on the text with difficulty and thus, they do their work in a longer time than other translators. As a matter of fact, minds of anxious translators are too busy; they think about their own problems and search for solutions. This leads to less concentration on the task of translation, which in turn, results in their incapability to get the concept of the texts or words in the first reading and, therefore, they have to read the texts more and more, which naturally takes more time.

APPENDIX A

Beck Anxiety Inventory

Below is a list of common symptoms of anxiety. Please carefully read each item in the list. Indicate how much you have been bothered by that symptom during the past month, including today, by circling the number in the corresponding space in the column next to each symptom.

	Not At All	Mildly but it didn't bother me much.	Moderately - it wasn't pleasant at times	Severely – it bothered me a lot
Numbness or tingling	0	1	2	3
Feeling hot	0	1	2	3
Wobbliness in legs	0	1	2	3
Unable to relax	0	1	2	3
Fear of worst happening	0	1	2	3
Dizzy or lightheaded	0	1	2	3
Heart pounding/racing	0	1	2	3
Unsteady	0	1	2	3
Terrified or afraid	0	1	2	3
Nervous	0	1	2	3
Feeling of choking	0	1	2	3
Hands trembling	0	1	2	3
Shaky / unsteady	0	1	2	3
Fear of losing control	0	1	2	3
Difficulty in breathing	0	1	2	3
Fear of dying	0	1	2	3
Scared	0	1	2	3
Indigestion	0	1	2	3
Faint / lightheaded	0	1	2	3
Face flushed	0	1	2	3
Hot/cold sweats	0	1	2	3
Column Sum				

Scoring - Sum each column. Then sum the column totals to achieve a grand score. Write that score here

APPENDIX B

TABLE 4.2.
TRANSLATIONS OF THE TRANSLATORS WITH LOW ANXIETY

	Sentence	Translation	Accurate/Inaccurate	Translation Time (min)
1	Anxiety is a common experience for the average person. Most children, for example, experience at least some developmentally appropriate fears and worries.	اضطراب تجربه ای شایع میان اکثر افراد است. برای مثال، بیشتر کودکان ترس ها و نگرانی های مقتضی دوران رشد را تجربه می کنند.	Accurate	100
2	Several studies have demonstrated that children with anxiety disorders have social problems, including social incompetence, low self-worth, and higher levels of peer victimization.	چندین پژوهش نشان داده اند که کودکانی که اضطراب زیادی دارند با مشکلات اجتماعی از جمله ناتوانی های اجتماعی، عزت به نفس پایین و شکست بسیار میان همسالان خود رو به رو هستند.	Accurate	110
3	Conflicting evidence has been reported about whether children with anxiety disorders <u>experience</u> negative consequences into adulthood.	شواهد متناقضی در مورد کودکان بسیار مضطرب گزارش شده است که عواقب بدی را در دوران بزرگسالی خواهند داشت.	Inaccurate (syntactic features)	90
4	Baddeley (2000) added a fourth component, the episodic buffer, to his model to better explain the complexities of working memory.	بدلی (1379) مولفه ی چهارمی، میانگیر دوره ای، را برای توضیح هر چه بهتر پیچیدگی های حافظه فعال به مدلش افزود.	Accurate	100
5	The relationship between anxiety disorders and memory deficits has also been shown in children.	رابطه ی بین اختلالات اضطراب و کم حافظگی هم در کودکان نشان داده شده است.	Accurate	120
6	Several explanations for the negative impact of anxiety on working memory have been offered in the literature.	توضیحات بسیاری در مورد تاثیر منفی اضطراب بر حافظه فعال در تحقیقات پیشین ارائه شده است.	Accurate	110
7	Children were eligible for inclusion if they were between the ages of 9 and 16 years (ages based on requirements of measures listed above) and did not meet exclusion criteria.	کودکانی واجد شرایط برای پژوهش بودند که در دره سنی 9 تا 16 سال (رده ی سنی بر اساس نیاز به معیارهای بیان شده در لیست بالا) بودند و معیارهای دیگری وجود نداشت.	Accurate	115
8	Analyses were conducted to determine whether statistically significant differences between the groups existed on the basis of age, gender, or recruitment source.	تحلیل هایی انجام شد که نشان دهد آیا به لحاظ آماری تفاوت آشکاری میان گروه های موجود بر اساس سن،جنسیت یا منبع جذب افراد وجود داشت است.	Accurate	95
9	Analyses revealed no significant differences between the dependent variables and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnicity, or recruitment source.	بررسی ها تفاوت چشمگیری بین متغیرهای وابسته و متغیرهای مربوط به جمعیت از جمله سن،جنسیت، قومیت یا منبع جذب نشان ندادند.	Accurate	100
10	There are several possible explanations to remedy the discrepancy between the findings of the current study and those of previous studies.	توضیحات احتمالی بسیاری جهت اصلاح اختلاف بین یافته های پژوهش حاضر و پژوهش های قبلی وجود دارد.	Accurate	90

TABLE 4.3.
TRANSLATIONS OF TRANSLATORS WITH MODERATE ANXIETY

	Sentence	Translation	Accurate/Inaccurate	Time (min)
1	Anxiety is a common experience for the average person. Most children, for example, experience at least some developmentally appropriate fears and worries.	اضطراب تجربه ای مشترک بین اکثر افراد است. برای مثال، اکثر کودکان حداقل برخی از ترس ها و نگرانی های زمان رشد را تجربه می کنند.	Accurate	120
2	Several studies have demonstrated that children with anxiety disorders have social problems, including social incompetence, low self-worth, and higher levels of peer victimization.	پژوهش های بسیاری نشان داده اند که کودکان بسیار مضطرب مشکلات اجتماعی از قبیل ناتوانی در اجتماع، عزت نفس پایین و شکست بیش از حد در میان همسالان دارند.	Inaccurate (Lexical features)	120
3	Conflicting evidence has been reported about whether children with anxiety disorders experience negative consequences into adulthood.	شواهد متناقضی در مورد تجربه ی پیامدهای منفی در زمان بزرگسالی کودکان مضطرب گزارش شده است.	Accurate	125
4	Baddeley (2000) added a fourth component, the episodic buffer, to his model to better explain the complexities of working memory.	بدلی (1379) مولفه ی چهارمی، میانگیر دوره ای، را برای توضیح بهتر پیچیدگی های حافظه فعال به مدلش افزود.	Accurate	120
5	The relationship between anxiety disorders and memory deficits has also been shown in children.	رابطه ی بین اختلالات اضطراب و کم حافظگی هم در کودکان نشان داده شده است.	Accurate	120
6	Several explanations for the negative impact of anxiety on working memory have been offered in the literature.	توضیحات دیگری در مورد تأثیر منفی اضطراب بر حافظه فعال در پژوهش های پیشین ارائه شده است.	Accurate	120
7	Children were eligible for inclusion if they were between the ages of 9 and 16 years (ages based on requirements of measures listed above) and did not meet exclusion criteria.	کودکانی که واجد شرایط شرکت در پژوهش هستند در رده ی سنی بین 9 تا 16 سال بودند (رده ی سنی بر اساس معیار های مورد نیاز لیست شده در بالا است) و هیچ معیار دیگری وجود نداشت.	Accurate	120
8	Analyses were conducted to determine whether statistically significant differences between the groups existed on the basis of age, gender, or recruitment source.	بررسی هایی جهت نشان دادن اینکه آیا از لحاظ آماری تفاوت چشمگیری بین گروه های موجود بر اساس سن، جنسیت یا منبع جذب وجود داشت انجام شد.	Accurate	120
9	Analyses revealed no significant differences between the dependent variables and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnicity, or recruitment source.	تحلیل ها نشان دادند که تفاوت های چشمگیری بین متغیر های وابسته و جمعیت شناختی سن، جنسیت، قومیت یا منابع جذب وجود ندارد.	Accurate	120
10	There are several possible explanations to remedy the discrepancy between the findings of the current study and those of previous studies.	چندین توضیح احتمالی برای اصلاح اختلاف بین یافته های پژوهش حاضر و پژوهش های پیشین وجود دارد.	Accurate	120

TABLE 4.4.
TRANSLATIONS OF THE TRANSLATORS WITH HIGH ANXIETY

	Sentence	Translation	Accurate/Inaccurate	Time(min)
1	Anxiety is a common experience for the average person. Most children, for example, experience at least some developmentally appropriate fears and worries.	اضطراب یک تجربه مشترک میان اکثر فرد است. بیشتر بچه ها، به عنوان مثال، حداقل برخی از ترس ها و نگرانی های دوران رشد تجربه می کنند.	Accurate	130
2	Several studies have demonstrated that children with anxiety disorders have social problems, including social incompetence, low self-worth, and higher levels of peer victimization.	مطالعات متعددی نشان داده اند که کودکان با اختلالات اضطراب با مشکلات اجتماعی، از جمله بی کفایتی اجتماعی، کمبود عزت نفس، ناتوانی بیش از همسالان خود رو به رو هستند.	Accurate	140
3	Conflicting evidence has been reported about whether children with anxiety disorders experience negative consequences into adulthood.	شواهد متناقض در مورد اینکه آیا کودکان مبتلا به اختلالات اضطرابی عواقب منفی را در بزرگسالی تجربه میکنند یا نه گزارش شده است.	Accurate	125
4	Baddeley (2000) added a fourth component, the episodic buffer, to his model to better explain the complexities of working memory.	بدلی (1379) مولفه ی چهارمی با عنوان میانگیر دوره ای را برای توضیح بهتر پیچیدگی های حافظه ی فعال به مدلش افزود.	Accurate	150
5	The relationship between anxiety disorders and memory deficits has also been shown in children.	ارتباط بین اختلالات اضطراب و کم حافظگی نیز در کودکان نشان داده شده است.	Accurate	120
6	Several explanations for the negative impact of anxiety on working memory have been offered in the literature.	توضیحات متعددی در مورد تأثیر منفی اضطراب بر حافظه فعال در تحقیقات پیشین ارائه شده است.	Accurate	135
7	Children were eligible for inclusion if they were between the ages of 9 and 16 years (ages based on requirements of measures listed above) and did not meet exclusion criteria.	کودکانی واجد شرایط برای شرکت در تحقیق بودند که بین سنین 9 تا 16 سال (سنین بر اساس نیاز معیار های ذکر شده در بالا) بودند و معیار دیگری نداشتند.	Accurate	160

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Foreign Language Teaching in Iran: A Model for Effective EFL Teaching in the Iranian Context

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Abstract—Language teachers play a crucial role in language education. An effective EFL teacher in most cases paves the way for having an effective education. EFL teaching in different contexts bears some differences. The present study discusses the criteria that an effective EFL teacher should present in Iran. Interviews are conducted and 15 participants are interviewed and as a result of the interview, a questionnaire is developed. 90 EFL teachers and students answer to the questionnaire. The participants are male and female, experienced and novice, and of different ages. Multiple regression analysis reveals no relationship between age, gender, experience, and the answers they provide for the questionnaire. Due to factor analysis, 13 components including linguistic and non-linguistic factors are extracted and the results show that the majority of the participants agree with the criteria posed in the questionnaire. The participants' age, gender, and experience in EFL teaching do not reveal any distinguishing results among them. Consequently, a model is developed to present the criteria for being an Effective EFL teacher in Iran.

Index Terms—EFL teacher, effective teacher, model, model development

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

This study purports to propose a model for being an effective English teacher in an Iranian context. Estimates based on published data indicate that well over 16,000 people worldwide annually enter the profession of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), also known as English Language Teaching, or ELT, by taking one of several internationally-recognized initial teacher training courses for TESOL (Brandt, 2010, p.9). Therefore EFL, English as a Foreign Language, teaching needs to be developed and organized in an appropriate way to be able to deal with the needs of its context. Doing this research is considered essential due to a number of factors including 1-the differences that English language teaching bears in different contexts, 2-getting to a consensus on behalf of EFL students and teachers with regards to effective EFL teaching, 3- lack of comprehensiveness of the present models in EFL teaching in Iran in order to be able to provide a model for EFL teachers and evaluators and even students to measure the effectiveness of their EFL teaching programs. Avoiding sporadic, intra-institutional EFL teacher evaluation and teacher effectiveness models in Iranian contexts and making use of a more extensive paradigm is the rationale for conducting this research. Teacher education centers and the institutions dealing with teacher employment can benefit from this study by making use of the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher. Due to the fact that the models provided internationally are not total representatives of the factors involving different contexts in different countries such as coping with the cultural and ethnic peculiarities of every country or region, this study proposes a more precise detail of TEFL in an Iranian environment. Ignoring local and national factors involving language teaching can lead to misleading instructions and judgments in that specific context. Therefore, doing this research may lead to better and more effective instructions due to choosing more suitable teachers and diagnosing their strengths and weaknesses through this model provided in chapter five of this study.

Scholars have common views on effective teaching, though they are presented in different words. According to Fullan (2000), Effective teachers do more than testing and teaching students. They constantly monitor and collect evidence of student understanding. Research on successful schools indicates that one hallmark of those schools is that teachers use assessment to focus on student learning (Handbook of qualities of effective teachers, chapter 6, p.167).

Scholars have globally set some criteria to determine an effective EFL teacher. Harmer (1998, p.3) answers to a vital question asserting that a simple answer to the question “What makes a good teacher?” is that good teachers care more about their students' learning than they do about their own teaching. Teachers are evaluated in order to be able to find out what makes a good teacher. Evaluation has many meanings in language programs. Another study has similarly set some standards for professional English teachers. Richards and Renandya (2002, chapter 39, p.390) discuss Penny Ur's findings on the criteria of professional teachers as: “ 1- is primarily occupied in real-time action, 2- thinks in order to improve action, 3-is interested in finding out what works, 4-is an immediate agent of real-world change, 5-is evaluated in the short term by the extent to which he or she brings about valuable change, and 6- is evaluated in the long term by his or her influence on the thought and action of both academics and professional (and sometimes of the lay public).” Thus, bringing about changes is also considered a vital trait of English teachers.

Kiely and Rea-Dickins (2005, P.5) contended that “It is part of the novice teacher's checklist to guide the development of initial lesson plans and teaching practice, a process of determining learning achievements or student

satisfaction, and a dimension of the analysis of data in a formal evaluation or research study. It refers to judgments about students by teachers and by external assessors; the performance of teachers by their students, program managers and institutions; and programs, departments and institutions by internal assessors, external monitors and inspectors. Evaluation is about the relationships between different program components, the procedures and epistemologies developed by the people involved in programs, and the processes and outcomes which are used to show the value of a program – accountability – and enhance this value – development”.

Teacher assessment is also a determining factor in effective teaching since they can lead to better instruction as a whole. A lot of efforts have been put to determine the level of success of educational programs. An educational program includes teacher as its core component, a factor that plays a vital role in education. A key factor in the success of an educational program is the teacher, and at the same time a key factor in the failure of an educational program can be the teacher, too. In most cases, the good or bad quality of the students' learning is attributed to the teacher. There is an assumption that teachers should only be evaluated based on the scores of the students; while, this is just a minor element in teacher effectiveness. The teacher's performance in the class, the incentives he/she provides to the students, and his/her guidance are also a part of the process. So, in order to evaluate a teacher's effectiveness, a number of factors should be considered hand in hand.

A teacher can be assessed from the viewpoints of experienced observers, scholars, students, and parents. What seems important here is to provide a model to consider teacher effectiveness. The model should be simple enough to be used by all the above-mentioned evaluators.

Meber (2000, p. 3) simply quotes some criteria for being a good teacher by year 8 pupils as follows: " A good teacher is kind, is generous, is forgiving, listens to you , encourages you, has faith in you, keeps confidences, likes teaching children, likes teaching their subject, takes time to explain things, helps you when you're stuck, tells you how you are doing, allows you to have your say, doesn't give up on you, cares for your opinion , makes you feel clever, treats people equally, stands up for you , makes allowances, and tells the truth".

Danielson and McGreal (2000, p. 55) stated that “Evaluation procedures are those methods (the “how”) that teachers use to document or demonstrate their skills and knowledge (the “what,” or the criteria of good teaching). The “how” and the “what,” of course, must be aligned. For every aspect of performance deemed essential to good practice, teachers must have a way to document their skill. Developing assessments that are valid and reliable, demands that we devote serious attention to the procedural aspects of evaluation. They added that “many educators have discovered an even more compelling reason to design the procedures carefully. People learn from what they do; schools and districts can design evaluation procedures that provide opportunities for professional learning for teachers. That is, teachers may actually improve their practice by engaging in the activities required as part of the evaluation process.”

Teacher Preparation Program Approval Rubric (2003) mentions knowledge and skills of an teacher in 13 areas, based on Wisconsin's Model Academic Standards for Foreign Languages (for K-12 students) which consist of communication, culture, connections, comparisons, communities, linguistics and second language acquisition, and application to teaching languages.

Zhang (2009) discusses some general criteria for effective teachers which are as follows: 1) academic qualification and publication, 2) preparedness and subject knowledge, 3) personality trait and personal style, 4) connectedness with students, 5) motivation and enthusiasm, and 6) classroom operation.

EFL teachers' effectiveness criteria are similar to the ones mentioned in the Literature (Huang, 2010; Ozturk & Atay, 2010; Suarez, 2000; Finardi and Ferrari, 2008; Hsu, 2009; Badawi, 2008; Nicol, 2008; Shamim, 2008). The only part that might be distinctive is that the teachers are teaching a foreign language including a foreign culture which must be taken into consideration. EFL teaching in Iran has its own peculiarities because its culture is mainly different from the cultures followed in the English speaking countries. Therefore, the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher in Iran might be partly different in some aspects compared to the criteria for being an effective English teacher in the English speaking countries or any other country.

This study intends to provide a model for determining the criteria for being an effective English teacher in an Iranian context. To put it another way, the study is an attempt to ascertain the qualities attributed to effective teachers in Iran. Having determined the qualities, proposing a model that reflects the opinions of EFL instructors, teachers, and students is deemed as a major objective of this study. Diagnosing EFL teachers' qualities through this model by determining the attributes that they possess and the ones that they do not possess is an important intent that can be reached by carrying out the present study. This research aims at answering the following questions:

- 1- What are the criteria that present an effective English teacher in an Iranian context?
- 2- How do these criteria deal with linguistic and non-linguistic factors?
- 3- How consistent are the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher among the instructors, teachers, and students regarding their age, gender, and experience?

II. METHOD

This part discusses about the steps followed for the implementation of this study. It includes the following sections: 1) participants, 2) instruments, and 3) data collection and analysis procedures.

A. Participants

There are 15 adult, male and female participants who took part in the first phase of the study including EFL instructors, teachers, and students. As for the instructors, they have been teaching for some years in different EFL courses and are quite experienced in the field. The selected EFL teachers and students are high-school and language institute teachers in Iran. They are selected through availability sampling, and are required to answer the questions by semi-structured interviews. In the second phase, 90 EFL instructors, teachers, and students were chosen again through availability sampling to respond to the developed questionnaires.

B. Instruments

Two major instruments were employed in this research. At first, Semi-structured interviews using the 23 questions extracted from Harmer (1998, chapter 1) including a number of points on EFL teacher characteristics were conducted in the first phase of the study in order to elicit responses on the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher in Iran. The participants were asked to provide open-ended answers to the questions in either English or Farsi. Secondly, a questionnaire consisting of 60 items was extracted from the interviews' data for the teachers to select their criteria from among the choices available. The reliability of the analysis was computed through Cronbach's Alpha and it reveals a high reliability of .83 for the questionnaire.

As for the validation of the questionnaire, factor analysis was run. 90 participants including EFL instructors, teachers and students filled in the questionnaire. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's Measure of sampling adequacy reveals a moderate value of .52, and the Barlette's test of sphericity's result is significant. Thirteen factors were extracted for the 60 items. The items were categorized according to the thirteen categories determined in the factor analysis as follows:

- 1-General Characteristics of the teacher
- 2- Skills component
- 3- Sub-skills component
- 4- Appearance component
- 5- Cultural aspect component
- 6- Error correction
- 7- Teacher experience and knowledge
- 8- Teacher's decision making
- 9- Use of technology
- 10- Lesson plan items
- 11- Testing and evaluation
- 12- Motivation
- 13- Teacher creativity

C. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

On the basis of qualitative research, this study is established upon a grounded theory. Grounded theory follows two main purposes: It connects a study by describing the relationships among the various parts, and it provides a theoretical model of subsequent studies (Davis, 1995). Thus, this study primarily tries to describe the relationship among various aspects of EFL teacher effectiveness and it provides a model for being an effective EFL teacher in Iran. Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh and Sorensen (2006) describe the general procedures followed in the analysis of qualitative data. They assert that analysis involves reducing and organizing the data, synthesizing, searching for significant patterns, and discovering what is important. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998) codification of the data occurs in three processes namely open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Open coding is the analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in data. Axial coding includes the process of relating categories to their subcategories, termed "axial" because coding occurs around the axis of a category, linking categories at the level of properties and dimensions. The final coding is the selective coding described as the process of integrating and refining the theory. Based on the questions extracted from Harmer's (1998) model, 15 EFL scholars, teachers and students were interviewed separately by the researcher. Due to the fact that the participants were non-native English speakers sharing Farsi as their mother tongue, the interviews were conducted in either English or Farsi not to have language problems in eliciting the responses regarding that the participants might not be free to express what they want in English. The researcher analyzed the audio-recordings of the interview data. In this way, he first transcribed the data and then codified and categorized them. The results of the codified and categorized data were converted into a questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed among 90 EFL instructors, teachers, and students. The data from the interviews were analyzed qualitatively by the codification of the responses.

Another step taken in this research was the quantitative part. Regression was computed in order to predict the effect of age, gender, and experience among the participants who answered the questionnaire. Inferential and descriptive statistics were the procedures employed to come up with basic statistical information about the participants and their answers.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Following Strauss and Colin's (1998) model, the 3 coding steps (open, axial, and selective) are followed step by step to be able to come up with a theory or theme.

A. Open Coding

The primary data gathered through semi-structured interviews were at first recorded and then transcribed by the researcher. The transcribed data were the most important part of the data and the codification was done on them. In this phase, the sentences, phrases, and key words that carried weight in EFL teaching were written down as the criteria for an effective EFL teacher in Iran. Based on the 23 questions extracted from Harmer's (1998) book, the answers were collected and codified question by question. The findings are presented in detail in appendix A.

B. Axial Coding

In this process, the answers and the categories were set together and the subcategories were determined. When it comes to evaluation, all that include self-evaluation, peer evaluation, colleague and institute evaluation, and constructing tests have been brought under the category of testing and evaluation. The sub-categories of dress code, choice of color, and teacher's look were brought under one category called appearance. The skills and the sub-skills were categorized in different categories. Promoting one's knowledge and experience, attending workshops and conferences were all related to the teacher's knowledge and experience category. Cultural aspects were brought under the culture category.

C. Selective Coding

The categories and sub-categories were honed and refined in this process and the researcher came up with thirteen categories encompassing the subcategories. The categories are as follows:

- 1- General Characteristics of the teacher
- 2- Skills component
- 3- Sub-skills component
- 4- Appearance component
- 5- Cultural aspect component
- 6- Error correction
- 7- Teacher experience and knowledge
- 8- Teacher's decision making
- 9- Use of technology
- 10- Lesson plan items
- 11- Testing and evaluation
- 12- Motivation
- 13- Teacher creativity

Using the above-mentioned components, a questionnaire of 60 items was extracted from the interview results and then distributed among the participants. The results of the questionnaire are reported in the next section.

D. Results of the Questionnaire

The Tables below include the descriptive statistics for the participants and their age, gender, and experience. Table I shows the gender of the participants in this study.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GENDER

	Frequency	Percent
Male	32	35.6
Female	58	64.4
Total	90	100.0

As it is shown in Table I the number of females participating in the study exceeds the number of males.

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR AGE

Range	32.00
Minimum	21.00
Maximum	53.00

Table II indicates that young, and middle aged participants took part in this study. Table III depicts the level of experience among EFL teachers.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EXPERIENCE

Range(years of experience)	29.00
Minimum	1.00
Maximum	30.00

The data in table III show that inexperienced, moderately experienced, and experienced EFL teachers answered the questionnaire while the majority of the participants were moderately experienced. The relationship between age, sex, experience and the participants' answers are shown by regression analysis in Table IV.

TABLE IV.
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR AGE, GENDER AND EXPERIENCE

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.509	.390		11.554	.000
	Age	5.015E-5	.016	.001	.003	.997
	Gender	.008	.112	.007	.069	.946
	Experience	.009	.019	.102	.482	.631

The age of the participants, whether they are male or female, and also their experience revealed no significant relationship with the answers that they provided for the questionnaire. This means that the answers they provided were not age dependent, gender dependent, or experience dependent. As participants who deal with English language teaching, they provided relatively similar answers to each item. The next chapter sums up the results and justifies them while pointing out to the implications of the study and it also suggests further studies to be conducted.

IV. DISCUSSION

As the results in the previous chapter reveal, most of the participants agreed with the items of the questionnaire on the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher in Iran. By interviewing and distributing the questionnaires, the researcher has been able to conclude that what the participants agreed upon are among the criteria of an EFL teacher in order to be effective because the majority of the participants were positive towards these criteria. In answering to the first research question "1- What are the criteria that present an effective English teacher in an Iranian context?" Table 5 shows the criteria that present an effective EFL teacher in Iran. The table is a recapitulation of the criteria that were included in chapter four of the study.

TABLE V.
RECAPITULATION OF THE CRITERIA FOR BEING AN EFFECTIVE EFL TEACHER IN IRAN

Category	Criteria
General Characteristics of EFL teacher	knows the subject matter, is patient, is ethical, communicates effectively with the students, is different from one student to another, motivates the students
Listening Skill	Provides enough listening activities, teaches the listening strategies, focuses on pre-while-and post listening tasks
Reading Skill	Emphasizes on intensive and extensive reading, teaches the reading strategies, provides authentic texts and culturally familiar texts, activates the students' background knowledge, and focuses on pre-while-and post reading activities.
Speaking Skill	Encourages the students to speak as much as possible, encourages outside the class practice, involves the students in communication, provides effective feedback
Writing Skill	Teaches writing strategies, provides peer, self, and teacher feedback; focuses on the organization of writing; and familiarizes the students with the sub-skills of the language
Vocabulary Sub-skill	Presents vocabulary in the context, focuses on active vocabulary for productive skills and passive vocabulary for receptive skills, emphasizes vocabulary learning strategies such as mnemonic devices
Grammar Sub-skill	Applies both inductive and deductive ways of presenting grammar according to their age and experience and the purpose of the instruction, provides enough grammar practice through various tasks
Pronunciation Sub-skill	Has mastered at least one accent of English and is familiar with different accents and dialects of English, makes the students familiar with the segmental and supra-segmental features of pronunciation, uses contrastive analysis as a tool to predict the places of difficulty in pronunciation of English by Persian speakers
Teacher's Appearance and Discipline	Appears tidy, organized and punctual; tries to wear formally and according to the norms, picks the suitable clothes' colors with respect to the age, experience, and gender of the learners, does not distract the students by wearing too wild or weird clothes
Culture	Prioritizes the target culture but also includes the source (Iranian) culture, doesn't take sides against cultures and just talks about the fact that the difference among cultures are natural, predicts inter-cultural conflicts and avoids focusing on them
Error Correction	Paves the way for self-correction, peer correction, and teacher correction respectively, corrects in an unobtrusive manner, thinks positively about the errors, applies correction according to the age, and the experience of the learners, usually makes use of immediate error correction for beginners and for more advanced students he/she makes use of delayed correction
Teacher Experience and Knowledge	Tries to think critically, if he/she is novice he tries to seek help from experienced teachers and if he/she is experienced he/she tries to make use of the recent knowledge of teachers, studies recent journals, and books; uses the internet to improve his/her knowledge of language and language teaching, attends workshops and conferences on the related subjects
Teacher's Decision Making	Makes compromise with the students in handling the class, makes the final decisions eventually, there is combination of both student centered and teacher centered class
Group work	Gives tasks similar to real life tasks to the students and involves them in groups; determines the groups according to level, social background, experience, and interests of the students, encourages cooperation not competition
Use of Technology	Incorporates all technology that is possible and uses technology wisely and makes the students use the technology in out of the class activities too.
Lesson Plan	Makes use of a lesson plan, benefits from a written lesson plan if he/she is not very experienced and if he/she is experienced, he/she benefits from a mental lesson plan, applies a flexible lesson plan to cope with the difficulties and unprecedented situations
Testing and Evaluation	Uses both summative and formative tests, encourages self-evaluation, and teacher or peer evaluation respectively, and he/she is familiar with all the theories and the practice of making tests
Motivation	He/she is motivated and tries to motivate, talks to the students about the benefits of learning English, designs the activities where the students feel that they are really using the language for communication and therefore motivates them to learn English
Creativity	provides creative tasks and techniques in the classroom, encourages creative responds and the new ideas by the students

The above-mentioned criteria show what an EFL teacher in Iran should have in order to be called an effective EFL teacher. Although some elements might be missing in these criteria but they are considered the extract of the opinions of the EFL instructors, teacher, and students around the country. An EFL teacher considering all the criteria mentioned above is supposed to be an effective teacher gaining acceptable results in Iran. The first one mentions the whole picture of a good EFL teacher in general. Then skills and sub-skills are to be taken into consideration in order to see how effective the teacher can be in teaching skills and sub-skills of EFL. Another aspect that is somewhat taken for granted is teacher's appearance and discipline which is regarded as important in the process of EFL teaching. Attending to culture also becomes necessary in EFL teaching. The results show that effective EFL teachers should pay attention to the local culture of the students and should be unbiased regarding the two cultures, the source and the target, since the students might take sides when culture is being discussed. Due to differences in the Iranian culture and cultures of English speaking countries, some misunderstandings and side-takings might happened and it is the responsibility of the teacher to be able to handle these contradictions. Target culture is somewhat prioritized since it is the very language (English) that is being taught. All sorts of corrections should be applied in order to make the students perceive and produce correct language. Making use of experience and knowledge of EFL teachers seems indispensable in effective teaching. Being able to come up with a sound decision in EFL teaching is as important as other factors because a proper

decision can guide the learners to success in language learning. Cooperative learning can never be ignore in ELT since students can put their potentialities into practice in groups. Learning is much more motivation and also more convenient if technology is applied. A teacher without organization and a lesson plan may bring confusion and disorganization in the learning environment. Thus, it is recommended that EFL teachers apply a lesson plan in their teaching. Realizing the students' real weaknesses and strengths is impossible without a good plan for evaluation. A key to learning is to be motivated to learn. The most talented learners become frustrated without motivation of any kind. Teachers can apply techniques to motivate the learners to learn either by talking to them or designing motivation activities for them. Creativity of the teacher can compensate for the limitations that might be in the process of learning. Keeping students away from producing clichés and encouraging them to express themselves in their own ways is another determining feature of an effective EFL teacher.

V. CONCLUSION

As for the second research question, "2- How do these criteria deal with linguistic and non-linguistic factors?" the present study incorporates both linguistics and non-linguistic factors as the important criteria for being an effective EFL teacher in Iran. While the knowledge of the language such as the knowledge of skills, sub-skills, testing, evaluation, teaching experience, and knowledge represent the linguistic factors; appearance of the teacher, his/her attitude towards culture, his/her ability to decide, his/her use of technology, his/her creativity, his/her ability to motivate, his/her ability to implement group work are among the non-linguistic factors of the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher.

The answer to the third research question "3- How consistent are the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher among the instructors, teachers, and students regarding their age, gender, and experience?" has been mentioned in table 4.4 of the study. Multiple regression analysis has revealed that age, gender, and experience are not predictors of the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher in Iran. It doesn't matter how old the person is or whether the person is male or female and even experienced or inexperienced, the criteria seem to be similar in their opinions.

Compared to the studies reviewed in chapter two of this study, a model has been developed in which apart from the common criteria for EFL teachers, a number of criteria have been included that reflect the situation in the Iranian context. These criteria include what can help an EFL teacher to be more successful in Iran because there are some cases that have to be dealt with differently in its specific context.

A. Implications

This study has promising implications for EFL evaluators, programs, institutions, students, instructors, and the teachers themselves. Evaluators can make use of the model developed in the present study to assess EFL teachers in Iran to decide on their effectiveness. Language institutes and schools can benefit from this study in order to set their plans and criteria to educate effective EFL teachers and evaluate them optimally. The students can use this model to see if their teacher is a good EFL teacher or not and based on the model they will be guided not to make superficial judgments about their teachers. Instructors and teachers can evaluate themselves, and their peers according to this model. Teacher education centers can apply the model in order to be able to prepare effective EFL teachers and therefore contribute to the quality of EFL teaching in Iran.

B. Suggestions for Further Studies

The present study has posed a new area of research that is looking for the EFL teacher's criteria in the context of Iran. This study has focused on the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher in Iran all in one study. Each aspect or component of the criteria discussed in chapter four can be researched and investigated. The general characteristics of the EFL teacher, the method of presenting the skills and sub-skills of the EFL teacher, the appearance, the views towards culture and language, the motivating techniques that the EFL teacher uses, and also the creativity applied by the teacher in the classroom can be an area of research for the researchers that are looking for these criteria in the Iranian context. Some contexts similar to Iran in culture and also by narrowing down the subject, more local contexts such as the provinces or cities of Iran can be a subject of study for researchers to find out about the differences in the criteria for being an EFL teacher in that country or in the Iranian local contexts.

APPENDIX A. OPEN CODING

"1- What makes a good teacher?" The participants gave a number of responds to it while almost all of them asserted that because it was a very general question, therefore the answer to it would be rather difficult. The answers to the questions include being familiar with the subject matter, being familiar with the psychological basis underlying appropriate teaching, being familiar with the ways of presenting the materials and with the basics of teaching and learning, being able to evaluate his/her performance in the classroom, being familiar with teaching methods, procedures, and techniques, being creative, being proficient in all the skills and sub-skills, being ethical, building good relationship with the students, being different from one student to another, and being patient.

"2- How should the effective teacher teach listening?" The answers provided were as follows: Providing more listening activities in classrooms beyond what is contained in the students' course books, being familiar with the

strategies of listening comprehension, providing some kind of pre-listening, while listening, and post-listening tasks for the students, providing news data for listening because the students have little exposure to English.

“3- How should the effective EFL teacher teach reading?” The replies were as follows: providing the students with a general warm-up on the topics of the reading materials in order to activate the students' background knowledge and by background knowledge the interviewee means both linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world; providing pre-reading, while reading, and post-reading tasks, and emphasizing intensive and extensive reading.

“4- How should the effective teacher teach speaking?” is the next questions regarding the skills. Their answers were put in this way: “teachers should try to actually encourage them to speak to one another as much as possible because they do not have enough access to native speakers of English in Iran, teachers should encourage them to form informal chat clubs within their own classes so that their practice of the language is not limited to the classroom context, the students can be advised to have free discussions of different topics outside the classroom, increasing students' background knowledge is very important, teachers should make students aware of the great importance of these three sub-skills or sub-components of the language, an effective teacher must be able to make the students involved in communication, while teaching speaking the formal aspects of the language should not be ignored, the teacher should use a variety of tasks to help the students feel that they are communicating, providing individual (feedback) is more effective in speaking, and teachers should make the students speak as much as possible”.

“5- How should the effective teacher teach writing?” is the question about writing and the answers to this question are as follows. “writing should be presented quite systematically, teacher should make students familiar with grammar, vocabulary and spelling rules of the language, the students should be given enough feedback different forms, an effective teacher should be able to teach the strategies of writing, an effective writing teacher should concentrate on the organization, on the ideas, on the content of the writing.”

“6- How should the effective EFL teacher teach vocabulary?” The answers provided are as follows: “Teachers should make students familiar with appropriate vocabulary learning strategies such as for example using mnemonic devices, the students should know that we have two types of vocabulary, active vocabulary and passive vocabulary, vocabulary items should be presented according to their level of frequency, providing some exercise just like let's say role play exercise and using the dictionary, and learning the vocabulary in context.”

“7- How should the effective EFL teacher teach grammar?” is answered by the participants as described below. “If the students turn to be kids or young learners we'd better actually opt for the inductive approach but if they are adult learners, It is better to make use of the deductive approach, maybe for the students and beginners using a deductive approach is more effective, but for the advanced learners I think mainly inductive approach is more effective, teachers should make students increase their knowledge of grammar through self-study so that they will be successful language learners later on.”

“8- How should the effective EFL teacher teach pronunciation?” The participants provided their replies as follows: “What is more important in EFL context is paying attention to segmental aspects because otherwise students might be able to use language quite fluently but with a lot of pronunciation mistakes which might lead to a breakdown in communication in most of the cases, accuracy and fluency should be paid equal attention.”

“9- How should the effective EFL teacher's appearance be?” Here are the answers provided for the question. “They should try to actually be a good model for learners; females' teachers should know that because of the specific conditions of our country enough attention should be paid to the way they actually decide to show up in their classes, teachers should not set their appearance to distract the students, some teachers might not be that much presentable as far as their physical appearance is concerned but they have great potentials, teachers' appearance should be similar to that of the English speaking people; the more clean, neat, and punctual the teacher is the more the students may count on their teachers and maybe they are more motivated to listen to the teachers.”

“10- How should the effective EFL teacher's dress code and choice of color be?” The teacher should wear dresses of bright colors for kids' classes and for young adult ones, but not very colorful ones because if it is the case this might again function as a sort of a distracter, and again teachers should actually change dresses twice a week; It is better that the teachers wear formally than wearing traditional clothes, usually for the young generation the bright colors are more important or favorable than the dark ones, the students compare their teachers with the native speakers of English so they prefer casual dress as compared to the formal one, and a participant added that wearing traditional clothes makes the students more integrated with their teacher.”

“11- How should an effective EFL teacher integrate the source and the target culture?” is related to language and culture. Some replies have been provided. “Cultural aspects of a second or foreign language should be instructed directly in language classes of course to the extent that they do not violate the cultural values of the source language, teachers should pay attention to both the source and the target language culture, cultural points related to the foreign language to be included in the syllabus and presented to the students and at the same time, ok, attention should be paid to the great value of national and religious values of our own culture, focus should be on L2 culture, and then at time depending on the cultural points there can be an integration of the two cultures, teacher should predict inter-cultural conflicts and avoid them to the extent possible.”

“12- What should the effective EFL teacher's attitude towards error correction be?” Error correction has been a matter of controversy among EFL scholars. A number of answers given by the participants have been brought here.

“The time of correction and the person providing the correction play an important role in error correction, teachers should give the chance to the students to correct themselves, teachers should make a difference between errors and mistakes, unobtrusiveness is important in other correction including peer and teacher correction, it’s better to jot down the students’ errors and tell them in an unobtrusive manner, a good teacher should have a positive attitude towards the students’ errors, try to use them in order to modify its teaching and then help students make appropriate, sometimes on the spot correction is an effective way and sometimes it should be delayed, teachers usually we start with self-correction, then peer correction, and finally teacher correction; and teachers should use immediate error correction for the beginners, and for the intermediate and advanced levels somehow delayed or never correction can be used.”

“13- How can an effective EFL teacher make use of experience and recent knowledge of language teaching?” is answered this way. “There should be a friendly atmosphere in which both teachers (novice ones and experienced ones) try to have a critical type of thinking, they can very easily exchange information and experience quite willingly, and by studying the recent journals, books, if not available by observing the classes of the more experienced and knowledgeable to teachers, by asking, getting advice from these teachers so this way the can make use of the recent knowledge of language.”

“14- How should an effective EFL teacher implement group-work in the classroom?” The participants replied this way: “ Teachers should establish a friendly atmosphere or what we technically refer to as rapport in the classroom so that the students feel close enough to one another to establish the job together, EFL teachers should give some kind of tasks to the students that are very similar to the real life situation and then ask them to do the task, and teachers should create a sense of cooperation among the students not competition, and they can divide the students depending on the kind of the task.”

“15- How should an effective EFL teacher implement classroom management?” The participants answered this question in the following sentences. “Teachers should create a sort of compromise with the students as far as the overall teaching policies are concerned from the beginning of a course, and the more advanced the students are the more it should be learning centered and learner centered while the elementary ones are more guided than being autonomous, the final aim should be implementing or designing learner and learning centered activities in the language classroom and then the role of the teacher should become less and less observable, and in an ideal case the class is a combination of both teacher centered and student centered.”

“16- How should an effective EFL teacher implement technology in the classroom?” is the next question answered here by the participants. “Teachers should make a wise use of technology in their classrooms not just fill the classes with computers, video projectors, and cassette players, implementing technology is not very applicable because there aren’t enough facilities that can be used in the classes especially the use of internet.”

The next question and answers discuss about the lesson plan.

“17- How should an effective EFL teacher make use of a lesson plan?” “Making lesson plans is quite necessary of course basically for novice teachers because in fact they don’t know what to teach and how to teach it, but as the teachers’ experience increases having a detailed lesson plan or a lesson plan in its written form is not necessary as far as the teaches are able to have a mental lesson plan of the materials to be presented, and there should be a lesson plan but it should be very flexible.”

“18- How should an effective EFL teacher construct tests?” Here are the answers. “Teachers should pay double attention to the types of tests they construct, having table of specifications at the beginning of test construction is something very important, EFL teachers need some in-service training programs to become refreshed on the way functioning test items can be constructed, teachers should focus on both formative and summative tests, a good teacher should be familiar with all the theories and the practice of making tests, he/she should be familiar with very significant and important subjects in language testing such as the validity of the test, the reliability of the test, and the practicality of the test, teachers can use the previously made test in their test construction with their students, but they should not just stick to the test, according to different levels, different factors, the level of proficiency of the students, their age, , their specific needs, their strong points and weak points they can create a more effective test.”

“19- How should an effective EFL teacher improve his knowledge? Do conferences and workshops help?” The responses are as follows: “Conferences and workshops are not of much use because they repeat the knowledge that the teachers already know or are not of interest to them, using the internet can be a great help to the teachers; participating in in-service training, conferences, workshops, studying, observing each others’ classes are absolutely helpful.”

“20- How should an effective EFL teacher evaluate the failure and success of the students?” The participants believe that it all depends on the policies of the educational system, policies of the government on the whole, and then the way the teacher has taught the class; Students themselves and their classmates can be helpful in providing them with feedback on their performance, but the final evaluator of the learning process is the teacher himself; and teachers should not just use the information drawn from a test in order to say that the students should pass or fail.

“21- How should an effective EFL teacher motivate the students?” is the question on a significant aspect of ELT that is motivation. The participants provided some answers on motivation that are brought here. “The teacher himself should be motivated enough when he or she teaches the language, the teacher should try to talk about the importance of English for both academic and non-academic purposes, the teacher should help students become motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically, in fact the students based on their right understanding of their status of English for different types of

purposes should be able to develop a sort of motivation within themselves, the source of motivation should be created within the students so that they are intrinsically motivated and again parents and the teachers should motivate them extrinsically by providing information with regard to the importance of the language, by telling the students that by learning English they can use these facilities better so teachers can motivate the students, and also by designing the activities where the students feel that they are really using the language for communication.”

“22- How should an effective EFL teacher evaluate himself/herself?” The answers are as follows: “In fact preparation starts well before a class is going to be taught by a specific teacher, then it goes on continuously when the teacher does the job and it can still continue after the teacher finishes a single classroom, therefore we can talk about the evaluation of the teacher's performance with regard to her or his relationship with the students, the way he or she prepares the material and himself, the way he conducts the classroom activities, the way the materials are presented, the way he or she receives feedback from the students or provides them with feedback, and finally with the way he can gain information after a class is over, and when the teacher is actually out of the class, This way in fact the teacher can have a better picture of his or her own performance.”

“23- How should an effective EFL teacher implement new methods and creativity in the class?” The participants commented on this question. Here are their responds. They asserted that the problem in Iran is that the majority of the systems in different educational settings, institutes, schools are centralized, so the teachers do not have much room for creativity, or being flexible, but within those constraints the teacher can be creative. They added that because the teacher is not free to do whatever he/she wants it's a bit difficult, except for university, but in other contexts it's a bit difficult for the teacher to apply new methods or be very creative in his/her class because usually what they should do has been dictated to them and they are not able to actually deviate from what they have been told to do, and they also said that providing creative task and making use of good aspects of different methods can help the teacher in the process of teaching.

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE NAME OF GOD

Dear Participants

This questionnaire intends to gather data on the criteria for being an effective EFL teacher in "IRAN". Your careful attention will be highly appreciated.

Age:

Gender:

Years of experience as an EFL teacher:

Questions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. A good EFL teacher should be knowledgeable in English.					
2. A good EFL teacher should be familiar with the subject matter he/she is going to present.					
3. A good EFL teacher should be able to express his/her ideas vividly and intelligibly in English.					
4. A good EFL teacher should be able to communicate effectively with the language learner.					
5. A good EFL teacher should be proficient in listening.					
6. A good EFL teacher should provide ample and various authentic listening input to the students.					
7. A good EFL teacher should provide comprehension questions in order to realize the weaknesses of the students in listening.					
8. A good EFL teacher should be proficient in reading.					
9. A good EFL teacher should not focus on reading aloud because it plays a trivial role in reading.					
10. A good EFL teacher should focus on silent reading.					
11. A good EFL teacher should familiarize the students with extensive and intensive reading.					
12. A good EFL teacher should implement pre, while, and post-reading activities in the classroom.					
13. For better speaking, a good EFL teacher should provide ample listening input for the students in order to learn and activate English structures.					
14. A good EFL teacher should activate the students' background knowledge on the subject of speaking.					
15. A good EFL teacher should try to form informal chat clubs in and outside the classroom for the students to be able to enhance their speaking ability.					
16. A good EFL teacher should provide sample or guide writing for the students to familiarize them with effective writing in English.					
17. A good EFL teacher should make students write individually on different issues.					
18. A good EFL teacher should implement peer-correction in writing.					
19. When peer correction is done, and the writings are delivered, a good EFL teacher should provide enough feedback on their writings.					

20. A good EFL teacher should be able to teach writing strategies to the students.					
21. In writing, a good EFL teacher should make students familiar with the sub-skills and their importance in writing.					
22. A good EFL teacher should teach vocabulary in contexts and situations.					
23. A good EFL teacher should make the students familiar with the appropriate vocabulary learning strategies such as mnemonic devices.					
24. A good EFL teacher should try to make the students aware of the fact that for productive skills the number of active vocabulary should be increased and for receptive skills the number of passive vocabulary should be increased.					
25. A good EFL teacher should teach vocabulary according to their frequency in the language.					
26. A good EFL teacher should follow an inductive approach for teaching grammar to the younger students.					
27. A good EFL teacher should follow a deductive approach for teaching grammar to the older students.					
28. In case the purpose of instruction is not grammar, a good EFL teacher should teach grammar inductively.					
29. In case the purpose of instruction is grammar, a good EFL teacher should teach it deductively.					
30. A good EFL teacher should be a good model in pronunciation of at least one standard accent or dialect in English, and should be aware of the different varieties of English accents and dialects.					
31. A good EFL teacher should practice pronunciation by verbatim repetition and should provide more listening input to the students.					
32. A good EFL teacher should implement contrastive analysis in case of difficulty in pronunciation of English by Persian speaking students.					
33. A good EFL teacher should be tidy and organized.					
34. A good EFL teacher should be good-looking.					
35. A good EFL teacher should represent English appearance and clothing.					
36. A good EFL teacher should dress formally in the classroom.					
37. Wearing traditional clothes should be avoided by a good EFL teacher.					
38. A good EFL teacher should try to wear bright colored clothes for kids and younger students.					
39. Wearing darker clothes for older students and adults is preferred by a good EFL teacher.					
40. In teaching language and culture, a good EFL teacher should focus more on the target (English) culture.					
41. Focusing on the source (Persian) culture is necessary because the students should be able to talk about their own culture in English, but teaching English culture is more important.					
42. For less proficient students, a good EFL teacher should focus on global errors.					
43. For students with higher level of proficiency, a good EFL teacher should focus on local errors.					
44. A good EFL teacher should consider the differences among the individuals and their feelings in correcting the errors of students.					
45. An inexperienced teacher should try to observe the experienced teachers' classes and should interact with them in order to be an effective EFL teacher.					
46. Experienced teachers should be able to make use of the recent knowledge of English and EFL teaching by interacting with the teachers who have that knowledge in order to be effective EFL teachers.					
47. A good EFL teacher should be able to make the final decisions in the class.					
48. Providing a student-centered class based on the level of proficiency of the students and their socio-cultural backgrounds is a feature of a good EFL teacher.					
49. A good EFL teacher should try to make use of technology such as cassette players, computers, and video projectors (considering the constraints of the institutes or the schools) in EFL classes.					
50. Making students benefit from the internet and computer in out of class activities is an important task of a good EFL teacher.					
51. Inexperienced teachers should make use of a written lesson plan to be able to manage their teaching, and in order to be effective EFL teachers in their classrooms.					
52. Experienced teachers' lesson plan is mostly in the form of a mental lesson plan.					
53. An effective EFL teacher should provide a flexible lesson plan in order to deal with the unexpected events in a classroom.					
54. A good EFL teacher should make use of both formative (during the semester) and summative (mid-term and final) tests in his/her classes.					

55. A good EFL teacher must be familiar with the basic and delicate aspects of test construction.					
56. A good EFL teacher should evaluate his/her students based on their class activities apart from explicit testing.					
57. A good EFL teacher should attend workshops and conferences and make internet as his/her major source of increasing the knowledge of the language and language teaching.					
58. A good teacher should motivate the students by talking to the students about the benefits of learning English as well as providing them with positive feedback and rapport.					
59. A good EFL teacher should be able to evaluate him/herself based on the improvements of the students, based on the results of their tests, based on his/her own evaluation of him/herself, and finally based on their colleagues' evaluations.					
60. A good EFL teacher should be able to make use of his/her creativity (within the constraints of the schools or institutes) in providing creative tasks and techniques in EFL teaching.					

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A Study of English Translation of Yili Products' Advertisements from the Perspective of Pragmatic Equivalence

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Abstract—With its long-term development, Yili Group has become one of the leading roles in the dairy industry of China. To expand its international brand influence, the translation of its advertisements is necessary for its promotion. Simultaneously, the application of language pragmatic equivalence and social pragmatic equivalence is of great guidance in the advertisement translation. This paper studies the English translations of Yili products from the perspective of these two principles, and thus positive and negative practices of translating advertisements have been selected to illustrate the application of these two principles. Based on the analysis, some references can be concluded to enlighten the translation of advertisements.

Index Terms—Yili products, advertisement translation, language pragmatic equivalence, social pragmatic equivalence

I. INTRODUCTION

“A pragmatic approach is required to the study of language in use and the analysis of discourse.” (Brown & Yule, 2000, p.27) Similarly, a pragmatic approach is necessarily to be considered in the course of translation, since translation itself is processed for the purpose of making sense and performing communicative functions as expected.

Dating back to 1938, an American philosopher Charles William Morris had his book *Foundations of Theory of Signs* published and in it pragmatics was first recorded as a branch of linguistic studies, focusing on the relationship between the use of language and the language users. With numerous scholars attempting to examine their linguistic principles and translators trying to have their practices backed up by theories, pragmatic approach and translation studies began to integrate with each other. In 2001, Leo Hickey proposed that pragmatics was helpful in achieving the “pragmatic equivalence” between the source text and the translated text. Starting from the 1980s, pragmatic approaches to translation studies also began to address the issues concerning equivalent translation in China.

Pragmatic equivalence in translation is measured by two aspects — language pragmatic equivalence and social pragmatic equivalence. To translate the source text into the target language centers on conveying the original message and intention, therefore that equivalence translators endeavor to achieve in their works rests on not only the semantic equivalence but also the pragmatic equivalence. The pragmatic linguistic equivalence, based on the understanding of the explicit and implicit meanings of the original message, emphasizes the reproduction of the closest equivalent statements in the target language to convey the original message, and does not stick to the linguistic format of the original work. The social pragmatic equivalence, focusing on the equivalence translation, serves the intercultural communication and cross-language communication. (Ye Miao, 2009, p.44) It demands translators understand the exact meanings of the source language and convert it into another language.

To accomplish the conversion, translators need to tackle smoothly the purpose, literary form of the source text as well as the words clearly defined and the meanings between the lines. “A language undergoes continuous change and development sometimes to its detriment, unfortunately.” (Samuelsson-Brown, 2006, p.29) When components of a language are to be translated into another, every possible factor should be given careful consideration to. This is particularly true when it comes to those products exported to the international market.

Yili Industrial Group Co. Ltd, located in Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, is one of the largest dairy producers in China. Once serving the Olympic Games and the World Expo, Yili now ranks in the top 10 world's dairy companies. Its

great achievement in fame and sale is connected with the successful promotion of products to a large extent, which also rests on the translation of advertisement materials when its products are to be exported to foreign countries and welcomed to the tables. According to the information on its homepage, Yili's dairy products are classified into four branches—liquid milk, ice cream, milk powder and yoghurt. In addition, each of them covers more than ten kinds.

In this study, the appropriateness and accuracy of selected translations of those products will be analyzed and discussed first in terms of language pragmatic equivalence and secondly in terms of social pragmatic equivalence.

II. ANALYZING ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATIONS OF YILI PRODUCTS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF LANGUAGE PRAGMATIC EQUIVALENCE

“Since Leech classified general pragmatics into pragma-linguistics and socio-linguistics in *Principles of Pragmatics*, Professor He Ziran holds the opinion that the equivalent translation can also be divided into two parts as language pragmatic equivalence and socio-pragmatic equivalence.” (Wang Hongjun, 2014, p.123)

The language pragmatic equivalence is generally in line with the conception of dynamic equivalent translation raised by Nida. Language pragmatic equivalence refers that when doing translation activities, translators fully understand the implied meanings in certain context, and convert the original meanings in the source language into the target language. The expressed forms of translated texts in vocabulary, grammar, and semantics can be flexible, but translators should convert the original meanings of the source language to the target language on the basis of full comprehension of its superficial meanings and implied meanings, so as to achieve the equivalence.

The advertisement is a direct form of product's publicity. The function of advertisements requires they should not only have their unique features to attract consumers, but also should be clear and easy to be understood, so that they can be accepted by most of consumers. Since the modern society is filled with various advertisements, advertisements themselves must contain high attention value, in order that they can raise the public's attention.

Different from general translation, advertisement translation owns some unique characteristics. In order to realize the communicative function of advertisements, and meet with consumers' psychology in the target language, the translation of advertisements should accord with the principle of language pragmatic equivalence.

Combined with the language pragmatic principle and the function of advertisements, the following are the English translations of Yili products' advertisements as examples to analyze the application of linguistic-pragmatic equivalence in the translations of their advertisements. The study will be conducted from the differences of vocabulary, grammar, and semantics in the source language and the target language. In this way, the authors analyze whether the translations of the advertisements can achieve a good effect among English speaking consumers. Furthermore, some inspiration and suggestions for translating practices of advertisements will be raised.

1. From the Perspective of Vocabulary

In the view of vocabulary, words with similar meaning and structure may have different interpretive bias. (Yang Yujuan, 2002, p.49) In order to achieve the language pragmatic equivalence, translators should fully understand the original meanings of the source language and convert the original meanings to translated texts. There are some examples of the translations of Yili's advertisements that can illustrate this point of view vividly.

[1]Source text: 伊利谷粒多: 优质谷物浓浆中融入口感顺滑的牛奶, 搭配多种维生素, 全面营养开启一早好状态。

Translation: Yili Grain More: when condensed quality grain drink is mixed with smooth milk and various vitamins, we create Yili Grain more, providing all-round nutrients that help consumers start a day's work in a good shape. (<http://www.yili.com/product/2.html>)

The translation of the product fully considers the original meanings of the Chinese advertisement, and puts “多” into “more”. These two words are similar in meaning and function, and can achieve the pragmatic equivalence in general. However, the character “多” in Chinese is only a static adjective, and means “a number of”. The translation “more” is a comparative adjective with a dynamic meaning, which can make foreign consumers feel a condensed taste when drinking the milk.

There is a negative example in the translation as follows:

[2]Source text: 味可滋: 伊利味可滋甄选醇香好奶, 巧妙融合优质的进口食材, 独特的浓郁美味, 带来不尽的满足和享受。

Translation: Wei Ke Zi Milk Shake: the flavor can be nourishing selection - mellow good milk, clever fusion of high-quality imported food, unique flavor and delicious ... (<http://www.yili.com/product/6.html>)

The translation expresses the general meanings of the source text, except dealing with the translation of “好奶”. According to the context of the source text, the word “好奶” is supposed to mean milk with a high quality. However, it is translated into “good milk” by a word-for-word method, which will make foreign consumers feel confused about the definition of “good milk”. This translation only focuses on word-for-word translation, while neglecting different expressive ways in Chinese and English, and results in a pragmatic question. Considering the intention of the source text, the word “好奶” would be translated into “high-quality milk”, so that it can give foreign consumers a direct impression of its superior quality.

From the above examples, translators should have a clear idea that when translating advertisements, there is no need

for translators to be limited by literal meanings of words in the source text, but it is important for translators to express the pragmatic meanings of words. However, it is also important to avoid the word-for-word translation of the source language lest it cause foreign consumers' misunderstanding.

2. From the Perspective of Grammar

Generally speaking, English grammar and Chinese grammar are quite different. For instance, English is of great aggregation, while Chinese is a discrete type. That is to say the core of English sentence is a subject-predicate structure, and all other sentence constituents serve for it. Though Chinese and English types of sentences are various, complicated and flexible, the main structure of Chinese sentence is not so clear as one of English sentence. Besides, English is a hypotaxis language and Chinese is a parataxis language, which means that English sentence is more complete than Chinese one, and it usually expresses its meanings by its shape. On the contrary, Chinese language prefers invisible cohesion, and that is to say, it focuses more on the functional meanings of sentences. Therefore, when doing the translation of advertisements, translators should also pay attention to differences in the grammar of these two languages. Here are some positive examples of the translations of Yili's advertisements.

[1] Source text: 冰工厂：伊利冰工厂，产品中加入新鲜果肉、果汁，不仅带来冰爽的口感，更添一份活力体验。

Translation: Yili Ice Factory, with fresh fruit pulp and juice, brings you both an ice-cold taste and a vigorous experience. (<http://www.yili.com/product/8.html>)

As we can see, the source text is composed with several short sentences in parallel structure, which is a main feature of Chinese language. There is no conjunction between neighboring sentences. The English translation is not limited by its original grammatical structure, and the translator deals with it into a subjective-predicate structure. In this way, the translation looks more logical and the sentence structure is clearer.

[2] Source text: 伊利红枣酸奶：伊利红枣风味酸乳，枣汁含量≥5%，枣汁与酸奶相结合，健康又美味。

Translation: Red Date Flavored Yoghurt: Healthy and yummy, Yili red date flavored yoghurt mixes dates juice and yoghurt, with about 5% or more dates juice content. (<http://www.yili.com/product/24.html>)

From this example, we can see that the Chinese version is also composed with several parallel sentences, and the meanings of each short sentence are coordinate. It first introduces its raw material, then its taste and quality. Yet, the English translation first puts the accompanying adverbial at the beginning to stress its flavor and taste, then illustrates its raw material. In this way, it makes the sentence structure clear. In addition, considering the function of advertisements, the translation stresses its function and flavor at the beginning in order that it can better attract consumers. The translation reorganizes its structure regardless of the original structure in the source text, and makes the sentence structure more logical.

3. From the Perspective of Semantics

Since there are differences in cultural backgrounds, social traditions and language habits in context, translators should also pay attention to the differences of semantic meanings in two cultures and try to express the original intention of the source text. As for the words with similar literal and cultural meanings, they can be directly translated, or they should be expressed according to the target language context. Here is an example that can illustrate this point of view.

[1] Source text: 意品：意品冰淇淋，融合优质配料及先进工艺的优雅作品，每一个细节都倾注所能，不断为你带来醉人口感，只为你慢享悠扬人生。

Translation: Yipin Ice Cream is a piece of refined artwork combining quality ingredients and advanced processing technique. We dedicate great efforts to each detail, so that its charming taste prolongs your melodious life. (<http://www.yili.com/product/10.html>)

Analyzing this translation carefully, we can see that there is a word “醉人” in the Chinese version. The word in Chinese generally has two meanings: one is that something contains alcohol making people feel drunk. The other meaning is a use of metaphor; it means that the taste or feeling of something makes people addicted to it. Having read the original advertisement, we know that the intentional meaning of the advertisement should be the second one. The advertisement expresses that the taste of the ice cream can get consumers fall in love with it, but does not mean that this product contains alcohol. The translator deals with it into “charming”, which has a similar meaning with the implication of the Chinese word. This shows that the translator fully understands the meanings in two different cultures, and achieves the language pragmatic equivalence.

In short, from the above examples, we can learn that the language pragmatic equivalence is of great importance in translating advertisements. Only by fully understanding this principle and putting it into practice can translations well express the original intentions of advertisements, so that they can achieve good effects among foreign consumers.

III. ANALYZING ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATIONS OF YILI PRODUCTS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF SOCIAL PRAGMATIC EQUIVALENCE

Social pragmatic equivalence, along with language pragmatic equivalence composes pragmatic equivalence. “In 1951, the pragmatic equivalence was first proposed by Roman Jakobson, a Western translation theorist, in his linguistic monograph *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation*. Roman believed that language was asymmetric, so the core essence of

pragmatics was to achieve the same expressive effect of different languages through various translation methods". (Wang Yingying, Liu Caili & Zhang Jianfang 2014, p.51) That is to say, there exist equivalences between languages. Language is a carrier of culture, and different languages reflect different cultures. Social pragmatic equivalence is beyond cultural barriers to reach cultural communication within the scope of receivers' language. In other words, forms, patterns and styles can be neglected if necessary, in order to achieve the same social effect since every language has its own way to rephrase the same situation.

The reason for discussing social pragmatic equivalence is to explore effective methods to overcome cultural barriers, and render the source language into the target language which is expected to give the same reading experience to target text readers as that of source text readers. Therefore, social pragmatic equivalence translation needs to be discussed. Social pragmatic equivalence translation refers to equivalence translation which serves the communication across languages and cultures. That is to say, the translator should take the understanding of the source text as a foundation, and take the context and cultural habits into consideration, and make the target text appropriate for the culture of receivers' country to achieve translation equivalence.

Social equivalence translation can be obtained through various methods which largely depend on the purpose of translation. After a browse of Chinese and English advertisements of Yili products, it can be found that in some advertisement translations translators has considered social pragmatic equivalence, while in the others, some improvements should be made. In the following part, social pragmatic equivalence translation will be discussed, combined with Chinese and English advertisements of Yili products. Social equivalence translation is sorted into two kinds: one is to replay cultural information which is unique in the source language; the other is to transfer cultural items into those of the target language or just discard its formats and take its connotative meanings.

1. Achieving social pragmatic equivalence with maintaining cultural items.

English and Chinese are two very different languages and they mirror different cultures. Every culture has its own unique cultural items and phenomena. As a carrier of culture, language demonstrates differences by diverse words, and thus English and Chinese languages have their unique methods and words to exhibit the same situations. For those items that have no responding matches in the target language, it is better to reserve the original expression or adopt the method of transliteration. As for Yili advertisement translations, here come two examples.

[1]Source text: 意品: 意品冰淇淋, 融合优质配料及先进工艺的优雅作品, 每一个细节都倾注所能, 不断为你带来醉人口感, 只为你慢享悠扬人生。

Translation: Yipin Ice Cream is a piece of refined artwork combining quality ingredients and advanced processing technique. We dedicate great efforts to each detail, so that its charming taste prolongs your melodious life. (<http://www.yili.com/product/10.html>)

[2]Source text: 伊利每益添: 活性乳酸菌+膳食纤维, 独一无二的双重助消化组合, 在体内形成更高速的“快消化”动力! 畅饮每益添, 就像给肠道按下快进键, 即刻拥有快人一步的“快消化”活力!

Translation: Yili Mei Yi Tian: The combination of active lactobacillus and dietary fiber is Mei Yi Tian's unique benefits in digestion, which accelerate the efficiency of digestion. Drinking Mei Yi Tian, it's all like pressing the fast-forward button of people's digestion system which fills you up with energetic power. (<http://www.yili.com/product/23.html>)

In the above advertisement, “意品” and “每益添” in Chinese have profound meanings in themselves. “意品” means to taste every bite of the ice cream wholeheartedly, however, there are no matches in English to transmit this meaning. Therefore, using pinyin in the translations may be a better choice. As for the advertisement for “每益添”, the product's name is the homophony of “每一天”, which means “every day” in English. It's hard to find English words to display the implied meaning. Here Yili company employs the safest translation - pinyin, but it is advisable to address the connotative meaning in the advertisement. Only in that way can English native readers have the same reading experience as Chinese consumers.

2. Discarding forms and creating translated texts that appeal target consumers.

In English, people use “as strong as a horse” to describe a person who is strong in strength, while in Chinese “力大如牛” is adopted to express the same meaning. In Chinese, people say “孔夫子搬家 —— 尽是书(输)” to make sense that a person always faces failure in life. This allegorical saying employs the event of ancient sage Confucius' (he is a learned person with many books) move and homophony (in Chinese, “书” and “输” have the same pronunciation “shu”) to describe “failure” vividly. However, in English, people have no idea about Confucius, and they do not think books have any relationship with failure. In view of advertisement translations, this principle is also of big use. Here are some examples of Yili advertisement translations to show the principle.

[1]Source text: 冰淇淋口感细腻、柔滑、清凉, 伴随着巧克力的甜蜜、水果的清新和牛奶的浓醇, 是解渴祛暑、尽享休闲的美味选择。

Translation: Ice cream is known for its tender, soft, smooth, and refreshing taste added with a variety of flavors, which bring a cool and refreshing moment in the hot summer. (<http://www.yili.com/product/1y/2.html>)

[2]Source text: 帕瑞缇: 能带给消费者放松愉悦的心情, 满足对欧式精致生活憧憬的高端休闲乳制品。

Translation: Pureday yogurt is a kind of high-end leisure dairy product which can bring consumers a relaxed and pleasant mood to meet the longing for the delicate European life style. (<http://www.yili.com/product/22.html>)

In the above examples, the English advertisement for ice cream is somehow different from the Chinese version. The Chinese version uses “巧克力的甜蜜、水果的清新和牛奶的浓醇” which composes catchy phrases to describe various flavors of ice creams. However, in English, the translator employs “with a variety of flavors” to maintain the character of briefness in advertisement instead of word-for-word translation. In the advertisement for Pureday, the translator is not limited by the Chinese version. Instead, the translator translates the advertisement into one that suits the English consumers’ mentality. In the Chinese version, Pureday can provide consumers with a relaxed and pleasant mood, as well as meet the longing for the delicate European life style. In comparison, the English version refers the relaxed and pleasant mood as the premise of meeting the longing for European life style.

Though social pragmatic equivalence translation is discussed, in fact, considerations should be taken into two aspects. Here comes an example to illustrate this.

Source text: 伊利优酸乳: 香浓爽滑的牛奶 邂逅真实营养的青苹果汁 那一刻的酸甜美味 飞扬青春心情给你加倍快乐 全新升级酸甜好口味 快乐更加倍

Translation: Yili Yogurt: When fragrant and smooth milk meets pure and nutritious green apple juice, the intertwined taste of sweetness and sourness invokes teenage-like vigor and happiness. A new upgrade of Yili Yousuanru with the wonderful mixture of sour and sweet flavors multiplies the joy. (<http://www.yili.com/product/23.html>)

In the example, the translator reserves rhetorical features, but the translator does not translate “那一刻的酸甜美味 飞扬青春心情给你加倍快乐” literally; otherwise, English native speakers will not understand the relationship of taste, youth and happiness. Through logical thinking, the translator renders it into “the intertwined taste of sweetness and sourness invokes teenage-like vigor and happiness”, namely, it is the sweet and sour taste that brings people vigor and happiness. However, it is not suitable for the product’s name “优酸乳” being translated into Yili Yogurt. According to *Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary*, yoghurt means a thick white liquid food, made by adding bacteria to milk, served cold and often flavored with fruit. (Lu Gusun, 2009, p.2341) Yousuanru is not yoghurt, but a kind of milk drink with multiple flavors, and milk makes up a very small portion of the drink.

IV. CONCLUSION

Unlike translating works in other fields, advertisements and advertisement translations aim to have a positively direct effect on consumers as soon as possible and to bring economic returns to the largest extent. Bearing so great and important an expectation, every detailed translation processed in the context of intercultural communication should be given full considerations. To achieve an expected social effect, translations are needed to be worked out on the basis of pragmatic equivalence - social pragmatic equivalence and language pragmatic equivalence.

In this paper, a discussion has been made on the English translations of Yili products’ advertisements from the perspective of social pragmatic equivalence and language pragmatic equivalence. In spite of lacking accuracy in some products’ translations, the translations of Yili advertisements have succeeded generally in conveying the original intention of the source text and achieving a positive effect among the target readers – English speaking consumers as expected.

Considering studies of comparisons between the English version and Chinese version of Yili products’ advertisements, there are two things worth mentioning on the basis of language pragmatic equivalence and social pragmatic equivalence concerning the translation of advertisements of a company’s products. Firstly, better to discard a word-for-word translation and the forms of words in the source text should not be taken as a decisive factor since not all words and phrases have an identical meaning beyond cultures. Secondly, better to find an expression of pragmatic equivalence in the target language to cross cultural barriers, and various translation resources could be adopted in searching for authentic expressions that suit target consumers’ reading habits best.

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The Impact of Consciousness-raising vs. Structure-based Production Tasks on Reading Comprehension of Iranian Mid-intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—Task-based instruction is crucial in SLA research, teaching and learning language skills particularly reading comprehension. This study investigated the effect of two kinds of focused tasks on reading comprehension and on the attitudes of Iranians mid-intermediate EFL learners. At first, a pilot study was conducted to see the feasibility of the treatments as well as reliability and validity of the instruments of the study. In the main study, a language proficiency test was used to homogenize the 70 participants who attended two experimental groups followed by an administration of the attitudes questionnaires. During the treatments, in one group, the participants received consciousness-raising tasks, and in the other group structure-based production tasks were applied. At the end of instructional courses, the two groups took a reading post-test and were asked to fill out the questionnaire again. The statistical analyses indicated that structure-based production tasks had more significant effect not only on the learners reading comprehension but also on their attitudes toward reading comprehension; while consciousness-raising focused tasks had a significant impact only on learners' attitudes toward reading comprehension. The study also concluded the importance of applying appropriate tasks in reading courses.

Index Terms—consciousness-raising tasks, focused tasks, structure-based production tasks

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension is used in many different situations such as the real world and educational fields, it is one of the crucial areas of learning a language. . As Urquhart and Weir (1998) state, the active process of reading refers to receiving and interpreting the information which is encoded in the language form and it can be interpreted by the medium of text (as cited in Schmitt, 2002). According to National Reading Panel (2000), comprehension is a cognitive process which requires the reader to interact with the text purposefully to get the implied meaning. As a result, considerable attention has been given to approaches and instructions which are thought to increase the comprehensibility of the input (oral or written text) and possibly to facilitate their language acquisition. One of these instructions is using of reading texts which involve one or more purposes, tasks or some operations to process the text.

Task-based instruction is considered as “an alternative method to traditional language teaching methods because it favors a methodology in which functional communicative language use is aimed at and strived for” (Brumfit, 1984, Ellis, 2003, Willis, 1996, cited in Kasap, 2005, p.2). Also, TBI is regarded to be an effective approach that fosters a learning environment in which learners are free to choose and use the target language forms which they think are most likely to achieve the aim of accomplishing defined communicative goals (Ellis, 2003 as cited in Kasap, 2005).

This study was an attempt to investigate the role of two kinds of focused tasks, consciousness-raising task and structure-based production tasks, in developing second language reading comprehension among Iranians intermediate EFL learners. It also looked at the effect of the tasks on the attitudes of the learners toward reading comprehension.

The study expected the outcomes such as gain in vocabulary, grammatical and discourse knowledge of students' reading comprehension, which seemed to achieve more easily through task-based instruction. To force the learners to exchange information at the time of performing the task in order to achieve some authentic interaction among the participants, task based instruction was chosen to improve learners reading skills and enhance learners attitude towards reading comprehension by using real world activities.

This study once more supported the significance of task-based instruction. It also signified the importance of focused task-based instruction, since focused tasks aim at inducing learners to process productively some particular linguistic feature. Moreover, researchers consistently indicate the direct relationship between success in comprehension and

positive attitudes of learners toward reading a text. In this study, it was hypothesized that task-based instruction could enhance not only learners' comprehension but also their attitudes toward reading comprehension skill.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Do structure-based production focused tasks have any significant effect on reading comprehension of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners?
2. Do consciousness-raising focused tasks have any significant effect on reading comprehension of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners?
3. Is there any significant difference between the effect of structure-based production tasks and consciousness-raising tasks on reading comprehension of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners?
4. Do structure-based production focused tasks have any significant effect on the attitude of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners?
5. Do consciousness-raising focused tasks have any significant effect on the attitude of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners?
6. Is there any significant difference between the effect of structure-based production tasks and consciousness-raising tasks on the attitude of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners?

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the last decades more attention has been given to approaches and instructions which are thought and applied by language instructors to increase the comprehensibility of the input by second language learners and possibly to facilitate their acquisition.

Fountas and Pinnell, (2006) elaborate that "reading is a thinking process, is part of everything that happens to you as a person and comprehending a text is intimately related to your life" (p. 7). This definition reinforces Rosenblatt's (1994) theory that reading comprehension requires the reader to interact with the text. The Ministry of Education (2006) uses a similar definition of the reading process as: "Reading in the junior grades is an interactive, problem-solving process, with the primary purpose of making meaning" (p.61).

Task is defined as a set of differentiated, sequence able, problem-posing activities involving learners and teachers in some cognitive and communicative procedures within a social milieu (Candlin, 1984). Other scientists agree on Candlin point of view and add the following descriptions to the concept of task. In Prabhu's view (1987), task is an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process (cited in Ellis, 2003). Nunan (1989) refers to it as piece of class room work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language. He also defines that "task-based language teaching constitutes a strong version of CLT. That is, tasks are provided for an entire language curriculum. It involves an integrated set of processes involving the specification of both what and how" (cited in Ellis, 2003, p.30-31).

Researchers have categorized tasks as focused and unfocused tasks. Ellis (2003) distinguishes between unfocused and focused tasks in a way that unfocused tasks may predispose learners to choose from a range of forms but they are not designed with the use of a specific form in mind. In contrast, focused tasks aim at inducing learners to process, receptively or productively, some particular linguistic feature, for example, a grammatical structure. He states that "the implication for effective TBT is that tasks must be structured in such a way that they pose an appropriate challenge by requiring learners to perform functions and use language that enable them to dynamically construct ZPDs" (p.179).

On the other hand, there are some principles which can be used to guide instructors in the selection of the most appropriate kind of tasks such as choosing an appropriate level of task difficulty, developing an appropriate orientation to performing the task in the students, establishing clear goals for each lesson, encouraging students to take risks and finally ensure the students to focus primarily on meaning when they perform a task (Ellis, 2003, P. 277).

There are three different kinds of focused tasks. Schmidt (1994) describes consciousness raising task as "a task which is designed to cater primarily to explicit learning and intend to develop awareness at the level of understanding rather than at the level of noticing" (cited in Ellis, 2003, p.163). However, Richards and Schmidt (2002) distinct consciousness raising approach from its task types and refer to this approach as getting the attention of the learners to form of the language which he believes this awareness foster the acquisition of L2. Inferences made from instances of the language and comparing different forms of saying one meaning are the examples of this approach.

Structure-based tasks are the other type of focused tasks which refer to "a task that involves exchange of information and automatized the existing knowledge, a task which makes the target structure natural, useful or essential" (Ellis, 2003, pp. 152). He also mentions that Structure-based production task directed at eliciting production of a specific structure.

An enormous amount of studies have been done on reading comprehension, and on techniques to enhance learners' comprehension in the area of second language acquisition. On the other hand, several attempts were made to verify the validity of tasks. Sterlacci (1996) carried out a study to investigate whether a task can elicit the productive use of modal

verbs or not. It found that the task was successful in eliciting the targeted structure and that the learners did not intentionally set out to use modal verbs.

The role of structure-production tasks in eliciting various question forms in lower proficiency EFL learners was studied by Mackey (1999). She noted that when the tasks were performed interactively with native speakers, the learners often had difficulties producing a particular question form. But, if the tasks were persisted, students were able to formulate more target-like and comprehensible question to their interlocutor. The result also indicated that learners who completed the given tasks (story completion, picture sequencing and differences) manifested clear developmental gains in their production (Ellis, 2003).

The effectiveness of consciousness raising tasks with traditional teacher-fronted grammar lessons was studied by Fotos and Ellis (1991). The study resulted that the task was as effective as the grammar lesson in the short term, and was only slightly less effective in maintaining proficiency than the grammar lesson. Mohamed (2004) examined learners' perspectives of the effectiveness of consciousness raising tasks. He concluded that there was no preference for a particular type of task over the other among the learners. For the learners, consciousness raising tasks were helpful in getting new L2 knowledge. The study also concluded that both inductive and deductive types of the task were effective in increasing learners' awareness of linguistic forms.

IV. METHOD

Participants

While the participants of the pilot study comprised of 28 mid-intermediate EFL learners evaluated as mid-intermediate by a language proficiency test provided by the Institute. In the main study, 70 mid-intermediate EFL learners were involved and assigned in two experimental groups. All the participants were young adults and their age varied between 17 and 36 including male and female.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study were as follows:

(A) A Language Proficiency Test including four skills provided by the language institute used to specify the homogeneity of the sample and the equality between the two experimental groups at the beginning of the study.

(B) A Reading Comprehension Pre-Test extracted from the same Language Proficiency Test was used to compare learners reading comprehension improvement before and after applying the treatment.

(C) A single reading comprehension test extracted from another standard proficiency test as the post-test was used to compare the differences between structure-based production and consciousness-raising groups within and between groups.

(D) An attitude questionnaire derived from CASI (Cognitive Assessment Screening Instrument) assessment package (Doctorow, 2003) including closed items to evaluate the learners' attitudes toward reading and each kind of focused tasks was used in the study. Some items reflected learners attitude toward reading, while others showed how much they were familiar with focused tasks- consciousness-raising and structure-based productions tasks – and to what extent they applied them unconsciously in the process of comprehending a passage. The items were based on Likert scale of agreement.

Design

The current study was a quasi- experimental study since it was not possible to carry out random sampling. This quasi-experimental research was through a treatment and a questionnaire survey.

Procedure

At the outset, a pilot study was conducted with 28 mid-intermediate English learners evaluated by the language institute. A similar treatment with the main study was applied to them to see the feasibility of the treatments followed by getting feedback from the students. The pilot study indicated that the learners seemed to be more involved in classroom interaction at reading time when the treatment of focused tasks was applied. They were also asked to fill out a 20-item questionnaire in order to estimate its reliability and validity. While the Cronbach Alpha was used to calculate the index of reliability principal axis factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted to assess the underlying constructs of the reading attitude questionnaire. After analyzing the factors based on the SPSS 16th version result, three items were excluded from the questionnaire after piloting the study.

In the main study, the proficiency language test was administered in both experimental groups. After verifying the homogeneity of the samples, the questionnaire was administered to evaluate learners' primary attitudes toward reading and focused tasks. Afterwards, each experimental group was treated with two types of tasks. Experimental group1 received structure-based production focused task type 1 (story completion) and type 2 (information exchanging). Experimental group 2 obtained the consciousness-raising focused task type 1 including explicit instruction of rules and grammar within the passage, so that the students can utilize them in their interaction and production. In the consciousness-raising task type 2, a specific structure within a text was selected to focus on and students were required to talk meaningfully about it with their own linguistic recourses.

In the experimental group1, both in task type 1 and 2, students were not forced to use any specific new words or grammar; they were just expected to enhance their reading and respond to questions meaningfully by their own existing knowledge. The instructor tried to act as a facilitator who guided students to correct their own and their classmates'

mistakes as the students needed to answer the questions with complete sentences rather than single words. As a result, students explained the text to each other; they corrected their friends understanding; they also added some new information from their own experiences. More detailed questions were asked to improve learners' comprehension and evaluate their findings. Students were guided to modify and simplify the text difficulties just by activating their own passive knowledge (using simpler structures instead of complex ones to express their understanding). So the text was comprehended through interaction (between both student-student and instructor-student). Then instructor just guided the students to produce the correct future forms without forcing or providing them with explicit instruction. The students tried to activate their existing knowledge by paying more attention to the passage to respond the questions.

In the experimental group2, in type 1, students were expected to use the explicitly taught rules and features of the passage in their interaction and production. A single rule or form continued to be practiced until the students gained full command of using them meaningfully in their production. Type2 included focusing on specific points in the text and the students were required to use these points meaningfully in their production. The teacher also proposed some questions asking for the answers using the taught points. Then the students asked their classmates the same questions and corrected their mistakes according to what they had learned through reading a passage. The instructor guided students to remind their classmates to use the exact new word appropriately, not any other similar words or antonyms. Before starting to read a passage, if students find any words or grammatical points unfamiliar, the teacher provided an explicit description or instruction. Finally, students needed to answer the questions with complete sentences rather than a single word.

After conducting ten session treatments in each group, the modified attitude questionnaire from the pilot study and also a post-test of reading comprehension extracted from a standard proficiency test were administered to test the hypotheses of the study.

V. RESULTS

Analysis of proficiency Test

The Cronbach Alpha reliability index was calculated as index of reliability for Language Proficiency Test.

TABLE 1.
CRONBACH ALPHA RELIABILITY OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Cronbach's alpha	N of Questions
0.78	56

Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the standard proficiency language test.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Structure-based Production Task	35	55.69	10.33	.729	.398
Consciousness-raising Task	35	56.86	5.28	.253	.398

Dividing the statistic of skewness by its standard error, the assumption of normality was observed in the distribution of the scores of the two groups (1.83 for the structure-based group and 0.63 for the conscious-raising group, all falling within the range of 1.96 and +1.96). Figure 1 displays the normality of the EFL learners in both experimental groups.

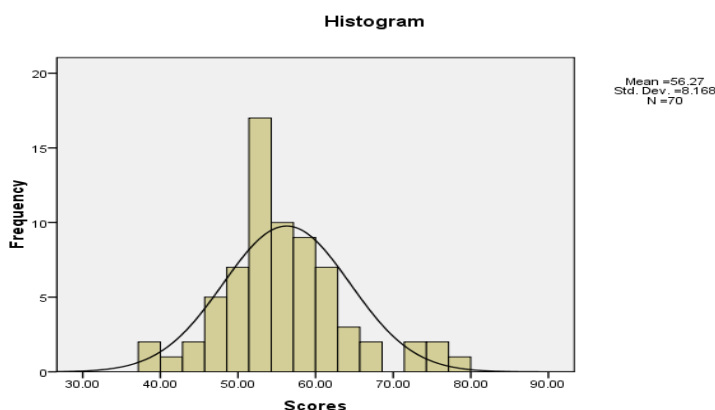


Figure 1. Homogeneity of the Learners in both groups

Figure 2 shows the mean difference of the two experimental groups on the proficiency test.

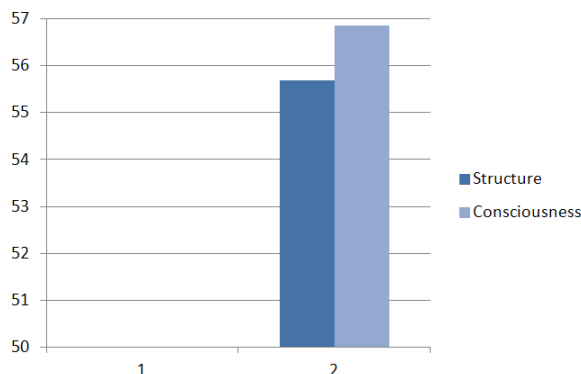


Figure 2. The Mean Scores of the Two Groups on the Proficiency Language Test

In order to check the homogeneity of two groups prior to the treatment, an independent t-test was carried out to ensure the initial existing difference was not of a significant importance and there was equality between the two experimental groups. As is evident in the table 3, the probability associated with the F-observed value of .003 disconfirms the equality of variances; nevertheless, an independent t-test was run to find if there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups at the proficiency test. Since, the probability associated with the t-observed value (.552) was higher than the significant level of .05, it was safely concluded that the two groups belonged to the same population in terms of their proficiency level before the treatment.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Scores	Equal variances assumed	9.35	.003	-.59	68	.552	-1.17	1.96	-5.08	2.74
	Equal variances not assumed			-.59	50.6	.553	-1.17	1.96	-5.11	2.76

Analysis of Reading Comprehension Pre test

The reading test which was included in the language proficiency test was used as pre test. It enabled the researcher to investigate the possible impact of the treatment on the improvement of the reading of the experimental groups. Table 4 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the two experimental groups' reading pretest.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRETEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Structure-based Production Task	35	9.42	1.68	-.495	.398
Consciousness-raising Task	35	9.17	1.82	-.486	.398

The results of the skewness analysis, as shown in this Table 4, revealed that the assumption of normality was observed in the distribution of the pretest scores of the two groups (-1.24 for the structure-based production group and -1.22 for the consciousness-raising group, all falling within the range of -1.96 and +1.96). Figure 4.3 shows the normality of the pretest scores.

Figure 3 shows the mean difference of the two experimental groups on the reading pretest.

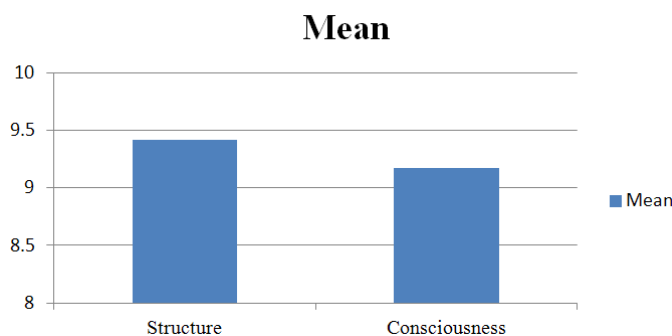


Figure 3. The Mean Scores of the Two Groups on the Reading Pretest

In order to compare the reading passages in pre and post tests more confidently, grading the readability (the level of difficulty) of the passages was essential. Fog formula was used to score the texts and almost a same number for both texts (9.5) was found appropriate for the mid- intermediate level. Therefore, it was safe enough to compare the reading passages in pre and post tests while they were not a repeated measure.

Analysis of Reading Post test

The Cronbach Alpha reliability index was calculated as index of reliability for the reading post test.

TABLE 5.
CRONBACH ALPHA RELIABILITY OF THE READING POST TEST

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Questions
0.763	12

After ten instructional sessions, a post-test including a single reading comprehension test derived from a standard proficiency test was administered to measure the effects of the treatment at the end of the study. The mean scores, standard deviation, and the skewness of the reading posttest are reported for the two groups in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE READING POSTTEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Structure-based Production Task	35	10.69	1.30	-.477	.398
Consciousness-raising Task	35	9.43	1.29	.167	.398

The results of the skewness analysis (Table 6) again revealed that the assumption of normality observed in the distribution of the reading posttest scores of the two groups (-1.19) for the structure-based production group and (.41) for the consciousness-raising group, all falling within the range of -1.96 and +1.96).

Figure 5 shows the mean difference of the two experimental groups on the reading posttest.

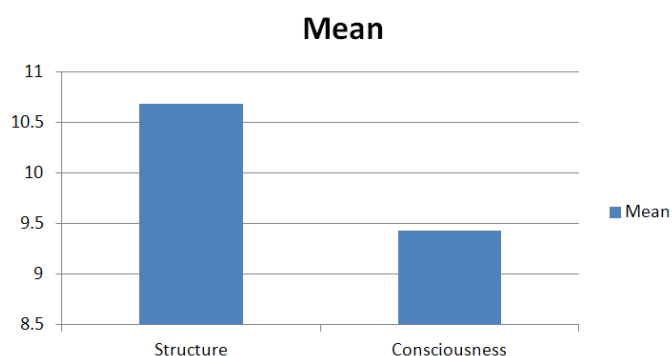


Figure 4. The Mean Scores of the Two Groups on the Reading Posttest

Hypothesis one

A paired-samples t-test was employed to investigate the significant effect of structure-based production tasks on reading comprehension of the learners. Table 7 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest of structure-based production group.

TABLE 7.
 PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF THE STRUCTURE-BASED PRODUCTION GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest	9.43	35	1.68	.285
	Posttest	10.69	35	1.30	.220

The probability associated with t-observed value (.000) is lower than the significant level of .05.

TABLE 8.
 PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF STRUCTURE-BASED PRODUCTION GROUP

Structure Group	Paired Differences	Mean	Std. D	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pretest – Posttest	-1.25	1.01	.171	-1.60	-.91	7.36	34	.00

Based on the results it can be concluded that structure-based tasks had significant effect on reading comprehension of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners.

Hypothesis Two

A paired-samples t-test was employed to investigate the significant effect of consciousness-raising tasks on reading comprehension of the learners. Table 9 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest of consciousness-raising group.

TABLE 9.
 PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF THE CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest	9.17	35	1.82	.308
	Posttest	9.43	35	1.29	.218

The probability associated with t-observed value (.247) is higher than the significant level of .05.

TABLE 10.
 PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF THE CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING GROUP

	Paired Differences	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pretest- Posttest	-.25	1.29	.218	-.70	.18	1.17	34	.247

Based on the results it can be concluded that consciousness-raising tasks did not have any significant effect on reading comprehension of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners.

Hypothesis three

An independent t-test was run between the mean scores of the posttest of the structure-based production and consciousness-raising groups on the reading comprehension to investigate the significant difference between their effects. As table 11 shows, since the probability associated with the F-observed value (.611) was higher than the significant level of .05 therefore two groups were homogenous in terms of their variances. Also the probability associated with the t-observed value (.00) was lower than the significant level of .05.

TABLE 11.
 INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.						Lower	Upper
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.262	.611	4.06	68	.000	1.25	.31	.63	1.87
	Equal variances not assumed			4.06	67.99	.000	1.25	.31	.63	1.87

Based on these results, it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the reading comprehension test. Structure-based production focused tasks had significantly more effect on reading comprehension than consciousness-raising tasks.

Analysis of the Reading Attitude Questionnaire in Pretest

As it is depicted below, KMO degree of 0.69 is higher than .60, hence the sample size was sufficient for the purpose of the study. The probability associated with the Bartlett's Test is also significant (less than .05) and correlations between variables are all zero. So the use of factor analysis is allowed.

TABLE 12.
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.698
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	844.331
	Df	190
	Sig.	.000

Table 13 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the reading attitude as a pretest.

TABLE 13.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE READING ATTITUDE IN PRETEST QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	
Structure-based production Task	35	54.46	6.98	-.661	.398
Consciousness-raising Task	35	55.11	6.48	-.509	.398

Figure 5 shows the mean differences of the two experimental groups on the reading attitude questionnaire as a pretest.

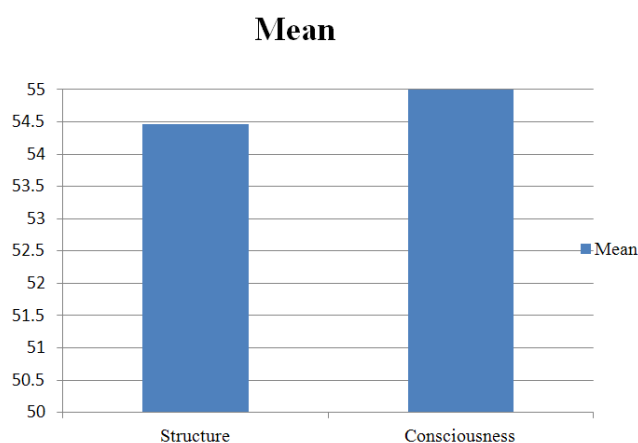


Figure 5. The Mean Scores of the Groups on the Reading Attitude in Pretest Questionnaire

Analysis of the Reading Attitude Questionnaire in Posttest

The mean scores, variance and standard deviation of the questionnaire posttest are reported for the two groups in Table 14.

TABLE 14.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE READING ATTITUDE IN POST-TEST QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	
Structure-based Production Tasks	35	62.17	5.73	-.367	.398
Consciousness-raising Tasks	35	58.14	4.32	.447	.398

Figure 6 shows the mean differences of the two experimental groups on the reading attitude questionnaire as a posttest.

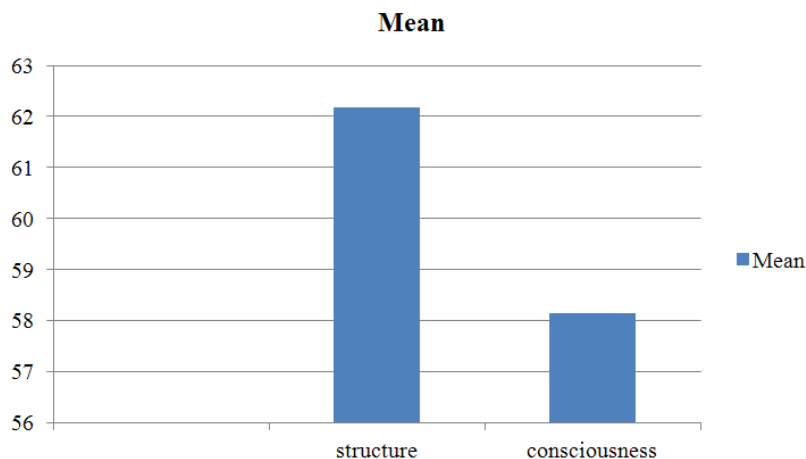


Figure 6. The Mean Scores of the Groups on the Reading Attitude in Posttest Questionnaire

Hypothesis Four

A paired-samples t-test was employed to investigate if structure-based production tasks had any significant effect on the attitudes of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners. Table 15 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest of the structure-based production group on the students' attitude.

TABLE 15.
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF THE STRUCTURE-BASED GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre test	54.46	35	6.98	1.18
	Posttest	62.17	35	5.73	.97

The probability associated with t-observed value (.000) is lower than the significant level of .05.

TABLE 16.
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF THE STRUCTURE-BASED GROUP

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre test – Posttest	-7.71	5.63	.953	-9.65	-5.77	8.09	34	.000

Based on the results, it can be concluded that structure-based production tasks had a significant effect on attitudes of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners.

Hypothesis Five

A paired-samples t-test was employed to investigate the significant effect of consciousness-raising tasks on the attitudes of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners.

TABLE 17.
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF THE CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre test	55.11	35	6.48	1.09
	Posttest	58.14	35	4.32	.73

The probability associated with t-observed value (.026) is lower than the significant level of .05.

TABLE 18.
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF THE CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING GROUP

		Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre test – Posttest	-3.029	7.67	1.297	-5.664	-.393	2.33	34	.026

Based on the results it can be concluded that consciousness-raising tasks had also an effect on the attitudes of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners.

Hypothesis Six

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the posttest of the structure-based production and consciousness-raising groups of the attitude questionnaire to investigate the significant difference between the effects of the tasks on the attitude of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners. As table 19 shows, since the probability associated with the F-observed value (.065) was higher than the significant level of .05 therefore two groups were homogenous in terms of their variances. Also the probability associated with the t-observed value (.001) was lower than the significant level of .05.

TABLE 19.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Scores	Equal variances assumed	3.51	.065	-3.31	68	.001	-4.02	1.21	-6.45	-1.60
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.31	63.219	.002	-4.02	1.21	-6.45	-1.60

Based on these results, it can be concluded that structure-based production tasks had more significant effect on the attitudes of the learners towards reading comprehension.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of the study indicated that between the two different focused tasks, structure-based production tasks strongly improved reading comprehension of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL, while consciousness-raising focused tasks were not very effective ones. The study also revealed that both focused tasks positively influenced the attitude of learners towards reading comprehension. However; structure-based production tasks had more positive effect on the attitude of learners.

This supported the idea of Dornyei (2001) that learners with more positive preferences and attitudes toward the second language are likely to be more successful in language learning. This study was also in line with Otunuku and Brown (2007), that positive attitudes improve student's achievement in language learning. It was also concluded that enhancing students' positive attitudes towards reading comprehension needs to be developed as a priority; this conclusion supports Rye's (2006) idea in which he believes that students attitudes is important because, it is the individual students who finally decide whether or not they wish to engage themselves in the critical process of reading comprehension (as cited in Devi, 2012).

Furthermore, the results of this study also agreed with Mohamed's (2004) finding in a sense that consciousness-raising tasks are effective learning tool to enhance learners' attitude towards language acquisition particularly reading comprehension.

The findings of this study seems to be supported by other studies such as Lindsey' (2010), Devi' (2012), Johnson' (2012), Guthrie and Wigfield' (2006). All concluded that the majority of EFL learners in different proficiency level responded more positively towards reading after the task-based instruction was applied. On the other hand, Zhou and Siriyothin (2009) verified the positive effect of writing-to-read tasks of EFL students' attitude towards both reading and writing since there is a strong connection between these two skills.

Several studies have been done to examine the validity of task-based instruction particularly structure-based production tasks in reading comprehension. For instance, Gevin Bei (2013) examined the immediate effects of oral narrative task repetition in promoting fluency and accuracy of intermediate and high proficiency adult EFL learners' production. They concluded that task-based instruction is effective tool not only in reading comprehension but also in EFL learners' production. Spiro (2001) and Mackey (1999) both concluded the effectiveness of structure-based production task in eliciting the targeted structure. This is also supported by the present study.

They were also several studies which examined the effectiveness of consciousness- raising tasks in the field of fostering second language acquisition. Fotos and Ellis (1991) concluded that the consciousness- raising task appeared to have only slight effect in grammar lesson. On the other hand, Yip (1994) concluded that using the consciousness raising method can be effective in teaching grammatical points to advanced EFL learners; however, because of the small number of participants involved in his research, he suggested the results cannot be generalized. The current study also revealed that consciousness-raising tasks were less effective in improving learners' reading comprehension. The effectiveness of consciousness- raising focused tasks might be the case for advanced levels. However, the result of this

study was in contradiction with Ellis (2003) that consciousness-raising tasks result in increased understanding of the explicit features and enable learners to use features in their communicative behavior.

The study came to the conclusion that there is a need to understand and acknowledge appropriate task-based instruction to improve reading comprehension among EFL learners.

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Social Networks for Language Learning

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Abstract—Social networks play indispensable roles in fostering second language learning by providing a wide array of authentic materials. The purpose of this review is to consider social networks, such as Facebook, Electronic mail, Computer media which are proven to be effective to increase students' learning English out of the classes. Social networks facilitate students' interaction to share their ideas, and provide an opportunity for learners to experience online tools to foster their learning skills. It was realized that these online tools (e.g. Facebook, Email, and Computer media) can be used to improve students' language skills especially writing skill. Internet tools help the second language learners to accelerate their learning by being up-to-date and self-directed. In this paper, the literatures were reviewed to find positive aspects of using Facebook to improve second language learning. The researchers also pointed out that second language is learned incidentally and directly from second language speakers of different culture via Emails. Students can use e-mail to communicate with their teachers and with second language speakers or native speakers. Computer media are also useful means to guide those learners who are passively focused on English learning. The review would conclude that social interaction via social networks is a kind of stimulus for learners to communicate with others.

Index Terms—social network, Facebook, Email, computer media

I. INTRODUCTION

Along with the advancement of technology, many social environments have provided technologies to facilitate second language learning. Blake (1998) observed that “technology can play an important role in fostering second language acquisition by electronically increasing learners' contact with a wide array of authentic materials” (p. 210). Social networks are kinds of social environments which have been made for learners who want to have interaction with people from other countries to learn language easily (Godwin-Jones, 2008; Sturgeon & Walker, 2009).

Internet provides wide international resources of language learning. It enables second language learners to communicate directly with native English speakers. Generating language is the most important item for making interpersonal relationship for self-expression and social interaction. Receptive (listening & reading) and productive (speaking and writing) language skills can be facilitated through Internet. According to Mealman (as cited in Abidin, Ahmad, & Kabilan, 2010, p.185), second language learners would increase their abilities, self-knowledge, self-confidence, and lifelong learning. They improve their life skills by using different social media that enable the learners to foster their positive trends about learning English.

Web based interaction area like Facebook, as a popular social network, helps learners to use large amount of information which is always available. Language learners can keep in touch with people specially, with their family, friends and even their teachers whenever they want to. Second language learners can also learn various kind of knowledge, and be familiar with the laws of different cultures. Language and culture are dependent, and comprehending second language culture improves comprehending of the language (Chen & Yang, 2007). The tools and resources available on the Internet provide good areas for group documents and offer the best ways for promoting four language skills.

Getting more confident is an important feature which learners achieve during communication by real use of second language. On the other hand, computer media are useful models which attract learners to use their knowledge of language easily and solve their problems. Learners increase their communication with their peers around the world instead of being limited to the classroom. Thus, computer media are effective in forming student-student and student-teacher interaction out of the class.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

A. *Social Networking for Language Learners*

This paper explores researchers' views about the role of the social networks in second language learning to increase interaction between second language learners. Social media increase power of speech through online conversation about

various issues with native and other second language speakers (Depew, 2011). Carmean and Haefner (2002) explained that social networks are applied online technologies which make the second language learning more social, and enjoyable with minimal stress. They mentioned that real learning happens when it is social and students' centered. In other word, this type of learning leads to "meaningful understanding of material and content" (p. 29). Waters (2009) emphasized the importance of social media as an electronic tool which is new in process of second language learning.

Alternatively, Kendle and Northcote (2001) claim that discussion in online groups and searching online information can give learners the chance to learn useful skills implicitly. There is more feedback during discussion and communication in online situations because of the high confidence (Davis & Thiede, as cited in Chen & Yang, 2007, p.863). In comparing small groups of learner, researchers found that learners had much more participation in online discussion (Pratt & Sullivan, 1996; Warschauer, 1996). Lee (2002) performed a concurrent e-chat which has task-based instruction too increase learner relation and communication skills. An equal chance is supplied by the Internet technology to the second language learners (Goodfellow & Lamy, 1999). Warschauer (2000) mentioned that online interaction makes the learners motivated to have more interactive conversation without concerning about pronunciation or oral connection in the target language. Similarly, Beauvois (1998) stated that social networks encourage students to have more discussion in French classes.

B. Facebook as a Language Learning Tool

Facebook (FB) has been a useful tool to improve interaction between teachers and their students (Godwin-Jones, 2008; Sturgeon & Walker, 2009). It impacts academic settings for both teachers and learners (Villano, 2007). Facebook encourages students to do their homework (Kitsis, 2008), eases learning foreign languages (Abidin, Ahmad, & Kabilan, 2010), and has positive effects on learning language skills (Depew & Skerrett, as cited in Aydin, 2014, p.157). Facebook helped to improve students' social behaviors. Hamilton (2009) found that Facebook can make an appropriate environment to connect teenage readers and publishers, and increase literature circles between them (Walker, 2010). Blattner and Fiori (2009) emphasized that Facebook can develop competition in second language learners and help them to learn incidental vocabularies (Shahrokni, 2009).

Although positive effects of Facebook as learning tool were mentioned, Facebook has some negative aspects. For instance, some university students limited university staff to access their profiles, and it is reported that there is no significant different in using virtual and traditional office hours by students (Li & Pitts, 2009). On the other hand, Facebook is a program which learners use for writing, but it is not the same as academic writing which learners write in educational environments. Learners write an informal text in the Facebook, blogs and Twitter for communication. But in the school, students write for exercising (Yancey, 2009).

Some researchers discussed the effects of Facebook in educational environments. Schaffhauser (2009) found that Facebook and other social networks remove limitation of communication between learners, and help them to identify information for communication (Elliott, Maguth, & Yamaguchi, 2010). It can be used as reliable learning environments to enhance students' participation in learning process (Mazman & Usluel, 2010). Facebook has focused on social, electronic and environmental learning, art business, and chemistry education (Burton, Greenhow, & Robelia, 2011).

There are some positive effects on students' motivation to do exercises in such a social network environment like Facebook (Mills, 2009). Kitsis (2008) offered taking part in online conversations to make interaction in doing homework. Teachers and their students had a good time in their classes (Romano, 2009). In contrast, Fodeman and Monroe (as cited in Abidin, Ahmad, & Kabilan, 2010, p.181), mentioned that Facebook may cause to reinforce students' negative behavior and has negative social promotion. Although, Janda (1995) believed that Email activities can help English learners to increase their writing ability and skills such as narration, description and interpretation, Bloch (2008) claimed that there is little investigation on how Facebook improve learners' writing ability.

A number of studies showed the role of the cultural differences to have more relations in social networks (Cho, 2010), and those who are associated with people of different cultures can be easier than others who can adapt themselves to the new culture (Ryan, Magro, & Sharp, 2011). Facebook is a suitable environment to enhance cultures' relation and eliminate the cultural gap (Birky, Collins, & Christie, as cited in Aydin, 2014, p.157). It provides an opportunity for youth to communicate in various cultures (Christie & Bloustien, 2010). Mills (2011) cited Facebook as a useful mean which plays a prominent role in learning different languages. In some studies about supporting classroom assignments via Facebook, Roblyer, Webb and Witty (2010) discovered that university students can use the Facebook and similar social networks to support their classroom activities. In addition, Haverback (2009) inquired learners' participation in an online learning group on Facebook to argue about their tasks, share their ideas and solve the problems during a course study.

C. Using E-mail to Improve Language Learning Skills

Another social network which is used to improve language learning is an Electronic mail. Email is used to employ "dialogue journals" between learners and teacher (Wang, as cited in Li, 2000, p.231). Researchers explored that Email helps learners to have permanent interaction with their teacher and give his feedback outside of the classroom (Wang, as cited in Li, 2000, p.231). Li and Liaw (as cited in Li, 2000, p.231) stated that the cozy access to the Email system is an easier way to complete semester course activities. They also considered the effect of the Email writing to simplify target language interaction among EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners. Teachers performed various Emails projects

from students in different countries, cultures and languages (Warschauer, 1995). Email was used as a written tool to convey ideas and converting the writing into social activities. Underwood (1987) suggested using a Spanish Email for conversation students to practice and found its positive points. Kroonenberg (as cited in Liaw, 1998, p.238) for developing learner interaction and skills used Email system.

Research shows the reformative feedback of using Email on native speakers who learn second language (Sotillo, 1997). There is a quasi-experimental study by Kalaja and Leppanen (1995) which compared learners' feedback outside of the class in their written work through Email with the teacher's feedback on paper. Based on a content-based Email project, a group of English-speaking students who were French at an American university were compared with a group of high school students in France; results showed that language learning was facilitate through international interaction and communication (Kern, 1996).

The use of Email system for foreign language between cultures has expanded rapidly during the past decades. Electronic mail writing has become popular quickly. It was found that the performance of Email writing helps to teachers to gather individual students for communicating with native speakers and second language learners around the world. To take benefits of language learning via Email writing, second language teachers performed some projects for students of different languages. For example, in some studies scholars surveyed using Email for discussion among EFL students in Taiwan and English-speaking students in USA and found that communication between cultures facilitates learning the second language and promotes cultural understanding (Chang, 1992). Moreover, Cowan and Wong (1995) accomplished a project to interchange electronic message within students of City University of Hong Kong and Canadian high-school students. Researchers also organized this project between his elementary French students at the University of California, Berkeley, and a history class in France. Ham (1995) unified a German conversation and composition for under graduated university students and gave them a chance to use their language skills to show cultural perspectives. Goodwin, Hamrick and Stewart (as cited in Liaw, 1998, p.337), supplied a preface in language development and culture arrangement by Email for a group of Latin America's researchers before their entering into the USA. There also were some experiments between Harvard University and the University of Pittsburgh, and between Stanford University and the University of Pittsburgh (Barson, Frommer, & Schwartz, 1993).

D. The Role of the Computers on Language Learners Communication

Computer mediated interaction provide students a good chance for control and initiative in second language learning (Roberts, Turbee, & Warschauer, 1996). Using computer media by teachers and learners is effective in process of second language learning (Pennington, 1989). Bruce and Educorp (as cited in Liaw, 1998, p.335) have also reported that, computer media was used as a students learning tool. It has been used in the classes as a new tool to facilitate communicative competence of second language students (Lowry, Koneman, & Osman Jouchoux, 1994). Researchers investigated the role of computer network in the language classes that it was operated by microcomputer and also use for the concept of communicative competence, the notional/functional syllabi, and language teaching methodologies based on the Communicative Approach (Tell & Kelm, as cited in Liaw, 1998, p. 336). Survey showed that network computers can improve students writing skills (Hertel, 2003).

Kroonenberg (1995) claim that second language learners, who were shy and lacked confidence in speaking in class can express themselves by using computer media. Certainly these learners become motivated to participate in future discussions on the same topics. One of Keln's (1992) students mentioned about advantage of computer media "I think I participated 100 times more during the (electronic discussion) interchange than (orally) in class. Believe it or not, I really do not like to speak up in class. I'll bet my other professors think I'm a mute" (p. 444).

Computer networks can be used by second language learners who are restricted because of some barriers such as age, economic problems, age, and gender, have to learn language at home via computer media (Selfe, 1990). But before anything else, second language learners should be learned how to use all important computers features (Roberts, Turbee, & Warschauer, 1996). Despite social networks, like computer media, cannot solve all learning problems in the short time (Hiltz, 1990), this literature review shows that using social networks such as Facebook, Email, and computer media would eliminate most of barriers in learning second languages.

III. CONCLUSION

This paper has reviewed a number of social media which are used to develop language learning out of the class. New technologies have been introduced so that language learners can implement them in and out of their classes to improve their language ability, especially in terms of writing. Based on the studies conducted by many scholars, it was realized that Facebook has had the most significant effect on second language learning. Learners can improve their learning skills. Some studies determined that Email to a lesser extent has positive effect on the learning process and has had the greatest impact on writing skills. However, personal computers have not satisfied learners' expectations about second language learning; they have had an impact on self-centered learning to reform their mistakes in learning process.

Despite different opinion about the benefits of these media to English learning, the analytical results show that most second language learners approved of English learning via the Internet tools and their positive effect on learning skills. Most of them emphasize social media's effective roles on the writing skill. Social network platforms are mentioned as innovative and creative ways to learn English as a second language. Although some bodies of research disclose some

weaknesses of these technological tools, they can be used to their language skills provided that teachers give the required feedback.

IV. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

It is recommended that further research has to improvise tools and techniques to focus on factors to develop the other learning skills like listening via social networks. Facebook or Email should be considered as an internalized environment. Therefore, students should always be encouraged to have interaction to each other and also their teachers. Also there should be a section for oral conversation in a group in conference form to focus on listening and speaking.

Further studies should concentrate on the role of the learners' age and gender on the quality of learning second language in various societies. Also, it should be born in mind to contemplate on other social media so that teachers can motivate their learners to learn second language incidentally. Moreover, there should be some instruments so that language learners can measure their English knowledge through online tools. According to Prensky (1998), "We must get our teachers – hard as it may be in some cases to stop lecturing, and start allowing students to learn by themselves" (p. 3).

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A Research on Using English Movies to Improve Chinese College Students' Oral English

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Abstract—The current English teaching can not meet the needs of the Chinese students to quickly improve their ability of English speaking, the use of English movie teaching model shows its unique advantages in this field. Based on the study of language input hypothesis, output Hypothesis and language social communication theory, the author puts English movie into the English teaching activities. By using movies in the English class, Chinese college students can improve their listening and speaking skills, they can enlarge their vocabulary knowledge and they can even make their pronunciation and intonation better.

Index Terms—English movie teaching, oral English training, teaching tips

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, with the deepening development of college English teaching, traditional teaching methods cannot satisfy the demand of the present English teaching. To reform the traditional teaching methods, namely, emphasis on language teaching, grammar, vocabulary, using modern means of teaching and cultivating students' English application ability has become a new trend of college English teaching reformation. Language learning is different from the learning of other subjects, it has a strong practical feature and it depends on the learning materials and learning atmosphere greatly, it is in need of more situational learning. At present, the biggest problem for English learners is the lack of authentic English language environment. What they have gotten is the abstract language knowledge, not for actually communication, which has caused the imbalance of language input and output.

Speaking, undoubtedly becomes the most important factor to Chinese College students who learn English as a foreign language. Krashen (S Krashen, 1985) puts forward the "input hypothesis" theory in his second language acquisition theory. Krashen (S Krashen, 1985) points out that the formation of acquisition is on the basis of Comprehensible Input, and the input has been able to be understood by the help of a Context. Swain (Swain, 1995) proposed the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. He points out that although the comprehensible input in language learning is essential, but it is not the only means the students need. She thinks that in second language acquisition, if the learners only rely on language comprehensible input which couldn't ensure they can speak accurately and fluently in communication. So they also need the comprehensible output. MacWhinney (MacWhinney, 2001) pointed that from language input to output, we need absorption. Absorption is a selective process between the target language input and learner inter language rules system, the understanding of the language input is not equal to the absorption, deep processing of language input is conducive to better absorption.

So the theory of modern foreign language teaching believes that language learning is a process of input, absorption and output. That is, let the learner to contact with the large quantity of understandable language first, then through the communicative situation and context specifics to understand the meaning and then use it. By using English movies in English listening and speaking teaching emphasizes the language input, also stressed the importance of language output. English movies are available for a full range of language input by the appreciation of plot and the subtitles which can be used for reading. The real context will help students in a natural communication environment in language learning, also to enable students have a deeper understanding by using the corresponding English language, then put what they have learned in English movie like words, sentences, proverbs and so on into following language communication. So by using the English movies in the English class can create a good English learning environment, Chinese College students can improve their listening and speaking skills, they can enlarge their vocabulary knowledge and they can even make their pronunciation and intonation better. It is new concept of College English teaching, a kind of method to promote the reformation of College English teaching. Rose (Rose, K., 2001) believes that the excellent training effect of using English movies on listening and speaking teaching is clearly, English movies are the ideal teaching materials which should be fully used in English teaching. So English teachers must seriously consider the issue on how to use the original English movie to improve Students' oral English in class.

II. THE ROLES OF ENGLISH MOVIES IN CHINESE COLLEGE STUDENTS' ORAL ENGLISH LEARNING

In 1932, The association of British geography announced that they began to use 200 projectors to carry out teaching in geography class in primary and secondary schools in the UK, that is the establishment of the embryonic form of movie teaching. In 1934, the British movie Association advocated that use the movie teaching in history, science, physics, etc.. In 1956, the British Modern Language Association introduced the movie teaching into the language teaching for the first time. At the end of the 1980s, Tuffs and Tudor (Tuffs,R., Tudor,L.,1990) introduced movie teaching into English teaching, which is as the second language teaching. Then, the movie teaching has been widely used in the teaching of second language and foreign language teaching. The biggest advantage of using movie in teaching is to provide a context for the discussion and communication of each kind of imaginative themes, because the movie theme presented auditory and visual pictures, even with limited English, students also can understand what happened. And college English teaching practice has proved that English movie, with its unique culture, and authenticity, plays a special role in teaching English speaking, no matter as a means of teaching or a kind of teaching content. we can get better effect than using the other teaching methods such as multimedia slides, tape recorders.

A. To Stimulate Students' Interest in Learning

Interest is the best teacher. Once the learning interest has formed, it will enable students to produce a strong desire to learn actively. The theory of cognitive psychology speaking, combining the images with words accords with the law of cognition and language learning. Lucantonio's (Lucantonio, D., 2000) experimental results show that students have great interests in teaching by movies. In the traditional college English listening and speaking class, teachers always put a recording in English first, then let the students listen and answer the questions according to the tape, or assign the students to make up and practice situational dialogue according to the giving scenario design. This kind of teaching mode is too dull, students' enthusiasm in participating will be reduced after a long time. But the movie, as a special audio-visual media, it can make the information rich and colorful and to become a kind of vivid image by combining the sound with image, the language information and specific situation. Combining with visual input and auditory input, using movies in teaching can mobilize students to receive information in a variety of sensory ways, then make a comprehensive understanding of language information. And combining the visual and auditory together effectively can help students do the efficient and meaningful knowledge construction activities, so as to promote the development of their comprehensive ability. Also, the authentic context and rich story in English movies can fully arouse the students' interests to capture and understand language information actively, then let students have enough confidence to listen, to see, to understand, and finally to motivate their learning desire and interest in learning. Therefore, by the rich and vivid content in English movies, we can not only stimulate students interest in learning and enjoy it, but also improve the efficiency of learning, make the classroom atmosphere become actively.

B. To Help the Students to Improve the Level of English Speaking

There has been created a very favorable language environment for Chinese College students to have a deeper understanding, control effectively and use flexibly of English by English movies. Benson (Benson, V., 1993) points out that compared with traditional teaching, teaching by movies meet the acquisition conditions which proposed in input hypothesis theory. In the movie materials, there are many characteristics like the authenticity of language, lying in daily life, and providing a large number of input of real target language for the learners. In the movie teaching, by using the picture and caption, we can change the target language which has a higher level into a kind of language input the learners can understand easily. In appreciation of English movie, students can hear the authentic language in authentic English environment, and mostly the story are based on real life, while watching the movie, students may have the feeling of be personally on the scene and then make the language learning in the real communication context like to repeat the language of movie characters, to imitate the speaker's tone and so on, in fact, it is the process of language acquisition. English in English original movie is kind of real spoken English, it is originally and sound beautiful. English original movies provide the best English material for students to practice speaking, which is the most direct and effective method in learning a language. Therefore, teachers can provide a rich, vivid image of the material by English movies to cultivate and improve students' English level and ability in oral English.

C. To Help Students to Understand the American Culture and Background Knowledge

Learning a foreign language is not only to master the pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and sentence patterns, but also to further understand its culture, because language is the carrier of culture, learning a language is a process of learning its culture. Therefore, an important part of college English teaching is of the Anglo American culture and background knowledge learning. English movies, showing the English national culture from multi angle and multi-level, and providing the corresponding cultural background knowledge, it is the most vivid and intuitive reflect on the social and cultural life of a country and the nation. For example, "Forest Gump", reflects the Vietnam War, peace talks, the sixties American students' movement, racial discrimination and many other background knowledge. Therefore, watching English movies can help students deeply understand the English national way of thinking, customs, historical tradition and other aspects of the background knowledge, feel the culture differences between the East and the west, and enhance the cross-cultural awareness of their language using, that is we cannot get in the traditional classroom teaching in English.

Thus, it can help to make up for the traditional college English teaching deficiencies by English movies, it integrated the English listening, speaking, reading and other basic skills training to create a real English environment, make the student practice the pure voice in more authentic language environment.

III. SOME ISSUES SHOULD BE NOTICED IN SELECTION OF ENGLISH MOVIE IN TEACHING ENGLISH SPEAKING

Using English movies in teaching English speaking is one of the comprehensive training methods of students' spoken English and other related ability. But the choice of teaching material determines the quality of teaching effect. So from the teaching theory and teaching practice perspective, the selection of the movies is the key, some issues should be paid attention in the choice of English movies:

A. *A Large Amount of Dialogues Is Needed in English Movies*

There are various English movies covered an enormous variety of topics, but not all movies are suitable for the spoken English teaching. At present, commercial natures are appeared in many English movies, their pursuit of actions and rich backgrounds lead to less dialogues. But we need the clear pronunciation and better content in an English movie which can be used in the speaking English teaching, so that it can make the students learn the pronunciation and intonation, words and expressions. So in the choice of English movies, in order to imitate we can choose those dialogues are more pure, slower and the plots are more simple and characters vividly, it can help attract the attention of students, at the same time, some classical movies can reflect social customs, the Anglo American Humanities, social and cultural life, historical figures and events and so on, those are suitable as the teaching materials in the speaking English teaching.

B. *Content Should Be Healthy*

The current English movies are uneven in content, the basis of choosing English movies should be the positive outlook on life and world, those promoting violence, pornography or horror should be excluded, because students can edify sentiment from the movies which have positive topics, but the movies are full of violence and pornography may make people fall into a wrong path. According to the students' age, interest, cognitive level, learning objectives, existing problems, teachers should choose some movies which reflect the friendship, integrity, optimistic, brave and human feelings and social reality etc. for students to appreciate and learn. At the same time, the theme of English movies mostly are about love, war, police etc., the inconsistencies and difference of values between the Western and China may cause impact on students, so teachers should remind students to do critical study.

C. *Length Should Be Moderate, and the Level of Language Difficulty Should Be from Easy to Difficult*

There is limited in college English speaking class, so in the choice of movie, teachers should pay attention to the movie's length. Teaching effect will be influenced if the students produce such feelings as fatigue and boredom for speed faster and long boring movie. Therefore, according to different types of movies, the time controlling should be different, such as documentary should be controlled in 60 minutes, story in 90 minutes. At the same time, the difficulty of dialogues directly affects the spoken teaching effect, the breakthrough point of students' speaking ability are those simple and wonderful movie clips. So there should be a difficulty gradient in the selection of movies, at the beginning teachers can choose some English movies with simple plots and clear pronunciation to share with students, such as: "The sound of music", "Love Story" etc.. Then later teachers can choose some movies with fast talking, complex plots. A selection of movies should always be accompanied by a certain challenge, so as to enable students to learn, and maintain student interest in exploring new knowledge.

In a word, teachers should select the movies which are close to the college life and can reflect the flavor of the times such as romance, drama, war movies, science fiction, the disaster piece, crime movies, epic themes, etc. which covering education, family, marriage, love, inspirational life, philosophy of life theme. Those movies including *Forest Gump*, *Dead Poets Society*, *The Graduate*, *Kramer VS Kramer*, *Scent of a Woman*, *Philadelphia*, *The Shaw shank Redemption*, *Casablanca*, *2012*, *A Beautiful Mind*, *Mona Lisa Smile*, *The Great Gatsby*, *The Pursuit of Happiness*, *Big Fish*, *A Walk in the Clouds*, *Pride and Prejudice*, *Sleepless in Seattle* and so on.

IV. DESIGNING OF CLASS TEACHING

When using English movies in English classes, the teacher's role should be a designer or a leader. Watching English original movies is not just refer to the learning process is that teachers playing and students watching. In order to fulfill the original movie language's teaching advantages and cultivate students' oral English ability, the teachers must design specific teaching activities well.

A. *Preparation*

Prepare English movies for the spoken English teaching is not just say the teachers to watch the movie from A to Z, but to determine the key in the teaching, that is to prepare the relevant information such as movie related words and pictures, cultural background, character introduction, the outline of the story, wonderful dialogue etc. before class, and classify the involved information such as slang, words, expressions so that to give explanation to students before class,

at the same time, design activities such as fill in the blanks or choice questions according to the movies plot in advance in order to examine the students' understanding of the main idea and details of the movie. Meanwhile, teachers should also ask students to search for relevant information in advance. For example, before watching the *Forest Gump*, the teacher can let the students search for relevant information including history, politics, diplomacy, music in the United States and even the American values and other aspects.

B. Before Watching

Before watching the movie, teachers need to introduce movie -relevant information including background, history, location, main character profiles to the students, to help students to grasp the outline of the story, and then give some clues about the content where they should pay attention to, make a moderate explanation on slang, the key vocabulary and expressions in order to help student to overcome the obstacles in the following speaking activities. Teachers should play the leading role in teaching activities to guide the students to understand the movie language and culture effectively. At the same time, according to the plot teachers can design some problems appropriately, or ask students to prepare a good speech after watching, such as to summarize the outline of the story, or sketch the character's image and interpret the cultural phenomenon, let the students to watch movies with problems, they will focus on the movies and find clues to the related problem, which is convenient for students to grasp the key.

C. During Watching

Due to the limited time in classroom teaching activity, teachers can let the students to watch the whole movie for the first time to understand the movie content. During watching the movie, teachers should ask students pay attention to vocabulary learning, but not "the word on the word". And teachers need to introduce historical background, plot summary and the relationship between the characters, point out language difficulties, which helps students to understand the story and dialogue better. Finished the first time, the teachers can find out classic clips as the speaking material to watch repeatedly, then let the students to imitate, or do some dictation about the dialogue which has a moderate speeding so that the students will learn the language efficiently. Finally, students should not merely understand the surface meaning, but to see the essence through the phenomena, to excavate the profound cultural connotation from the language so that to achieve the supreme state of listening and speaking of foreign knowledge learning.

D. After Watching

Watching a movie is not the final purpose, but to improve students' oral English application ability. After watching, teachers should design some colorful classroom activities, to mobilize the enthusiasm of students to participate in classroom discussions and put what they have learnt into usage. That is the key point of playing and watching a film in English class. For example, in order to improve the writing ability teachers can require students to rewrite the story or write the reviews or their own feelings, analyze the main characters etc.. Also let the students to recite the classic dialogue, then organize students to play a character according to movie can stimulate the students' desire to perform greatly, teachers should seize the chance to encourage and appreciate their enthusiasm in order to practice oral English. In addition to watching movie s and imitating the dialogue, learn to sing some well-known classical songs can also help students to practice their pronunciation and intonation better.

V. SOME PROBLEMS MAY EXIST IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING BY USING MOVIES

A. Possible Problems

As it is known to all that everything has two sides, there are some problems may exist by using English movies in college English teaching, also. First of all, the teachers may have to spend a lot of time preparing the English movie class, because on the one hand, there are no available textbook on English movie teaching, teachers have to select a suitable movie by themselves. On the other hand, English movie itself contains a lot of its country's history and culture, which lead in teachers have to watch one movie over and over again to search for the related useful information. Then teacher's burden is much heavier than before. Secondly, watching an English movie is not for entertainment but act as a tool of learning English, students need some related exercises to consolidate what they have learnt in the movie. If there is no proper exercises, students' attention may be paid much to the film they watched is whether the hero is handsome or if the female leading role's clothing is fashionable or not and so on, in a word, all are the things that have nothing to do with language learning. So the teachers need to devise the match exercises, which is the hardest part in a class activity. And what's more, for the different language level, some students may rely on the subtitle translation too deeply, or some students may be too relaxed to forget the purpose and aim of watching the movie in class, then they can't achieve the purpose of practicing their speaking skills, so the how to devise the class teaching procedure is another difficult point to the teacher.

B. The Solutions to the Problems

In order to fulfill the superiority of English movie in teaching, besides choosing an appropriate movie and devising the match related exercises, teachers also should adopt varied teaching methods, such as to consider both the recreation

and students' English level and capacity of acceptance when selecting a film. And we know attitude decides everything, but some students do not treat playing an English movie seriously, they think it is just a way of relax. Especially, some teachers just play it and then they let it go. So it is important to converse both teachers and students' attitude, let them aware the importance of using a movie in English teaching. Only when they have a right attitude to English movies teaching could it fulfill its advantages. What's more, as the leader and designer of the class, teachers should design class activities well so that to fulfill the original film language's teaching advantages, to cultivate students' comprehensive language ability, to understand and digest the knowledge in the film, and at last to practice students' oral English.

VI. CONCLUSION

In the new century, the traditional teaching way of concentrating on offering the basic knowledge and skills of a language via transfer of grammatical knowledge and explanation of vocabulary usages couldn't meet the society's need, so it has gradually been replaced by the more modern effective means and methods. In the college English teaching, create the best learning environment is very important in practicing oral English, English movie could help English teaching and learning, because it is based on the features of language learning and teaching, taking culture background into consideration. So using English movies in teaching is an effective teaching method which provides students with a better carrier, to enable students to learn the language in a real language environment and find out the cultural differences between Chinese and Western, then students' motivation can be aroused, and flexibility in real occasions will be cultivated. therefore enhancing the ability of foreign language communication and application.

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The Impact of Teacher Scaffolding on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learner's Listening Comprehension Achievement

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Abstract—Among various aspects of effective instruction, scaffolding is an important concept that helps language teachers to consider the context of language learning. Teachers need to focus on strategies that are appropriate to different kinds of listening techniques and to consider the proficiency level of their students. The current investigation attempted to determine the impact of teacher scaffolding on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, 60 intermediate learners (including 30 male and 30 female) were chosen from a language institute and divided in two groups. Hogan and Pressley's (1997) guidelines were used in order to incorporate scaffolding techniques throughout their lessons. The results confirmed the significant impact of teacher scaffolding on listening achievement in male and female EFL learners. Additionally, by considering gender, it was shown that there was no relationship between gender and listening achievement through teacher scaffolding.

Index Terms—teacher scaffolding, listening comprehension, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Among the four skills in English language learning, listening plays the most important role in communication in real life: According to Feyten (1991), listening provides more than 45% of our total communication ability. However, in a foreign language (FL) context, learners do not sufficiently observe this foreign language. More effective teaching techniques are necessary.

When instructors design listening tasks, they have to consider how to enable learners to be more conscious of their listening comprehension. Rost (2002) claims that "if language instructors can successfully incorporate clear noticing steps into tasks, learners can then accelerate their learning and make breakthroughs in listening ability" (p.21-22). Thus, it is necessary for instructors to design activities that enhance language awareness via listening strategies and good support.

Various researches suggest that good language learners have an awareness of strategies and are also aware of more strategies than less successful learners (Goh, 2008; Mmendelson, 1998). Effective listeners listen more selectively: they use background knowledge and look for answers to specific questions.

Some researchers argue that it can be effective to use a direct or explicit teaching technique that raises learner awareness such as introducing strategies individually, while others (e.g., Field, 2008) argue that this approach demands more time than is generally available in classrooms. However, teaching strategies is still considered an important part of a listening program (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). According to Vandergrift and Goh, (2012), "the lack of guidance on how learners can self-direct and evaluate their efforts to improve their listening makes problem for learners" (p. 5).

Scaffolding is an instructional technique that teachers can use in order to make the context of learning more understandable to the learners. As Maybin, Mercer & Stierer (1992) believes, scaffolding is to help a child to do a task which they cannot do lonely. In classrooms, EFL students need support structure that provides them with opportunities to learn English in meaningful contexts.

The role of the teacher is very important, as the teacher not only guides the students through the stages of listening, but also motivates them to feel autonomy in learning by scaffolding techniques.

Considering significance of the above-mentioned discussion on scaffolding and its significance in terms of providing opportunities for meaningful learning, in the present study, the researcher tried to adopt some teacher's support principles underlying scaffolding techniques as a guide for the help or support in the course of three phases (pre-while-post) of listening provided to intermediate EFL learners in Iran during the process of developing their listening comprehension skills. Accordingly, the following research questions were formulated in order to be answered:

1. Are there any meaningful differences between listening comprehension achievement of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners who are taught through scaffolding and those who are taught without any scaffolding?

2. Does gender have any significant effect on listening comprehension achievement through teacher scaffolding among Iranian EFL learners?

Due to the nature of the research questions of this study, the formal statements of the hypotheses were provided as the following:

1. Teacher scaffolding has no significant effect on listening comprehension of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners.
2. Gender has no meaningful effect on listening comprehension achievement via teacher scaffolding among Iranian Intermediate EFL learners.

II. BACKGROUND

As has been earlier claimed, more than 50 percent of the students' time in a language class, is allocated to listening (Nunan, 1998). In spite of this, listening is usually not paid enough attention to, and it is usually ignored.

More recently, both psychologists and educationalists have suggested the use scaffolding strategy by teachers so that sensitive and active support will be provided for learners during the process of learning. According to Mercer (1995, p. 75) scaffolding, requires "the provision of guidance and support which is increased or withdrawn in response to the developing competence of the learner". It appears that scaffolding requires 1) the teacher's involvement in the learner's learning, 2) an active learner, and 3) a challenging learning task which requires particular support from the teacher in order for the learner to complete the task. Scaffolding and its significance can be discussed from different aspects, namely psychological, cognitive, and pedagogical aspects. From the psychological perspective, when learners understand that they can do a task without help, their self-confidence enhances.

From the other cognitive perspective, when students can not solve a problem without support on the part of teacher, Cognitive Scaffolding provides the necessary support. It can also have some pedagogical value, as Hammond (2001, p. 60) describes it, in terms of helping teachers to "know when and how to intervene and take an informed and active role in guiding students' learning as they come to terms with new ideas and concepts". The above-mentioned needs the teacher to provide a plan at different levels. Teachers can take advantage of scaffolding from different perspectives while they are helping their students to do tasks in any of the four skills.

In spite of the fact that listening is a basic skill in first language acquisition and is crucial in English as Second/ Foreign Language learning, using the special strategies to teach listening strategies by the learners, and applying these techniques by the teachers, is ignored. Not much research has been conducted on the impact of scaffolding on listening comprehension. However, research about peer scaffolding in L2 writing constitutes the greatest amount of research in the field of EFL teaching and learning. (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Storch, 2002, 2005, 2007; Shehadeh, 2011).

Gerakopoulou (2011) investigated the instances of scaffolding strategies applied in the CLIL. The findings revealed that teachers tend to use different forms of body language and contextualizing to support their instruction especially with the younger learners. Another significant result of this research was that students' participation is encouraged and the teachers try to lead students to the production of the output mainly through the technique of elicitation.

In another study, Yami and Ahmed (2008) investigated the impact of scaffolding interactive activities in developing the English listening comprehension skills of sixth grade elementary schoolgirls in Jeddah. The results showed that the scaffolded activities can have a positive impact on listening comprehension of six graders in Jeddah.

Bruch (2007) investigated the scaffolding techniques among ten students in reading and writing. The study revealed that scaffolding was an effective means to help students become confident and independent.

The above studies emphasize that using scaffolding in teaching in general and in teaching English as a foreign in particular was very useful. The present study is meant to be another emphasis to be put on the utilization of scaffolding in teaching listening comprehension tasks. To the knowledge of the researcher of the study at hand, not many studies to date have been conducted to measure the degree to which teacher scaffolding activities in view of gender differences affect listening comprehension achievement by Iranian EFL learners. Thus, this study was an attempt to contribute to the existing body of knowledge in this field and fill this gap. Based on these assumptions, the present research is an attempt to investigate the impact of teacher's scaffolding techniques on the listening comprehension.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A sample of 60 out of 100 male and female intermediate EFL students studying at Daneshpajooan Higher Education Institute was selected non-randomly by applying an Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). Based on the test scoring level chart, those whose scores in the test were between 30 and 46 were considered as the intermediate-level participants of this study. Then they were divided into two groups, one as experimental group ($n=30$ 15 male & 15 female) and the other one as control group ($n=30$ 15 male & 15 female).

B. Instruments

The instruments which were used in this study, included an Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT), the learner's course book *Developing Tactics for listening* (Richards 2005) accompanied with the test booklet *Developing tactics for listening test booklet*, Hutchins and Richards (2004), scaffolding techniques based on Hogan and Pressley general

guidelines and a listening test developed by researcher based on the final listening test which exists in teacher's book, accessible for teachers and test booklet (Developing tactics for listening test booklet, second edition). This test served as pre-test and post-test (with a change in item arrangement). Data for pre-test and post-test was collected over an eight-week span.

Two experienced co-workers and a supervisor proved the content validity of the listening comprehension test. Besides, since this test was developed as the final test of the book, it must be valid and reliable. The test was piloted studied on 20 language learners to determine the reliability of the tests. The results of Cronbach's alpha analysis showed that the test was reliable ($r = 0.68$).

C. Procedure

The experimental group was presented with scaffolding activities in class by the instructor while the control group was taught with no scaffolding help on the part of the instructor.

The collected data were coded into and analyzed by SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 16). In order to test the homogeneity of the participants in terms of their listening comprehension, an independent sample t-test was run. Then, to check the possible role of gender, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. The Differences in the Scores of the Scaffolding and Non-scaffolding Learners

After twenty sessions of treatment on the control group, the post-test was given and the following results were obtained:

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE LISTENING POST-TEST BETWEEN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

VAR0001	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1	30	61.6000	19.44151	3.54952
2	30	72.0000	19.35156	3.53309

Based on the descriptive statistics presented in table 1, in the post- test the mean score for difference for experimental group is 72 and that of control group is 61. That is a mean difference of 11 which is significant.

B. The Effect on Listening Comprehension Achievement through Teacher Scaffolding

According to the second hypothesis of the present research gender has no significant effect on improving listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners through teacher scaffolding. The means results of the pre and post-tests for the participants of control and experimental groups are summarized based on their gender in table 2.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS PERFORMANCE IN LISTENING POST TEST BASED ON THEIR GENDER
VAR00002

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
CGF	15	56.5333	23.26821	6.00783	43.6478	69.4188	18.00	87.00
CGM	15	66.6667	13.65737	3.52632	59.1035	74.2299	46.00	86.00
EGF	15	66.7333	22.89250	5.91082	54.0559	79.4108	29.00	96.00
EGM	15	77.2667	13.86396	3.57966	69.5891	84.9443	56.00	98.00
Total	60	66.8000	19.93362	2.57342	61.6506	71.9494	18.00	98.00

(CGF= Control Group Female)

(CGM= Control Group Male)

(EGF= Experimental Group Female)

(EGM= Experimental Group, Males)

As table 2 displays, posttest means in experimental group for males is 77.26 and for females equals 66.73. The mean score for males in control group is 66.66 and that for females in control group is 56.53. So a difference in posttest means of both males and females in experimental group is obvious.

At this point, in order to compare the performance of both genders in both groups and to see if the difference between them is statistically significant or not, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run on the results of the post-test. Table 3 represents the results.

TABLE 3.
ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON THE POST-TEST OF MALES AND FEMALES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

VAR00002	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3224.667	3	1074.889	2.977	.039
Within groups	20218.933	56	361.052		
Total	23443.600	59			

As it can be seen, the significant value is smaller than .05 ($.039 < .05$), so it can be claimed that the mean scores of the post-tests for the four sub groups were significantly different. However, due to the fact that an ANOVA gives inferential statistics only about whether or not the groups differ; the source or place of the difference is still unknown. To find out where the difference had occurred, a post-hoc test on the results of ANOVA was run. Table 3 depicts the results of the post-hoc test as far as the source of difference is concerned.

V. DISCUSSION

Research question 1: *Are there any differences between listening comprehension achievement of the scaffolded and non-scaffolded learners?*

According to the data obtained from this study and the statistics and based on the treatment administered to the participants, it is obviously clear that teaching listening comprehension via teacher scaffolding techniques has a significant positive effect on enhancing listening ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

The reason for such findings may be due to the fact that scaffolding requires 1) the teacher to be involved the learning process of the learners. 2) the learner to be active, and 3) the learning task to be challenging which requires particular support from the teacher in order for the learner to complete the task. More active language teachers in class lead the learners to get along better in language learning classes. While it comes to a productive language skill such as writing, the influence becomes even more.

The results of this study support the study by O'Malley et al. (1985b). Also this study lends support to Thompson and Rubin's (1996) research.

The results of the present study are also in line with Chang and Read's (2007) findings about the impact of different types of listening support on low-level proficiency learners in EFL learning in Taiwan. The study found that input repetition was the most effective listening support, followed by visuals and text aids as supports.

In addition, Cross (2009) investigated the impact of listening strategies on EFL advance-level Japanese learners' comprehension in Australia. The results correspond with the findings of this study with regard to the positive relationship found between scaffolding techniques and listening comprehension.

As far as the researcher knows, no study has ever shown a negative relationship between scaffolding and the general outcomes of EFL classes. The justification for this may originate from the nature of scaffolding. Since scaffolding, as the name suggests, provides some kind of help to the learners, scaffolding instruction should be included into the EFL syllabus, teachers should try to match their teaching techniques with the students' zones of proximal development.

The results of the present research also are in line with a study that was run by Mehdian (2009) in which he exposed them to eight-week intervention (35 hours) after which they all sat for a posttest. The comparison between the The learners performed better on the posttest.

Research Question 2: *Does gender have any significant effect on listening comprehension achievement through teacher scaffolding among Iranian EFL learners?*

The second question of the current study shed light on the significant role that gender may have on listening comprehension achievement through teacher scaffolding on Iranian EFL learners. The post hoc test was utilized to locate the difference within and between groups. As the results suggested, the difference between males and females in their performance in listening tests, was not significant. Therefore it can be concluded that although the scaffolding techniques are an efficient way of teaching listening comprehension, both males and females do approximately the same in listening tests when they have been taught via scaffolding techniques.

Regarding gender, it should be taken into account that even though males in experimental and control groups outperformed their female counterparts, the difference between females and males was not so much significant. This means that planting teacher scaffolding techniques and practices in listening classes is an effective way for improving listening skill of Iranian EFL learners, regardless of gender and that improving listening achievement is not gender specific. Thus, it can be concluded that there was no meaningful interaction between gender, teacher scaffolding and listening ability of Iranian EFL learners.

Among few studies conducted in this regard is the study done by Yami and Ahmed (2008). In this study they investigated the impact of scaffolding interactive activities in developing the English listening comprehension skills of sixth grade elementary schoolgirls in Jeddah.

Finally, considering the above mentioned results of the present study and due to the results of the aforementioned studies, it can be concluded that, even though males in both groups of the study at hand represented a better results comparing to females, gender has no effect on listening achievement of Iranian EFL learners when they are taught using

the techniques of teacher scaffolding, and any observed difference may be related to the population under this experiment.

The findings of the study can also provide insights for university language professors by demonstrating the role of one of the techniques used in listening classes, namely, scaffolding. This way the Iranian professors may come to know how to teach the instructional materials relating listening, and how to improve listening ability of students who have majored in English and are of dichotomous genders, as the present study has made a distinction among male and female students.

At the end he concluded that the proposed scaffolded interactive activities were very effective in developing the listening comprehension skills of sixth grade elementary schoolgirls in Jeddah.

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Learner Autonomy: Investigating Iranian English Teachers' Beliefs

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Abstract—Learner autonomy is a key element in language learning process which enables the learners to act more effectively. It is necessary to investigate English language teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy to be able to promote it in language learning situation. The purpose of this study was to investigate Iranian English teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy. To do this, 35 English teachers were selected to answer the question items in a questionnaire. The collected data were analyzed and interpreted in the form of percentage level for related items and questions. The results of the study showed that teachers are familiar with the concept of learner autonomy and believe that it has essential role in effective language learning.

Index Terms—learner autonomy, teachers' beliefs, autonomous learning, effective learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of learner autonomy has been a key area of research in foreign language (FL) teaching in recent years. There are a lot of remarks about the rationale for its promotion and its implications for language teaching and learning. Some scholars like CamilleriGrima, 2007 and Palfreyman, 2003 claim that it improves the language learning quality and makes individuals ready for learning during their life. It is also argued that it helps learners to use learning opportunities inside and outside the classroom in a best way.

We are now more familiar with the complicated nature of learner autonomy and of the learner and learning process with the work in language learning in the last half of the century. Research in different related areas to learning process such as multiple intelligences, individual learning styles, strategies, motivation and cognition have provided us with the knowledge about different factors that influence learners and their way of learning. Furthermore, with the development of learner-centered classrooms, students were given opportunity to become active participants in the learning process, make decisions about the learning objectives and materials and the evaluation process, therefore they started to move toward becoming independent and autonomous learners.

Teachers ought to help their students realize and develop the skills which allow them to have control of their own learning and be able to use what they have learned outside the classroom, when the teacher is not present for help. However; language teachers' have been somehow ignored in these areas of research, and their attitudes and beliefs about learner autonomy is actually not known. There is a significant gap about the influence that teachers' beliefs have on how they teach and in particular, on whether and how they search for promoting learner autonomy. The purpose of this study was to investigate English language teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy, so to be able to investigate this area we need to define some key terms first and then begin our work of teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many researches have been done about the concept of learner autonomy in literature (for example Dang, 2012, Summer, 2010, Chitashvili, 2007) but few have dealt with the teachers' perspectives and beliefs on learner autonomy and what it means for language teachers, especially for English language teachers. English as a foreign language (EFL) has been taught for many years in different countries which it is not their native language. In this context it gains more importance because the language teachers may not be native speakers of English, so there is a need to train teachers who are capable of dealing with this special issue. Learner autonomy is an important element in foreign language learning which helps both teachers and learners become more efficient participants in learning process.

A. Definitions of Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy has its root in the concept of autonomy and freedom in philosophy and the work by the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project in the early 1980s. It has many definitions regarding different aspects of language learning but the original definition was the one given by Holec, 1981, as "the ability to have responsibility of one's own learning" (Dang, 2012).

Cited in Barillaro (2011), Holec (1981) argues that learner autonomy is generally defined as ‘the ability to take charge of one’s own learning’. This concept of learner autonomy is broadly used; however, providing an accurate and acceptable definition of it is not simple. Teachers and learners have different backgrounds and learning experiences and different views on the process of learning, so they will have different interpretations of learner autonomy. It is clear that learner autonomy can have different meaning for people in several cultures because of difference in beliefs. It is possible to reach to a definition of learner autonomy by using cooperation and discussion between all elements that are involved in the learning process (i.e. teacher, learner and educational institution), together with suggestions for classroom implication appropriate to the local context.

Learner autonomy has some bases on theories of language learning, one is that when learners are involved in the decision making process on their language competence, they will be more interested in learning and it will be more purposeful for them. Research shows that learners are more motivated and self-determined when they have control of their learning. So for the development of learner autonomy in language classroom, students must get involved in decision making about the learning (Balçkanlı, 2010). Learner independence in the literature is considered as counterpart of successful language learning. Autonomous learners are learners who can overcome the obstacles to the learning related to educational and cultural background and their previous experiences. The amount of independence that is when learners feel comfortable is a main indicator that they are ready for autonomy (Cotterall, 1995).

B. Social and Personal Demand for Learner Autonomy

In investigating different aspects of learner autonomy, we should pay attention to the need and necessity for its development. There are some social and personal demands: The College English Teaching Syllabus (1999) defined that teachers should help their students become autonomous learners to promote language sense, to attain proper language learning methods and to better self-learning abilities. Furthermore, in today’s modern world which technology, science, economy and culture are changing rapidly and almost everyone needs new knowledge about the new coming things, autonomous learning is a very significant requirement. In such a developing society, if one does not keep up-to-date by achieving high educational degree, he/she will definitely left behind. In the world of changes, the successful learner is considered a person who can gain knowledge directly from life experience rather than class instruction. So people need to learn the necessary skills to deal with the globalization and dynamism of the world that has evidence for necessity of language learning (Wang, 2011).

In addition to social demands, there are personal demands for career and life development. Studying a number of skills in university or any other educational occasion does not provide the learner for life, he/she needs to experience new things and learn continuously to complete himself/herself for future life situations. Thus, people must have parallel development in all kind of skills and new patterns of life together. When the learner is aware of self-learning in the absence of the teacher, he/she will be more qualified on the social life. (Wang, 2011)

C. Definitions of Autonomous Learning

Henri Holec (1981) first introduced the concept of autonomous learning in foreign language teaching (Zhuang, 2010). He states that learner autonomy is the learner’s ability to control his/her own learning and make use of appropriate learning strategies for setting objectives, choosing the content of learning, finding methods, monitoring the process of learning and self-evaluating (Zhuang, 2010). Hence, we can say that learners should realize that success in learning relies on the student as on the teacher. We must develop a sense of responsibility among learners and encourage them to have active role in the process of their learning to foster learner autonomy. (Scharle, Szabo, 2000)

D. Autonomy in the Classroom

There are three main pedagogical principles that emphasize autonomy in language learning, they are: learner involvement (taking learners to have responsibility for the learning process), learner reflection (encouraging critical thinking about planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning) and expedient use of target language (using the target language as the essential means of language learning). Autonomous learners realize their learning program goals, take the responsibility for their learning, take part in the process of activity planning and monitor and evaluate its effectiveness (Najeeb, 2013). Recent approaches for teaching like task-based language teaching admit that being autonomous learners of foreign language is a key purpose of this approaches and take it into account when they want to design their frameworks (Errey&Schollaert 2007). Kumaravadivelu (1994) in introducing his notion of post-method argues that language learning to a large extent is autonomous activity emphasizing learner autonomy as a very essential element in the process of learning. It involves teaching learners how to learn and how to use learning strategies, raising their consciousness and help them self-direct their learning (Summer, 2010).

E. Learner Autonomy and the Teacher

In the development of learner autonomy teachers’ and learners’ perspectives and beliefs are fundamental. Benson (2008) argues that from teachers’ point of view learner autonomy is mainly related to institutional and classroom learning arrangements within definite educational programs. What autonomy means for teacher should be defined in the classroom for the learners (Barillaro, 2011).

The learning process involves not only learners but also an interactional relationship between students and teachers and we should examine these participants, their characteristics, perspectives and expectations in order to explore the in-teraction (Devine, 1999). Benson (2008) argues that teacher has a very essential role in the development of learner au-tonomy (Barillaro, 2011). Teachers have to create an atmosphere that supports learner autonomy and raise their awareness of independent learning. They also should state their beliefs about teaching and learner autonomy.

In autonomous learning, teacher does not have the only role of knowledge transferor, they also have the roles of consultant and facilitator who provide psychological, social and technical support for their learners (Zhuang, 2010). The learner autonomy teacher helps his/her learners become aware of their role in the process of learning and encourages independence in their learning. The teachers need readiness and support for this challenging task. They can get these from teacher workshops which educational institutions provide for them (Barillaro, 2011). Teachers should understand the difficulties of foreign language learning, change the teaching materials and syllabuses and as the final and main point change their beliefs about language learning. Usually when they accept the role of being a teacher, they try to adjust their methodology with what they have learnt in their formal training as new techniques and ideas about teaching. But when they face with the reality in the real world, they come back to the traditional role of the teacher in the classroom and teacher-centeredness and like other teachers follow the textbooks and fixed syllabuses or asking for help from experienced teachers. They are mostly reluctant and resistant to give the responsibility of learning to their students. So changing teachers' beliefs is not easy and needs time and effort (Tütünis, 2011). If we have a critical look at teachers' perspectives, it is assumed that teachers and students consider learning process and learner autonomy from different perspectives. Teachers view autonomy within the framework of institutional and classroom arrangements and it is accepted this way. But learners view autonomy in a broader sense beyond the environment of classroom and deals with the relationship between learning and their lives (Shakouri&Bahraminezhad, 2012).

F. Teachers' Beliefs on Learner Autonomy

When we say people are autonomous, we mean that they are both capable and free to lead autonomous lives. But there is a concern of knowing teachers' perspectives about autonomy in learning, what does it mean to teachers? Does it mean that learners do their own learning individually or they should take part in the process of learning with the help of their teachers and concurrent with classroom program? (Benson, 2008).

Teachers' beliefs can be defined as 'assumptions about all aspects of their work which teachers consider to be true or false' (Phipps and Borg 2009: 381, cited in Barillaro, 2011). In other words, teachers' beliefs are beliefs that they have about education, teaching and learning which conduct their actions and behaviors as teachers. Teachers' perspectives and beliefs about learning and how it takes place can be affected by many factors like their cultural and educational background. With investigating and in necessary cases changing their beliefs we can improve and refine the process of learning and help learners become good language users and autonomous. These days the expanding demand to teach students to become autonomous learners has changed the ideas about teachers' and learners' role in language learning and teaching. The new perspectives concentrate on the activities that teachers can do to assist and simplify the students' learning (Yang, 1998).

In this study we are investigating Iranian English teachers' perspectives and beliefs about learner autonomy. So two points are important to be considered: first, teachers' beliefs have very great impact on their performance and therefore on the opportunities they give to their learners for learning. Second, knowing about these beliefs can influence teacher education and the way they are trained for becoming English language learners. Thus, understanding teachers' beliefs about autonomy is an essential part of designing activities with the purpose of learner autonomy promotion.

G. Studies on Learner Autonomy

Najeeb (2013) conducted a study of learner autonomy in language learning and reported that learners must be able to understand their own learning styles and use them for their benefit. They should be willing to adjust themselves to an autonomous method of learning. They will be able to monitor their own learning as they gain confidence and this will give them a sense of achievement. Dang (2012) in a synthesized study of autonomy reported that learner autonomy is shaped socially and for investigating this concept, a combination of socio-cultural theory and community of practice is recommended. He also suggests that we should consider personal and contextual aspects, and the interactions between the two. Macaro (2008) in his research of the shifting dimensions of language learner autonomy has argued that auton-omy settles in being able to say what you want to say instead of producing the language of others. This may involve risk of both error and incomprehensibility. That risk, can be minimized by the learner's strategic behavior against a numbers of tasks and the teacher's effort in facilitating and coordination of learning strategies.

Oxford (2003) provided a systematic model for learner autonomy and argued that this model of L2 learner autonomy consists of four perspectives: technical, psychological, sociocultural, and political-critical. Each of these perspectives has four strands or themes: context, agency, motivation, and learning strategies and without one of these issue and perspectives, the model would be incomplete.

H. Studies on Teachers' Beliefs

Many studies have been conducted about learner autonomy, but there has been few research about teachers' perspectives and beliefs. Duong (2014) in his study about EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Learner Autonomy and Their

Classroom Practices found that the teachers realize the meaning of learner autonomy as the students' freedom to choose how and what they learn and monitoring their learning process and confirm its value but it is quite difficult for them to apply it in practice. Al Asmari (2013) conducted a study on Practices and Prospects of Learner Autonomy: Teachers' Perceptions. Findings showed that both male and female teachers agreed with involvement of students in making decisions about their language learning. Findings also showed that there was a great tendency for autonomous learning among teachers and they believed that the autonomous learner has an active and positive role in learning process and making use of learning opportunities. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) investigated language teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and found that the teachers were positively willing to the notion of learner autonomy and its particular benefits for language learners. They also found that most of the teachers believed that they could promote learner autonomy in their teaching and among their learners. Barillaro (2011) conducted a research on teachers' perspective about learner autonomy in language learning. The findings of his study showed that teachers feel responsible for decisions about teaching and language-related issues inside the classroom. Teachers had positive attitudes towards autonomous learning activities both inside and outside the classroom. They believed that using English outside the classroom is essential in the learning process. Joshi (2011) in his study of Learner Perceptions and Teacher Beliefs about Learner Autonomy in Language Learning concluded that teachers believed that their role in learning process should be facilitator and that autonomy is the basis of higher proficiency and performance and very beneficial in this process. In another study Balçıkanlı (2010) investigated student teachers beliefs about learner autonomy. He found that student teachers had clear ideas about learner autonomy and the involvement of students in the learning process. In general, they agreed that students should be involved in the process of decision making regarding the objectives of the course, classroom management, homework tasks, and the selection of materials.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study tries to find answers for these research questions:

1. What is Iranian English teachers' perception of learner autonomy?
2. What is the contribution of learner autonomy to L2 learning?
3. What factors influence learner autonomy in teachers' view?
4. What is the role of teacher in promoting learner autonomy?

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 35 English teachers of private language institutes which were selected randomly from different institutes. They consisted of 7 males and 28 females with the teaching experience of 1 to 25 years for all levels of children, teenagers and adults. Also their educational qualification was in the range of B.A to Doctorate.

B. Instrument

The instrument used for gathering information was a questionnaire which was originally developed by Borg & Al-Busaidi (2012), but some modifications were done to the questionnaire according to the purpose of the study. It consisted of 2 sections. Section one consisted of 30 questions which were in the form of Likert-scale items on a five-point scale of agreement. Questionnaire items include information about:

What is meant by learner autonomy?

The teacher's role in promoting learner autonomy.

The amount of influence which age and FL proficiency have on the learner autonomy

How does learner autonomy can improve effectiveness of language learning?

The relationship between independent study and decision making and learner autonomy

In section two, there were questions about teachers' personal profile.

C. Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed among the teachers with referring to the language institutes. They could complete them at that time or take it back in 2 days. The collected questionnaires then were analyzed to get the results.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

After collecting data from the participants, they were analyzed and changed into descriptive data. The mean and percentage were calculated using SPSS software (version 19) to draw conclusions about teachers' beliefs. The questionnaire items with the related content were grouped together and after that mean and percentage was calculated for them. They are shown in the form of bar charts.

A. Teachers' Beliefs about the Main Concept of Learner Autonomy

Fig. 1 shows the teachers' answer to the question of whether autonomy means learning without a teacher. 62.85 per-cent of the teachers believed that autonomy does not mean learning without the teacher.

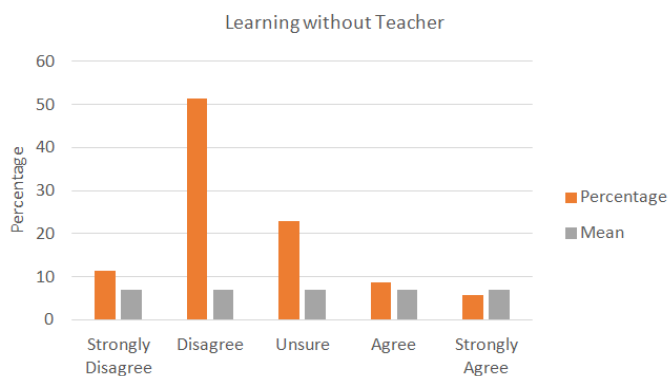


Fig. 1: The Percentage level for beliefs about learning without a teacher

B. Teachers' Beliefs about the Influence of Learner Autonomy on L2 Learning

Teachers were asked questions about the influence of learner autonomy on L2 learning. This figure shows that 72.38 percent of the teachers had the opinion that learner autonomy influences the second language learning. Teachers be-lieved that autonomy has positive effect on success of language learners and allows them to learn more effectively.

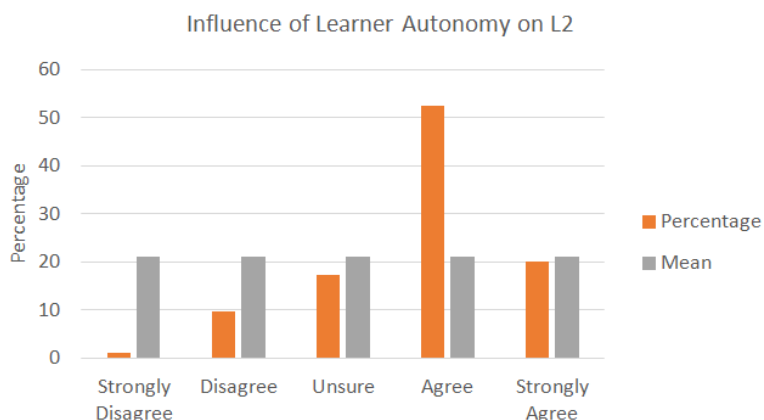


Fig. 2: Percentage level for teachers' beliefs about influence of learner autonomy and L2 learning

C. Teachers' Beliefs about Learner Autonomy and the Role of Independent Study and Activities

Among the questions which were asked from teachers, there were questions about independent study and working alone on tasks and activities. This figure shows that the majorities of the teachers (73.71 percent) agrees and strongly agree that independent study and working on tasks and activities alone is a key element in promoting learner autonomy. The obtained data are presented as following:

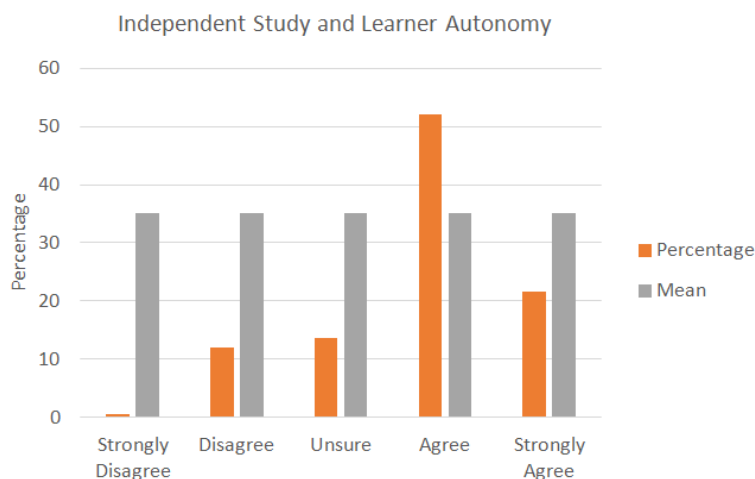


Fig. 3: Percentage level for teachers' beliefs about independent study

D. Teachers' Beliefs about Learner Autonomy and Opportunity of Making Choices

Some questions were asked from the teachers about the role of giving the learners opportunities to make decisions about how to learn, how to be assessed, choice of materials and choice of activities. This figure shows that most of the teachers (68.56 percent) agree and strongly agree that giving the learners opportunities to make decisions about their own learning process is an important factor in promoting learner autonomy. The results are:

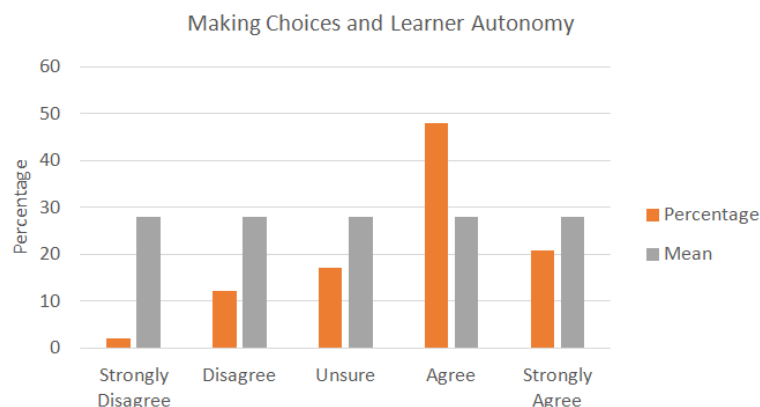


Fig. 4: Percentage level for teachers' beliefs about opportunities for making choices

E. Teachers' Beliefs about the Role of the Teacher in Promoting Learner Autonomy

Teachers' perspectives were elicited about the role of the teacher in promoting learner autonomy. Fig. 5 shows that about 69.99 percent of the teachers have the idea that the teacher has an important role in supporting learner autonomy and there is a need for teacher's help in promoting learner autonomy.

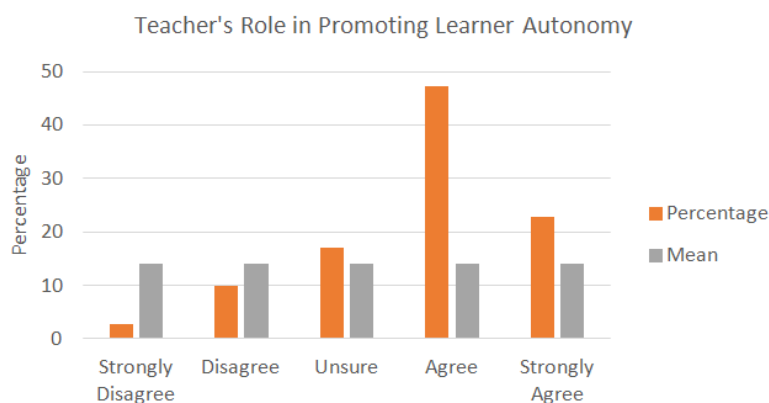


Fig. 5: The percentage level of teachers' beliefs about teachers' role

V. DISCUSSION

This study was trying to find answers to research questions which were mentioned earlier in chapter 3. According to obtained data we can discuss:

RQ1: What is Iranian English teachers' perception of learner autonomy?

To answer to this question, many factors were considered in the questions that were asked. Regarding the teachers' answers in questionnaire we can say:

- Learner autonomy does not mean learning without the teacher.
- Autonomy means that learners have the chance of decision making about how they learn.
- Learners of all cultural background can develop learner autonomy.
- Language learners who are confident can develop autonomy more than less confident ones.
- Self-monitoring and self-assessment in the process of learning are central to development of learner autonomy.
- Learner autonomy is promoted when learners have the opportunity to work together and learn from each other.

Overall, it can be said that from the teachers' perspective learner autonomy means that learners have the important role and responsibility in the process of learning.

RQ2: What is the contribution of learner autonomy to L2 learning?

In the questionnaire, 94.28 percent of the teachers agreed that learner autonomy has positive effect on language learners' success, while 74.28 percent agreed that learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively. Altogether, the teachers showed positive views about the influence of learner autonomy to L2 learning and it can be inferred that if learners lack autonomy, they probably are not effective language learners.

RQ3: What factors influence learner autonomy in teachers' view?

Teachers were asked some questions that showed teachers' ideas about different factors influencing learner autonomy. From their point of view, independent study including working alone outside the classroom and in library, completing task alone and using internet to do out-of-class tasks has very great effect on promoting learner autonomy. Also having the opportunity to make decisions and choices about what to learn, the kind of activities, learning materials and the assessment process are factors which play essential role in promoting learner autonomy.

RQ4: What is the role of teacher in promoting learner autonomy?

Teachers in this study believed that teachers should help their learners in developing and promoting learner autonomy, and the teacher's role in supporting learner autonomy is very important.

A. Conclusion

Regarding the results of data analysis, this study showed that learner autonomy for the Iranian teachers' means that the only participant in the process of learning is not the teacher and learners also have important role in this process. Learners must be given the opportunities to work alone outside the classroom and study independently in the library, and work with their peers to learn from each other to promote learner autonomy. Teachers also agreed that if the learners have the choice of learning method and materials and assessment procedure, learner autonomy will be promoted more. According to teachers, learner autonomy has considerable effect on L2 learning and autonomous learners are more effective learners. They stated that teachers should help and support their learners to promote autonomy and become autonomous learners.

The findings of this study are in line with the findings of previous studies such as Borg & Al-Busaidi (2012) and Balçıkanlı (2010) which found that teachers are aware of the concept of learner autonomy and are likely to promote it for more effective learning.

B. Limitations and Pedagogical Implications

With regard to the results of this study, there are some limitations to be taken into account. The number of participants would be increased and they would be chosen from different institutes. Then, the age and proficiency factors were included in the questionnaire used in this study, but because of the obscurity and ambiguity of the items it was not possible to draw a clear conclusion about these factors and further research is needed to investigate these factors' influence and relationship with learner autonomy.

This study suggests that learner autonomy must be considered during teacher training programs and courses and teacher educators must familiarize the trainees with the concept of learner autonomy and try to make them equipped with the best strategies of promoting autonomy. Teachers also need to improve their knowledge about learning process and not to be resistant to new approaches. They should know that if learners take the responsibility for their learning, they will learn more effectively. So the teachers should introduce the concept of autonomy to the learners and try to improve learner autonomy among their students.

APPENDIX. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Iranian English Language Teachers' Beliefs about Learner Autonomy

This questionnaire is part of a study about learner autonomy for a project in M.A course of ELT which is aimed at finding Iranian English teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and its effects on learning English as a foreign language. It consists of two parts: in part one there is some questions about teachers' viewpoint of learner autonomy and in part two some questions about the teacher's personal information. There are no wrong or right answers considering the questions, please read the questions and answer them carefully. Thanks for your time.

	Strongly disagree ^a	Disagree ^a	Unsure ^a	Agree ^a	Strongly Agree ^a
Part One					
1. Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Independent study in the library is an activity which develops Learner autonomy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Autonomy means that learners can make choices about how					

- They learn.
5. Individuals who lack autonomy are not likely to be effective language learners.
 6. Autonomy can develop most effectively through learning Outside the classroom.
 7. Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy.
 8. Learner autonomy means learning without a teacher.
 9. It is harder to promote learner autonomy with proficient language learners than it is with beginners.
 10. It is possible to promote learner autonomy with both young language learners and with adults.
 11. Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence
 12. Learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively than they otherwise would.
 13. Learner autonomy can be achieved by learners of all cultural backgrounds.
 14. Learner autonomy is promoted when learners have some choice in the kinds of activities they do.
 15. Learner autonomy cannot be promoted in teacher-centered classrooms.
 16. Learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other.
 17. Learner autonomy cannot develop without the help of the teacher.
 18. Learner autonomy is promoted by activities that encourage learners to work together.
 19. Learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners.
 20. Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed.
 21. Promoting autonomy is easier with beginning language learners than with more proficient learners.
 22. Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials.
 23. Learning to work alone is central to the development of learner autonomy.
 24. Out-of-class tasks which require learners to use the internet promote learner autonomy.
 25. The ability to monitor one's learning is central to learner autonomy.
 26. Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated.
 27. The teacher has an important role to play in supporting learner autonomy.
 28. Learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner.
 29. To become autonomous, learners need to develop the ability

- to evaluate their own learning.
30. The proficiency of a language learner does not affect their ability to develop autonomy.

Part Two

1. Years of experience as an English language teacher (Tick ONE):

0-4 5-9 10-14 15-19 20-24 25+

2. Highest qualification (Tick ONE):

Certificate Diploma Bachelor's Master's Doctorate Other

3. Nationality :

4. Gender

Male Female

5. At the Language Centre, which age levels do you teach most hours on? (Tick ONE):

Children Teenager Adults

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An Analysis of External Publicity Text Translation from the Perspective of Eco-translatology—A Case Study of Huai'an External Publicity Translation*

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Abstract—External publicity plays an important role in the course of internationalization. And it is necessary for translator in the process of translating external publicity to consider the differences between the two languages and cultures, which is the key to the fact that whether the true publicity can be really achieved. The present research employs the theory of eco-translatology to study the translation of external publicity. The translation version in Huai'an municipal government website is taken as a case analysis to support the author's view point. The existing errors are pointed out and the factors resulting in the problems are listed. At the same time, some strategies and approaches are proposed in the terms of improvement, which serve as theoretical and practical references for those working on the translation of external publicity texts as well as other practical writings.

Index Terms—eco-translatology, adaptation and selection, translation of external publicity, multi-dimension transformation

I. INTRODUCTION

External publicity (international publicity) translation serves as the window of a country or a city in the process of shaping its image and transmitting its culture, which meanwhile helps to enhance the right of speech in the international community. Therefore, the importance and necessity of doing a good job of international publicity translation is self-evident. However, there exist quite a lot of errors in such kind of publicity text translation in both cities and towns which cause misunderstanding of meanings, leave bad impressions on the foreign visitors and sometimes even seriously damage the image of a city.

This paper, taking Huai'an Municipal international publicity translation as a case study, aims to analyze the existing problems in the translation versions and propose some approaches in view of three dimensional transformation based on the theory of Eco-translatology, which provides some practical references for improving the quality of international publicity translation.

II. REVIEW OF ECO-TRANSLATOLOGY

Translation has always been studied from various perspectives. In recent years, a new perspective called "eco-translatology" has been created to combine translation study with ecology. Eco-translatology, embodying the philosophical concept of "harmony", has come up with many new ideas and research focuses of translation studies like translational eco-environment and the translator's adaptation and selection to address various concerns in translation such as translation process and strategies.

Eco-translatology is to study translation from an ecological perspective with ecology and translatology together. Therefore, eco-translatology is trans-disciplinary. Embodying harmony, it studies translation and translational eco-environment holistically and seeks for harmony among all the elements in the eco-environment.

In the past ten years, Professor Hu Gengshen (Hu Gengshen, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, etc.) from Tsinghua University has analyzed translation as adaptation and selection which is the fundamentality of eco-translatology. He proposes that this adaptation and selection is translator's adaptation to and selection in the linguistic environment which requires the translator to make full use of his or her subjective initiative and make

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three-dimensional transformation according to different context which involves language, culture and communication. And these three dimensions are the core suppositions of eco-translatology and can be taken as theoretical foundation for the studies of translation. Translational eco-environment proposed by Hu Gengshen is composed of both source elements including source text, and author and target text involving the translator, language, culture, reader, aim and society. It effectively overcomes the vagueness of translational eco-environment of physical environment, political environment, climate and space advocated by Katan (Katan, 1999).

Professor Hu (Hu Gengshen, 2004) explores the concept of translator-centeredness in the ecological environment of translation based on the previous translation studies. During the translation process, the translator takes up a central position and plays a dominating role in adapting to translational eco-environment and selecting translation method. The translator's dominating status and role in eco-translatology are conformed on the basis of different dimensions of some basic factors like source text-translator-translated text relationship and translation process, etc. Translator's adaptation and selection explains the translator's choice of translation strategies. Actually, the "adaptive selection" is an important theory in eco-translatology, according to which, translators should make adaptive selection in a translational eco-environment that refers to the environment the source text, the source language and the target language present, comprising the linguistic, communicative, cultural and social aspects of translation, as well as the author, the client, and the readers", and is "a set of various factors that affects translators' best adaptation and optimal selection". Yet very often it is impossible for translators to adapt to all elements in the translational eco-environment. Therefore, the translation principle embodying the basic idea of adaptive selection is a multi-dimensional "adaptation" which means translators should make different selections for adapting to the translational eco-environment.

III. ERRORS IN THE TRANSLATION OF CHINESE EXTERNAL PUBLICITY TEXTS

Huai'an, the birthplace of our late Premier Zhou Enlai, is a very beautiful city with a long history which enjoys distinctive Chinese traditional cultures. The city is quite well-known for its Jianghuai Plays, Horse lantern dance, Huai'an Yangchun Noodles and so on. The annual Huai'an food festival is widely celebrated and has become internationally well-known. More and more foreigners are attracted to pay a visit or put investment in some industries. With more and more international communication occurring, the city government realizes the importance of bringing the city to the world through the media publicity and has established the English website so as to let the world know more about the city. Yet, quite a lot of errors are found in the English versions of the introductions to the local customs and other practices due to different reasons. The author of this part makes a survey of some of these errors and tries to make an analysis from the aspects of linguistic failure, communicative environment, and cultural differences which are based on the eco-translatology theory.

A. Errors Resulting from Linguistic Failure

There are many differences between English and Chinese in terms of language patterns, thinking modes, idiomatic expressions, and language cultures. As a translator, he or she is expected to find out the differences so that appropriate words can be chosen for the proper situation. Otherwise, linguistic failure might occur. The following example taken from Huai'an municipal government website is a case in point.

Example 1

The Chinese Text (CT):

①淮剧，又名江淮剧，是江苏省的主要剧种之一，并且在江苏省和上海非常流行。②作为淮剧的起源和流行的主要场所，目前淮安拥有4个专业淮剧剧团。③淮剧拥有超过100年的历史，来源于民间的秧歌和民歌，后来发展吸收了昆曲和徽戏的一些元素。④其著名的剧作包括“白蛇传”，“杨家将”，“秦香莲”等。

The English Version (EV):

①Also known as Jianghuai Plays, Huaiju Opera is one of the main operas in Jiangsu Province, and is popular in Jiangsu province and Shanghai city. ②As the major place of origin and popular region, Huai'an has 4 professional Huaiju Opera troupes at present. ③With a history of over 100 years, Huaiju originated from Yangge and folk song in the countryside, and later absorbed elements from Kunqu Opera and Anhui Opera. ④Its famous plays include "White Snake Legend", "Generals of the Yang Family", "Qin Xianglian" and so on. The Chinese text is an introduction of Huaiju Opera which roughly expresses the original meaning quite well. But still there exist some flaws.

The CT① actually provides us such information: (a) Huaiju has another name called Jianghuai Plays, in which Jianghuai Plays is the apposition of Huaiju, (b) Huaiju Opera is one of the main operas in Jiangsu Province, (c) Huaiju Opera is popular in Jiangsu province and Shanghai city. Furthermore, grammatically, Huaiju is used as the subject of the sentence and should be focused. So to make the meaning clearly understood and conform to the English grammar, it is advisable to revise the EV① as "Huaiju Opera, with its another name being Jianghuai Plays, is one of the main operas in Jiangsu Province which is popular in Jiangsu as well as in Shanghai area".

The CT② indicates that Huai'an is a main place where Huaiju Opera originated and has become popular. But the EV② obviously misunderstands its meaning and puts it in a wrong expression by using "popular region" which actually suggests the region is popular not the Opera.

The word "absorb" in the EV③ is not appropriate which means "become imbued" often in terms of liquid, light and

gases, or “take up mentally” meaning absorbing the knowledge or beliefs of something. These errors are obviously caused by translator’s lack of linguistic deficiency.

B. Errors Resulting from Cultural Differences

Since there exist differences between the source language culture and target language culture, translator not only needs to make linguistic transformation, but also adapts himself or herself in the cultural system of the languages and pays attention to the cultural transference while translating the source language into the target one (Hu, 2004).

Example 2

The Chinese Text:

①“压床”作为婚姻习俗，在淮安是非常流行的。②它指的是在结婚的前一天晚上，新郎邀请一到四个健康的童男与他在新房一起睡觉。③据传说，在南北朝时，贫穷的农民王二宝在他三十岁时从淮安娶了一个漂亮的寡妇。④在他的婚礼之前的夜晚，他梦见一个硬汉砍死了他并且抢走了他的妻子。⑤第二天，他娶了他的妻子，他们彼此深爱着对方。⑥三天后，王二宝不得不离开他的妻子去为地主劳作。⑦不幸的是一个富有的人在村里被王二宝的妻子所吸引并在午夜抢走了她。⑧但村民们以为新娘被抢走是因为一些邪恶力量导致的。⑨为了驱逐它们，人们开始让健康的童男在结婚的前一天晚上“压床”。⑩后来这种行为成了当地的婚俗。

The English Version:

①As a marriage custom, “pressing bed” is very popular in Huai’an. ②At the night before marriage, the bridegroom invites one to four strong virgin boys to sleep together with him. ③According to the legend, during the Northern and Southern Dynasties, poor worker Wang Erbao from Huai’an married a beautiful widow when he was 30. ④At the night before his wedding, he dreamed that a tough man slashed him and robbed his wife. ⑤The next day, he married his wife and they loved each other dearly. ⑥Three days later, Wang Erbao had to left his wife and went to work for a landlord. ⑦A rich man in the village was attracted by Wang Erbao’s wife and robbed her at midnight. ⑧But the villagers thought the bride was lost because of some evil energy. ⑨And in order to dismiss such energy, people began to let strong virgin boys “press the marriage bed” at the night before the wedding. ⑩This behavior became a local marriage custom later.

The Chinese text introduces a kind of traditional Chinese marriage custom in which “压床(YaChuang)” is most popular which refers to the convention that the night before the wedding four strong virgin boys are invited to sleep on the wedding bed together with the bridegroom in order to avoid evil influence. The word “压床” is a culture-loaded word and should be clearly explained at the beginning of the translated sentence so as to eliminate the readers’ confusion about what “YaChuang” really is. “Pressing bed” in the EV① is a word-for-word translation which keeps the form of the source language pattern but does not convey the true meaning of the original text mentioned above, and thus, it fails to achieve the purpose of transmitting the information of Chinese culture.

C. Errors Resulting from Lack of Communicative Consciousness

The selective adaptation in the communicative dimension means that in the process of translation translator should pay enough attention to the communicative intention in both source language and target language. This requires translator to place emphasis on communicative information in addition to the transformation in dimensions of language and culture and pay close attention to the fact that whether the communicative intention in the source language is embodied in the translated text. Lack of this consciousness will influence the effect of communication. See the following example.

Example 3

The Chinese Text:

①阳春面，如同淮扬菜一般，看起来寻常普通，但实际上却是十分讲究的。②“阳春”这个名字是由清朝的乾隆皇帝赐予的。③乾隆在他南巡的时候来到淮安，他有一次在面条馆吃面，发现面条非常好吃。④当他知道这个面条都没有一个名字，他说，因为现在是三月，一个月里都是阳光明媚的春天，这个面就被称为阳春面。⑤此后，这家面馆生意兴盛，再后来转作了中国著名的老字号餐馆震丰园。

The English Version:

①Like Huaiyang Dishes, Yangchun Noodles looks normal, but are actually very dainty. ②The name of “Yangchun” was given by Qianlong Emperor of Qing Dynasty. ③When Qianlong arrived in Huai’an during his southern tour, he had a meal at a noodles restaurant, and found the noodles very delicious. ④When he knew that the noodles hadn’t got a name, he said since in March there were sunny days for the whole month, the noodles could be called as Yangchun Noodles. ⑤Since then, the noodles restaurant became prosperous and later turned to be Zhenfengyuan Restaurant, a famous old restaurant in China.

This Chinese text introduces the history of the Yangchun Noodles. It tells why the ordinary noodles are called the Yangchun Noodles which comes from an allusion related to a Chinese ancient emperor. Therefore, the Yangchun Noodles represents the Chinese food culture like Huaiyang Dishes. In China, the position of emperor is supreme, and words used to describe his activities or behavior should be different enough to embody his majesty and dignity. The writer of the Chinese original text aims to emphasize the specialty of the Noodles. Yet, the words “given”, “arrived”, “called” in the EV②③④fail to reflect the special culture of the feudal autocratic monarchy. Therefore, the

communicative intention in the original text is not conveyed and the specialty and rarity of the Yangchun Noodles are not well expressed to attract more people to try the noodles. In China, it is regarded as a great honor to be very precious and very honorable to be able to have the food enjoyed by emperors.

IV. TRANSLATING STRATEGIES BASED ON ECO-TRANSLATOLOGY

According to translation of adaptation and selection in eco-translatology, translator's adaptation and selection is made through the approaches of multi-dimensional transformation, that is, linguistic dimension, cultural dimension and communicative dimension which is known as very practical strategies in the translating process.

A. Linguistic Dimensional Transformation

To achieve effective translation, translator must know both two language systems. Due to the differences in historical background and national situation as well as living styles, there exist a lot of differences between the two languages. Therefore, translators should always strengthen their own knowledge base both in English and Chinese. Linguistic proficiency comes first in doing translation as lexis, syntax and semantics are the most fundamental elements, without which there's nothing that could be talked about in translation. This also means that translator should not only know the lexical meaning, but most importantly he or she should grasp the lexical semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning and language context. A good translator should know how, where and when to make transference in linguistic dimension. Let take example 1 for instance again.

In Section A part III of this paper, analysis is made about the translation errors resulting from the translator's linguistic deficiency. According to the principle of adaptation and selection, translator's subjectivity decides his or her move which in turn is determined by translator's knowledge of various areas. From the analysis, it can be seen that lack of linguistic proficiency restricts translator's subjective initiative which is responsible for the translation errors. To improve the translation version, appropriate adaptation to and selection of the language environment should be taken into consideration so as to make necessary transference in linguistic dimension. The revised translation based on the previous analysis is suggested as follows.

The Revised Version (RV):

Huaiju Opera, with its another name being Jianghuai Plays, is one of the main operas in Jiangsu Province which is popular in Jiangsu as well as in Shanghai area". As the major place where Huaiju Opera originated and has become popular, Huai'an has 4 professional Huaiju Opera troupes at present. With a history of over 100 years, Huaiju originated from Yangge and folk songs in the countryside, and later introduced some elements from Kunqu Opera and Anhui Opera. Its famous plays include "White Snake Legend", "Generals of the Yang Family", "Qin Xianglian" and so on.

B. Cultural Dimensional Transformation

Language and culture are closely interrelated with each other and cannot be separated. Many idioms, set phrases, allusions are loaded with rich historical and national culture and have their own fixed symbolic meaning and associative meaning. Different languages carry different cultures which bring about lots of difficulties for translator. Therefore, to know about different cultural background of languages is very important for translator and to be able to convey the cultural connotation properly to the readers of the translation is most essential. Let's see example 2 mentioned above again.

"Yachuang(压床)" in CT① is a Chinese culture-loaded word, for which we can't find the equivalent in English. In this context translator should first understand its real meaning and then try to convey the meaning into what a reader of translation can understand instead of putting it literally into "pressing bed" in which "press" corresponds to Chinese "压(Ya)" and "bed" to Chinese "床(Chuang)". As a traditional Chinese marriage custom, the meaning of Yachuang is known to everyone but foreign people. So, extra explanation is necessary in addition to transliteration. Except for the errors resulting from lack of cultural consciousness in the English version, there are also quite many linguistic mistakes which do not fall into this part of analysis, and thus, the analysis of them is omitted here but the corrections are included in the following revised translation.

The Revised Version:

As a marriage custom, "Yachuang" is very popular in Huai'an. At the night before marriage, the bridegroom invites one to four strong virgin boys to sleep on the wedding bed together with him to avoid evil influence. According to the legend, during the Northern and Southern Dynasties, there was a poor worker Wang Erbao who married a beautiful widow from Huai'an when he was 30. At the night before his wedding, he dreamed that a tough man slashed him to death and rapped his wife. The next day, he married his lover and they loved each other dearly. Three days later, Wang Erbao had to left his wife and went to work for a landlord. A rich man saw Wang Erbao's wife in the village and was attracted by her and rapped her at midnight. Therefore, the villagers thought the bride was lost because of some evil energy. And in order to dismiss such energy, people began to ask strong virgin boys to sleep on the wedding bed together with the bridegroom the night before the wedding, which is customarily called "Yachuang (pressing bed)" in Chinese. From then on, this convention became a local marriage.

In the revised translation, some omitted cultural information in the Chinese text is added to make the version quite

clear. Transliteration plus explanation makes readers quite clear about what Yachuang implies and gets rid of readers' confusion about "pressing bed". Besides, syntactically and lexically, some coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions are added to the sentences smooth and coherent. Some wrong words and expressions like "slashed him and robbed his wife", "married his wife", "behavior" are corrected to make the meaning more accurate. All these changes in the revised version can help the readers get clear idea of what the custom is and what connotation "Yachuang (pressing bed)" conveys. In this way cultural information is fully transferred.

C. Communicative Dimensional Transformation

Eco-translatology in terms of communicative dimension means that translator should care about the communicative purpose of both English and Chinese in the process of translation. It requires translator to stress the key point and convey the communicative intention at the same time. If translator does not consider the communicative environment, confusion will be aroused for readers of the translation. Let's see again Example 3 mentioned above and compare the two different translation versions.

The Revised Version:

①Like *Huaiyang Dishes*, *Yangchun Noodles* looks **ordinary**, but **actually are** very dainty. ②The name of "*Yangchun*" was **vouchsafed** by *Qianlong Emperor of Qing Dynasty*. ③When *Qianlong* **made his southern inspection trip in Huai'an**, he had a meal at a noodles restaurant **on one occasion**, and found the noodles very delicious. ④When he **was told** that the noodles hadn't got a name, he said since **the time was in March when there were sunny days for the whole month**, **Yangchuan Noodles(sunny spring)would be the best name**. ⑤Since then, the noodles restaurant became prosperous and later turned to be *Zhenfengyuan Restaurant*, a famous old restaurant in China.

In section C part III, analysis is made about the errors caused by translator's lack of communicative awareness. The introduction of the story of the Yangchun Noodles is to let known the specialty of the noodles, and meanwhile, with the purpose to get it popularized. Therefore, it is necessary to choose appropriate words or expressions to make the focal points communication stand out. Obviously, the first translation version fails to convey this communicative purpose. To change it, translator should bear in mind the principle of communicative dimension and adapt to the communicative environment and make adaptive selection by changing "given" into "vouchsafed" which is a big word that can conform to the emperor's status and make the noodles different and unusual. Besides, syntactically and semantically, the expressions in bold in RV①③④ are more idiomatic and can better convey the meaning of the Chinese original compared with the first English version, which receives better communicative effect.

V. CONCLUSION

The problems existing in the external publicity translation are mainly categorized into the mistakes of language, lack of culture awareness and failure of communicative intention which are closely related to the exertion of translator's subjectivity proposed in the principle of eco-translatology. Without linguistic proficiency, different cultural consciousness and skills of communicative purpose, good translation can hardly be achieved.

This research, by taking the translation of external publicity in Huai'an municipal government website as a case study, analyzes the existing errors and points out the factors resulting in the problems. At the same time, some strategies and approaches are proposed to improve the translation quality, which is theoretically and practically helpful to those who are engaged in the translation of practical writing.

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