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Codifying the Creative Self: Conflicts of Theory and Content in Creative Writing

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Abstract—This paper explores the embattled territory of academic creative writing—and most focally, the use of critical theory in the teaching and structuring of creative practice. It places creative writing in contemporary social, cultural, and otherwise anthropological contexts, and evaluates conventional creative writing pedagogies based on how well they serve the updated needs of increasingly diverse student congregations. With continued emphasis on student-centered learning, this paper compares theoretical to practical applications of discipline-specific knowledge, examining and critiquing theory in terms of its relevance, accessibility, and whether or not it is both actionable and beneficial in the creative writing classroom.

Index Terms—creative writing, literary theory, content, pedagogy, workshop, teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

As the craft of creative writing gains in social recognition, it is becoming evident that many who study, practice and teach creative writing in academic settings sustain a certain low-grade disappointment over the academy's lack of commitment to the craft, which it demonstrates routinely in its hesitancy to treat creative writing as a formal discipline. In this era of highly specialized education, it is a source of frustration to modern-day students—as well as to a growing subset of creative writing teachers—that creative writing has been virtually disallowed to claim itself as specialty, and abandon, finally, its ill-fitting role as the lesser stepchild of literary theory, presented to developing writers as a potentially engaging but ultimately incidental part of a more legitimate course of study.

Indeed, much has been published in support of this grievance, and a particular amount of attention has been paid to the injustice of creative writing's longstanding subordination to other, more quantifiable subjects. Yet, more often than not, these analyses only circle the depth of creative writing's conflict with theory, despite that this particular embattlement is the driving force behind many a prominent argument for the reformation of academic creative writing. As creative writing demonstrates that it will continue to grow, as a study and practice simultaneously shaped by and rebellious of literary theory, perhaps it would enrich the conversation to identify and investigate some of the exact points of disharmony between these two areas of interest. This dialogue might be initiated by a question of paramount importance to the debate: Is literary theory helping writers produce better literature?

II. IMPACT OF LITERARY THEORY ON EXPRESSIONS OF CULTURAL IDENTITY IN CREATIVE WRITING

Famed literary feminist Barbara Christian (1988) has pronounced theory largely unhelpful to the practicing writer, citing as her rationale the occupation of theory by an association of intellectually sanctimonious critics who “are no longer concerned with literature but with other critics' texts, for the critic yearning for attention has displaced the writer and conceived of herself or himself as the center” (p. 67). Overarching, Christian's critical work in African-American and women's literatures reflects a certain skepticism regarding the legitimacy of academic discourse—and a particular suspicion of discourse that looks inward for confirmation, appearing to preclude or discourage cross-cultural conference. If we are sympathetic to her argument, we may apply this skepticism to academia's highly discursive systems of classification, exemplified in its elaborate construction of the formal “discipline,” a designation that, as I have mentioned, is often withheld from creative writing—but never from literary theory.

In “The Race for Theory,” Christian (1988) explicated the racial and ethnic fallout of these systems—how presiding literary theory has allowed such a marginalizing term as “minority discourse” to become a field standard, despite that the descriptor is “untrue to the literatures being produced by our writers, for many of our literatures (certainly Afro-American literature) are central, not minor” (p. 69-70). Here, Christian has observed what is perhaps the most pivotal problem in allowing a select demographic of “critics” to set and control the discourse by which creative writing is taught, discussed, and evaluated: it may result in imposed classifications that improperly limit the scope of minority writers' work.

While Christian's work opens up an important space in which to discuss the disenfranchisement of cultural identity in creative writing—and the ways in which literary theory may enable it—her indictment of literary theory on grounds of cultural divisiveness has been met with resistance. In “Literary Theory in the Creative Writing Workshop,” John Parras (2005) appeared to subvert Christian's argument that theory begets an oppression of identity, offering that identity-related concepts such as “ethnic mixture, family role, [and] social class” may actually be regarded as “theoretical issues

and contexts underlying the production and reception of writing” (p. 158-159). He framed theory and identity as symbiotic, rather than antithetical, and argued the benefits of using theory in guided discussion to help creative writers “break the boundaries of the self” (p. 158).

This notion of the “self”—its role in creative writing, and the subjectivity it acquires in the application of literary theory—will reappear throughout this essay. Christian and Parras have provided a useful framework for the discussion. While both have commented on the self—on authorial identity in creative process—it is easy to see where their assessments might collide; the former regards identity as self-evident, and theory as a compromise, while the latter regards identity as malleable, and theory as a means to elevate it to new heights. The most practical of such analyses likely fall somewhere between; after all, as Francois Camoin (1994) observed, creative writing, though it may resist what theory is forced upon it, is not itself without theory: “We have our own stock of critical terms, familiar and nonthreatening. Round and flat characters. Point of view. Narrative persona. Flashbacks. Showing versus telling” (p. 3). These terms function similarly to literary theory in that they are applied to a text in pursuit of deeper understanding. The difference lies in the accessibility of the discourse.

While an additional few of the binaries populating these arguments will necessarily be addressed throughout the remainder of this essay, it is not the primary intention of this essay to referee the theory/no-theory debate. This analysis seeks to dispute neither the existence of theory in creative writing, nor the potential of its usefulness in the teaching of creative writing. It is concerned, rather, with what Christian (1988) has referred to as “academic hegemony, and possibility of its inappropriateness to the energetic emerging literatures of the world today” (p. 69). In the context of this position, the following discussion will elucidate the ways in which specific applications of theory to creative writing have failed, and are as a result actively alienating a generation of promising writers.

III. THE SOCIAL FABRIC OF CREATIVE WRITING

To start, creative writing’s trajectory in the university and in the greater public sphere might be examined more thoroughly—for a shift in the epistemological tides which govern student and professional curiosities suggests that however marginalized creative writing appears as an academic discipline, it *is* gaining in public recognition. In its annual report, the Association for Writers and Writing Programs cited its 2013 conference in Boston as the “best-attended and most diverse and dynamic gathering in our history,” with an attendance of “11,600 writers, teachers, students, editors, and publishers” (p. 6). This is hardly an unanticipated development. In *The Future for Creative Writing*, Graeme Harper (2014) outlined the ways in which globalization is shaping creative writing’s expansion, and predicted that as the world continues to become a more integrated place, creative writing will serve as a catalyst for critical discussions of “cultural difference” (p. 49).

Response to such projections has been mixed. Michelene Wandor (2008) characterized the ongoing conversation about the “new” creative writing in terms of its most notable constituents, which include 1) members of the academic or intellectual elite, arguing for a return to more systemic analyses of literary production, and 2) members of community-based movements, favoring the development of the individual author over that of any applied course of study (p. 62). While established critics work as they always have to articulate—or disarticulate—creative writing, to forecast its movement socially and throughout academia, the momentum of the craft is shifting to the incoming generation of student writers. Ostensibly, the timing is right for a change of hands; as civic engagement makes a comeback on college campuses, students are increasingly interested in courses of study that provide them with constructive outlets for social and cultural commentary—a cause to which creative writing is particularly suited. This trend is a brilliant addendum to a recent history in which creative writing remained largely out of focus, for as Harper has noted, Twentieth Century academia was organized rather exclusively around “professional specializations,” a cataloging of academic disciplines which appears to have held creative writing in a kind of marginalized suspension, and from which the craft now advances with vitality and promise (p. 6).

It is worth noting, however, that the recent accord between creative writing and social movement is not itself a new development, but is a natural (if traditionally neglected) element of a craft that has always prioritized an awareness both of the human condition and the social climate of the era. The practice of translating thoughts to writing is unmistakably collective, absorbing the features of its environments, contracting and expanding around points of interest or concern. As Patrick Bizarro (2005) noted in “Research and Reflection in English Studies: The Special Case of Creative Writing,” creative writers “understand the value of history” and are able to engage their sources “not only through the lenses of our own critical eyes but also through the thickening fog of current events and experiences” (p. 302). This remains true beyond the parameters of the write-to-publish model often presented to creative writers at the university; poetry carved into the walls of holding cells at the Angel Island Immigration Station, for example, attests to the more fundamental intersection of creative writing and human experience, as well as to creative writing’s critical function in the documentation of history (Lai, Lim, & Yung, 1980/2014). With multitudes of such applications existing in both historical and present times, creative writing may accurately be characterized as an essentially anthropological craft, investigative in nature, and it may be concluded that pursuits in creative writing are borne by an organic desire for knowing and expressing, rather than as a result of any prescriptive theory.

At this point in the discussion, one might recall Christian’s (1988) “academic hegemony,” and consider its consequences to the quality of creative writing outlined above. Christian’s particular concern was that the instatement of lit-

erary theory in the processes of producing and analyzing creative writing has led to the inappropriate co-optation of a craft whose purposes are much broader than as dictated by the critical discourse. She laid a special emphasis on the adverse possibilities of forcing this critical discourse on the work of minority writers:

The pervasiveness of this academic hegemony is an issue continually spoken about—but usually in hidden groups, lest we, who are disturbed by it, appear ignorant to the reigning academic elite. Among the folk who speak in muted tones are people of color, feminists, radical critics, creative writers, who have struggled for much longer than a decade to make their voices, their various voices, heard, and for whom literature is not an occasion for discourse among critics but is necessary nourishment for their people and one way by which they come to understand their lives better. (p. 69)

Christian's early reframing of writing and literature as tools for exploring the human experience and communicating across populations coheres remarkably well to modern objectives (e.g. engaging multiple audiences), and also provides us with an initial criterion by which to evaluate the successfulness of all current applications of literary theory to creative writing.

And indeed, there has been a certain departure—very much in the vein of Christian's argument—from those conventions of theory which may have stymied the outward growth of creative writing. What once was an exclusive "discourse amongst critics" is blossoming into an interdisciplinary conversation; this is evident in that creative writing has not remained limited only to those practitioners who would identify in any traditional sense as either "creative writers" or "literary theorists." In modern post-secondary (and professional) environments, creative writing attracts from a variety of previously disengaged areas of study. Harper (2014) has observed what may be interpreted as the ascension of creative writing to more interdisciplinary status:

Anthropologists, sociologists, geographers historians, social workers, nurses, computer scientists... and special-ists in education, to name a few, have all found some reason, advantage, or sense of possibility in engaging with creative writing in an academic setting. (p. 50)

Tom Moran's (2008) "Strong Words – The Creative Writing of Engineers," provides additional testament to this trend. After interviewing a dozen engineers-turned-authors, Moran even found that some of them "saw the creative writing as simply an extension of their workplace writing or technical writing" (p. 10). That students and professionals with limited backgrounds in literary theory are investigating creative writing in this way, rediscovering it in its most essential capacity as a means to human expression, is significant and encouraging of widespread change at the university level. In particular, it indicates that creative writing is emerging from its literary strictures as a more widely applicable craft, no longer married so exclusively to the study of theory. It is imperative, in turn, that English departments respond to this change.

IV. MODES OF RESISTANCE TO CREATIVE WRITING AS SOCIAL CRAFT

Yet, even as the social climate of the university favors a change, the academy has shown little interest in formally restructuring creative writing curricula and pedagogy. There is, in any given institution, a number of reasons that creative writing might be excluded from curricular reformations: departmental politics, financial restrictions, and poor administration, to name a few. The most universal of these reasons, however, may simply be that creative writing teachers are uncertain of how to recalibrate their methods without compromising the structure and integrity of the craft—and without risking additional scrutiny and criticisms from their departments.

If this is an impasse, it is a rather understandable one. Many of today's creative writing teachers received their initial training in the university trenches, as instructors of "basic writing"—a discipline very much defined by its controversies, and by the theories, methods and techniques developed in response to those controversies. Such teachers are commonly prepped by their predecessors and superiors to do battle against the unstructured masses, to organize the disorganized and teach between the defensible lines set up for them. In my own orientation to university teaching, my colleagues and I were handed a prefabricated syllabus and a composition textbook authored by our direct supervisor, and told that if we "stuck to the plan," it would enable the university to protect us in the case of disgruntled students—and to shield us, as well, from the broader problem of public scrutiny over college illiteracy rates.

To imply that the above experience is representative of the teacher training behind all basic writing programs would be in error. It is, however, reasonable to suggest such training precedents as an explanation for why creative writing teachers, although having diverged from the somewhat restrictive channels of first-year composition, continue to lean so heavily on established procedures. In "Professional Writers/Writing Professionals: Revamping Teacher Training in Creative Writing Ph. D. Programs," Kelly Ritter (2001) suggested that universities are encouraging in their teaching assistants the misplaced belief that basic and creative writing share an ethos, and that those pedagogies and theories which served the composition classroom will serve the creative writing classroom equally well (p. 214). These ideas have had a lasting influence on the way that creative writing is perceived and taught in academic settings. For any antipathy writer-teachers may harbor toward literary theory—its inaccessibility and its distortion of creative practice—the truth is that it has long provided them with a roadmap to the instruction of writing. It has provided them with the terms they use to explicate and the standards by which they evaluate the work set before them. Literary theory, though it is often out of sync with the needs of emerging creative writers, has provided creative writing *teachers*, otherwise regarded the "exotica of English departments," with a more articulable kind of pedagogy, and with a means to translate the unconventional

interest/skill of creative writing into something that can be marketed to the higher education workplace (Camoin, 1994, p. 3).

Although this may appear counterintuitive, the convention that creative writing teachers are educators *as well as* writers does, in a way, obligate them to approach the aforementioned “writing-as-human-experience” movement from a pedagogical and not merely a “writerly” perspective. In doing so, additional points of concern—some of them originating outside the academic spectrum—are identified. As self-help media popularizes the creative process as a path to self-discovery and consolation, there is a mounting concern amongst teachers that the lines between personal and public writing—between private journaling, and the kind of writing that a student produces in an academic setting—are becoming blurred. In *Power and Identity in the Creative Writing Classroom: the Authority Project*, Nancy Kuhl (2005) claimed that recent recharacterizations of creative writing as a kind of “therapy” have proven especially problematic in the classroom, resulting in a “commodification of the artistic process [which] undermines the reality of that process,” making it difficult to engage certain students who are now so “heavily invested the popular mythologies dealing with writing and creativity” that they have lost sight of what it means to produce quality literary work (p. 4).

This is an entirely legitimate complaint. Discarding the basic principles of craft in favor of unfettered self-expression is not a sustainable option in academic settings. Most creative writing teachers agree that guided discussion of literary form is beneficial to students in that it asks them to engage with the material on a deeper level—to consider “good writing” not as a self-evident outcome, but as the result of a process that involves many stages of trial and error. In this, students acquire a basic frame of reference for narrative essentials such as diction, and the interplay between sound and meaning (Leahy, 2005, p. 14). Knowledge of these and other devices is prescriptive, and will ultimately help students exercise more creative control over their work.

Additionally, form offers teachers a reliable baseline for discussion of student work. In the creative writing workshop, where every manuscript is an uncharted territory, form is a safe, controlled course of inquiry. This is especially helpful when dealing with writing of a more confessional nature; focusing on the *mechanics* of a highly sentimental or opinionated piece helps keep the workshop objective and on track, while simultaneously orienting students to the nuts and bolts of a working literary form. It also helps ensure that the disposition of the writing is held as separate from that of the writer, thereby avoiding a situation in which the workshop begins to criticize the writer instead of the writer’s work. With this critical distinction in mind, students are more apt to remain focused on the tasks at hand, which are to participate in close, informed analyses of the text, and to make the kinds of pointed suggestions that will truly aid the author in revision.

In theory, literary form—its study and its associated pedagogies—provides teachers with everything needed to conduct productive, technically correct creative writing workshops. And given creative writing’s ongoing lack of stature and/or security in most English departments, teachers might not be *inclined* to step too far outside those lines; after all, a form-driven, topically neutral approach to student writing is often substantially easier to execute than any content-driven approach. Indeed, one of my own graduate professors use to make a point of intercepting all content-related queries with a quick, “When we talk about content, the questions become enormous. Form gives us something we can actually discuss.”

However, despite its myriad attractions, teachers must keep in mind that form is not, in itself, an end; it is something to employ, analyze and discuss in the service of larger objectives. Consider Lynn Domina’s (1994) comment on the balance of form and content in the workshop space:

Yes, sonnets and sestinas are made of lines made of words, and will be more or less successful in part because of the sound or syntax of the particular phrases, and craft is comparatively easy to discuss. But a more fundamental influence on a student’s or any writer’s success, I think, is permission to address one’s personal obsessions. (p. 27)

What happens, then, to an author’s investment in the workshop process when his or her personal obsessions are pushed out of the workshop space so that it might be repopulated by the more universal language of form? Or, a broader question might be: What happens to the integrity of the workshop itself, to the quality of its suggestions, when peer reviewers are encouraged to comment on the form of a piece without ever being asked to consider what the piece is trying to achieve in its use of form—i.e. the *content* of the piece? Domina aptly suggested that

In each case, it is the student’s person which has been dismissed and/or censored, and the content of any subsequent writing will be virtually irrelevant, since the student has been judged a priori incapable of portraying truth. (p. 27)

This, a universally undesirable outcome.

While this line of questioning does not suggest that teachers remedy this issue by dismissing the edict of silent observation that is placed upon the author at the beginning of the workshop session, it does suggest that teachers reexamine the ways in which the conference is organized and executed. To safeguard against an ultimately unproductive dismissal of the author, the workshop must ask and attempt to answer such questions as, What is this piece of writing about? and What is it attempting to do? *before* turning to a discussion of how form can help the piece achieve its (identified) goals. In short, without discarding form, and the ways in which a piece of writing meets or falls short of formal expectations, the workshop must reframe form as a tool for enhancing content.

Parras (2008) is among those who have criticized this approach. Channeling prominent poststructuralist arguments which diminish the role of the author in the creation of a text, Parras has questioned whether creative writing teachers are already paying *too much* recognition to students’ authorship: “Workshops ... function on assumptions such as that

all poems are ruled by authorial intention, that the author is the undisputed origin and master of her work, and that, indeed, there exists an entity which we can without difficulty agree to call an author” (p. 160). While Parras cites influential theorists Foucault and Barthes in support of his position, it is not difficult to see the alienating quality in this line of thought, which operates (at least ostensibly) outside the realms of practical application. I mean here to imply that such a theory, while deserving of its place in philosophical debate, simply does not land in the very practice-oriented context of the creative writing workshop. For the sake of encouraging in their students a continued investment in the ideas that compel them to write, teachers cannot responsibly advocate that those same students renounce authorship of their work to the extent that it is *no longer their own*, and is rendered thusly the communal property of the workshop. While it may be an eventual reality of the published author that his or her finished product is consumed and reconstituted by the reader, the workshop is a *pre-publication* conference to aid in the ongoing process of *revision*—and forcing the author out of his or her own work in the middle of that process does not suit any reasonable objective.

V. CONCLUDING DISCUSSIONS

In the course of defending theory in creative writing, Parras (2008) may also have summarized its most challenging paradox. Consider the following of his concerns, which reveals theory as a source of conflict in the workshop practicum:

Turning to the author at the end of the workshoping session. . .unambiguously reinstates the writer to a position of ultimate authority; the danger is that the entire workshoping session will be viewed in retrospect as nothing other than having taken stabs in the dark, having merely guessed at the writer’s intentions. The message is that, despite the professor’s lesson in the theoretical death of the author, in real life it is still the author who counts. (p. 164)

This all-but-nonexistent relationship between workshop and author reflects the more fundamental estrangement of theory from practice. It also alerts us to the practical consequences of that estrangement; after all, one might wonder at the effectiveness (and sustainability) of a workshop that is undone merely by reinstating the author as a participant in the conversation.

These considerations beg a parting question: What—and whom—do teachers of creative writing ultimately serve in striving to replace the “real-life” advent of the author with the “theoretical death of the author”? Pursuit of an answer might well reveal that these efforts are better spent finding ways to *invite* students into the writing process, and that teachers might benefit their students substantially to reconsider those applications of theory which emphasize form to the exclusion of content and voice. Perhaps in future discussions of theory the question of how it can be used to illuminate students’ thoughts, opinions, and inspirations will take a more central role. Perhaps educators and administrators in positions to help harmonize theory and practice might initiate these conversations, and reveal that it is possible, without compromising the academic integrity of the creative writing discipline, to move away from what Jay Parini (1994) has called “a baroque and technocratic language cut off from a wider sense of audience,” and begin to recognize in subsequent generations of creative writing students the ability not only to acquire discourse, but to *create* it (p. 129).

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An Analysis of Curriculum Development

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Abstract—This work aims at exploring the social and educational forces that impact any curriculum. It also provides an overview about how culture, ethnicity, linguistics, politics, economy, and history have impacted the curriculum in Ecuador in the past and today. The educational forces that intervene in the development of the curriculum in Ecuador are also discussed. Likewise, detailed information about the needs of the curriculum and the people who intervene in the curriculum development in Ecuador as well as in other contexts is also addressed. Finally, the set of steps to follow within the curriculum development process are explained.

Index Terms—social forces that impact curriculum, educational forces, needs of the curriculum, curriculum developers, curriculum development process, Ecuador, Ecuadorian curriculum

I. INTRODUCTION

Curriculum development is a broad and complex process. But, what is curriculum exactly? Several are the answers provided to this question. For instance, Bobbit (1918) in Angulo (1994) defined curriculum in two ways. The first is as the range of experiences directed to develop skills in the individuals. The other one is as the series of training experiences that schools utilize to complete and perfect that development. Following this line, Tyler (1949) in Portuondo (1997) assured that curriculum is all the learning experiences planned and directed by the school to reach the school's educational goals. Similarly, Arrieta (1995) in Angulo (1994) defined curriculum as the series of things that children and teenagers have to perform and experience to develop abilities that would form them to decide upon issues in their life as adults. Being more specific, Taba (1974) in Montoya (1997) stated that in essence, curriculum is a learning plan. This learning plan, according to Taba (1962) in Portuondo (1997) is composed by several elements which include the establishment of goals and objectives, selection and organization of content, implication of learning and teaching patterns, and a results evaluation program.

Eisner (1979) contributed to this topic claiming that there are three types of curriculum. These are the explicit curriculum, implicit curriculum, and null curriculum. As reported by Eisner (1979), explicit curriculum refers to the aspects that are well-defined to be taught within a school, district, or nationwide. This type of curriculum includes the learning objectives, the subjects to be taught, academic content that should be taught within those subjects, the texts, the planning model, or any other required materials that support teachers to have students gain the knowledge and skills they are supposed to gain based on the standards or learning objectives that guide certain subject area. Explicit curriculum is public. Examples of this type of curriculum are the curriculum menu that a school offers to the students. The subjects that are taught in that particular school as well as the learning goals such as teaching children to read and write, to figure, and to learn something about the history of a country.

Implicit curriculum, on the other hand, refers to the set of moral values, classroom structure, classroom environment, class rewards, in-class competitiveness, classroom or school rules as well as the traditions, political, religious, or social aspects that frame the school mission and influence the way teachers teach and how students have to be treated based on a teaching pedagogy (Eisner, 1979). It also includes the way a subject is valued within a school. As an example to this type of curriculum, Eisner (1979) stated that some school districts provide a differential credit system for students who are enrolled in courses in different tracks within the school curriculum. A student who is in the highest track is given more credit for a grade than a student who receives the same credit in a lower track.

Finally, the null curriculum refers to the subject or content areas that should be taught in school but they are not taught as well as to what should not be taught but is taught (Eisner, 1979). Examples of this type of curriculum are those subjects that are taught by mere teacher interest or specialization such as law, anthropology, the arts, communications, and economics.

Knowing what curriculum is and what types of curriculum exist is just a little piece of this broad topic. Curriculum development entails much more than that. Throughout this paper, an overview about the social and educational forces that impact curriculum as well as an overview about the social forces that have impacted the curriculum in Ecuador is provided. Furthermore, detailed information about the needs of the curriculum and the people who intervene in the curriculum development in Ecuador as well as in other contexts is also addressed. Likewise, the set of steps to follow within the curriculum development process are explained. In the following section, an overview about some of the social forces that impact the curriculum is provided.

II. SOCIAL FORCES THAT IMPACT CURRICULUM

Several are the factors that influence education throughout the globe. As time passes, what is taught to the citizens in a country depends on the changes and advances of a particular generation and philosophic currents that dominate the population of that country in that particular time. All the factors influencing the curriculum of a nation are influenced by social forces. Barbour and Barbour (2010) considered the population diversity, globalization, technology, and religious and spiritual variables as social forces impacting the curriculum of the twenty-first century. In addition, Tyler (2013) recognized two types of philosophical groups: the essentialists and the progressives. Essentialists considered cultural heritage as a factor to frame curriculum, on the other hand, progressives such as Tyler himself valued contemporary life issues as well as social, political, and economic problems as forces that would impact curriculum (Tyler, 2013).

A. *Culture, Ethnicity, Linguistics, and History as Social Forces Impacting the Ecuadorian Curriculum*

Culture is a strong social factor that has influenced and continues influencing education all over the world. For instance, cultural and ethnicity mixture, as a result of immigration, in the United States has impacted the education of that country throughout the years. As stated in Barbour and Barbour (2010), such changes have implied that legislation and judicial modifications like the civil rights legislation be conducted and as a result, group minorities and immigrants be accepted within the educational system of the nation.

Ecuador is a multicultural country filled with a wide diversity of ethnic groups and linguistic variety. Accordingly, among the ethnic groups found in Ecuador one can see white-mestizos, fourteen indigenous nationalities, nineteen peoples that belong to the Kichua indigenous nationality, and afro-Ecuadorians (Actores del Sistema de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue, 2013; Conejo, 2008; Mejeant, 2011; Ministerio de Cultura del Ecuador, 2007; Raimundo & Robayo, 2013). These groups are throughout the country. The awas, tsatchilas, chachis, huancavilcas, afro-Ecuadorians, mantas, and epera in the coast region; the mountain quichuas and another group of afro-Ecuadorians in the highlands; and, the cofanes, secoyas, sionas, huaorani, amazon quichuas, zaparos, achuars, and shuars in the amazon region (Conejo, 2008; Mejeant, 2011; Raimundo & Robayo, 2013). Due to this ethnic diversity, the Ecuadorian culture is also widely varied. As a consequence, even though Spanish is the main language spoken in Ecuador, there is a broad linguistic variation as well. Therefore, other languages such as the Tsafiki, Awapit, Epera Pedede, Cha'palaa, Kichwa, Shuar Chicham, Achuar, Paicoca, A'ingae, Kayapi, Waotededo, and nine varieties of Quichua, are spoken in this country (Mejeant, 2011; Raimundo & Robayo, 2013).

This mixture of culture, ethnicity, and language plays a fundamental role within the Ecuadorian curriculum. So much so that over the years, there has been an increasing interest led by Ecuadorian indigenous movements together with government forces to make changes within the Ecuadorian educational system so that the cultural rights of indigenous people are taken into account in educational matters. An example of this interest was the application of the Modelo del Sistema de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue -Ecuadorian Model for Intercultural Bilingual Education, also known as MOSEIB by its acronym in Spanish- which was launched in 1993 as discussed in Actores del Sistema de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue (2013), Conejo (2008), and Oviedo and Wildemeersch (2008).

The Bilingual Model for Intercultural Education was led by the Confederacion de Nacionalidades Indigenas del Ecuador - Confederation of Indigenous Nationalities of Ecuador also known as CONAIE by its acronym in Spanish- with the purpose of promoting the recovery of cultures and indigenous languages of the indigenous peoples of Ecuador (Conejo, 2008; Oviedo & Wildemeersch, 2008). As stated in Actores del Sistema de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue (2013), Acuerdo No. 020-12 (2012), Conejo (2008), and Oviedo & Wildemeersch (2008), this would be achieved by providing indigenous people an education through the use of their native language and practices in order to reinforce the culture and language of those groups. As a result of this cultural recognition, Ecuadorian education was divided into two educational systems -a Hispanic and an indigenous educational system- to cover the interests of both Hispanic and indigenous people of the nation (Oviedo & Wildemeersch, 2008).

Based on the MOSEIB, today Ecuadorian education offers one single educational system model which is the Educaci3n Intercultural Bilingue- Intercultural Bilingual Education also known as EIB. The EIB entails the Sistema de Educaci3n Intercultural Bilingue – Intercultural Bilingual Education System also known as SEIB- as a subsystem of this model for indigenous peoples of Ecuador as well as the Intercultural subsystem -previously known as Hispanic- for the rest of the population (Actores del Sistema de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue, 2013; Aguerrondo, Crespo, Robalino & Van Damme, 2013; Consejo Nacional de Educacion, 2007; El circuito educativo, n.d.). Accordingly, the curriculum of the EIB is made up by the national curriculum -which is applied to the intercultural subsystem- and the bilingual intercultural education curriculum as stated in the Article 87 of the Ley Org3nica de Educaci3n Intercultural – Organic Law of Intercultural Education (Ley Org3nica de Educaci3n Intercultural, 2011).

The EIB is framed under the policies of the Plan Nacional del Buen Vivir -National Plan for Good Living- and the Plan Decenal de Educacion – Ten Year Education Plan- (Actores del Sistema de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue, 2013; Aguerrondo et al., 2013). As indicated in Aguerrondo et al. (2013), Luna (2009) as well as in Consejo Nacional de Educacion (2007), through Ecuador's *Ten Year Education Plan*, the Ministry of Education proposed a model of management which focuses on eight policies as a means to reach and fulfill educational priorities. Among its policies, this model promotes the improvement of the quality of Ecuadorian education. As a consequence, the Ecuadorian curriculum for General Basic Education and Baccalaureate have been strengthened and updated as a strategy to reach this improvement. Besides other points, the current Ecuadorian curriculum includes values and topics that aim at disseminating the Ecuadorian culture, pluricultural, and multiethnic identity through the integration and application the

curricular axes as well as, regardless of the region, the inclusion of students with any linguistic or cultural background in the educational establishments of the nation (Actores del Sistema de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue, 2013; Aguerrondo et al., 2013; Consejo Nacional de Educacion, 2007; Cortijo et al., 2010).

As it can be deduced and as stated by Aristizabal et al., (2005), from the cultural perspective, curriculum approaches may pretend that the curriculum have has an absolute focus in a determined culture or that a culture characteristics be internalized in certain way within the curriculum.

B. Politics, Economy, and History as Social Forces Impacting the Ecuadorian Curriculum

Political ideologies play an impacting role within the curriculum development of a country. Policies concerning educational matters are directly influenced by politics and the ideology of politicians (Bigham & Ray, 2012; Levin, 2007; Petrina, 2004; Primrose & Alexander, 2013). For instance, for curriculum development, the analisis of policies applied to education matters must be conducted (Levin, 2007). The political ideology of a political party that rules a nation in a period of time can put more emphasis on education than others. This can be seen in the amount of resources a particular government has invested in education as well as the changes that that government proposes for that area through different proposals, projects, agreements, programs, and others. A government may work on setting up an education model or may promote programs within the educational system of its country, however, that can be considered of little value, useless, or unimportant from the analysis, interests, points of view, and new policies of the next government. As a consequence, a deletion or change in those programs and education models can occur.

In Ecuador, the president Gabriel Garcia Moreno demonstrated an increasing interest on transforming the Ecuadorian education system during his terms (1861-1865 and 1869-1875). Garcia Moreno incorporated religious European pedagogical models within the Ecuadorian educational system and invested a lot in the public education of Ecuador (Davila, 2010; Gabriel Garcia Moreno, n.d.; Vargas, 2005). After Garcia's presidential mandate, political ideologies of the country changed with the following governments. A few years later, the Ecuadorian education started to suffer due to the political instability of the country as a consequence of economic changes, technological advances and globalization. Ecuador was not ready for it. As stated by Nuñez (2014) and MOE UE (2007), a brief example of this instability is the government disaster during 1997 and 2007, as it was the first time in Ecuadorian history when Ecuador had had eight presidents in one decade.

The lack of investment within the educational public sector brought with it a series of embarrassing occurrences such as strikes (during the 80's and the 90's) led by the National Union of Ecuadorian Educators –UNE– who were fighting for their rights regarding, among others, delays in their salary payments (Lucas, 2000; Fretes-Cibils, Giugale, & Lopez-Calix, 2003). These events created a chaotic image of public education in Ecuador. During those strikes, schools were closed, streets were closed and blocked nationwide as well, and teachers would not go to work for weeks, and several times for months (Lucas, 2000; Fretes-Cibils, Giugale, & Lopez-Calix, 2003). As a result, students finished their elementary, high school, and university instruction having received a short time of instruction.

Ecuadorian education has changed today. With the election of Rafael Correa Delgado in 2006 as the president of Ecuador (Cheresky et al., 2007; “Gan ó Correa”, 2006; MOE UE, 2007; Recalde, 2007; TSE, 2006). Correa started his mandate in January, 2007 (“Evaluación del primer año”, 2008; Peregil, 2013) and since then Ecuador has experienced numerous changes. For instance, education has been one of the fields that Rafael Correa proposed to boost. As a consequence, the investment in education has increased in the last nine years (Concejo Nacional de Educacion, 2007; “La inversión en educación”, 2014; Presidencia, 2013; Redacción Pol fíca, 2014). A new reform for the law of education of Ecuador which is part of the legal framework for education as well as a new management model have been elaborated (Ministerio de Educacion del Ecuador, 2012). In addition, new curriculums, new schools, technology integration, culture consideration, teacher training, and districts creations are just a few examples of the changes in education Ecuador is going through today as it can be seen in Ecuador's *Ten Year Education Plan* (Aguerrondo et al., 2013; Consejo Nacional de Educacion, 2007; Luna, 2009; Ministerio de Educacion del Ecuador, 2012).

Regarding English, in 1992, under the term of the president Sixto Duran Ballen the Ministry of Education and Culture and the British Council signed an agreement to create the Foreign Language Administration of Ecuador (Chuisaca & Paucar, 2010; Haboud, 2009; The CRADLE Project, Ecuador, n.d.). This agreement drove the CRADLE (Curriculum Reform Aimed at the Development of the Learning of English) project with the intention of “grant[ing] secondary students a firm basis in the handling of English, and thus offer them a starting point for their future. Development of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing communicatively is attempted through a series of books adapted to the Ecuadorian reality” (Haboud, 2009, p. 66).

Currently, President Rafael Correa Delgado has an expectation for students in public institutions to receive an education of quality; therefore, English teaching and learning has experienced an enormous change. The CRADLE project has been put aside and a new English program named *Advance* has entered into functionality in the Ecuadorian public schools since 2012. With this change, other changes such as the creation of new curriculum standards aligned with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages have occurred (Ministerio de Educacion, 2012; Fortalecimiento de Inglés, n.d.). Furthermore, the utilization of new books which would promote the communicative approach have been adopted (Fortalecimiento de Inglés, n.d.).

Also, as a part of this new restructure process, in service-English teachers of Ecuadorian public schools have gone through an intensive evaluation process, which unfortunately demonstrated that their level of English was not adequate

enough to provide instruction in this language (Correa, 2012; “Desde el 28 de Julio”, 2012; “Docentes que imparten ingles”, 2012; “Explican el fortalecimiento”, 2014). As a solution to this problem, professional development programs for English teachers are being promoted as established in the standards for English teachers (Equipo tecnico de Proyecto de Ingles, 2012; Fortalecimiento de Inglés, n.d.). Accordingly, English teachers have been receiving training to improve their English and pedagogical strategies through the *Go Teacher* program (“Adenda Modificatoria al Convenio”, 2013; “Convenio de Cooperacion Interinstitucional”, 2012; Correa, 2012; “Desde el 28 de Julio”, 2012 “Explican el fortalecimiento”, 2014; Redaccion Sociedad, 2014) in different universities throughout the United States. The expectations are that public high school students really learn English and that by the end their secondary educational instruction, their English level will be aligned to the CEFR B1 English level (Equipo tecnico de Proyecto de Ingles, 2012; Villalba & Rosero, 2012).

As it has been discussed, some of the social forces that have impacted the Ecuadorian curriculum are the culture, ethnicity, linguistics, politics, history, and economy. However, there are other forces that are part of the changes of the curriculum as well. These are the educational forces, which will be discussed in the following section of this paper.

III. EDUCATIONAL FORCES THAT IMPACT CURRICULUM

Among the educational forces impacting the curriculum, Tyler (2013) considered the students themselves, the society, and the subject specialists. In addition to those agents, he also considered the school’s philosophy, the psychology of learning and the teachers themselves as agents that impact curriculum.

Historically, education has been marked by different philosophical currents. Dewey (1997) contrasted two of the strongest educational philosophies that have predominated throughout the history of education: traditional and progressive education. According to Dewey (1997), traditional education emphasized the continuation of a pattern of oppression and imposition where the students were to be obedient and passive receptors. Within the philosophy of traditional education, students had to follow rules and learn what they were imposed to learn for the benefit of society not of themselves as individuals. The philosophy of this type of education maintained that what the teacher taught was the only thing that mattered, all the students were to have the same skills and knowledge. Consequently, students learned what was imposed in the books or what the teachers knew and their experiences or interests were not considered at all. In addition, students were only trained for the present, grounded on the thought that future would not bring any changes that might require them to be reasoning people (Dewey, 1997).

On the other hand, Dewey (1997) stated that the purpose of progressive education is to educate students to be individually free. The philosophy of progressive education supported the idea that the learning experience must be meaningful to the students as individuals. What students bring to class does matter and learning gives students the opportunity to develop new skills day to day. Finally, students are allowed to express themselves and fostered to become reasoning persons. Within this type of education, the ideology that teachers are not the only ones who bring knowledge to the class predominates (Dewey, 1997).

Other philosophical currents based on clinical psychology are cognitivism and constructivism. Cognitivism, as described by Soler (2006), is a theory of learning that describes knowledge acquisition and processing as a mental activity that requires the internal modification of the learner. This modification leads to a posterior restructuring and organization of the knowledge in different complexity levels.

Constructivism, as claimed by Carretero (1997, 2009), is an inner construction of the individual itself. This construction is produced by the interaction of the individual’s cognitive, social, and affective aspects day to day (Carretero, 2005, 2009; Ordoñez, 2004-2006). Moreover, Gomez & Salvador (1994) stated that the knowledge construction process is a restructure and reconstruction process by which any type of knowledge is generated from the individual’s previous knowledge. In other words, the new knowledge is built upon what has already been learned.

The Ecuadorian Context

Previously, education in Ecuador as in many other countries, followed the traditional model of education. Today, on the other hand, the Ecuadorian educational model has its foundations on the critical pedagogy on which the constructivist and cognitive methodological structures predominate, as stated by Cortijo et al., (2010). By following this philosophical model, the Ministry of Education promotes a model of education by which the students are expected to receive a productive and meaningful learning so that they can achieve metacognition. To achieve the metacognition, students are intended to work on processes such as reading comprehension, ordering ideas, comparing and contrasting, summarizing, conceptualizing, experimenting, problem solving, defend their ideology, among others (Cortijo et al., 2010).

Besides the theories/philosophies of education, there exist other educational forces that impact the curriculum in Ecuador. These forces refer to the agents of change who are in charge of elaborating or modifying the Ecuadorian curriculum. In Ecuador, it is the responsibility of the Deputy Ministry of Educational Basis (Subsecretaria de Fundamentos Educativos) to propose policies and standards to improve the Ecuadorian curriculum (Acuerdo No. 020-12, 2012)-This will be explained in more detail in the section about curriculum developers.

Apart from what the Deputy Minister of Educational Basis proposes as part of the Ecuadorian curriculum, teachers also have the power and responsibility to modify and adapt the curriculum for their specific groups of students when

they plan for their classes. As stated by Dewey (1938, 1997) and Tyler (2013), teachers can modify the curriculum by choosing learning objectives according to the needs and interests of specific groups of students in order to provide positive learning experiences that will ensure the students knowledge acquisition within certain subject area.

In order to take decisions about the curriculum, it is important that teachers have a teaching philosophy. By having a teaching philosophy, teachers are able to decide how to approach the curriculum inside their classrooms. More importantly, they are able to shape their instruction design, implementation, and evaluation according to what they believe is better for their students (Tyler, 2013). Their philosophy guides them to be confident on the work they do and to work for the benefit of their students in the context they are teaching. Finally, their philosophy helps them not to become followers of what superior authorities think is correct to do in the classrooms nationwide since authorities do not know the reality of every school or classroom context.

Besides the social and educational forces that impact a curriculum, there are other factors to consider when elaborating a curriculum. These factors deal with the needs that influence the curriculum. In the following section, a discussion about the needs of the curriculum is provided.

IV. NEEDS OF THE CURRICULUM

Both, Dewey (1938, 1997) and Tyler (2013) highlighted the need of learning experiences as part of the curriculum. These authors explained that experience plays an important role within the learning process of students. In order to do this, curriculum-developers should focus their interests on the students' needs and interests (Seaman & Nelsen, 2011). Teachers are responsible to provide students with positive experiences so that they feel passionate and be willing to continue studying and discovering new things. Bad experiences inside the classrooms may negatively influence the students desire to continue studying (Dewey, 1938, 1997; Tyler, 2013). For this reason, learning experiences must be meticulously planned and teachers are to think outside the box when choosing methods and materials to deliver their instruction so that they can give their students an opportunity to learn something meaningful and valuable for their life.

Furthermore, experience must be continuous. By referring to the continuity principle, every experience is followed by more experiences and it is the educator's role to make those experiences meaningful for the students so that they can go back to them and take them as a positive reference to new learning (Dewey, 1997; Seaman & Nelsen, 2011; Tyler, 2013). Moreover, it is important to bear in mind that within the new model of education, the teaching-learning process is not grounded on what the teacher wants. In this model of education, the students' interests matter and the classroom is seen as a community. Students and teacher make up a community where every individual is important and everyone is responsible for something and works collaboratively to the benefit of the group as a whole. As opposite to traditional education, the teacher is not the center of the class or the knowledge source anymore to whom the students have to obey and only memorize what he said, instead, he becomes part of the learning community as a leader of the activities the students develop (Dewey, 1997 and Tyler, 2013).

The experiences that have been explained by Tyler (2013) and Dewey (1997) refer to the objectives that shape any curriculum as they are the foundations that guide the curriculum development. In an attempt to compare and provide a clear scope about some of the most relevant curriculum models that have impacted the history of curriculum development, Oliva (2005) detailed Tyler's, Taba's, and Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis' curriculum models as well as his own curriculum model. Regardless of one's use of an inductive or deductive approach to curriculum development, all these curriculum models share similar characteristics that take the students, society, and the subject matter itself into account in the process of curriculum development. Moreover, they are prescriptive models which show in detail the design (studies of the individual, society, and the subject itself), instructional (selection of learning experiences), and evaluation (selection of methods and strategies to evaluate the learning experiences) phases of curriculum development Oliva (2005). Also, each of these models make reference to the need of a philosophy to shape the curriculum development at a macro, meso, and micro level Oliva (2005).

The Ecuadorian Context

In reference to Ecuador, I strongly believe that the Ecuadorian curriculum should be shaped according to Tyler's expanded model for several reasons. First, Tyler's expanded model considers the students, society, and the subject matter itself as the main source for developing general teaching/learning objectives. Also, it requires curriculum developers to consider the school philosophy as an important factor to weigh up the objectives that apply to the values of each particular school as well as knowledge about educational psychology and human growth and development to identify which learning objectives are appropriate to each group of students in a general form. Unfortunately, in Ecuador the school philosophy is not taken into account at the moment of developing curriculum objectives at the meso-level as the schools only follow what is imposed by the government authorities.

Additionally, within Tyler's expanded model, teachers or curriculum developers are given the power to create precise instructional objectives that will allow them to select, organize, direct, and evaluate the learning experiences students are to receive according to their philosophy of teaching. Once again, many Ecuadorian teachers only follow what superior authorities impose to them. Regularly, they only focus on covering the content and do not pay much attention to what their students need. Here, a focus on differentiated instruction to fulfill the students' needs and interests is necessary.

Furthermore, the aforementioned factors and steps are relevant as curriculum development should go through a funnel process which would serve as a means to sieve what is important for the students from general to specific. To me, bearing in mind the students' interests and needs, society aspects at local and general level as well as the importance of a subject itself plays the main role to create a general picture of what a curriculum would look like at a bigger level and from which the curriculum developer can refer back to create a curriculum that would adapt to his specific setting.

Adapting the learning objectives to the school philosophy is also important as students attending each particular school would learn what the school wants them to learn according to their values. Also, knowledge about psychology and human and growth development helps the curriculum developer to know what learning objectives would be appropriate to the students' development level-not too easy nor too complex. Finally, giving teachers the power to become responsible for their instruction by selecting, organizing, directing, and evaluating the learning experiences students are to receive, provide them the chance to accommodate their instruction to their classroom reality as well as to decide what is good or bad for each particular group of students. This ensures that they can reach the objectives proposed. In this context, teachers would not be rule followers but creators, innovators, and most importantly, researchers.

After having identified the social and educational forces that impact curriculum as well as the common needs of the curriculum worldwide, it is important to provide an overview about those agents who participate in the development of the curriculum. The next section provides information about curriculum makers/developers to understand who the persons involved in developing the curriculum in Ecuador are.

V. CURRICULUM DEVELOPERS

Curriculum developers are the persons in charged of making decisions about what has to be taught within the curriculum of a subject or subjects. Oliva (2005) stated that there are several people who intervene in the development of the curriculum of the United States. The development of the curriculum in this country passes through a process of decision making at different power levels. Consequently, curriculum developers in the United States are people who work and belong to different entities such as the state, the school district, individual school, team/grade/department, and the classroom itself. In addition, Tyler (2013) claimed that within the curriculum development or curriculum reconstruction in a school, the teachers or the whole school staff members participate in the process, consequently, they become in the curriculum developers in those cases.

The Ecuadorian Context

According to the Acuerdo No. 020-12 (2012), the Subsecretaria de Fundamentos Educativos (Deputy Ministry of Educational Basis) is in charge of proposing policies and standards that would improve the Ecuadorian curriculum and as a result, the improvement of the quality of the educational service in Ecuador. Even though the Deputy Minister of Educational Basis is in charge of this process, there are other agents that influence this process as indicated in the organizational organigram structured (for more information, see Acuerdo No. 020-12) to indicate the departments existing within the Ministry of Education entity.

To the head of this responsibility is the Ministry of Education of Ecuador followed by the Viceministry of Education. After this agent is the Deputy Ministry of Educational Basis who is preceding other departments such as the National Curriculum Director, the National Educational Investigation Direction, and the National Educational Standards Director respectively. In addition, under the direction of the National Curriculum director, other subagents are found. These agents are the curriculum specialist, curriculum analyst 1, and the curriculum analyst 2. All these agents are in charge of developing, modifying and evaluating the ecuadorian curriculum at a macro level.

Once all the government agents stated above have made choices about what to include and expect from the curriculum nationwide, at a meso level, it is the school which is in charge of adapting the curriculum by choosing learning objectives that are in accordance with its philosophy as well as a psychology of learning. However, according to my experience, this is not frequently done within the Ecuadorian educational context, as schools solely follow what is already dictated by superior authorities.

Following Tyler's model, the teacher is the agent who takes the role as a curriculum-maker at a micro level as he is in charge of modifying and adapting the curriculum for his classes. According to Tyler (2013), this modification is performed by choosing learning objectives in accordance with the needs and interests of especific groups of students in order to provide positive learning experiences that will ensure the students knowledge acquisition within certain subject area. From my perspective, as educational forces that impact curriculum in Ecuador, not all ecuadorian teachers have been devoted to this role as the many of them just focus on covering the content and complete the course plan they are suppose to cover within a school year term. Accordingly, many teachers still follow the one-size-fits-all ideology and do not adapt their lessons the needs or interests of their students.

As a matter of fact, it is at this micro level where a teaching philosophy plays an crucial role as the teachers are the ones who decide how to approach the curriculum inside their classrooms. By establishing a teaching philosophy, teachers shape their instruction design, implementation, and evaluation according to what they believe is better for their students. Also, they plan their instruction reflectively in order to achieve the learning experiences they want for their students (Dewey, 1938, 1997; Tyler, 2013). If teachers believe in certain philosophy, they will apply it in their

classroom and frame what they do for the benefit of their students. Consequently, they will not only do what superior authorities think is correct to do in the classrooms nationwide as they are not aware of the reality of every school or classroom context.

As all the needs, social, and educational forces that impact the curriculum are identified, it is time to apply these aspects within an actual curriculum plan. In the next section, a detailed step by step explanation of the process of curriculum development is provided.

VI. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Curriculum development process refers to the “improvement, change or modification on already existing educational programmes” due to the fact that curriculum development is a changeable variable (Primrose & Alexander, 2013, p. 58). In order to develop a curriculum plan, several steps are considered. Morales (2014) stated that curriculum developers should plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum as part of curriculum development. Furthermore, she also claimed that within that process, there is a set of steps to follow. No matter what curriculum model developers choose, they will experience similar steps, though the order may differ. Morales (2014) referred to the steps that are detailed below as part of the curriculum process/cycle that curriculum developers should follow in order to develop a curriculum for any subject.

A. *Establish Aims*

Considering these steps, the curriculum developers should begin by establishing the aims of a particular subject curriculum. In other words, establish what the curriculum attempts or intends to reach since as stated by Oliva (2005), the aims are general expectations to achieve within a curriculum program. Besides this, Primrose and Alexander (2013) also stated that the aims should cover “the effort and resources provided by the department(s) concerned to enable students to meet these levels of achievement” (p. 57). For Tyler (2013) and Dewey (1938), these aims should be grounded on the philosophy of the curriculum developers as well as on the educational philosophy of the institution the curriculum is going to be applied. Regarding this point, Tyler (2013) stated that the school philosophy may include ideas about a good society or the purpose of the school in terms of citizens’ preparation. Consequently, the aims have to be aligned to what the school’s beliefs and values are in regards to what is better for the students as implied or stated in its philosophy.

B. *Select a Model*

The second step is to select a model for curriculum development. A model, according to Oliva (2005), is usually a prescriptive set of phases, components, or principles that guide curriculum developers when elaborating a curriculum plan. Oliva (2005) stated that the most known curriculum developing models are Tyler’s model, Taba’s model, Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis’ model, and Oliva’s model. Regarding this step, curriculum developers normally select the model of curriculum development that is most aligned with their educational philosophy.

C. *Define the Rationale*

After that, curriculum-makers must to provide a rationale for their plan. Morales (2014) stated that the rationale states “reason and purpose for the particular discipline” (SLD. 2). Regarding this point, Tyler (2013) stated that curriculum developers have to deliberate about the contribution certain subject can make to the students as they might not intend to become specialist in certain subject area. So, they must state the importance and functionality of the subject or curriculum unit for the students they are going to teach.

D. *Establish the Curriculum Goals and Objectives*

Continuing with the process of the development of the curriculum, curriculum developers have to establish what they want the students to achieve within the curriculum. These are the overarching goals and objectives that guide the curriculum purpose. They are expected to be achieved at the end of a school year period. These goals and objectives have to pass through a validation process (Morales, 2014). The validation process as referred to Tyler’s model are the philosophy of education and psychology of learning screens (Tyler, 2013). According to Tyler’s model (Tyler, 2013), the philosophy of education will guide the curriculum developer to select goals or objectives that go along with the school beliefs and values. The psychology of learning will help the curriculum developer to distinguish changes in human beings that can be expected to result from a learning process from those that cannot, to distinguish goals that are feasible from those that are likely to take a very long time or are almost impossible of attainment at the age level contemplated as well as to conduct grade placement for objectives which are educationally attainable.

E. *Identify the Needs of the Curriculum*

Within the phases that curriculum developers have to fulfill when developing a curriculum, they have to identify the needs of the curriculum (Primrose & Alexander, 2013). Morales (2014) mentioned that these needs should be focused on the needs of the students, society, and the subject matter itself. In his model, Tyler (2013) specified that curriculum developers should begin their curriculum development process by studying the students, society, and the subject.

Within the study of the learners, as Tayler (2013) stated, the curriculum developers should identify needed changes in behavior patterns in the students for the school to produce them. They must also identify the students physical (need for food, water, etc), social (need for affection, belonging, etc), and integrative needs (need for a philosophy of life) to help them meet these needs with a personal and social significance. Also, curriculum developers should identify students' psychological needs (e.g. motivation) to help them meet those that are not met outside of school.

Regarding the society needs, curriculum developers should develop the curriculum so that they can guide students to develop knowledge and skills needed in contemporary life as it is complex, constantly changing, and requires a transfer of training (Tyler, 2013). Also, they should consider critical and important aspects of today as well as develop the curriculum to provide students meaningful learning experiences so that they can transfer their learning in real life situations that are similar to the situations in which the learning took place. Finally, they have to consider the needs of the subject itself and find out what contributions can certain subjects make for those people who will not become specialists in the field as well as find out what contributions can their subject make to other large educational functions (Tyler, 2013).

F. Establish the Instructional Goals and Objectives

Once the curriculum developer has identified the curriculum needs and curriculum goals and objectives, they have to establish the instructional goals and objectives. The instructional goals are the instructional targets and the instructional objectives are the behavior or outcome the learner is expected to at the end of a lesson. Again, these goals and objectives have to pass through the educational philosophy and psychology of learning screens for their validation process as stated in Tyler's model (Tyler, 2013).

G. Decide on Instructional Strategies and Approaches

After that, the curriculum developer must decide what instructional approaches or approaches will guide their curriculum plan regarding the instruction level. Regarding this phase, in his model, Tyler (2013) referred to the selection of learning experiences and the general principles and characteristics they must follow. According to Tyler (2013), the learning experiences must follow the following principles: they should give the students the opportunity to practice the kind of behavior implied in the objectives, be adequate so that students obtain satisfactions from developing the kind of behavior implied in the objectives, be appropriate to the students' range of possibilities in terms of attainment and predisposition, be adequate so that students obtain satisfactions from developing the kind of behavior implied in the objectives, and bring about several outcomes.

Besides those general principles, the learning experiences must have the following characteristics: they should develop skill in thinking: students apply inductive, deductive, and logical thinking by working on solving problem activities. They should be helpful in acquiring information: students develop understanding of particular things that will lead them to develop knowledge about various things. Finally, they should be helpful in developing social attitudes: students develop social attitudes through assimilation from the environment, the emotional effects of certain kinds of experiences, traumatic experiences, and through direct intellectual processes (Tyler, 2013). Bearing this in mind, curriculum developers should select strategies that would help them to achieve the goals and objectives through the enhancement of learning experiences that will provide the students a meaningful learning.

H. Assess the Instruction

The next step curriculum developers are to follow is the assessment of the instruction. Curriculum developers are to evaluate their instruction in order to find out whether the strategies and activities performed during the teaching instruction have achieved the desired learning objectives or goals proposed for the class. Within Tyler's model, the process of instruction evaluation follows some basic notions. These notions maintain that the evaluation should determine the degree to which the objectives are getting the desired behavior they are expected to get in the students. Consequently, the evaluation must assess the behavior of the students (Tyler, 2013). Tyler (2013) suggested that the evaluation should be conducted at the beginning and at the end of the instruction process in order to measure the changes developed in the students. Curriculum developers can evaluate the degree of objectives achievements through paper and pencil tests, observations, interviews, questionnaires, artifacts, records, and sampling.

I. Evaluate the Curriculum

Finally, curriculum developers are to evaluate the curriculum. By evaluating the curriculum, curriculum developers intend to find out whether the curriculum of a subject has covered what it was supposed to cover as well as whether it has provoked the results it was supposed to provoke, and more importantly, if it is aligned with the needs of contemporary life. These evaluation can be conducted by analyzing the results of the instructional evaluation and determine whether the curriculum is achieving its aims (Hussain, Hussain Dogar, Azeem, & Shakoor, 2011; Primrose & Alexander, 2013).

According to Tyler (2013), depending on the evaluation of the curriculum, sometimes schools rebuild their curriculum. Schools may construct a new instructional program or they may also reconstruct the whole curriculum. It orders to conduct a reconstruction of the curriculum, it is important to count with the participation of all the people who are part of that school (Tyler, 2013). Roles are assigned and every individual has to participate on the evaluation and

determination of the global needs (students, society, and subject needs), then they have to determine the institutional needs (school, whole school students' needs), and they finish with the classroom needs (specific group's needs) (Tayler, 2013). Besides these, they have to conduct a control process so that they can evaluate the instruction to find out whether the curriculum objectives are being fulfilled or not. Consequently, as stated by Tayler (2013), the evaluation of the curriculum is a cyclical process that is repeated over and over to determine if the curriculum covers what it is supposed to cover aligned with the needs of contemporary life.

VII. CONCLUSION

Curriculum development is not a simple and steady process. Instead, it is a complex, changing, and ongoing process that requires lots of analysis from curriculum developers. Therefore, curriculum developers have to consider many aspects when developing curriculum. They must analyze the social forces such as politics, economy, culture, history, technology, and religion as well as the educational forces. The educational forces include philosophers and their philosophical currents, the curriculum developer's philosophy as well as the students, society, and the subject itself that impact the curriculum in the time it is being developed. Also, they must have a broad understanding about the needs of the curriculum. These needs involve the society, students, and the subject's needs at a specific time as life and time advance.

Moreover, it is also relevant that they know who the persons that influence the development of any curriculum are as well as the level of power they have. Finally, knowledge about to plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum and the steps that are part of that curriculum development process or cycle should be understood by the curriculum developers. In addition, curriculum development can be developed at different levels starting from the classroom to school, district, zone, and nation levels. Teachers themselves are curriculum developers when they plan their classes, they are developing curriculum.

To sum up, curriculum development is not an isolated process. It is developed at different levels and requires a great deal of knowledge regarding the variety of aspects that intervene in its process. Furthermore, curriculum cannot be developed by one single person. It is a cooperative group work. Consequently, in order to develop a curriculum it is necessary the participation of many people starting from the students, the community, subject specialists, school staff, and society in general as sources for curriculum development.

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An Investigation into Annual Faculty Evaluation Process of EFL Teachers in the Middle East: Challenges for Leadership & Management

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Abstract—This study examined the effectiveness of the Annual Faculty Evaluations Process at an English language centre in the Middle Eastern context. It sought to determine to what extent this evaluation process helped the English language teachers improve their teaching practice. A mixed-method design was used to collect quantitative and qualitative data. The data were collected via teacher questionnaire & teacher interviews and triangulated via cross examination of the documents pertaining to the teacher evaluation policy and procedures used by the language centre. The findings of this case study revealed that the teachers believe that the process of annual faculty evaluation (AFE) has had a very positive impact on their professional development. However, the AFE process is quite rigid and does not take cultural diversity of the teachers into account. The report makes various recommendation in terms of teacher autonomy as well as participation in the evaluation process and using the three-track evaluation system (Danielson and McGreal, 2000) by the administration.

Index Terms—observation, teaching evaluation, professional development

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Boyd (1989 “a teacher evaluation system should give teachers useful feedback on classroom needs, the opportunity to learn new teaching techniques, and counsel from principal and other teachers on how to make changes in their classroom” (p.1). A recurring theme in almost all teacher evaluation systems is the importance of establishing clear understanding of the objective of the system which must then be aligned with procedures involved.

This study examined the effectiveness of the annual faculty evaluation (the AFE) Process initiated in the academic year 2010-11 at a PYP run by an English Language Centre (the ECL) at a Middle Eastern university. The ECL was originally established about three decades ago, to teach English as a foreign language (EFL) to prospective students of various disciplines at the universality. The ECL is comprised of 12,000 male and female students, studying in two gender-segregated campuses, and approximately 500 culturally-diverse faculty across both campuses. This study focuses on the men’s campus faculty that includes about 200 EFL teachers.

All the faculty members are evaluated by means of classroom observations on annual basis. This evaluation is summative and directly linked to their contract renewal at the end of the academic year. If a teacher is rated low on classroom performance, he immediately figures out that his job is at risk. The AFEs have been introduced five years ago at the ECL, for the quality assurance and performance evaluation of teachers. Since then, they have become the most debated practice because of their rigid nature and their main reliance on only one mode i.e., announced classroom observations. As an after-effect of these observations, teachers started leaving the organization which became a serious challenge for the ECL administration. Meanwhile, some observers/evaluators received no professional training prior to the practice whereas others received an orientation for only one or two days before taking up the job. Apart from this, the formal evaluation at the ECL primarily required 2 formal and one informal observation for performance evaluation every semester. In other words, every teacher had to undergo.

In addition to 5 observations per academic year i.e., two formative and four summative observations (later in 2011-12, the number of observations was reduced to one formal observation per semester), all teachers have to submit annual teacher development plans (TDP). Several in-house training workshops and focused group discussions were also created to help teachers discuss certain areas they wanted to develop amongst themselves. This was a positive change and created an opportunity to learn new teaching techniques, as well as counsel from other teachers on how to make changes in their classrooms.

Nevertheless, the instrument being used for classroom observations is still a checklist of behaviors encompassing 13 teaching standards with five ratings where 5 is outstanding and 1 is unsatisfactory. Any teacher who is rated 3 or below on the AFE is generally believed to be in trouble. Sadly, majority of the teachers somehow end up with a 3 on the AFE

rating, hence having stress and job insecurity. This is the context of the problem in which this paper evaluated the AFE process in order to propose certain recommendations to improve the situation both for teachers and the administration.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are two purposes of performance evaluation i.e., formative and summative. The choice of approach greatly depends on the purpose of evaluation. Screening out unsuitable candidates and terminating incompetent teachers are summative functions. On the contrary, providing constructive feedback and providing direction for teacher development are formative purposes.

Bailey (2006) defines that the purpose of formative evaluation is 'to provide feedback on an ongoing project, to improve the program' whereas the summative evaluation 'is a final assessment, a make-or-break decision at the end of a project or funding period' (p. 184). While formative evaluation is associated with helping, summative evaluation is associated with "terminating".

An evaluation system that fosters teacher learning will obviously differ from the one whose aim is to measure teacher competence. Teacher evaluation systems have not accurately measured teacher quality because they have failed to do a good job of discriminating between effective and ineffective teachers and have not aided in developing a highly skilled teacher workforce (Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern, & Keeling, 2009). Measuring teachers and developing teachers are different purposes with different implications. An evaluation system designed primarily for measurement will look quite different from a system designed primarily for development.

The relative importance of these two aspects of evaluation is significantly different for different groups of people. Legislators and policymakers tend to value the summative purposes. They make the point that public schools are, after all, public institutions, supported by taxpayer's money, and that the public has a legitimate interest in the quality of the teaching that occurs there. It is through the system of teacher evaluation that members of the public, through their legislators and local boards of education ensure the quality of teaching. A parent, in other words, is entrusting the education of his child to the public schools, has a right to expect a certain minimum level of performance. Educators, on the other hand, tend to think that teacher evaluation should be designed for the purpose of professional development and the improvement of teaching. Experienced practitioners argue that professional dialogue about teaching, in a safe environment, managed and led by teachers, are the only means by which teachers can improve their practice (Marzano, 2012).

A. Classroom Observations

The present study focuses on the AFEs by means of classroom observations. Therefore, it is important to begin with the rationale for these classroom observations. Bailey (2001) enlists four broad functions of classroom observation in English Language Programs: (1) Pre-service teachers in the practicum observed by teacher educators; (2) Practicing teachers observed by colleagues for professional development; (3) Practicing teachers observed by supervisors/coordinators to judge their performance; and (4) Teachers observed for collecting data in classroom research.

Teacher evaluation by means of classroom observation emerged as a career track in later decades of twentieth century. By then, language teaching had begun to be a profitable commercial enterprise and supervisors were needed to ensure that customers were satisfied and were getting what they were paying for. Bailey laments, 'very few language teachers ever receive any formal preparation for carrying out supervisor's responsibilities' (2006:3). Most of the language teachers are promoted to supervisors because of reasons other than their professional preparation for the job.

Classroom observations are mainly conducted for teacher evaluation. Teacher trainers and educational researchers believe that classroom observations can provide useful feedback to teachers, and they can improve the overall effectiveness of teaching-learning process. But combining professional development with evaluation is a real challenge faced by the ELP administrators.

Sheal (1989) enlisted four obstacles that do not let teachers benefit from observations. First, most classroom observations are conducted by administrators rather than by practicing teachers. Peer observations are not very common. Consequently observations tend to be seen as judgmental. Secondly, much of the observation that goes on is unsystematic and subjective. Administrators and teachers are generally not trained in observation. Consequently they tend to use themselves as a standard. Thirdly, most observations are for teacher evaluation purposes, with the result that teachers generally regard observations as a threat. This leads to tension in the classroom and between teacher and observer at any pre or post-observation meetings. Finally, post-observation meetings tend to focus on the teacher's behavior - what he/she did well or might do better - rather than on developing the teacher's skills. Teachers tend to react in defensive way, and given this atmosphere, even useful feedback is often 'not heard'.

He concludes that if classroom observation is to be used for staff development and to improve the quality of instruction then the focus needs to shift towards teacher development rather than teacher evaluation. The issue of class observation is remarkably similar to the issue of performance management in the world of business and industry. Just as traditional performance reviews fail to improve employee performance, in the same way traditional subjective classroom observations fail to improve teacher performance.

Sheal (1989) approves of classroom observations provided they are developmental; on the contrary, Quirke (1996) is strictly against any classroom observations at all. He believes that both teacher and students are usually on their good behavior, so observing lessons is a charade. Whether such observations should take place and why is a crucial question, and the answer is rather political and strategic, but logic makes it easier. A teacher's main responsibility is to teach effectively. How can decisions about his performance, promotion or termination be fairly made without first-hand knowledge of his teaching. Therefore, to evaluate teachers fairly, it is important to see them teach. How it should be done is another debate.

Those who agree with Quirk (1996) that classroom observations are of little value believe that both teacher and students put on a show. Therefore, they choose Surprise Observations because they want to see a normal lesson which is not specially prepared, however, this practice too has serious repercussions because it leads to mistrust and defensiveness.

Amidst this debate, Powell (1999) suggests an alternative idea of 'Unseen Observations'. He calls it 'unseen' because the supervisor neither visits the class nor watches a video tape of the lesson. Instead, the teacher submits a detailed lesson plan and then candidly reports what occurred during the lesson. Powell believes 'self-observation' is a very useful tool for encouraging teachers to increase their awareness of their own teaching. This system too has serious drawbacks. In self-observation one loses the opportunity of getting likely professional feedback from an expert observer.

B. Three-track System of Teacher Evaluation

Danielson & McGreal, (2000) suggest three-track system for teacher evaluation. Track 1- The Beginning Teacher Program is for making teacher retention decisions and moving the probationary teachers to tenured position with professional and personal development opportunities. It encourages teachers and administrators to understand the importance and usefulness of evaluation, and supports the practice of reflection and professional learning. Classroom observations remain the most common tool for teacher performance evaluation with a pre- observation conference, the observation itself and the post-observation conference for feedback. The observation itself is not evaluation, rather, it is a source of collecting evidence to be used for professional discussion and reflection on teaching and learning. The reliability and usefulness of classroom observation is linked to the amount and type of information observer has before the observation. Similarly, observations are reliable if the observers are trained and observation and conferencing skills. Post-conferences are a time for reflection, review and constructive feedback, and reinforcement. Those teachers who demonstrate competency in meeting the required standards are moved to track 2 which is professional growth track.

Track 2 – Professional Development Track “professional development is the process by which competent teachers achieve higher professional competence and expand their understanding of self, role, context, and career (Suke & Stiggins, 1990 quoted in Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 99). Professional Development Track implies an acceptance of alternative forms of assessment and a commitment to change the evaluation system. Danielson & McGreal (2000) claim that “it is not only the teacher’s own motivation, awareness, and imagination, but also the policies and practices of the school in which she teaches (p. 99). Both quality assurance and professional learning can be incorporated in one evaluation system – and Track 2 is the place to do it. The purpose of this track is to provide a structured, supportive, and collaborative environment for professional learning that will further enhance student learning. An organization that chooses this format for evaluation, places all tenured and experienced teachers automatically in track 2. They remain fully involved in this track unless the supervisor begins to have concerns about the teacher’s performance. At this point, the supervisor contacts the teacher, raises the concerns, and determines with the teacher how they should address the concern. This could involve scheduling classroom observations, but only if observation would fit the type of concern being raised. If the teacher positively addresses or clarifies the concern, involvement in track 2 continues normally. If the problem is real and cannot be resolved during the initial contacts between the teacher and the supervisor, then exactly the same action occurs as would in a cycled summative model: the supervisor or peer review team moves him to assistance track which is track 3.

Track 3 – Teacher Assistance Track with a purpose to provide organizational support and assistance to teachers who are not meeting organization’s teaching standards. This track demonstrates organization’s commitment to quality teaching by providing a supported and focused system of assistance to ensure that every staff member is meeting the organization’s standards. This track is for tenured and experienced teachers who are experiencing problems in meeting the teaching standards and are identified as marginal teachers. It is not for the probationary or new teachers because such teachers should be eliminated through the established procedure in track1. There are usually two dominant groups involved in the assistance track. The first group is of those teachers who are experiencing stress in their lives such as divorce, serious illness, the death of a loved one, bankruptcy, and other forms of depression – all these events affect classroom performance. This group of teachers tends to respond favorably to any support provided in track 3. The second group is usually a small number of experienced teachers who never had structured professional assistance – such teachers are marginal, but not incompetent. They have the capacity to improve their skills. But the desired improvement will not take place through teacher’s individual initiative, rather it is the structured assistance which can help such teachers and it is the organization that should cater for such structured assistance. After all this support, if a teacher still fails to meet the teaching standards then the final resort will be termination of his services.

Bailey (2006) suggests five options between the supervisor control and the teacher control when it comes to decisions on evaluation format (figure 1). The extreme opposite of the Unseen Observation is the Surprise Observation.



Figure 1. Supervisor Control

The surprise visit is to see a normal lesson, rather than one the teacher has specially prepared whereas an unseen observation is an alternative to conducting classroom observations. The concept of unseen observation is based on structured self-evaluation conducted by an individual and later discussed with the supervisor. It is called unseen because the supervisor neither observes the class nor sees a video tape of the lesson; it is descriptive rather than prescriptive. It encourages practitioners to articulate their general principles then analyze them for contradictions. Teachers have a chance to see what they had planned and what actually happened in the lesson. Announced observations can also be negotiated simultaneously. If teachers are allowed to choose the time they deem convenient for observations then they get more control over scheduling process and hence more confidence and less stress, but it may not always be possible or feasible for evaluators especially where there are few observers and a large number of teachers to be observed in a tight timeframe. It should be convenient for both parties involved. Another alternative is to allow teachers to decide on their own and invite their supervisors to visit their classes. It is a proactive approach which allows more autonomy to teachers but of course with an expectation that teachers come forward.

III. METHODOLOGY

There were 194 male teachers at Men’s campus of ELC at the time of data collection. The faculty included 79 Arab non-native English speakers, 53 non-Arab non-native English speakers whereas 62 native speakers of English. The data was collected from 45 teachers taking 5 teachers from the each category above. The sample included all ratings such as outstanding, above average, satisfactory and needs development as per the AFE for academic year 2012~13. It was ascertained that each category accommodated veteran and novice teachers (Figure 2).

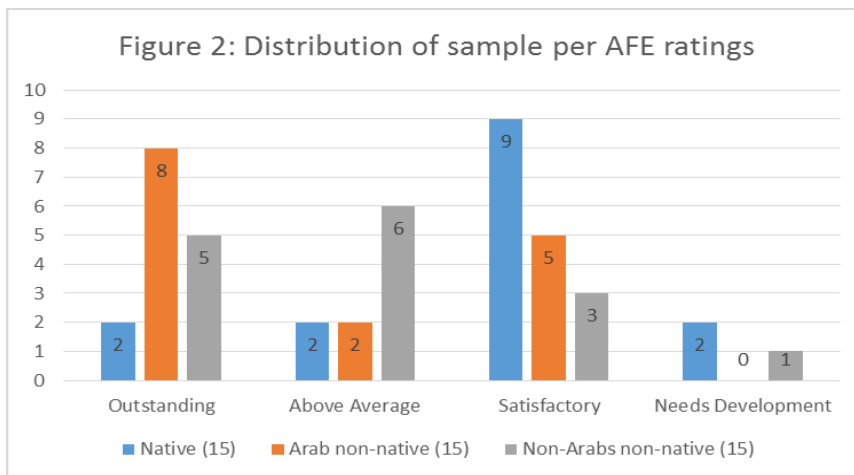


Figure 2. Distribution of sample per AFE ratings

Questionnaires solicited data in 2 broad categories: Facts & Opinions. Factual information required general information of the respondents such as age, nationality, qualification etc. The opinion questions require respondents to reveal their impressions rather than mere reporting of facts. There were 7 sections (A-G) of the questionnaire designed for this study. Section A solicited demographic information; sections B & C solicited rating attributes; section D solicited teachers’ perceptions of the most recent observer; sections E-G solicited the attributes of the procedure, feedback and evaluation context during the AFE process. After administering the questionnaire, 9 questionnaire respondents were interviewed to gain deeper insight into their responses about the AFEs.

Quantitative data was obtained through a five-point Likert scale and then the raw data was transformed into groups and tables. Next, percentage of responses was calculated for each category. A step further, the five point scale was reduced to three point scale for clarity and accuracy in the analysis; hence strengths and weaknesses of the AFE process were identified. On the other hand, the qualitative data was obtained through semi-structured interviews. All interviews were recorded in English and important chunks were transcribed. For triangulation purposes recurrent themes were identified and further crosschecked against quantitative data whether the two sources complemented or contradicted each other. The following section analyses the data as per parts in the questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire recorded demographic information of the respondents which do not have impact on the data acquired from the following sections.

For qualitative data 3 teachers were selected from each category in the form of semi structured interviews in cognizance with the questionnaire. Interviews were recorded with interviewee’s consent and relevant parts of the recordings were transcribed for data analysis.

IV. QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Responses to questions 6-8 in part B seek information on the participants’ perceptions towards overall quality of evaluation, the impact of evaluation on professional practice, and the impact of evaluation on professional growth at the ECL (Figure 3). Generally the responses in this part reflect positive inclination of the respondents towards the quality of evaluation and its impact on their professional practice and growth. The average score of the three items in this part in terms of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ is 51.84%. On the contrary, the average score of the three items in terms of ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ is 10.36%. Hence, the results of part 2 indicate that about 52% participants are of the opinion that the quality of evaluation at the ECL is very high and it has positive impact on their professional practice and professional growth. Fifty-eight percent respondents said that the evaluation process had positive impact on their professional growth whereas 47 % respondents believed that the evaluation process had positive impact on their professional practice.

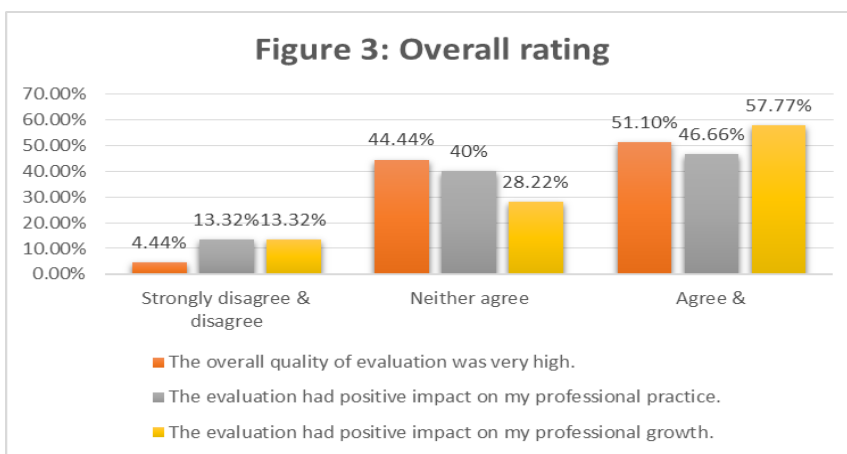


Figure 3. Overall rating

A. Rating Attributes of Evaluation

The results of part C show a positive response of the respondents towards the rating attributes of evaluation. The positive average score of the eight items in this part is 56.65%. On the contrary, the average score of the eight items in terms of ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ is 10.82%. The results of part C showed that around 36% participants did not have enough knowledge of the technical aspects of teaching. The highest reported positive response is for question 9 which means 60% of the respondents are optimistic about the strength of their professional expectations whereas the lowest response, in the same category, is 47 % denoting that respondents believe that the evaluation process had positive impact on their professional practice.

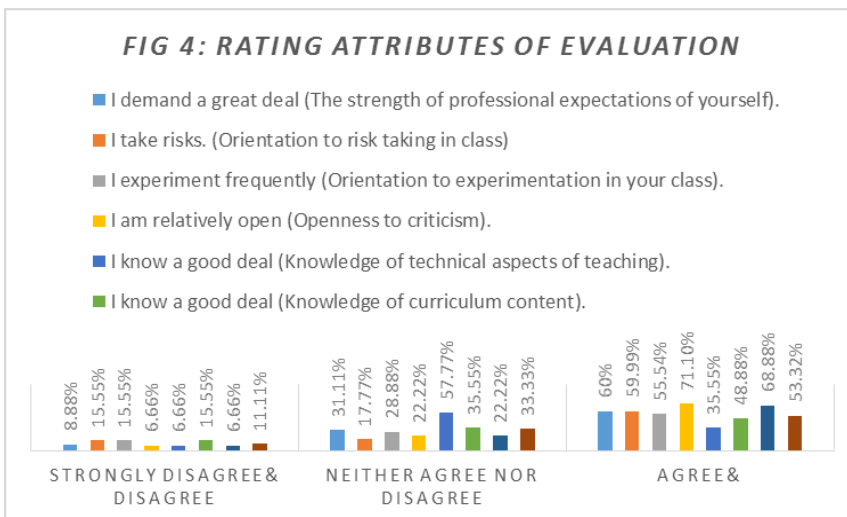


Figure 4. Rating attributes of evaluation

B. Perceptions of the Most Recent Observer

Part 4 seeks information about the participants’ perceptions of the most recent observer in terms of the usefulness of the feedback provided, helpfulness of the observer, patience of the observer, flexibility of the observer, and usefulness and persuasiveness of the suggestions provided after the observation. The overall results of part 4 show a positive response of the respondents towards their most recent observer (Figure 5). The average score of the five items in this part in terms of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ is 43.10 % On the contrary, the average score of the five items in terms of ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ is 20.88%. The highest reported response in terms of agreement (‘agrees’ and ‘strongly agree’) is for question 19 which means 53.33% of the respondents are of the opinion that their most recent observer was very patient whereas the lowest response, in the same category, is for question 18 which means around 35.55 % respondents believe that their most recent observer was very helpful.

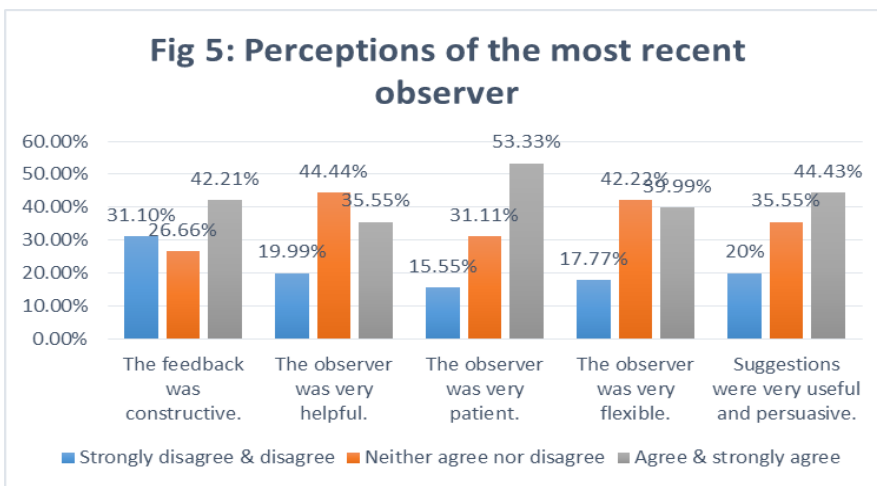


Figure 5. Perceptions of the most recent observation

C. Attributes of the Procedure Used during the Most Recent Evaluation

Part D seeks information about the participants’ perceptions about the attributes of the procedure used during their most recent evaluation regarding communication of the standards prior to the observation, clarity of the standards, and appropriateness of the standards for the current teaching assignment. The overall results of part 5 show a positive response of the respondents towards the attributes of the procedure used during the most recent evaluation (Figure 6). The average score of the three items in this part in terms of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ is 57.77 % On the contrary, the average score of the three items in terms of ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ is 10.36%. The highest reported response in terms of agreement (‘agrees’ and ‘strongly agree’) is for question 22 which means 66.66% of the respondents acknowledge that standards were communicated in great details whereas the lowest response, in the same category, is for question 24 which means 44.44 % respondents agree with the appropriateness of the standards with their current teaching assignment at the ELI.

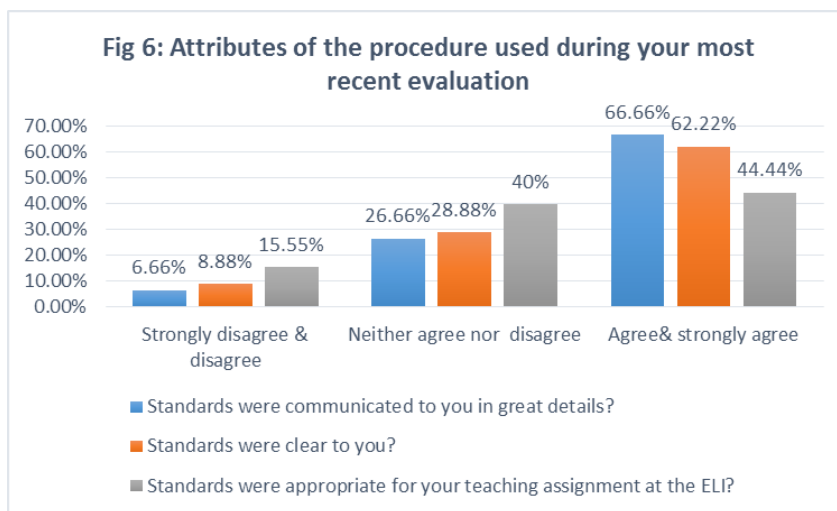


Figure 6. Perception of the procedure used during your most recent evaluation

D. Describe the Attributes of the Feedback You Received during Your Last Evaluation Experience?

Part E seeks information about the participants’ perceptions about the feedback they received during their last evaluation experience towards the depth of information provided, quality of ideas and suggestions contained in the feedback, and timing of the feedback. The overall results of part 6 show a positive response of the respondents towards the attributes of the feedback they received during their last evaluation experience. The average score of the three items in this part in terms of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ is 48.88% On the contrary, the average score of the three items in terms of ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ is 22.22%. The highest reported response in terms of agreement (‘agrees’ and ‘strongly agree’) is for question 25 which means 53.33% of the respondents acknowledge that information was provided in depth during feedback sessions whereas the lowest response, in the same category, is for question 27 which means 42.22 % respondents agree with the appropriateness of the timing of the feedback.

E. Describe the Attributes of the Evaluation Context

Part F seeks information about the participants’ perceptions about the attributes of the evaluation context in terms of time spent on the evaluation process, time allotted for professional development during the academic year, availability of training programs and models of good practices, clarity of the policy statement, and Intended role of evaluation.

The overall results of part 7 show mixed responses of the respondents towards the attributes of the evaluation context. The average score of the five items in this part in terms of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ is 34.66% On the contrary, the average score of the three items in terms of ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ is also 34.21% (Figure 5).

The highest reported response in terms of agreement (‘agrees’ and ‘strongly agree’) is for question 28 which means 62.22% of the respondents acknowledge that good deal of time was spent on the evaluation process including their time and that of all other participants such as students, evaluators and academic coordinators whereas the lowest response, in the same category, is for question 29 which means only 17.77% of the respondents appear to be satisfied with the amount of time allotted for professional development during the academic year.

Part G: Describe the attributes of the evaluation context.		Strongly disagree & disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree & strongly agree
28	Good deal of time was spent on the evaluation process including your time and that of all other participants such as students, evaluators and academic coordinators.	15.55%	22.22%	62.22
29	Good deal of time was allotted during the academic year for professional development at the ELI.	46.66%	35.55%	17.77%
30	Good deal of training programs and models of good practices were made available.	26.66%	46.66%	26.66%
31	Policy statement regarding purpose of evaluation was very clear.	40%	31.11%	28.88%
32	Intended role of evaluation was teacher development.	42.22%	20%	37.77%

Figure 7. Attributes of the evaluation context

F. Summary of Quantitative Data

The overall quantitative data (part 2 through 6 except part 7) suggests that the teachers who participated in this case study perceived the teacher evaluation process at the ELI to be a positive experience which had a positive impact on professional practice and growth. Participants reported positive perceptions of the overall quality of evaluation, rating attributes of evaluation, the most recent observer, the attributes of the procedure used during the most recent evaluation and the attributes of the feedback received during last evaluation experience. However, Participants reported mixed perceptions of the attributes of the evaluation context. Respondents do not seem to be satisfied with the allotted time for professional development. Similarly, majority of respondents believes that the intended role of teacher evaluation is accountability rather than teacher development.

V. QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Of the 45 respondents of the questionnaires, 9 instructors were randomly selected for scheduled one-on-one interview. Each respondent was asked 8 questions: (1) what do you perceive as the purpose of faculty evaluation process at the ECL? (2) What are the STRENGTHS of the faculty evaluation process at the ECL? (3) What are the WEAKNESSES ...? (4) How has the faculty evaluation process improved your teaching practice? (5) How has the faculty evaluation process made institutional improvements? (6) What is the post-evaluation meeting like? (a) focussed on the teacher’s behaviour; (b) what he/she did well or might do better or; (c) on developing the teacher’s skills? (7) Regarding the evaluator: (a) Does he take adequate time to observe your performance? (b) Does he know and understand the standards and the rubrics? (8) How would you improve the evaluation process so that it became more effective for a) you, & b) for the entire ECL faculty?

	Outstanding	Above Average	Satisfactory	Needs Development	Total
Native (3)		1	1	1	3
Arab non-native (3)	1	1	1		3
Non-Arabs non-native (3)		1	1	1	3
TOTAL	1	3	3	2	9

Figure 8. Qualitative sample breakdown

A. Purpose: Accountability or Teacher Development?

Of the 9 interview participants, 7 reported their perceptions regarding the purpose of evaluation to be teacher development whereas the other two reported it to be only teacher accountability. The quantitative data does not support this finding. 42.22 % of the questionnaire respondents believed the intended purpose of the evaluation was not teacher development and 20% remained neutral whereas 37.77 % believed that it was teacher development rather than accountability.

One instructor who underwent a number of observations at the ECL during academic years 2012-13 & 2013-14, moved from lower rating (needs development) to higher rating (above average) reported:

“I believe the purpose of the AFE process is quality assurance. I improved my teaching practice after every observation. However, the AFE process was painful and almost no professional development opportunity was offered from the ECL administration. The post observation feedback helped me reflect on my teaching. All subsequent professional development was self-directed, self-disciplined and self-sponsored”.

Another participant reported:

“The evaluation process has encouraged me to reflect on my teaching which was an important step for my professional development”.

Of the two who perceived the AFE process to be non-developmental, one reported:

“I don't see any benefit of these evaluations and I didn't learn anything at all. For me, every year is a probationary year”.

Overall, the qualitative data suggests that teachers hold positive perceptions towards the purpose of the AFE process as ‘teacher development’ unlike the findings of quantitative data. According to the qualitative data, the teacher development and institutional development are taking place as joint outcome of the AFE process.

B. Effective Aspects of the AFE Process

In addition to eliciting the respondents' perceptions of the purpose of the AFEs, we elicited their perceptions of the effective aspects of the AFE process as well. The cycle of pre-observation conference, the observation itself followed by post observation conference resulting into reflective teaching and hence professional development was reported as the perceived effective aspect of the AFE process. In this respect, one participant reported:

“Teachers are becoming reflective”.

Another participant admitted:

“I was under the impression that I was an outstanding teacher and did not approve of the idea of class observation for teacher evaluation. I did not see any benefit of it and saw it as a complete waste of time. I resisted and challenged the credibility of the observer. Later, observation after observation, feedback after feedback, I started thinking about my own teaching practices and had to unlearn a number of habits and even techniques which were pedagogical wrong and de-motivating and demoralizing for students. Now, unlike two years ago, I welcome any kind of feedback. I can distinguish between the valid and invalid feedback. I know one thing for sure – I need feedback”. Three more participants expressed the same; they admitted that they had resented in the beginning, now they welcome feedback, however. The other participants expressed similar feelings with regards to reflective practice in their own words. Also, all of the participants reported that they had become interested in their professional development after these evaluations. 8 out of the 9 participants (88%) admitted that they had enrolled onto CELTA after the AFEs they underwent which is further confirmed by the quantitative data as well because 20 out of 45 (around 45 %) respondents earned CELTA during academic years 2012-13 & 2013-14.

C. Improvements to the AFE Process

Respondents were given the opportunity to express their perceptions to any changes that would improve the AFE process at the ELI. The dominant themes emerged were the need to train the observers and post evaluation professional development opportunities. One respondent reported:

‘Having an evaluation policy, a list of standards and just one week training is not enough. I think there needs to be more training on the use of evaluation tools and how they can be used most effectively and objectively’.

A similar view emerged that:

‘Observers should stay in the job for some time. We've seen too many observers joining the department of professional development and then leaving it within few months’.

A couple of participants complained that the AFE process heavily relies on only one mode of evaluation that is class observations. Some teachers can never perform well when there is an observer; they are excellent teachers, nevertheless. The alternative modes of evaluations were suggested such as Self-evaluation (Wajnryb, 1986) Peer Observations & Unseen Observations (Bailey, 2006) to encourage reflective teaching leading to professional development. All respondents expressed their serious concerns about the lack of professional development opportunities at the ELC especially in the post evaluation scenario. Teachers have reportedly taken initiatives for professional development such as earning professional certifications such as CELTA and DELTA, but the contribution on the part of the ELC is almost non-existent. Teachers want to see post-evaluation professional development opportunities facilitated and funded by the ELC administration. The quantitative data suggests that questionnaire respondents hold positive perceptions towards their most recent observer although they are not satisfied with the training and experience the observers have as per the

qualitative data. Both questionnaire respondents and the interview participants were in agreement that the ELI should facilitate post evaluation professional development opportunities before making any strategic decisions related to non-renewal of contracts or termination of employment.

VI. DISCUSSION

This study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the perceived purpose of faculty evaluation process at the ECL?
2. What is the perceived effectiveness of faculty evaluation process in improving teaching practice and professional development of teachers at the ECL?
3. What are the strengths and weaknesses of faculty evaluation process at the ECL?
4. Does the faculty evaluation system take account of the cultural diversity at the ECL – with a focus on what leadership and management role is played to make it happen?

A. Research Question 1

What is the perceived purpose of the faculty evaluation process at the ELI?

The quantitative data in this study suggests that teachers perceive the AFE process at the ECL as a measure for accountability rather than professional growth. In other words, it is summative in nature. On the contrary, the findings of qualitative data suggest that the perceived purpose of the evaluation is teacher development i.e. formative.

The discrepancy stems from the fact that a great deal of professional development took place among the ELC faculty during academic years 2012-13 & 2013-14. This professional development is linked to the AFE process because most teachers decided to enhance their professional knowledge and skill after the AFEs and they did achieve it by enrolling onto professional courses such as CELTA / DELTA and other short courses. So, the evaluation did instil spirit into the faculty members the passion for professional development and growth. On the contrary, all such initiatives were self-directed, self-disciplined and self-sponsored and took place during vacation period. Teachers invested their earned vacation and money and did not get any such support from the ELC. Those who perceive it as accountability perhaps mean that the ELC left them in a 'sink or swim' situation after the AFEs with little help offered. Others saw it as a factor that 'triggered professional learning'. The purpose and outcome of classroom observations, according to The ECL policy is performance improvement. It is the practice, not the policy which seems to be perceived as daunting. Teachers seem to prefer professional development as an outcome of evaluations and organizations seem to target accountability to ensure certain standards are being adhered to. Middlewood (2001) believe that both of the aforementioned purposes can certainly be achieved but there must be a context of professionalism, openness, and the involvement of both managers and staff in the evaluation process.

B. Research Question 2

What is the perceived effectiveness of faculty evaluation process in improving teaching practice and professional development of teachers at the ELI?

Danielson (2011) noted that a commitment to professional learning is important, not because teaching is of poor quality and must be fixed, rather because teaching is so difficult that we can always improve it. Similarly, Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (1995) noted that 'as professional people, teachers themselves must engage in evaluation for both professional development and accountability (p.8). The quantitative data suggests that teachers perceive that the teacher evaluation process at the ELC has had huge impact on their professional practice as well as professional growth. During interviews, 8 out of 9 participants admitted that they had enrolled onto CELTA after undergoing their summative evaluations.

C. Research Question 3

What are the strengths and weaknesses of faculty evaluation process at the ELC?

The quantitative data show several areas of perceived strengths. The quality of ideas and suggestions contained in the feedback was very high and in-depth information was provided which had reportedly positive impact on professional practice and professional growth. This is supported by experts in the field who maintain that teachers highly regard evaluators with deep knowledge of curriculum, content, and instruction who can provide suggestions for improvement (Stiggins & Duke, 1988). Also, the feedback was perceived to be very useful. The value of constructive feedback promoting improved teacher practice and professional growth cannot be underestimated (Marzano et al., 2001; Marshall, 2005). The qualitative findings also confirm that the post-evaluation feedback had positive impact on professional development of the respondents. The information provided was in-depth, that is why it was convincing enough for the respondents to invest their earned vacation and a good deal of money in pursuing professional qualifications and certification in order to enhance their professional knowledge and skill.

The areas that emerged as perceived areas of weaknesses are; little time allotted during the academic year for professional development, and the intended role of evaluation being teacher accountability rather than teacher development. The qualitative data also support this finding. Nearly all respondents were of the opinion that: (1) The ELC administration should consider facilitating on-campus professional development opportunities, and (2) and also

allow them to pursue out of the Kingdom self-sponsored professional development opportunities with a privilege of paid leave up to one month per annum so that they can avail their earned vacations and do not get burnt out.

D. Research Question 4

Does the faculty evaluation system take account of the cultural diversity at the ELC – with a focus on what leadership and management role is played to make it happen?

The ELC faculty is culturally diverse coming from 22 different countries. The quantitative data suggests that around 50% of the teachers were either never observed prior to the ELC experience or just had two or three observations altogether in the entire career. It must be intimidating and stressful for such people to undergo evaluations which are mainly meant for accountability with little opportunity for professional development. At present, the evaluation system in place does not make any difference whether a teacher is new or experienced, outstanding or struggling with teaching standards. Whatever teachers have achieved is their self-motivated and self-directed professional development. Danielson's suggested framework of three tracks can be a good starting point to improve the existing AFE process at the ELC.

Secondly, the system of teacher evaluation via classroom observation is imported from the Western society and implemented with little attention paid to cultural sensitivities. The context in question is an Asian-Arab country with 100% Muslim population. The Muslim and Asian traditions should not be ignored. In Islam, the teacher is respected like one's father. Duties and respect owed to the father are transferred to the professional site, making a detailed or challenging assessment of performance not only difficult and unlikely, but possibly anti-Islamic (Shah 1998). The observation system has not been a complete success even in the western society. One very good example is the New York City school reform movement. Shulman Sullivan and Glanz (2008) concluded that high stakes accountability leaves little room for reflective practice. The major conclusion they drew from analysis was that administrative instructional supervision as best practice was mostly absent in the schools in which the educators they surveyed worked. The dominance of Anglo-American theory, policy and practice denies or understates the influence that culture, societal culture in particular, may have on successful implementation of policy (Walker and Dimmock 2002, p. 77). The ELC is a culturally diverse workplace situated in Saudi Arabia with 100 % Islamic and Asian way of life. Any evaluation system which is imported and implemented without necessary adaptations will be seen as a threat.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ELC MANAGEMENT

The ELC administration should consider giving more autonomy to teachers in deciding on evaluation system such as a five-point evaluation format suggested by Bailey (2006) which covers two extremes from greater supervisor control to greater teacher control. Only announced observations are taking place at present which clearly marginalizes the instructors because they do not have any other choice. The implementation of Negotiated Observations, Invited Observations and Unseen Observations could increase teacher control, hence – more motivation and less teacher stress. It is a fact that there are always some very good teachers who cannot perform well when it comes to formal observations. Similarly, there are teachers who are willing to improve, but formal observations stress them out. They are not willing to share their weaknesses with anyone and eventually are never able to unlearn or relearn. Invited Observations or even Unseen Observations might be very helpful for such introvert teachers.

Whereas the ELC administration should also consider introducing a multitier evaluation program that considers years of experience and teacher status such as the three-track system for teacher evaluation as proposed by Danielson & McGreal, (2000). Track 1 for Beginning Teachers: evaluations in this track will be summative in nature, but once the probationary period of a year or two is over, successful teachers should not suffer from the lack of job security at all. Track 2 for Professional Development: for existing teachers on the basis of their ongoing evaluations and development needs. Track two observations /evaluations should be strictly formative in nature and the teachers under observation/evaluation should be provided ample opportunities to develop. Enough time and budget should be allocated to this track and it is envisaged that the majority of the faculty will fall in this category. Finally, Track 3 Post Evaluation Teacher Assistance: for underperforming teachers. Once again, track three evaluations will be summative in nature – make or break decisions will be made in this Track. Firing decisions should be made either after track 1 when a new teacher fails to fulfill the required conditions or after track 3 when a teacher is offered enough assistance but he does not show any signs of improvement.

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The Impacts of Attitude towards Speaking English on the Use of Communication Strategies by English Majors in Thailand

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Abstract—The aim of the present study was to explore the communication strategy employment by 949 Thai university students, majoring in English in the Northeast of Thailand, as well as the relationship between communication strategy use and students' attitude towards speaking English. The communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ) and Attitudes towards Speaking English Questionnaire (ASEQ) were conducted. The data obtained through the questionnaires were analyzed by the descriptive statistics, the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the Chi-square tests. The results demonstrate that significant variations were found in relation to students' attitude towards speaking English. Students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported significantly greater overall strategy use than those students with negative attitude.

Index Terms—communication strategies, attitudes towards speaking English, English majors

I. INTRODUCTION

Communication strategies are considered the chief part of strategic competence. As pointed out by Terrel (1977, p. 334), “communication strategies are crucial at the beginning stages of second language learning”. They are not only employed to overcome communication difficulties and to enhance the communication effectiveness, but they are also employed to negotiate meaning where both linguistic structures and sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Also, some language learners are believed to be able to communicate successfully with only one hundred words because they rely mostly on communication strategies (Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991).

Several past research works have been conducted on communication strategies in relation to teaching communication strategies (e.g. Dörnyei, 1995; Salomone and Marsal, 1997; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2006; and 2010; Lee, 2007; Maleki, 2007; Meyerhoff, 2009; and Kongsom, 2009). Most findings of the past research works (e.g. Dörnyei, 1995; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2006; and 2010; Lee, 2007; Maleki, 2007; and Kongsom, 2009) revealed that language learners who received instruction through communication strategies made a significant improvement related to both quality and quantity in their strategy use and oral performance. A study carried out by Lee (2006) revealed that students displayed higher self-efficacy after being trained in oral communication strategies. Similarly, Dörnyei (1995) found that students who were taught through communication strategy techniques had a positive attitude towards the training.

Apart from communication strategies, attitude towards speaking English is one of the chief predictors of success in English communication. According to Gardner, Lanlone and Moorcroft (1985), attitude is a factor that has an impact on foreign language learning since how much effort learners put on language learning relies partly on attitude. As supported by Dörnyei (2001, p.2), “My personal experience is that 99 per cent of language learners who really want to learn a foreign language (i.e. who are really motivated) will be able to master a reasonable working knowledge of it as a minimum, regardless of their language aptitude.”

Moreover, Elyidirim and Ashton (2006) found that negative attitudes toward the foreign language can obstruct the learning. On the other hand, learners who have positive attitudes toward language learning are likely to use strategies more frequently than those learners with negative attitudes (Sadighi and Zaradshan, 2006). That is to say, a positive and negative attitude to speaking English is one of the factors that may be associated with learners' speaking activities.

Oxford (1990) also affirms that attitude is assumed to have an effect on strategy use of learners. As pointed out by Cohen and Macaro (2007, p.15), “successful and highly motivated learners adopted more strategies, especially those involving planning, evaluation, and monitoring. Poorly motivated pupils, on the other hand, employed a limited set of strategies and were less ready to act strategically.” This is consistent with the findings of Dong and Fangpeng (2010), which revealed that the majority of Chinese students, majoring in English, had a positive attitude towards achievement strategies and a negative attitude towards reduction strategies. That is positive attitude has positive effects on learners' choice of strategy use; while, negative attitude can cause poor strategy use or lack of orchestration of strategies.

In order to investigate if the relationship between ‘attitudes toward speaking English’ and English majors’ choices of CSs in the Northeast of Thailand existed, attitudes towards speaking English were an investigated variable of the present investigation.

A. *Termed Use in the Study*

- Communication strategies

‘Communication strategies’ refers to attempts which students make to cope with communication breakdowns in English in order to convey an intended message to the interlocutor, to understand messages, and to maintain the conversation.

- Students

‘Students’ refers to Thai university students majoring in English studying in the Northeast of Thailand.

- Attitudes towards speaking English

‘Attitudes towards speaking English’ refers to students’ feelings, thoughts and emotions regarding spoken English. ‘Attitudes towards speaking English’ was divided into two types: positive attitude and negative attitude on the basis of students’ responses to the speaking English questionnaire.

B. *Objective of the Study*

The aim of the present investigation was to explore the relationship between English major students’ communication strategy use and attitudes towards speaking English.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

In the present investigation, the stratified random sampling and the purposive sampling have been used to select the research participants in step 1 and step 2 respectively. The stratified random sampling was adopted based on the representativeness of the samples of the target population; however, the stratum data must be accurate (Neuman, 2006). Hence, in the first step, the population was stratified into three different types of institution. They consisted of four public universities, twelve Rajabhat Universities and five Rajamangala Universities of Technology Isan. After taking a proportion of a number of institutions, there were nine participating institutions: two public universities, four Rajabhat Universities and three Rajamangala Universities of Technology Isan. In the first step, the written communication strategy questionnaire and the attitudes towards speaking English questionnaire were administered to collect the data from 949 students majoring in English. Nine hundred and forty-nine participants were obtained from two hundred and twenty-five participants from two public universities, four hundred and seventy-nine participants from four Rajabhat Universities and two hundred and thirty-five participants from three Rajamangala Universities of Technology Isan.

B. *Instruments*

The questionnaire of communication strategies was modified on the basis of Dörnyei and Scott (1995), Nakatani (2006), Mariani (2010), and Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011). The researcher also adopted English Speaking Attitudes Questionnaire (ESAQ) by Bui and Intaraprasert (2012) in order to investigate students’ attitudes towards speaking English in relation to communication strategy use. In order to maximize ease of administration and ensure greater accuracy of findings, the question items were checked for the content validity by three experts whose English and Thai are comparatively good and then translated into Thai by the researcher. More importantly, before administering the questionnaires, the participants were informed to ensure that they knew the aim of study, the importance of the study, the organization in charge of investigating the study, stating there is no right or wrong answer, requesting honest answers, promising confidentiality, and expressing appreciation.

C. *Procedure*

During August and October, 2013, the researcher went to the nine universities in the Northeast of Thailand in person to gather the data from the Communication Strategy Questionnaire (CSQ) and Attitude towards Speaking English Questionnaire (ASEQ), to which 949 university English major students gave their responses.

D. *Analysis*

The data obtained were analyzed through five steps as follows:

1. Information about the students’ CS use and type of study program was coded.
2. The input of data into SPSS was done and cross-checked to avoid mistakes that might affect the results. The strategy items were categorized into three main categories: strategies to convey a message to the interlocutor with 21 items, strategies to understand the message with 12 items, and strategies to maintain the conversation with 10 items
4. First, the reliability was examined to see whether the data would be qualified for quantitative analysis. The results of Alpha Coefficient (α) or Cronbach Alpha were used to check the internal consistency of the CSQ. The reliability estimates based on the responses of 949 participants are: .89 (as a whole); .81 (for the SCM category); .84 (for the SUM category); and .83 (for the SMC category). As stated by Fraenkel and Wallen (2007), the acceptable reliability

coefficient of .70 is a rule of thumb for research purposes. That is to say, the reliability estimate of this present study seemed acceptable.

5. ANOVA and the Chi-square tests were carried out. The data were scrutinized at three levels: CS use in overall, CS use in the three categories, and individual CS use.

III. RESULT

A. Variation in Frequency of Students' Overall Reported CS Use

TABLE 1:
VARIATION IN FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' OVERALL REPORTED CS USE

Attitude towards Speaking English	Positive (n=894)		Negative (n=55)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
Overall CS Use	2.75	.32	2.62	.33	p<.01	Pattern of Variation Positive>Negative

Note: S.D.: standard of deviation; Sig. level: significant level; N.S.: not significant

The ANOVA results reveal that the frequency of students' overall strategy use varied significantly according to their attitudes towards speaking English (p<.01). The mean frequency scores of the students with positive attitude towards speaking English and those with negative attitude towards speaking English were 2.75 and 2.62 respectively.

B. Variation in Frequency of the Students' Use of CS under the Three Categories

TABLE 2:
VARIATION IN FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' USE OF CS UNDER THE THREE CATEGORIES

Attitude towards Speaking English	Positive (n=894)		Negative (n=55)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
Strategy Category						Pattern of Variation
1) SCM	2.67	.34	2.60	.34	N.S	-
2) SUM	2.82	.45	2.72	.43	N.S	-
3) SMC	2.82	.48	2.55	.47	p<.001	Positive>Negative

Based on the ANOVA results, significant variations were found in the frequency of students' CS use to maintain the conversation. Students with positive attitudes towards speaking English reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than those with negative attitudes towards speaking English. However, no significant variations were found in the use of CSs of students to convey a message to the interlocutor (SCM) or to understand the message (SUM) according to this variable. The mean frequency scores of these categories are considered 'medium' frequency of CS use.

C. Variation in Frequency of Student's CS Use at Individual Level

TABLE 3:
VARIATION IN FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' CS USE AT INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

Individual Communication strategies Used more by students with positive attitude - 13 strategies	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed χ^2
	Positive	Negative	
SMC2: Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures	89.8	76.4	$\chi^2=9.62^{**}$
SUM8: Trying to catch the speaker's main point	87.7	76.4	$\chi^2=5.90^*$
SCM10: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media	85.2	65.5	$\chi^2=15.15^{***}$
SMC1: Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation	84.5	72.7	$\chi^2=5.24^*$
SMC3: Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say	82.4	61.8	$\chi^2=14.46^{***}$
SMC7: Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly	76.4	63.6	$\chi^2=4.58^*$
SUM1: Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses	74.4	52.7	$\chi^2=12.37^{***}$
SCM3: Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying	67.9	52.7	$\chi^2=5.39^*$
SMC6: Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversation	64.1	45.5	$\chi^2=7.72^*$
SCM8: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes	59.2	45.5	$\chi^2=4.01^*$
SMC4: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking	51.1	23.6	$\chi^2=15.65^{***}$
SMC5: Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking	51.1	27.3	$\chi^2=11.79^{***}$
SCM21: Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context	47.5	25.5	$\chi^2=10.17^{***}$

Note: S.D.: standard of deviation; Sig. level: significant level; *: p<.05; **: p<.01; ***<.001

The results from the Chi-square tests shown in Table 4.15 reveal the significant variations in students' use of individual CSs related to their attitudes towards speaking English. A significantly higher percentage of students with positive attitudes towards speaking English, than those with negative attitudes towards speaking English, reported high use of all 13 CSs.

A significantly greater percentage of students with positive attitudes towards speaking English reported employing high use of CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor than those with negative attitudes towards speaking English. Examples are "Making use of expressions found in some sources of media" (SCM10); "Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying" (SCM3); "Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes" (SCM8); and "Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context" (SCM21). A significantly higher percentage of students with positive attitudes towards speaking English, than those with negative attitudes towards speaking English, also reported employing CSs to understand the message. These reported strategies are: "Trying to catch the speaker's main point" (SUM8); and "Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses" (SUM1).

IV. DISCUSSION

In this present study, the findings revealed that great significant variations had been found in the overall strategy use, in SMC category as well as in the individual items. It showed that English majors with positive attitudes towards speaking English reported significantly higher use of 13 strategies than did those with negative attitude. That means that 13 out of total 43 communication strategies varied significantly in relation to attitudes towards speaking English. When compared with the other three variables, students' attitude has been found to be the strongest factor related to their strategy use. Furthermore, when encountering communication difficulties, at the individual level (as presented in Table 5.10), self-reliant achievement strategies were more frequently used by the students who hold positive attitudes towards speaking English. This finding was confirmed the results of studies by Bui and Intaraprasert's (2012) and Tao and Intaraprasert (2013).

The first possible explanation for the findings of the present study related to the link between use of individual CSs and attitudes towards speaking English is motivation. Attitudes are considered as components of motivation in language learning (Gardner, 1985). Skehan (1989) mentions that those students who do well experience reward, and are encouraged to try harder whereas students who do not do so well are discouraged by their lack of success, as a result, lack persistence. In addition, Oxford (1990) states that more motivated learners tended to employ more strategies than less motivated learners. According to a study by Oxford and Nyikos (1989, p. 294), conclude that "The degree of expressed motivation to learn the language was the most powerful influence on strategy choice."

The findings of this present study were in line with a study by Coleman (1996 cited in Cook, 2001), reporting the ten most popular motivations by UK students studying modern languages. Those are 1) For my future career.; 2) Because I like the language.; 3) To travel in different countries.; 4) To have a better understanding of the way of life in the country or countries where it is spoken.; 5) Because I would like to live in the country where it is spoken.; 6) Because I am good at it.; 7) Because it is an international language; 8) To become a better-educated person.; 9) To meet a greater variety of people in my life.; and 10) To get to know/make friends among the people who speak it. Besides, Kariacou and Kobori (1998) explored the views of 226 Slovenian pupils (aged 14-15 years) regarding their motivation to learn English and the views of a sample of 95 student teachers regarding their motivation to become an English teacher. They found that the most frequent reasons given by pupils were 'Because English is an international language', 'Because English helps me with advanced study' and 'Because English will help me with my future career'. The most frequent reasons given by the student teachers were 'English is important to me' and 'I want to help children succeed'.

Obviously, several studies have revealed that more motivated students tend to learn EFL or ESL better than less motivated students (e.g. Kariacou and Kobori, 1998; Shabann and Ghaiith, 2000; Peng, 2007; Bernuas and Gardner, 2008; and Huang, 2010). Peng (2007) investigated the willingness to communicate in English and motivation among Chinese college students. She reported that motivation was strongly related to students' willingness to communicate in English. Her result was consistent with a statement of Hynes (2011), stating that a lack of motivation is another obstacle to learning whereas a barrier related to motivation is lack of willingness. A study by Huang (2010) also confirmed that motivation was one of the powerful factors of oral communication strategy use. Particularly, Bernuas and Gardner (2008) also indicated that students with higher levels of motivation performed better on English tests than the students with lower motivation. Consequently, it makes sense to say that when language learners have a strong motivation to acquire language, they are more willing to practice and use it without fear of making mistakes, as well as learning new things. This may have enabled the students who held positive attitudes to use more self-reliant achievement strategies, than those with negative attitudes.

Remarkably, students' motivation not only has an effect on their language learning, but also their language proficiency. As reported by Liu (2007), students' attitudes and motivation were positively correlated with their English proficiency. Similarly, Kitjaroonchai and Kitjaroonchai (2012) demonstrated that there is a significant positive relation between students' learning motivation and their academic achievement (GPA). Hence, language/oral proficiency is also hypothesized to be a factor which may explain such significant differences. As stated by Ellis (1994), the relationship between students' strategy use and their language proficiency level is a bi-directional relationship. Moreover, MacIntyre

(1994, p. 188) mentions that "...this might be interpreted to mean that either proficiency influences the choice of strategies or that strategy choice is simply a sign of proficiency level".

A number of previous studies (e.g. Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987; Margolis, 2001; Nakatani, 2006 and 2010; Lam 2010, Tao and Intaraprasert, 2013) have been conducted to demonstrate the relationship between language/oral proficiency and learners' use of communication strategy. They confirmed that learners' oral proficiency has an impact on learners' CS choices when confronting oral communication breakdowns. For example, Chen (2009) and Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) found that the students who have good communicative competence are more willing to communicate. Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) also suggest that successful students are not afraid of losing face when tackling communication problems. Learners tended to use strategies more often because of their improved English proficiency (Gao, 2002).

In a Thai context, the results of past research works (e.g. Weerarak, 2003; Pornpibol, 2005; Prinyajarn, 2007; and Chuanchaisit and Prapphal, 2009) also confirmed that students' language/oral proficiency was a factor influencing different CSs used to different degrees. Able students preferred risk-taking strategies while weaker students tended to use more risk-avoidance strategies when confronting speaking problems (Wannaruk, 2002; Pornpibol, 2005; and Chuanchaisit, 2009). These findings were consistent with what Intaraprasert (2000) states that successful learners may be highly motivated to seek opportunities to expose themselves to English outside the classroom setting. It could be said that high language learning proficiency students, who are dedicated and motivated to practice speaking English, are likely to use achievement strategies; as a result, they achieve higher levels of language proficiency.

The other possible explanation hypothesised by the researcher is that the students' attitudes towards speaking English is attributable to their prior learning experience. Cook (2001) argues that what the students have learned in class does not mean that it is equally productive for all of them as their minds work in different ways. Students base what they do on their previous experience of learning and using language. As stated by Mariani (2011, p. 29), "the choice of a particular strategy in response to a problem or communicative situation depends on variety of factors, linked to the context of strategy use, the personality of the speakers, their level of proficiency, and the teaching approach to which learners are exposed". This means that language learners, who are good at learning language, are likely to have a positive attitude on speaking English. In the meantime, language learners, who had a positive experience of learning English, are likely to have a positive attitude towards speaking English as well. In other words, student's prior learning experience not only affects their attitudes towards speaking English, but also communication strategy use.

Several researchers (Robertson et al, 2000; Hellsten, 2002; Wong, 2004; and Sawir, 2005) have attempted to investigate language learners' language difficulties. They found that language learners lack of confidence speaking English due to their prior learning experience in which their English teachers mainly focused on grammar and reading skills, not conversational skills (Wong, 2004; and Sawir, 2005). Sawir (2005) also suggested that this belief had then become manifested in students' communication behavior, so that they were not able to communicate effectively, socially and academically, and the learning of conversational skills was retarded.

Based on the findings of this present study, it can be said that students' attitudes towards speaking English is an essential factor that is related to the failure or success of EFL/ESL learners. Not only Motivation and language/oral proficiency, but also prior learning experience has a great influence on students' attitude, which will lead them to either positive or negative attitudes towards speaking English and the frequent employment of CSs as well.

Galileo (cited in Carnegie, 1981, p.101) said 'You cannot teach a man anything, you can only help him to find it within himself.' One thing that the teacher can do to help their students have a better attitudes towards learning and speaking English is to encourage and facilitate them when they face language difficulties. Teachers of English, therefore, should raise students' awareness of the importance of English language and encourage students to speak English inside and outside the classroom which will lead them to utilize their language skills in real-life contexts.

As suggested by Noom-ura (2013) English language learning is obviously insufficient if it takes place only in the classroom. Teachers, thus, should be trained to offer strategies and guidance that promote or encourage students' self-directed learning and create their inclination to learn. For those who love learning, the more they study or learn, it will naturally follow that both their comprehension and production skills will be improved. Particularly, communication strategies are needed to be taught as well as students should be encouraged and raised awareness to take risks when communicating including opportunities to use communication strategies (Dornyei, 1995; and Mariani, 2010).

The last possible explanation hypothesized by the researcher is that the students' attitude towards speaking English is attributable to opportunities to speak English. As stated by Littlewood (1984), another important effect on the students' proficiency they achieve will be the quality of the learning opportunities which the environment offers. In Thailand, Thai students have been taught by most proficient at reading and least at speaking and listening. This leads those Thai learners to a lack of opportunity for improving their speaking and insufficient command of English skills for real-world communication (Karnawakul, 2004; Kimsuvan, 2004; and Choomthong, 2014).

Based on the results of the present study, the strongest relationship between students' CS use and attitude towards speaking English was found. The students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported high use of certain strategies than those with negative attitude. Apparently, the students who hold positive attitude towards speaking English reported significantly different employing some certain strategies, for instance "Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking (SMC4)"; and "Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking

(SMC5)". Supported by the results of semi-structured interview, lacking opportunities to speak English with native speakers, some interviewees reported that when they had a chance to talk with them, they felt nervous and did not know what to do. However, all of them reported that they did not give up when encountering communication difficulties because they wanted to practice and improve their speaking skill. This result is in line with Bui (2012), students who hold positive attitude towards speaking English have more opportunities to communicate orally in English than those students who hold negative attitude towards speaking English. Hence, it is hypothesized by the researcher that opportunities to speak English may be contributed to the variations of individual CS use in students with different attitude towards speaking English.

To sum up, based on the findings, we found that students who held positive attitudes reported employing significantly more frequently than those students who held negative attitudes for dealing with communication breakdowns. Three factors, namely, motivation, language/oral proficiency, prior learning experience, and opportunities to speak English have been possibly hypothesized that significant variations in individual strategy use according to students' attitudes towards spoken English. Yet, we cannot be definitely certain about what really caused these significant differences; hence, research to examine these aspects is still required.

V. CONCLUSION

From the research findings summarized in Section 6.2 in response to the research questions, it was found that English majors, generally, studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand mostly used communication strategies at the moderate level. There is a relationship between students' attitudes towards speaking English and their strategy use at all three levels: overall use of CSs, CS use in the SMC category, and individual CS use. Arising out of the findings, the students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported greater use of communication strategies than did those with negative attitudes towards speaking English. It is advisable that the teachers should stimulate and encourage the students, especially those who hold negative attitude, by creating relaxing and safe classroom. As proposed by Maslow's (1970 cited in Goodall and Goodall, 2006) theory of human motivation, there is a hierarchy of human needs which are ranked from lower order needs, for example, food, clothes, air, safety, love, and sense of belonging, to higher order needs, for example, self-esteem and self-actualization. Maslow also suggests that the most basic needs have to be met first. This means that when the classroom atmosphere is virtuous and innocuous, the students will feel more comfortable and harmless, which will lead them to be more willing and motivated to learning.

Moreover, teachers should encourage students to continuously use CSs by using reinforcement in order to cheer them up and foster their language learning motivation. For example, if a student tried to use CSs while studying in the classroom and the teacher gave a compliment to him, his behavior would be reinforced, and he would be more likely to use it in the future. Likewise, if a student tried to use CSs while studying in the classroom and the teacher blamed him, his behavior would be punished, and he would be less likely to do it. As argued by Skinner (1948 cited in McLeod, 2007), responses that were reinforced would be repeated, and those that were punished would not.

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Predicting English Test Anxiety: How Memorization and Critical Thinking Function?

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Abstract—Understanding how foreign language anxiety develops has become very important because of its influences on language learning and performance. The current study examines the levels of Omani students' English language test anxiety and how these levels are influenced by the use of two learning strategies, memorization and critical thinking. The sample consisted of (250) students from different Omani school grades. The participants responded to three questionnaires relating to test anxiety, memorization, and critical thinking. The findings showed that these Omani school students use both learning strategies and experience slightly low levels of test anxiety. The regression model consisting of the two learning strategies explains 20% of variance in students' test anxiety. As the students increased their use of these two learning strategies, their test anxiety decreased, and critical thinking was found more influential in decreasing students' feeling of test anxiety. Implications of the findings to language teaching and learning are discussed.

Index Terms—English test anxiety, memorization, critical thinking, Oman

I. INTRODUCTION

In response to the rapid trend of English becoming the global lingua franca, English teaching and learning have become consequential. English instruction, however, is not the same as that of other subjects. As Cohen and Norst (1989) contended, something distinct exists about “the performance aspect of language learning, and the fear it engenders, compared to other knowledge + skill-based subjects.... Language and self/ identity are so closely bound ... that a perceived attack on one is an attack on the other” (p. 76). Thus, there are certain challenges encountered by the learners of English as a foreign or second language (EFL/ ESL), and that may develop stress and anxiety which can influence language learning unless students are equipped with effective learning strategies.

Foreign Language Anxiety and its Influences

EFL learners, Consequently, are prone to experience some sort of inhibitions and cognitive, psychological and emotional dysfunctions. Amongst such problems, foreign language anxiety (FLA) has been viewed as a major factor influencing language learning and performance (Al-Shboul, Ahmed, Nordin, & Abdul Rahman, 2013), and Krashen (1982) considered it, beside motivation and self-confidence, as the key affective variables influencing language acquisition (Lui, 2013). FLA is classified as a situation- specific anxiety since it manifests in evaluative type situations (Horwitz, 2010; Salehi & Marefat, 2014). Horwitz, Horwitz, and Copy defined FLA as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (cited by Al-Shboul et al., 2013, p.33; Mohammadi, Biria, Koosha, & Shahsavari, 2013, p.638).

The causes of FLA have been investigated by many researchers, and the evaluative element has been found as the chief trigger of FLA (Mohammadi et al, 2013; Salehi & Marefat, 2014; Young, 1991). In his review of the literature on language learning anxiety, Young (1991) identified six sources of language anxiety: personal and interpersonal anxieties, learner and instructor beliefs about language learning, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures, and language testing (p. 427). Similarly, Jen (2003) classified other common factors including personality factors, fear of negative evaluation, low English proficiency, lack of preparation, pressure from the language instructor and tests, and parental pressure (cited by Mohammadi et al, 2013).

Experiencing FLA is likely to influence students' English learning and test performance. Indeed, it has been found pervasively in different contexts and with different languages that FLA anxiety impedes language achievement, and so these two correlate negatively (Al-Shboul et al., 2013; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Mohammadi et al., 2013; Salehi & Marefat, 2014; Young, 1991).

English Test Anxiety and Language Learning Strategies

Test anxiety (TA) is yet another relevant facet, and studying it in relation to language learning anxiety is significant, for both types of anxiety may correlate reciprocally and affect language performance. However, Salehi and Marefat (2014) state that the research on the relationship between FLA and TA is lacking (p. 932). The only study they cite is by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989), which was appended by their recommendation: "a closer examination of the role of test anxiety in the foreign language classroom seems warranted" (cited by Salehi and Marefat, 2014, p. 932). Subsequently, the recent study of Salehi and Marefat (2014) found a strong positive relationship between FLA and TA, and that they both hinder language learning as they correlated negatively with foreign language test performance (pp. 936-937).

Hence, various factors have been investigated closely so that the undesired effects of TA can be reduced, and language learning strategies (LLS) are one of these main variables. Lucas et al., (2011) demonstrate that "foreign language learners ... equip themselves with learning strategies that would help them not only to learn the target language but also to cope with their language learning anxieties" (cited by Mohammadi et al., 2013, p. 637). Several studies have found a negative relationship between learning strategy use and FLA and TA generally, and so learners who use effective learning strategies show lower levels of anxiety and perform more efficiently (Ergene, 2011; Huang, 2001; Kesici, Baloglu, & Deniz, 2011; Lui, 2013; Mohammadi et al., 2013; Noormohamadi, 2009).

LLS have been defined by many researchers (see Hajhashemi, Shakarami, Anderson, Amirkhiz, & Zou, 2013 for a reference of definitions), and they basically refer to study skills, habits, techniques or behaviors that learners use to enhance their language learning and information processing. These strategies have also been classified into different categories, and the prominent cited classification is Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which includes two categories. The first one is the direct strategies group, which comprises memory strategies (e.g., creating mental associations and retrieving information), cognitive strategies (e.g., analyzing and reasoning) and compensation strategies (e.g., guessing), while the indirect strategies include metacognitive strategies (e.g., planning and evaluating one's own learning), affective strategies (e.g., managing one's own feelings) and social strategies (e.g., asking for clarification) (Oxford, 1990, p. 71).

There have been some differences exhibited by learners in their use of strategies. Many studies investigated the frequency of strategy use (Aljuaid, 2010; Ghafournia, 2014; Liu & Chen, 2014; Mohammadi et al., 2013; Phillips, 1990, Salehi, 2002 and Tajjeddin, 2001 cited in Mohammadi et al., 2013). In general, metacognitive skills were found to be more commonly used, whereas affective and memory strategies were the least. In contrast, Lan and Oxford (2003) found that young learners were more prone to use affective and compensation strategies (cited by Liu, 2013, p. 78). Besides, a significant correlation between LLS use and gender has been indicated. Some studies reported that female students have a higher use of LLS than their male counterparts (Sheu, 2009 cited by Liu, 2013; Yu, 2013), where others found that males show a greater tendency to the use of study skills than females (Agarwal, 1983 cited by Ngwoke, Ossai & Obikwelu, 2013).

The current study focuses on two main learning strategies: memorization and critical thinking. The effects of both strategies on learning and on TA are studied, with special attention to gender differences among EFL learners.

Memorization in Relation to Test Anxiety

Memorization as a learning strategy can be viewed as a double-edged sword because of the dispute over its favorable and unfavorable consequences (Oanh & Hien, 2006; Özkan & Kesen, 2008). Memorization constitutes a direct involvement in language learning, and it belongs to memory strategies according to Oxford's (1990) LLS taxonomy, while it is found under cognitive learning strategies according to Types of Learning Strategies by Chamot and O'Malley (1990) (cited in Oanh & Hien, 2006 and Özkan & Kesen, 2008). Use of this strategy is represented in conscious internalizing, recalling and retrieving of information. When learning an FL, memorization is commonly used to learn and remember vocabulary and phrasal structures to aid in communication (Oxford, 2003; Özkan & Kesen, 2008). Positive learning results were found by Kovecses and Szabo (1995) for students memorizing phrasal verbs (cited by Oanh & Hien, 2006). As cited in Özkan and Kesen (2008), Cook (1994) asserts that "repetition and learning by heart are valuable, pleasurable and efficient uses of language learning activities and can help language learners set valuable goals as they will be involved in the authentic and communicative use of language" (p. 60). On the other hand, many scholars and teachers, mainly native English speakers, were not in favor of memorizing chunks since although this may help the learner accelerate initial learning and sound more fluent and native-like, it can consequently impede spontaneous and appropriate speaking performance (Oanh & Hien, 2006). Therefore, because memorization is inevitable and cannot be eliminated in foreign language learning, making students and teachers aware of good and bad memorization can certainly help make good use of this strategy.

Relating memorization to test anxiety, Oxford (2003) maintains that "the use of memory strategies in a test-taking situation had a significant negative relationship to learners' test performance in grammar and vocabulary" (p. 13). A study by Schmeck (1988) indicated that the use of rehearsal and rote memorization is related to high levels of TA (cited by Mohammadi et al., 2013, p. 639). The use of memorization, however, may not always result in negative performance and high TA. As indicated early, good memorization practices may increase performance and decrease TA.

Critical Thinking in Relation to Test Anxiety

On the other hand, the ability to think critically has been considered as a valid indicator of academic success and an essential construct in language acquisition, mainly in reading and writing (Fahim, Barjesteh, & Vaseghi, 2012; Nikoopour, Farsani, & Nasiri, 2011; Rashid & Hashim, 2008). Thadphothon (2005) reports that conveying thoughts in

a foreign language is more challenging than in L1 considering the use of different linguistic conventions and competences; hence, teaching of critical thinking is crucial as it helps learners to communicate form and meaning together (pp. 23-24). The body of literature on the relationship between critical thinking and foreign language learning is however insufficient, and on the whole, it has been led by western researchers (Rashid & Hashim, 2008). A number of these scholars drew some disputable conclusions maintaining that critical thinking is unique to the western culture, as Stapleton (2001) claimed that Asian learners "are deficient in critical thinking abilities" (cited by Rashid & Hashim, 2008, p. 374). However, several studies have been conducted to refute such claims among which are Japanese and Malaysian studies which found that their students did display some critical thoughts to certain levels (Rashid & Hashim, 2008).

When examining critical thinking in relation to FLA, there is much limited research that has been conducted. The studies which have investigated the relationship found a significant negative correlation between critical thinking and FLA (Fahim & Nilforooshan, 2014; Haseli & Rezaii, 2013), and in contrast, critical thinking was found to correlate positively with achievement (Fahim, Barjesteh, & Vaseghi, 2012; Haseli & Rezaii, 2013).

Gender Differences Across the Study Variables

When it comes to the influence of gender pertaining to the levels of test anxiety, memorization and critical thinking, some statistical differences have been found to exist. As regards test anxiety, many studies have shown that female students are more anxious than male students (Ergene, 2011; Mousavi, Haghshenas & Alishahi, 2008; Ngwoke, Ossai & Obikwelu, 2013; Park & French, 2013; Rodarte-Luna & Sherry, 2008); in opposition, in their study of Spanish as a foreign language, Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) found that females showed lower levels of anxiety than their male counterparts (cited by Salehi & Marefat, 2014). Mousavi et al. (2008) suggest that the reason behind the results displaying females as more anxious can be explained by the masculine nature of males as they tend to deny experiencing anxiety, or they can find ways to diminish it, whereas females can confess it (p. 6).

Concerning strategy use, gender differences are more disputable and inconclusive. Rodarte-Luna and Sherry (2008) cite one study which indicated that males show a greater disposition to use "superficial learning strategies, such as memorization or rote-learning," while other studies proposed that "men more often show a deep level approach to learning where women display more surface level processing" (p.330). They also found that men did better than women on critical thinking, whereas females, to a small extent, outperformed males on rehearsal (p.335). Based on the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) which consists of seven subscales, Pacione, Sánchez, Pacione, and Gainen (1995) recorded that females scored higher in "Open-Mindedness (tolerance of differences) and Maturity (the awareness that some types of problems can be ill-structured and do not necessarily have only one solution)," whereas males reported higher scores in "Analyticity," and no significant gender differences in the strength of critical thinking disposition across-the-board were reported (cited by Walsh & Hardy, 1999). However, it has been observed that women appear to be better able at utilizing a wide range of learning strategies (Lee & Oxford, 2008; Rodarte-Luna & Sherry, 2008), and this utilization impacts their anxiety significantly (Rodarte-Luna & Sherry, p. 338). In a study based on Oxford's (1990) SILL, Sheu (2009) showed that women had a higher use of all learning strategies except compensation strategies (cited by Liu, 2013, p. 78).

II. THE CURRENT STUDY CONTEXT AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Relating worldwide research to the context of this study, much of the research on this topic has been conducted by western and foreign studies, and very few studies come from the Arab world. Ergene (2011) claimed that "Islamic countries as a group reported the highest levels of test anxiety while Western European and Asian countries reported the lowest levels of test anxiety". Seipp and Schwarzer (1996) declared that Arab students' high scores on the test anxiety scale resulted from "the severe negative consequences related to poor examination performance in these countries" (cited by Ergene, 2011, p. 327). Furthermore, in several studies investigating gender differences among Arab, Islamic and other countries, Oman was found within the countries where anxiety existed significantly, and females were found to score higher on the anxiety scales (Abdel-Khalek & Alansari, 2004; Alansari, 2006; Alansari, 2011). Hence, such research findings are very critical that the situation should be examined locally. Only one Omani study was found to have investigated the case of EFL anxiety, and was conducted in an institution of tertiary education in Oman. The findings indicated that the differences in the levels of anxiety between Omani male and female students are insignificant, where the latter displayed a little higher level of anxiety. Females' anxiety is found to be facilitative as it has impacted positively on female students' performance (Mathew, Job, Al Damen, & Rafiqul Islam, 2013).

To this end, this study aims at investigating the levels of test anxiety experienced by Omani students in relation to the use of critical thinking and memorization strategies in learning English as a foreign language. In particular, this research intends to answer the following questions:

1. What are the levels of students' test anxiety, memorization, and critical thinking?
2. Can students' use of memorization and critical thinking strategies predict their test anxiety levels?

III. METHOD

Participants and Procedures

The sample of the current study was extracted from a larger national data collected from schools in all Omani districts. The reported sample consisted of 250 students (87 male & 163 females) who responded to the questionnaires related to learning strategies and motivational levels focusing on learning English subject. The participants came from different school grades, and their age mean was 14.30 ($SD = 1.69$). Half of the sample indicated zero day of school absence. Approximately, 80% of the sample rated their family income as average, and 88% lived with both parents.

Instrument

The participants responded to a group of measures including students' perceptions of test anxiety, the use of memorization strategy, and the use of critical thinking strategy in learning English subject. The three measures are extracted from Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie's (1993) Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). The MSLQ is validated by early research and proves to show good reliability and validity evidences in the Omani context (Author et al., 2012). All the items in the three scales were 5-point Likert type of responses. The test anxiety scale consisted of 5 items that were all negatively worded to indicate the anxiety level. Thus, high scores indicated higher levels of anxiety. The memorization scale consisted of 4 items with high scores indicating high use of this strategy in learning English. The critical thinking scale included 5 items with the same scoring procedure. All measures showed reasonably good reliability coefficients consistent with previous research findings (Author et al., 2012).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Descriptive analyses showed that these Omani students had significantly high levels of use of memorization strategy and critical thinking strategy when learning English, as shown in the results of the One-Sample t-test (Table 1). In contrast, the t-test showed that the sample experienced slightly low levels of test anxiety. Significant negative bivariate correlations between test anxiety and both memorization ($r = 0.34, p < .001$) and critical thinking ($r = 0.41, p < .001$) strategies suggested the existence of a relationship between these two learning styles and test anxiety. The two learning strategies correlated positively with each other ($r = 0.46, p < .001$). No gender differences were found in the levels of the three variables.

TABLE 1
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF THE ASSESSMENT TASKS (N = 249)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Test Anxiety	2.92	0.40
Memorization Strategy	3.14	0.46
Critical Thinking Strategy	3.15	0.42

To examine the predictive role of the two learning strategies (memorization and critical thinking) on predicting students' test anxiety, linear regression was applied. Prior to conducting regression model, collinearity was checked and the values reached the accepted levels. Because there was no gender difference found in any of the main study variables, gender was not entered into the regression equation. The model contained both students' memorization strategy and critical thinking strategy to predict their levels of test anxiety. Table 2 shows the outcomes of the regression model.

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF STANDARD REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TEST ANXIETY ON MEMORIZATION AND CRITICAL THINKING STRATEGIES (N= 249)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Memorization Strategy	-0.17	.05	-0.19	-3.09
Critical Thinking Strategy	-0.31	.06	-0.32	-5.08
R^2	0.20			
<i>F</i>	31.737			

As can be seen from Table 2, results showed that the multiple $R^2 = 0.20$ (adjusted $R^2 = 0.198$) was statistically significant, $F(2,247) = 31.737, p < .001$, indicating that the two learning strategies explained 20% of the variance in students' test anxiety. Students' use of critical thinking strategies ($\beta = -0.32, p < .001$) and use of memorization strategies ($\beta = .19, p < .01$) were both significantly and negatively related to their levels of test anxiety.

V. DISCUSSION

The current study examined the connection between two English learning strategies (i.e., memorization and critical thinking) and students' test anxiety in the Sultanate of Oman. The findings show that students use both of these strategies to learn English. In addition, the students experience slightly low levels of test anxiety. Using regression model, the results showed that the two learning strategies were connected to test anxiety and explained 20% of variance in students' test anxiety levels.

Omani students seem to apply the two learning strategies equally when learning English as a foreign language. As the reviewed research shows, memorization helps students acquire new vocabulary that increases students' understanding and usage of the English language. It is not surprising to find EFL learners, particularly Omani students in this study, make use of memorization as it serves as a facilitator for building a new internal language system. Students just need to

get guided on how they can utilize each strategy, and studies have shown that can be done through customized instructions and training on effective use of strategies (Huang, 2001; Oxford & Crookall, 1989). Making students aware of their learning styles (i.e. auditory, visual, kinesthetic, etc.) can also help them figure out which modes of memorization work best for them.

Equally practiced is the use of critical thinking in learning English language among Omani students. Cumulative research examining students' learning strategies shows that students tend to engage in the processes related to critical thinking as a means of exploring the language and getting acquainted with its instructions and roles. This finding disaffirms the assertions mentioned early in this article which claim that Asian students, particularly Arabs, lack critical thinking abilities. The contemporary movements towards integrating language skills and encouraging the communicative approach have played a significant role in fostering students' use of higher-order thinking skills, among which is critical thinking.

An important finding of the current study is the effect of these two learning strategies on decreasing the levels of students' test anxiety. The results show that as the students increase their use of these two learning strategies, their test anxiety decreases. The regression model suggests that critical thinking is more important than memorization in decreasing students' feeling of test anxiety. This is in line with the findings of previous studies (Fahim & Nilforooshan, 2014; Haseli & Rezaii, 2013) which indicated a significant negative correlation between critical thinking and FLA. Being critical thinkers, students can become aware of their irrational fears and can identify what provokes anxiety for them. Thus, they gradually adapt themselves to cope with that rather than avoiding it.

VI. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study show that Omani students experienced slightly low levels of test anxiety, and they significantly had high levels of use of memorization and critical thinking strategies when learning English. Both learning strategies were found to correlate positively with each other and negatively with test anxiety. In addition, no gender differences were found in the levels of the three variables. The findings suggest that memorization and critical thinking can be equally considered part and parcel of students' EFL learning.

Even though we have proposed one direction for the relation between learning strategies and test anxiety, our correlational research design limits any casual assumption and allows for possible reciprocal relationship between these variables. In addition, the use of self-report may result in social desirability; therefore, it is suggested that future research uses more ability-related tests to examine students' ability to use memorization and critical thinking and how this use can predict their test anxiety.

The findings of the study, however, are consistent with early research from different cultural contexts and provide evidence for the relationship between learning strategies and test anxiety. The negative prediction of memorization on test anxiety may correct a common belief in the Arabic teaching context that memorization is a weak learning strategy, acknowledging the importance of differentiating between good and bad practices of memorization. In addition, the greater effects of critical thinking on test anxiety should enhance the ongoing calls for its use in our school and teaching practices.

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How English Suprasegmental Features of Pronunciation Are Viewed and Treated by Instructors in Iranian Private Language Centers

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Abstract—English suprasegmental features of pronunciation (ESFP), as key elements in developing effective communications, are regarded as critical aspects of language proficiency to be practiced markedly in language classrooms. They have pivotal roles in determining the utterance meaning, and change in some of these features can lead to change in meaning. The present study was, therefore, motivated to explore how ESFPs were viewed and treated by language instructors in Iranian English language private centers. It is an account of interviews with 12 experienced language instructors reporting their insights into significance and treatment of these features in the language institutes. The results emerging from the detailed analysis of the data indicated that ESFPs were perceived by the respondents as critically significant aspects of language proficiency due to their substantial sensitivity in speech perception and production as well as boosting language learners' self-esteem and motivation. Further, close examination of the data suggested that ESFPs were assigned short shrift in pedagogical practices mainly due to such factors as skill prioritization, insufficient class time, improperly developed materials, and language learners' negative attitude and unwillingness towards such features.

Index Terms—pronunciation, English suprasegmental features, language instructors, attitudes

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to speak one or more languages is perceived as a prerequisite in the present globalized world (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Baker, 1989; Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). Despite the European Council's attempts to further the diversity of languages, English is still the undisputed lingua franca. In the light of this fact, millions of people around the world treat the ability to communicate in English as the gateway to economic prosperity, social mobility and educational advancement (Fulcher, 2007). The ability to have an intelligibly comprehensible pronunciation appears as a key in constructing lucid communications with different people around the world (Chela-Flores, 2001; Keys, 2000; Munro & Derwing, 1995). Undermining the native-like pronunciation dominance as the yardstick, intelligible pronunciation has been perceived as an essential component of communicative competence over the past few decades (Derwing & Rossiter, 2002; Rajadurai, 2001; Morley, 1991). Arguing on retaining well-formed pronunciation abilities, Morley (1991) called for setting more realistic goals that are reasonable, applicable and suitable for the communicative needs of English learners. To her, it is of great import for the learners to develop functional intelligibility, that is, they ought to possess the capacity to make themselves easily understood. Besides, given the remarkable roles of developing intelligible pronunciation ability in forming interactive communications and inducing language learners to overcome their affective problems like anxiety, stress, and lack of self-confidence in learning a second or foreign language (Chela-Flores, 2001; Keys, 2000), it seems producing confidential materials and planning efficient pedagogical procedures to enhance language learners' intelligible pronunciation capacities is a priming requirement. However, in most EFL contexts where knowledge of grammar and vocabulary is more explicitly focused on, pronunciation is often neglected due to the fact that it is treated as a luxury 'add-on' which is often perceived by teachers and students as boring and unproductive (Harmer, 2001; Seidlhofer, 2000).

Teaching pronunciation, as suggested by McDonough and Shaw (2003), involves focusing on the sounds of the language as well as stress, rhythm, intonation, and links. Sounds of the language are referred to as segmental features of pronunciation, whereas the rest are discussed at suprasegmental level. As regards teaching pronunciation at segmental level, language instructors mainly tailor their teaching procedures towards coping with isolated consonants and vowels or showing learners how sounds are made through demonstration, diagrams, and explanation (Harmer, 2007). Focusing on segmental aspects of pronunciation, nevertheless, fails to help learners have control over their pronunciation while communicating in a foreign or second language (Keys, 2000). Therefore, numerous researchers and experts (e.g. Jenkins, 2002; Morley, 1991) have called for shifting the main pedagogical focus from segmental elements of the pronunciation to the suprasegmental ones due to the fact that the effective communicative pronunciation

competence is perceived to be achieved more efficiently and profoundly through improving suprasegmental productions rather than the segmental ones (Jenkins, 2002). In other words, participants in communications can have intelligible pronunciations to make mutually interpretable interactions through employing suprasegmental features of a language. To underline the significance of suprasegmental features, it is worth pointing out that in some languages, e. g. English, suprasegmental features are occasionally employed distinctively. They have pivotal roles in determining the utterance meaning because they accentuate the most important part of the message and indicate where the listener should pay particular attention (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2010). Moreover, change in some of suprasegmental features may lead to change in the utterance meaning (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2010). Hence, it appears that suprasegmental features of pronunciation ought to be regarded as some of the most critical aspects of communicative competence to be substantially practiced in English learning classrooms. The present study was accordingly motivated to qualitatively examine how English suprasegmental features of pronunciation (ESFP) are viewed and treated by instructors in Iranian private language centers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Well-structured oral interactions are perceived to be markedly conditioned by speakers' intelligible pronunciation (Chela-Flores, 2001; Keys, 2000). Serious errors in pronunciation, word accent and stress, and sentence pitch, as argued by Gilakjani (2011), appear to give rise to occasional misunderstanding and the necessity to repeat words and sentences while communicating. This problem has been studied in numerous studies reviewed by Otlowski (1998) where it has been indicated that non-native like stress may make native speakers comprehend non-native speakers' speech with more difficulty.

With the dominance of more holistic and communicative approaches to English instruction, calls have been made for addressing pronunciation within the context of real communication. In this connection, Otlowski (1998) argued that English learners can expect to master the intelligible pronunciation of English. In this situation, the learners ought to know that improving pronunciation may be of substantial import and sensitivity due to the fact that it supports some aspects like listening comprehension, spelling, reading, and grammar (Wong, 1993). For instance, a number of language learners often face the problem of how the vowel sounds in the words like *ahead*, *hate*, *hard*, *hall*, and *hat* are spelt. This confusion occurs because learners expect to find a one-to-one correspondence between each sound and its spelling (Wong, 1993). Intelligible pronunciation is also perceived to exert considerable influence on language learners' self-confidence and self-esteem (Chela-Flores, 2001; Keys, 2000). Further, it induces learners to overcome their affective problems like anxiety and stress in learning a second or foreign language (Chela-Flores, 2001; Keys, 2000). It also enables them to better understand their instructors, follow the news on TV or the radio more easily, and join in English conversations, class discussions, role-plays, etc. (Gilakjani, 2011). In his study on different ways to achieve intelligible pronunciation, Gilakjani (2011) found that students can develop their pronunciation if they know that pronunciation is "an important skill of learning a language just like reading and writing. In addition, the students should be taught that there are standard ways of saying the sounds that make up words and groups of words (p. 7)". However, pronunciation, despite highly acknowledged criticality, fails to have a clear and considerable place in EFL classrooms (see e.g. Harmer, 2001; Seidlhofer 2000). Seidlhofer (2000) for instance, explored language learners' and instructors' insights on teaching pronunciation and came to the point that focusing on pronunciation is viewed to be a boring and unproductive process. His analysis of the instructors' perspectives indicated that pronunciation should be taught at higher levels.

As elements that help language learners and users develop intelligible pronunciation and efficient communications, ESFPs have created a critical area of concern and interest for numerous researchers (e.g. Florez, 1998; Harmer, 2007; Jenkins, 2002; Keys, 2000; McDonough and Shaw, 2003; Morley, 1991). ESFPs, as argued by Florez (1998), transcend the level of individual sound production, and are often produced unconsciously by native speakers. Significance of ESFPs has also been the subject of discussion by several researchers around the world (e. g. Hall, 1997; Jenkins, 2002; Keys, 2000; Ladefoged & Johnson, 2010; Wong, 1993). Acknowledging the substantial criticality attributed to ESFPs, Hall (1997), for instance, argued that ESFPs are more important than segmental features of pronunciation. Furthermore, ESFPs are perceived to exert great influence on word meaning and part of speech (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2010), sentence structure and meaning (Jenkins, 2002; Ladefoged & Johnson, 2010), oral communication (Gilakjani, 2012; Jenkins, 2002; Wong, 1993), and intelligibility of L2 learners (Lambacher, 1999). Needless to say, such findings are indicative of the considerable benefits of developing ESFPs. Likewise, on his discussion on the benefits of practicing suprasegmental features, Hall (1997) stated that language learners could practice ESFPs through marking texts for thought groups, shifting emphasis in sentences, and changing the moods of scripts by exploring different intonational patterns. In his study on the appropriate place of practicing ESFPs among non-native speakers, Bott (2005) asserted:

"In recent years, increasing attention has been placed on providing pronunciation instruction that meets the communicative needs of non-native speakers of English. Empirical research and pronunciation materials' writers suggest that teaching suprasegmentals before segmental to intermediate and advanced NNSs could be more beneficial in a shorter period of time (p. 5)".

A number of researchers have conducted various studies on different aspects of pronunciation in Iranian context. These studies have explored the Iranian EFL pronunciation errors and problems (see Gordani & Khajavi, 2012; Seddighi, 2010), called for teaching pronunciation in Iranian schools (see Shooshtari et al., 2013), reviewed the related

theories on teaching English pronunciation to EFL learners (see Nikbakht, 2011), examined the related literature to explore the place of pronunciation in EFL and ESL classrooms (see Gilakjani, 2011), and investigated the influence of integrative instruction of segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation (see Aryanpour & Karbalaei, 2014). For instance, in their study on 66 EFL learners, Aryanpour and Karbalaei (2014) discussed the influence of integrative instruction of segmental and suprasegmental features on the language learners' improvement in pronunciation, word reading, and spontaneous production of the target language. Review of the related literature indicates that examination of how ESFPs are viewed and treated by language instructors in Iranian private language centers is apparently under-researched. Therefore, the current researchers sought to scrutinize Iranian language instructors' insights into how ESFPs are viewed and practiced.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The incentive behind the conduction of the present study was to qualitatively examine how ESFPs are viewed and treated by instructors in Iranian English language institutes. More specifically, this study was intended to investigate the extent to which ESFPs are focused on and highlighted by the instructors in their classroom practices and explore the underlying factors that affect their tendencies towards the use of these elements.

IV. METHOD

The current study is a qualitative examination of how ESFPs are viewed and treated by Iranian English instructors in private language centers.

A. Participants and Sampling Method

The subjects of the study included twelve experienced English instructors, seven females and five males, currently teaching at four popular private language centers in Yasouj, Iran. It is worth mentioning that the instructors taking part in the study had at least six years of teaching experience. The age of the respondents ranged from 28 to 39. Besides, each had experienced instructing English courses in basic, intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced levels. To succinctly add, in line with the method and objectives of the study, the researchers employed snowball sampling method to select the participants. Table 1 summarizes the demographic information of the interviewed instructors.

TABLE 1:
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE SUBJECTS

No	Name*	Age	Gender	Teaching experience
1	Ali	28	Male	6 years
2	Meysm	34	Male	10 years
3	Hamid	31	Male	7 years
4	Mansur	39	Male	13 years
5	Nader	29	Male	6 years
6	Mina	30	Female	6 years
7	Mona	31	Female	9 years
8	Samira	31	Female	7 years
9	Maryam	28	Female	6 years
10	Simin	28	Female	6 years
11	Zahra	29	Female	7 years
12	Zeynab	32	Female	8 years

NOTE: THE NAMES ARE FICTITIOUS.

B. Instrumentation

In line with the objectives of the study, semi-structured interviews were utilized to understand the phenomenon under investigation and to create an opportunity for the interviewees to adequately reflect on their insights. The interviews included open ended questions concerning how ESFPs are viewed and practiced by language instructors. To assure the comprehensibility and quality of the interview questions, they were piloted on two instructors with comparable characteristics.

C. Data Accumulation Procedure

An attempt was made to conduct profound interviews with the participants of the study to elicit and examine their viewpoints on ESFPs. The interview questions were developed and asked in English. The respondents, however, were given the chance to freely select the language to respond. Interviews took ten to twenty minutes and were recorded with the permission of the interviewees. Once accumulated, the data were transcribed into written texts and then analyzed. To ensure the trustworthiness of the findings, intensive care was taken to avoid bias through employing a prolonged and persistent field-work and accounting for the respondents' verbatim responses, as recommended by McMillan and Schumacher (2006). When the responses were in Persian, they were carefully translated into English.

D. Data Analysis Procedure

Researchers conducting qualitative scrutiny on the data accumulated through interviews have widely advocated interpretation of the collected data thorough content analysis (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). Accordingly, constant comparative content analysis, as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967), was employed in the process of data analysis to code the transcribed interviews. It involved an inductive process of frequent sifting through the data to identify similarities and patterns of reference in the interview transcripts. Detailed analyses of the similarities and patterns subsequently gave rise to the emergence of an evolving coding system for the categories. The units of analysis and coding schemes were defined and developed during the process of the content analysis; then, the codes were transformed into categorical labels or themes that were repeated or appeared as patterns in the interviews. This iterative procedure, according to Patton (2002), is intended to help the researchers in “developing some manageable classification or coding scheme” as “the first step of analysis” (p. 463). Data analysis proceeded incrementally and once the coherence and saturation of the data were accomplished, conclusions were drawn based on the analyzed data.

V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Through conducting in-depth interviews, the researchers made attempts to scrutinize the instructors’ attitudes towards ESFPs and to discover to what extent they practice such elements in their classes.

A. *The Instructors’ Insights into ESFPs*

Close examination of the instructors’ comments on the questions exploring their attitudes towards ESFPs was suggestive of the substantial criticality of ESFPs in different aspects. More specifically put, seven subjects of the study argued on the sensitivity of the ESFPs in speech perception. Meysam, for instance, viewed ESFPs as elements which are capable of boosting language learners’ receptive and comprehensive capacities. More elaborately put, he cited:

“I should assert that a great part of language learners’ listening comprehension problems is rooted in their unfamiliarity to suprasegmental features of language. As my experience talks, occasionally, although they are able to chunk the words in a given sentence, they are not able to get the message because some factors such as intonation and pitch are not a concern while comprehending the intended meaning of a statement”, (translated by the researchers).

Besides, Nader and Simin held that one’s critically developed capacity in ESFPs could substantially maximize her potentiality in grasping what native speakers actually intend to convey in movies or songs. An illustration of this could be observed in Simin’s viewpoint where she succinctly commented:

“To tell you the truth, although I am an English teacher, I sometimes have difficulty understanding English movies and songs. I guess it is because I have not taken serious some factors like stress, intonation, sound linking and other suprasegmental features”, (respondent’s wording).

Moreover, Mina and Samira highlighted the potential role of ESFPs in determining and also changing the meaning and parts of speech of English words as the ground to reflect on the significance of ESFPs in speech reception (T1) and production (T2). Mina more specifically referred to English as a language which is potentially conditioned by some factors such as stress, pitch, intonation and sound linking. Therefore, it is, as she argued, difficult to resist the significance of ESFPs. In accord with Mina, seven other instructors also confessed to the criticality of ESFPs in speech production. Mansur, for instance, underlined “the native speakers’ high proficiency in practicing suprasegmental features in their speech” as one of most remarkable features distinguishing them from the non-native ones. Samira also referred to making speech devoid of practicing ESFPs as “senseless”. More elaborately put, she asserted:

“Such features are very important. Let me to tell you why. You know, a shift in word stress can change the meaning or part of speech. So it is important for both speakers and listeners to practice English word stresses. And also, intonation is as important as word stress in English. Sometimes paying attention to the intonation of a sentence is the only way you can distinguish whether the speaker is making a question or making a statement. As you know you can easily change a statement to a question by rising [raising] its intonation”, (respondent’s wording).

In addition, the qualitative analysis of the respondents’ attitudes towards ESFPs unveiled further perspectives on the sensitivity of ESFPs. Ali and Mona argued on the significance of boosting language learners’ knowledge of ESFPs in EFL classroom contexts. They were of the opinion that the language learners with substantial potentialities in performing ESFPs have more positive self-esteem (T3) and are more noticeably motivated to learn English (T4). In this connection, Ali maintained:

“When a student can link English sound[s] truly or make the stressed and unstressed syllables truly, he will have a better self-confidence and better views about his abilities. So, he will be more motivated to talk in English or listen to different audio files or watch movies to improve his listening”, (respondent’s wording).

In brief, it should be mentioned that in-depth analysis of the instructors’ responses concerning their attitudes towards ESFPs led to the emergence of the coding schemes and thematic categorizations illustrated in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
MAJOR THEMES AND CODING SCHEMES ON THE INSTRUCTORS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ESFPs

ESFPs	Theme	Code
Significance in	speech reception	T1
	speech production	T2
	Learners' self-esteem	T3
	Learners' motivation	T4

B. ESFP Practice in EFL Classrooms

Needless to say, close examination of the interviewees' attitudes towards ESFPs framed the grounds for supposing a critically considerable significance for ESFP in various aspects. However, in light of the respondents' insights into how ESFPs are treated in classrooms, it was revealed that the instructors gave such critical features short shrift in their pedagogical practices. In other words, despite the acknowledgement of the substantial criticality attributed to ESFPs, the instructors ignored to consider a noticeable place for such elements in practice.

Almost all of the instructors asserted that just because some textbooks sparingly offer some tips in connection with suprasegmental features, they have to spend at least very limited time to explain them. Once explained, as confessed by seven of the instructors, ESFPs, unlike other language elements such as grammar, are not reviewed in next sessions. Nine of the instructors also maintained that they did not regard ESFPs as a consideration while assessing their students' oral skills.

As regards the reason for ignoring to place emphasis on ESFPs in their courses, a majority of the respondents including Mona, Nader, and Mansur highlighted language learners' unwillingness (T5) to acquire such skills as the major ground. Mansur, for instance, stated:

"When I am teaching one tip related to suprasegmental features, I notice that even my best students sometimes do not pay attention to my speech. I have been facing to this question from my students a lot: Are these important?", (respondent's wording).

Besides, Nader maintained that he sought to devote short periods of time to teaching ESFPs because his students found learning such factors tedious. Suffice it to quote from his final words: "Teaching such elements, I usually face to many yawns". In line with Mansur's and Nader's views, Mona also cited:

"Students themselves prefer to focus on other skills. One of teachers' duties is also to respect their learners' needs and interests. Sometimes when it takes more than a couple of minutes to explain some factors such as pitches in speech, my students ask me to do something different", (respondent's wording).

Further analysis of the respondents' comments revealed other incentives behind ignoring to focus on ESFPs in courses in Iranian private language centers. Four of the instructors pointed to insufficient time assigned for teaching each course (T6) and skill prioritization (T7) as the principal factors contributing to neglecting ESFPs in practice. An illustration of this was suggested by Samira's comment where she argued:

"I am aware of the criticality of suprasegmental features. Also I believe that learners should develop such skills. However, my students' numerous mistakes and errors in oral and written production, their limited word power and proficiency in communication, and their poor capacity in receptive skills leave no choice but concentrating solely on such skills rather than others. I suppose, I do not have enough time to cover all details practically", (translated by the researchers).

Furthermore, Hamid's argument would appear to reinforce Smira's, where he succinctly commented "it is not logical to expect a learner who is not able to make a grammatical sentence to pay attention to word or sentence stress. I guess such factors should be covered in higher levels".

Maryam also reflected on her justifications to ignore to spend a considerable time on teaching suprasegmental features in her classes. She called for "more efficient and attractive" materials directly developed for enhancing language learners' skills in suprasegmental features. Directly put, she asserted:

"I hate it when my class is boring. Teaching suprasegmental features by the examples provided in books is boring even for me. So, I do not expect my students to be interested in something which is not interesting for their instructor. If I am provided with better materials, I can spend more time on teaching such elements", (respondent's wording).

All views considered, Table 3 succinctly illustrates the contributory factors behind the instructors' negligence in teaching ESFPs.

TABLE 3:
MAJOR THEMES AND CODING SCHEMES ON THE PERCEIVED REASONS FOR NEGLECTING ESFPs

Theme	Code
Learners' unwillingness	T5
Insufficiently assigned course time	T6
Skill prioritization	T7
Improper materials	T8

The present study, all in all, was motivated to qualitatively explore how ESFPs are viewed and treated by Iranian instructors' teaching at private language centers. Taking the respondents' perspectives into account, we can suggest that ESFPs are not treated as positively as they are viewed. As regards the attitudes towards ESFPs, it is worthwhile to

mention that the present findings concerning the instructors' attitudes towards ESFPs are in accord with the related literature on the significance of ESFPs (see e. g. Chela-Flores, 2001; Greenwood, 2002; Jenkins, 2002; Keys, 2000; Ladefoged & Johnson, 2010; Morley, 1991; Munro & Derwing, 1995; Murphy, 1991). To put it in details, close examination of the instructors' viewpoints was suggestive of their positive attitudes towards high criticality of ESFPs in speech reception and production, and boosting language learners' self-esteem and motivation. Such results are in line with the ones found by Ladefoged and Johnson (2010) where they argued that suprasegmental features have pivotal roles in determining the utterance meaning because they accentuate the most important part of the message. The findings further support the study conducted by Chela-Flores (2001) in which he came to the point that improving language learners' capacities in ESFPs might help them overcome their affective problems including lack of self-confidence in learning a second language.

Turning to practicing ESFPs in classroom contexts, the interviewees' responses to the intended questions indicated that ESFPs seemed not to be considerably valued in Iranian private language centers. Data analysis revealed that a majority of the participants (8 out of 12) underlined their students' lack of interest in ESFPs as a priming factor behind overlooking such elements in practice. Mansur, for example, wondered whether developing knowledge of ESFPs was of any import. Most of the participants even found focusing on these elements tedious. These findings corroborate the argument made by Seidlhofer (2000) that pronunciation is often treated as a luxury "add-on" which is often perceived by teachers and students as boring and unproductive. Further, skill prioritization, insufficient assigned time, and improper materials were perceived to be the other grounds for giving ESFPs short shrift in practice.

In addition, it appeared that the dominance of other types of language knowledge such as grammar and vocabulary tended to overshadow the criticality of ESFPs in classrooms. The instructors apparently chose to overemphasize grammar and vocabulary at the expense of the ESFPs due to lack of time and productive materials. Such findings are in strict conformity with the observation made by Seidlhofer (2000) who found that in most EFL/ESL classes, language skills are taught separately, with grammar and vocabulary receiving more weight than other language components. Likewise, teachers often neglect pronunciation as a major language component and think that teaching/learning pronunciation should be left to higher levels. In other words, pronunciation teaching seems to be the "Cinderella" of TESOL. Findings of the current study also revealed that language instructors often failed to create rich and pertinent contexts in which EFL learners could develop their pronunciation capacities. This could, of course, be due to the instructor's failure to forage language learners' capacities in pronunciation. Provided that pronunciation, like other aspects of language, is focused in practice and learners get aware that there are standard ways of uttering the sounds that make up possible language strings, nurturing the learner pronunciation potentials seems to be readily accessible (Gilaki, 2011).

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study was an attempt to qualitatively examine how English suprasegmental features were viewed and treated by Iranian language instructors teaching at private language centers. The emerging results obtained from the in-depth analysis of the participants' responses to the interview questions indicated that the instructors had positive attitudes towards ESFPs. In other words, the responding instructors perceived ESFPs as critically significant due to their determining role in speech reception and production, and boosting language learners' self-esteem and motivation. Despite such positive attitudes, the instructors did not determine a clear and considerable place for teaching ESFPs in their courses. Examination of their responses unveiled the factors behind such a tendency. It was suggested that the instructors highlighted language learners' unwillingness to focus on ESFPs, skill prioritizations, and insufficient assigned time along with productive materials as the major reasons for neglecting to teach ESFPs efficiently and sufficiently.

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Strategies Used in Translation of Scientific Texts to Cope with Lexical Gaps (Case of Biomass Gasification and Pyrolysis Book)

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Abstract—Lexical gap in translation is deeply debated during the history of translation studies. Many theories have been put forward to explain the possible strategies of filling lexical gaps. This descriptive study aims to investigate some of these strategies used in the translation of a special technical book, *Biomass Gasification & Pyrolysis (Practical Design and Theory)*, this book was a suitable option, since it has modern topics, some of which have not been discussed or even existed in the target language (Persian). In this study, seventy new terms which have not been employed in Persian (in that field) were selected and examined, the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the words indicated that loan word, loan translation, loanblend were the most prominent strategies to cope with new lexicons; in addition, it also showed that loan translation had the highest rate of usage (68.5%) among other techniques and in scientific contexts it is widely preferred.

Index Terms—lexical gap, scientific text, loan word (borrowing), loan translation, loan renditions, loanblend, generic term

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays science and technology are growing fast, new equipment is invented, new phenomena are discovered; consequently, new terms enter languages. As most western countries (and few eastern ones) are pioneers in the technology development, their languages are enriched with new vocabulary, among them, English, which is the international communication language, or lingua franca, has been receiving a wide range of scientific terms. Science did not always flow from the west to east but in the golden Islamic age Middle Ages was the scientific center of the world. The Arabic language was synonymous with learning and science for hundreds years; many scientific terms from Islamic communities were transferred to western languages such as, algebra, the names of the stars, Algorithm etc.

Translation has a major role in the dissemination of science, and definitely this worldwide role for transfer of knowledge cannot be ignored. The translation impacts on science are unlimited; medicine, religious context, philosophy and astronomy and then chemistry were the earlier majors which were rendered (Wright, 1993).

On the other hand the various levels of technology development in countries can create major lexical gaps between source language (SL) and target language (TL), it can be said that the physical environment of a speech community is also involved in creating lexical gaps in the sense that words are made by speakers to refer to objects around us (Al-Ghazali, 2012).

However, globalization and the advent of the internet have increased translation pace; besides, the cultural and scientific concepts always transfer from high developed society to less developed society so that translators have to provide the languages with same equivalents. The term equivalent¹ refers to two or more entities being of equal value, corresponding value, or having same use or function as something else² (House, 2009), nevertheless sometimes they are pushed to borrow the exact words.

A. Lexical Gap

Lexical gaps are instances of lack of direct lexeme in one language while comparing two languages during translation. Bentivogli and Pianta (2000) underlined that a lexical gap occurs whenever a language expresses a concept with a lexical unit whereas another language expresses the same concept with a free combination of words, in other word, language is more flexible and all languages have capabilities to express any experience in corresponding terms (House, 2009).

According to the dictionary of translation (2004) a lexical gap appears “if one word in one language does not have any counterpart in another language” which causes the translator to paraphrase source term. Lyons defined lexical gap as empty places in semantic fields where a language needs to compact some concepts, he also looked at lexical gaps through hierarchical lexical structures and believed lexical gaps are potential but non existing words (Lyons, 1997 p302-304). Darwish (2010, 244P) has suggested that lexical gaps can occur in translation if a same concept is expressed

differently in target and source languages or culture and taxonomy of two languages are not similar. In light of these definitions he presented various strategies such as loan words and calque to overcome this deficiency. Larson (1998) classified lexical equivalents to known and unknown and provide them with some techniques including descriptive phrase, related words, specific generic words, modifying generic word, loan translation and cultural substitutions.

Lexical gap can create a problem for the translator and it is difficult to convey the meaning in the target language (Mollanazar, 2001). This could cause some types of untranslatability based on universal translatability principle; however, we have to know that the lexical gaps in science are not always absolute, sometimes one word is used for in one technical field can also be used in other fields. And some terms are often made of different parts which shows different capabilities of a piece of equipment or a scientific process, so if translators know the stems and descriptions of those terms, they might be able to interpret the concept of whole terms. In fact the scientific term is not formed at once, every word or better say every new thing is constructed gradually using works of predecessors. Nevertheless, all lexical gaps are not relatives; there are some terms which are invented in special fields and it will take time to become popular and common among all experts.

The subject of the book, Biomass Gasification Pyrolysis (Practical Design and Theory), written by Prof. Prabir Basu and published by Elsevier in 2010 is quite new in the world. Biomass is the renewable ancient energy sources, but technology of biomass conversion has recently been made; hence, Persian language, target text, is almost lacking in these concepts. Neither specific dictionary nor technical text book in TL could offer so much help to clarify the meaning; only a limit number of articles, dictionaries of related disciplines, books, and the most obviously the internet sources with useful definition and description in SL language could provide translators with great information for new words.

Dividing texts into three categories, Newmark (1988) put the scientific or academic text into informative group. "Format of informative text is often standard: a textbook, a technical report, an article in newspaper, or a periodical, and a scientific paper (Newmark, 1988)". Every detail in academic text can be significant, so vocabulary has crucial influences and translation should be accurate and awkward. In translation of these terms, several methods were used. These selective methods were discussed by other translators and theoreticians mostly on cultural texts. In fact the subject of the lexical gap in cultural context is more challenging than other fields; Rahimkhani (2013) has reported that most translators could not be successful in tasks of efficiently rendering the Qur'anic allusions in Hafez poetry. Al-Gazalli (2012) believes lexical gaps are more prominent in religious texts than other text-types; while unfortunately less attention has been paid to technical texts which enter new terminology into languages. In this research study the lexical gaps been between two academic texts in two languages, English and Persian (Farsi) have been examined

B. Persian Language

Persian language, also called Fārsī, member of the Indo-Iranian language family. It is the official language of Iran, modern Persian is most closely related to Middle and Old Persian (Britannica, 2014). Farsi is written in Arabic prescribed form and has many Arabic loanwords. However Persian contacts with other languages such as French, English, and Turkic have resulted in many borrowings.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Different research studies were carried out using applicable techniques to grapple with lexical gaps. Li JM (2007) analyzed the lexical gaps in translation of Chinese old medical texts, transliteration was one of the methods he applied. Ghazali (2012) has notified that the lexical gap in religious and cultural context is rather challenging. Shabanirad (2011) worked on procedures of translation of cultural lexical gaps in literary texts, Hosseini Masoum (2013) reported that in advertisement equivalence, translators were interested in loan words and loan translation in order to indicate originality of products. Heidari Tabrizi (2007) has argued and *exemplified* different types of lexical gaps and usage of strategies such as loan blending, loan translation, loan shift, coinage in Persian language. In terms of vocabulary, Bateni (2006) investigated societies contacts leading to language changes and then put forward loan words, loan shift, loan translation, loan rendition and loan blending as different language borrowing approaches in Persian language

Mirzaei (2014) investigated the procedures the EFL students in two intermediate and advanced levels had employed to translate some cultural words, he found that circumlocution (avoiding topics) was widely selected by both groups. Chen discussed different methods of borrowing lexicons from English to Chinese including phonetic transcription, transliteration and loan blend and Zue (2011) believed that contact languages between English and Chinese led to many loan words in Chinese languages. Qibin (2007) concluded that the loan translation is a more appropriate way to transfer new words to the target language in comparison with descriptive forms and loan words. Qihuan (2009) suggested that loan translation is more helpful than equivalent translation in foreign terminology. Bentivogli & Pianta (2000) and Janssen (2004) deal with MultiWordNet model and Multilingual Lexical Database respectively.

This paper will focus on methods of coping with lexical gaps in scientific contexts. In this study we set out to determine what strategies were employed and to what extent they were used in the academic text to fill lexical gaps.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Material

The data were gathered from an academic text, the academic text is a book, the contents of which have not been translated before. Seventy new scientific and technical terms with their translated equivalents were selected; the terms were mostly associated with the names of modern and complicated device and machines. The majority of them have not existed in Persian scientific contexts and some were very new for that field of science. So provision of appropriate target equivalents can help readers or students figure the meanings.

B. Procedure

To make inference from data, and the elicited and distributed data were listed into one table. Analyzing the equivalents we could point out the type and then frequency of applied equivalents. It is essential to mention that there are a group of expressions which were translated by two strategies. The other important point is that none of the terms were made up of one semantic unit or word, but rather some have consisted of different units to present one process or a modern technology. Therefore, it was decided to omit its classifier repeating in every term and examined only the new components, for instance there were different gasifiers in this book such as fix bed gasifier, side fed gasifier. To determine the type and frequency and classification of equivalents, we first examined the generic classifier (gasifier) exclusively and then specific parts (fix bed, side fed) were separately taken into consideration. To apply the results to a larger text or the book the percent values were scaled up accordingly.

TABLE 1:
RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS

Strategies	Loan translation	Loan word	Loan blend	generic terms	Loan rendition	descriptive
frequency	48	11	5	5	3	1
Percentage	68.5%	15.7%	7.1%	7.1%	4.2%	1.4 %

IV. RESULTS

The results, as shown in table 1, indicate that the loan translation, loan word, loan blend generic terms, loan rendition and descriptive phrase are the techniques employed by translator to tackle with new expressions and terms. From the data in table 1 it is apparent that the loan translation has the highest and descriptive method has the lowest usage. The loan word is the second highest strategy. Loan blend generic terms and loan rendition have less but not necessarily unimportant roles.

To have a widespread view about the aforementioned strategies it is necessary to define, discuss and analyze them with some examples

A. Calque or Loan Translation

In loan translation or calque, source term is replaced by TL material, in other words “Calque is a special kind of borrowing where SL expression or structure is translated in literal translation” (Vinay&Darbelnet, as cited in Munday 2001). However the precise word to word corresponding is not always possible. According to table 1, the loan translation was the most preferred technique to tackle lexical gaps, the findings of current study are consistent with those of Qibin (2007) and Qihuan (2009). The following terms are examples of loan translation.

Example1

Throated (gasifier) Throatless (gasifier)

The dry-ash (gasifier) Slagging (gasifier)

Up-fed (gasifier) Side -fed (gasifier)

Although in all of the above examples, loan translation, itself, has a significant function in both clarifying and defining the meaning of vocabulary, it is fundamental to remember that the loan translation does not always present the complete meaning of terms and may give a general view about concept. Therefore before the selection of TL equivalent it is essential to analyze the components of words different techniques such as description, contrastive pair (Larson, 1998).

When source language has closely related pairs, it will not be very difficult to find components of meaning which distinguish one from another. Sometimes the contrastive pair may help the translator define the best equivalent for those words.

The throated and throatless are two gasifiers with considerable similarities and one clear structural difference. Also, up-fed and side -fed gasifiers are two reactors whose feeding points are located in various places. The dry-ash and slagging gasifiers are a contrastive pair. Dry ash can be rendered literary (loan translation), but the meaning of slagging in TT (target text) is mainly identified with both the contrastive pair and description of the book itself:

....The British Gas/Lurgi consortium developed a moving-bed gasifier that works on the same principle as the dry-ash gasifier, except a much higher temperature(1500–1800 °C) is used in the combustion zone to melt the ash (hence its name, slagging gasifier). Such a high temperature requires a lower steam-to-fuel ratio (~0.58) than that used in dry-ash units. (Basu, 2010, p172).....

The above definition shows the contrastive component of these gasifiers, (dry ash and melting ash), so *slagging gasifier* was translated as:

Slagging gasifier گازساز خاکستر مذاب (back translation =a melting ash gasifier)

B. Loan Words

In borrowing, SL word is transferred directly to TL (Vinay and Darbelnet, as cited in Munday 2001). All languages always receive new vocabulary from other languages. While some linguists are against this process, others believe that borrowing, not always, but sometimes, can enrich languages, and it is an inevitable change in the history of human language. Lexical borrowing is obviously the most popular type of languages' exchange (Ghasemi & Sattari 2010). Loan words are new borrowing terms which need to be employed in the target language.

In Persian scientific texts, we have a wide range of borrowed words which have been used since a long time ago such as oxygen, nitrogen, oxide, hydrogen, gas etc. Loan words had been transferred to TL before and are known and adopted by speakers of TL while loan words are almost unknown and sometimes sound weird for TL society. "The concepts of loan words become clearer for people with the constant repetition during the time" (Heidari Tabrizi, 2007)". Loan words are usually transferred to the target language through transliteration (Zhu, 2011) which is defined as words or letters in the characters of another alphabet (Meriam Webster dictionary).

It can be observed that loan words are helpful in identifying terms with similar meaning in the target language. For instance although *decomposition*, *degradation*, *pyrolysis* and *cracking* are processes of breaking molecules or materials into smaller parts, they own different features. From a scientific point of view these differences, even trivial, are significant; therefore, they must acquire proper equivalents.

Example 2

Reforming رفرمینگ
Pyrolysis پیرولیز

However, it should be noted that for some loan words, TL equivalents have been suggested but they are not welcomed by experts or specialists, as an illustration, pyrolysis has one equivalent (گرماکافت) in target language which has rarely been applied in academic texts.

C. Loan Rendition

In this strategy, all parts of a term are not rendered word by word, rather the term will be analyzed and then considering one prominent feature or a special function, new equivalents will be made² (Bateni, 2006). Loan rendition sometimes is called approximate loan translation (Gomez, 1997), in other words loan renditions do not match all elements of SL term and the loan rendition is rarely used. (Hogg, black and Burchfield, 2000, p315)

Stirred tank reactor is the simplest type of reactor. It is composed of a reactor and a mixer such as a stirrer, a turbine wing or a propeller. So, mixer is a prominent constituent of this reactor, by use of which the TL equivalence has been made.

Example 3

Cold quench operation عملیات سرد کن سریع یا آبی (back translation: instantaneous cooling down operation)
Stirred tank (reactor) راکتور همزن دار (back translation: (a reactor) with the mixer)

D. Loan Blend

Loan blend is a technique in which one part of the model is transliterated while the rest of the term is rendered word by word (Chen, 2013). Loan blend is an approach between loan word and loan translation, or a combination of two aforementioned strategies.

Example 4

Plasma gun تفنگ پلاسمایی
Gasifier گاز ساز

In above example first part of words (plasma and gas) were loan and borrowed words and the second parts were translated

E. Generic Term

"Sometimes the source language uses specific terms but the receptor language only has one generic word in that semantic area" (Larson, 1998). In this case, we can use both the generic term and specific term in the form of a modifier to distinguish the meaning of words in TL or provided that the meaning of context does not change, sometimes only generic term can be used.

Example 5

Riser لوله ی بالا بر (back translation: the hoisting pipe)
Right-of-way trimming هرس کردن (only trimming has been translated)

¹ Translated by Author

² Translated by Author

Sometimes loan words are employed with classifiers to let the readers gain more information about new words; besides, "It is helpful to use the general classifier term before loan words, so that readers are able to understand the accurate meaning of loan words (Heidari Tabrizi, 2007)". In following example we use both generic and loan words.

Example 6

Pyrolyzer تجزیه کننده های پیرولیزی (back translation: pyrolysis decomposer)

Trummel ظرف استوانه ای ترامل (back translation: the cylindrical container of Trummel)

F. Descriptive Phrase

It is not expected that target equivalents are to be used in same form of source words. Decoding the meaning of different components of vocabulary, sometimes translators use a phrase or clause as equivalent. "Because many of vocabulary in texts are semantically complex, it will be expected many times a single word will be translated by several words that are a descriptive phrase in target language (Larson, 1998)". However this technique is not able to provide concise equivalents suit to scientific context. Based on table 1, only 1.4 % of strategies are descriptive phrase

Example 7

Entertainment فرار ذرات به خارج (back translation: escape of particles to out)

V. CONCLUSION

Scientific texts involve continually increasing lexis referring to the new discoveries and inventions which are not quickly lexicalized across the world's languages (Al-Ghazali, 2012). Qibin (2007) has reported that loan translation is superior to transliteration and descriptive form and loan translation will play an important role in translation of loan words.

With a brief review of the translation of book and also according to table 1, the readers will find out that SL words were widely translated through the loan translation, other strategies had less but not necessary unimportant roles in constructing TL equivalents. For the Source terms usually have the capability of defining themselves, the loan translation obviously is not only the easiest and best but also the most discretionary option. Nevertheless we should also know that the loan translation does not always provide an acceptable TL equivalent; therefore, before selecting this approach the meaning of terms should be interpreted carefully. In addition, we cannot predict how much these new terms are welcomed and used by experts in other languages.

By and large the world and our lives have always been under the influence of technology; languages along with life style ought to develop, but such development usually does not happen fast, because people first must get acquainted with new concepts; besides, creating new terms requires a strong cultural and linguistic background in every society, moreover it is a time consuming process, consequently sometimes techniques such as loan words and loan translation can serve useful functions.

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A Comparative Analysis of Two English Versions of Some Poems in *A Dream of Red Mansions*

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Abstract—This thesis makes a comparative study of the two versions of translation of poems in *A Dream of Red Mansions* to find out the differences. Yang's version is literal translation. It retains the content and form of the original work. The language of the translation faithfully conveys the original's rich and profound connotation. English readers may not adapt to such form, technique and mood of ancient Chinese poems, but they may have some idea of the source text. Hawkes' version employs free translation. It retains the original's content as much as possible. Some poems, in the form of English ballads, with beautiful sound, form and mood, are fluent and easy to understand. Some contents are rewritten, which are expressive.

Index Terms—poetry translation, aesthetic approach, *A Dream of Red Mansions*, literary interest

I. INTRODUCTION

The following is the comparative analysis of two English versions of the translations of some poems in *A Dream of Red Mansions*, analyses briefly the different translation methods used by Hawkes and Yang Xianyi and the different effects they make in the TL culture and to the TL readers. Finally, it concludes that the purpose of translation decides the choice of different translation strategies. *A Dream of Red Mansions* is among the greatest classical works of China and of the world. As an encyclopedia work, it takes pride in rich life, great theme and unique artistic values. Not only in China, this masterpiece also aroused great interests of many foreign readers. The most popular English versions are *The Story of the Stone* translated by the Britain scholar David Hawkes and *A Dream of Red Mansions* translated by Chinese famous translator Yang Xianyi and his wife Gladys Yang (Suo, 2015). It is well known that to fully understand and interpret each detail of Hong Loumeng is a very hard work even for many Chinese readers because of its rich culture-loaded contents and the extraordinary depth of thoughts. So, this essay is going to cite some poems in chapter V for the following comparative study of domestication and foreignization, the two translation strategies adopted by David Hawkes and Yang Xianyi respectively in their translations. In *A Dream of Red Mansions* Chapter V holds a very important position of the whole novel. It is in this chapter that Cao Xueqin firstly pointed “红楼梦”, the name of this novel. So firstly, a brief comparison of the title should be necessary.

II. COMPARISON OF THE TITLE

A. *The Comparative Study of the First Poem of “Third Register of Twelve Beauties of Chinling”*

In this chapter, Bao-yu visits a fairyland with the guide of Qin-shi and saw many pictures and the relevant poems. The first one of “Third Register of Twelve Beauties of Chinling” is about the maid of Bao-yu, Qingwen. The original text goes like this:

“霁月难逢,彩云易散。

心比天高,身为下贱。

风流灵巧招人怨。

寿夭多因诽谤生,多情公子空牵念。”

David Hawkes's translation:

“Seldom the moon shines in a cloudless sky,

And days of brightness all too soon pass by.

A noble and aspiring mind,

In a base-born frame confined,

Your charm and wit did only hatred gained,

And in the end you were by slanders slain

Your gentle lord's solicitude in vain.”

Yang Xianyi's translation:

“A clear moon is rarely met with,
Bright clouds are easily scattered;
Her heart is loftier than the sky
But her person is of low degree.
Her charm and wit give rise to jealousy,
Her early death is caused by calumny.
In vain her loving master’s grief must be.”

Mr. Yang basically adopted literal translation, trying to achieve the fully literal equivalence of each sentence to the original text. The first couplet of the Chinese original “霁月难逢，彩云易散” not only hides the Chinese name of Qingwen, but also indicates the miserable fate of her, for “霁”，“彩云” means “晴”，“雯” respectively and “难逢”，“易散” also implies the imperfect endings in Chinese. Yang well expressed the literal meanings of the Chinese characters and met perfectly the requirement of form of Chinese poem; however, the information of Qingwen’s name was lost. In Hawkes’s version, the name of Qingwen was translated as Skybright. Hawkes didn’t explain the meanings of Chinese characters “霁” and “彩云”，and the name “Skybright” also was hidden in the first couplet, so in this aspect, Hawkes’s translation is fairly a successful one.

In the six sentence “寿夭多因诽谤生”，the word “寿夭” not only means “death” in Chinese, but also indicates that to live a very short life. Qingwen’s early death is a very important foreshadow of the whole story. Mr. Yang translated this as “early death”，which meets perfectly the Chinese meaning, what’s more, the two words “caused” and “calumny” formed alliteration, which successfully gains the same reading effects as “诽谤” in Chinese. Hawkes also used the two alliteration words: “slanders” and “slain”，but it is pity that he didn’t express the meaning of “early death” to his readers.

By using the way of domestication, Hawkes successfully conveyed the original textual information to foreign readers with smooth and beautiful English, but the loss of Chinese culture-loaded information is inevitable. Mr. Yang mostly adopted the way of literal translation, trying his best to keep the true and idiomatic Chinese style and national tint.

B. The Comparative Study of the Sixth Poem of “First Register of Twelve Beauties of Chinling”

This poem is about Jia Ying-chun, the elder granddaughter of Jia Mansion. She suffered an extreme miserable marriage and finally was maltreated to death by her husband, Sun Shaozu. The original poem is:

“子系中山狼，得志便猖狂；
金闺花柳质，一载赴黄粱。”

For many foreign readers, to understand this poem may not be an easy thing, because the short four lines are full of Chinese traditional allusions and culture-loaded words. For example, the phrase “中山狼” comes from an old Chinese folk tale: “The Tales of Mountain Wolf” which was written by Ma Zhongxi of Ming dynasty. In Chinese, this phrase is used to indicate those ungrateful people. The first two lines are the description of Jia Yingchun’s husband, Sun Shaozu, who is ungrateful and brutal. The other allusion “黄粱” is from 《枕中记》 of Tang dynasty, which means the dream-like rich and prosper that is unreal and easily goes in vain. Another example is the three Chinese characters in the third line: “金”，“花” and “柳”. In Chinese classics, “金” is often used to emphasize the dignity and nobility, “花” is the word that to describe the beauty of female. In this sentence, it was used to modify the svelte and elegant figure of female. So, the information is abundant: the gentle and weak lady, the wolf-like husband and the terrible ending of Jia Ying-chun and so on. David Hawkes’s translation:

“Paired with a brute like the wolf in the old fable,
Who on his saviour turned when he was able,
To cruelty not used, your gentle heart
Shall, in a twelvemonth only, break apart.”

Yang Xianyi’s translation:

For husband she will have a mountain wolf,
His object gained he ruthlessly berates her;
Fair bloom, sweet willow in a golden bower,
Too soon a rude awakening awaits her.

Both Hawkes and Yang Xianyi maintained the image of wolf. This is because that in both the English and Chinese, the word “wolf” has the same conceptual meanings and the culture connotations: a representative of brutal, ruthless and ungrateful person. In Hawkes’s translation, the textual information was kept, while the information of allusion was missing, which is a loss to those foreign readers and they may be wondering about the “fable” in the expression: “wolf in the fable”. For the third line: “金闺花柳质”，Hawkes just used one word “gentle” to describe the lady, which made the readers can not gain the enough information of Ying-chun. Yang successfully kept all the three images of the culture-loaded words by using “bloom”，“willow” and “golden”，and the use of adjectives “fair” and “sweet” also serves well to the expressiveness. Yang’s translation of the final line, in my opinion, is a classic of foreignization. The skillful use of the word “awakening” is really excellent. This word not only reminds the readers the allusion of the story of “黄粱”，but also implies the break of the dream of the red mansion which is accidentally the novel’s name. So, Hawkes adopted liberal translation and cleared away the obstacles of understanding for foreign readers. Mr. Yang is more like a

responsible translator. His strategy is to adopt semantic translation with annotation. By doing this, the loss of meanings of culture allusions can be effectively compensated and the exotic favor can also be retained to the great extent.

C. *The Comparative Study of the Poem “虚花误”*

This poem is one of the fourteen “Hong Loumeng” songs. The poem is:

“将那三春勘破,桃红柳绿待如何?把这韶华打灭,觅那清淡天合。

.....

似这般,生关死劫谁能躲?闻说道西方宝树唤婆娑,上结着长生果。”

This poem is the description of Xi-chun, the youngest granddaughter of the Jia Mansion. Having been disillusioned by the cruel reality, she decided to get away from the earthly affairs and chose to sacrifice herself to the Buddhism. The first line directly described the short time span of the beautiful early springs. Here the word “三春” not only means spring, but also hides the other three granddaughters of the Jia Mansion, namely, Yuan-chun, Ying-chun and Tan-chun. So, Mr. Yang translated the line as: “She will see through the three Springs.” And he also added the missing information by the annotation that: “A pun meaning the three months of Spring and the three elder Chia girls. All the Chia girls had the character chun or spring in their names.” This way of translation effectively informed the inner connection between Xi-chun and other girls and the exquisite design of their names. By the way, if we connect the first character of the four names of these girls, then a phrase can be gained, which reads as: “原应叹息”. This phrase can be taken as the basic tone of Hong Loumeng. Hawkes simply put: “三春” as the “triple springs”, which lost the rich implied meanings of the original text. As for the last couplet, Mr. Yang added the annotation in translating: “西方宝树”, a special term of the Buddhism. He explained in the foot note that: “it was said that Sakyamuni attained Buddhahood in a grove of sal trees.” Hawkes’s translation is: “In Paradise there grows a precious tree, which bears the fruit of immortality.” Actually, Hawkes replaced the speciality of Chinese culture, “Buddhism” by “paradise” the typical symbol in the culture of English which is a comparatively strong language with more power and influence. The Chinese famous translator Wang Zuoliang once commented translation as a process of the communication between two cultures. So, a translator should be a faithful introducer of the semantic meaning as well as the culture of the source language and has the responsibility of maintaining the national tint in order to satisfy the different requirements of the various readers. In order to promote the communications between different cultures, the translator should respect the conventions and characteristics of the less powerful languages. In the year of 1973, with the invitation of the Penguin Books Publishing House, Hawkes began to translate Hong Loumeng. His direct purpose clearly is to let more readers to understand and enjoy the novel. Mr. Yang successfully meets the three standards of the foreignization proposed by Sun Zhili. Actually, it is very difficult to judge which method is better, the purpose of translation decides the choice of different translation strategies.

III. ANCIENT CHINESE POETRY TRANSLATION THEORY

How to translate Chinese poems into English? The theory of equivalent transferring of meaning (对等翻译理论) prevails in the west while Chinese translators stick to the criterion of “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” (信, 达, 雅) over a long period of time. Many scholars think loyalty and equivalence should be embodied in many aspects, such as the meaning of words, semantic meaning, understanding of the text, style, harmonious sounds and cultural transference. As is known to all, the sentiment and implication of some words in the ancient poems are gained because these words are often used in the poems. The readers who are familiar with ancient poems may think of a chain of related lines at the sight of these words. The verses together with their respective feelings and lingering charm appear before your eyes. They enrich the significance of the words, which cannot be conveyed by words of equivalent or approximate meaning. Prof. Xu Yuanchong (许渊冲) said, “If equivalent version is the best expression, we will employ the equivalent version. If not, we will employ the best, not the equivalent.” He summarized literary translation as “beautified art”, that is “二美 (意美, 音美, 形美), 二化 (深化法, 浅化法, 等化法), 二之 (知之, 好之, 乐之)”. If his theory lays stress on perceptual factors, then some young scholars’ theories are more rational. Their common ground can be generalized as “fusion”: translation is fusion of differences, not vivid representation of differences. Still there is objector, who holds that the key part of translation is to deal with the differential factors in the source text.

IV. THE STYLES OF TWO ENGLISH VERSIONS OF A DREAM OF RED MANSIONS

At the end of 1970s, Yang Xianyi and his wife Gladys Yang had their translations *A Dream of Red Mansions* published. Owing to the particular political period, they tried their best to be faithful to the original works without expressing their own understanding of the author's intentions, which led to a rather literal translation and an ignorance of the acceptability for the target language readers. They adopted foreignization, that is, the target language culture submitted to the culture of the original work. David Hawkes, a British sinologist, published his translations *The Story of the Stone* in 1977. He made a profound research into the original book and collected a lot of information about the background of the book. He stressed the target language readers at the expense of the original meaning. He employed free translation, and adopted domestication to deal with cultural connotation, namely, using extremely natural, fluent

target language to convey the content of the original works. Translation is the paramount means of intercultural communication. Chinese poetry, the most concise and implicit literary form with rhymes to express the thoughts and feelings, as a unique symbol of Chinese culture, has been translated into various foreign languages. This book tries making a comparative study of poetry translations in the two complete versions of HLM from the angles of translation linguistics, translation aesthetics and translation rhetorics, which is supposed to help researchers better understand translation theories and translation strategies and generate new ways to comment on poetry translations.

V. LINGUISTICS AND TRANSLATION OF THE POEMS IN A DREAM OF RED MANSIONS

The basic property of language is the humanities, which are expressed in the form of human thoughts and feelings. How to convey connotations and feelings and realize equivalent transferring of meaning (意义对应转换) is the focus and goal of meaning transferring translation theory (意义转换理论). Successful translators are adept at conveying the ideas. Literary translation is full of indeterminacy (不确定性), because what it would convey is beyond the basic meaning of the original works. There are differences in culture, mode of thinking and expression between source language (SL) and target language (TL). The translation should consider not only the target language reader's acceptability, but also the aesthetic perspective and imaginary space so as to achieve conformity in culture and find the corresponding expression. This chapter will make a case study on the poetry translations of the two English versions in A Dream of Red Mansions to explore the art of translation. Beauty is the characteristics and true nature of art; beauty is the characteristics and nature of literature; and beauty is the characteristics and nature of poetry. The aesthetic feeling embodied in the mood of the poem, the activity, mobility, interest, image, space for imagination, sound and so on, is the main content of aesthetic study of ancient Chinese poetry translation.

VI. AESTHETIC APPROACH TO THE TRANSLATION OF THE POEMS IN A DREAM OF RED MANSIONS

《红豆曲》is Baoyu's classical work on lovesickness.

Original:

女儿悲，青春已大守空闺。女儿愁，悔教夫婿觅封侯。女儿喜，对镜晨妆颜色美。女儿乐，秋丁架上春衫薄。

滴不尽相思血泪抛红豆，开不完春柳春花满画楼。睡不稳纱窗风雨黄昏后，忘不了新愁与旧愁。咽不下玉粒金药噎满喉，照不尽菱花镜。形容瘦。

展不开的眉头，握不明的更漏。呀，恰便是遮不住的青山隐隐，流不尽的绿水悠悠。

Yang's version:

The girl's sorrow: Youth is passing but she remains single.

"The girl's worry: Her husband leaves home to make his fortune.

"The girl's joy: Her good looks in the mirror in the morning.

"The girl's delight: Swinging in a light spring gown."

Like drops of blood fall endless tears of longing,

By painted pavilion grow willows and flowers untold:

Sleepless at night when wind and rain lash gauze windows,

She cannot forget her sorrows new and old:

rice like jade and wine like gold,

She turns from her wan reflection in the glass:

Nothing can smooth away her frown,

It seems that the long night will never pass:

Like the shadow of peaks, her grief is never gone:

Like the green stream it flows for ever on.

Rain buffets the pear blossom and the door is closed".

Hawkes' version:

The girl's upset:

The years pass by, but no one's claimed her yet.

The girl looks glum:

Her true-love's gone to follow ambition's drum.

The girl feels blest:

The mirror shows her looks are at their best.

The girl's content:

Long summer days in pleasant pastimes spent.'

'Still weeping tears of blood about our separation:

Little red love-beans of my desolation.

Still blooming flowers I see outside my window growing.

Still awake in the dark I hear the wind a-blowing.

Still oh still I can't forget those old hopes and fears.
 Still can't swallow food and drink, 'cos fm choked with tears.
 Mirror, mirror on the wall, tell me it's not true:
 Do I look so thin and pale, do I look so blue?
 Mirror, mirror, this long night bow shall I get through?
 Oh-oh-oh!
 Blue as the mist upon the distant mountains,
 Blue as the water in the ever-flowing fountains.'
 Rain whips the pear-tree, shut fast the door".

The verse was composed by Baoyu at Feng Ziyang's feast, with superb talent, and elegant artistic style. Permeated with long-drawn-out sad thoughts, the mood of the verse is "lovesickness", which is constructed through "Bi" and "Ring" of the imagery“豆”, taking the readers into the realm of the verse naturally and experience the endless affection. “春” is also imagery to show lovesickness and interdependence.

Yang's version left out the imagery, so "drops of blood, tears of longing" lost the lingering charm for analogy and mental connection. While Hawkes' rendering "tears of blood" and "little red-love beans" enriched the emotional appeal of the verse.

The parallel structure“滴不尽”, “开不完”, “睡不稳”, “忘不了”etc. contains a“不”in each sentence. The negative wording makes the whole verse appear passive and distressful. Yang's version uses seven negative expressions: "endless", "untold", "sleepless", "cannot", "nothing", and two "never"s, which may better convey the maiden's longing and sadness. While Hawkes' version begins with 5 "stills", and ends with rhyming "separation& desolation", "growing& blowing", "fears& tears", "true, blue& through", "mountains& fountains", which sounds mellow, sweet and smooth, resulting in lack of intense feelings. “青山隐隐” and“绿水悠悠”gave expression to Baoyu's hidden pain and endless sad thoughts. Yang rendered the analogy explicitly while Hawkes' rendering was a failure.

VII. CONCLUSION

This thesis makes a comparative study of the two versions of translation of poems in *A Dream of Red Mansions* to find out the differences. Yang's version is literal translation. It retains the content and form of the original work. The language of the translation faithfully conveys the original's rich and profound connotation. English readers may not adapt to such form, technique and mood of ancient Chinese poems, but they may have some idea of the source text. Hawkes' version employs free translation. It retains the original's content as much as possible. Some poems, in the form of English ballads, with beautiful sound, form and mood, are fluent and easy to understand. Some contents are rewritten, which are expressive.

Depiction of natural scenery and human spirit may emerge from the mood of Cao Xueqin's poems, full of poetic charm. The poems to depict characters in the novel make very images of various persons. They go with the individual's personality, characteristics, self possession. Lin Daiyu is romantic and delicate; Xue Baochai is graceful and reserved. Their individual manner is different from each other. Some poems are mediocre, some are childish, some are stupid, and some are vulgar. But the depicted objects are absolutely lifelike. The translations seize the mood and interest of the source text, convey the thoughts and feelings and reflect the literary grace.

As to rhetoric, the translators should by all means choose the most proper and approximate expression to convey the beauty of rhetoric in the translation. Most rhetoric forms in the poems of HLM have corresponding expressions in English versions, but euphony, pun, allusion, etc, are impossible to pronunciation, convey in the translation. And rhetoric related with the word forms word structure, word omission and abbreviation, word order cannot be rendered. For the rhetoric that has powerful effect on the thought and plot of the original work, we should remedy it as much as possible, for example, by changing the rhetoric forms, by emphasizing or by adding some footnotes; for those which have little to do with the plot or thought of the source text, the translator may give up. For the rhetoric impossible to translate, we may give a brief explanation, so that the English readers may understand the appeal of rhetoric.

Based on the study, the author of the thesis comes to the following conclusions: Translator is the subject of translation; source text is the object of translation; recreation is the mode of translation. The author's subjective understanding may have great effect on the translation and recreation. The translator should have profound understanding of the original, be loyal to the style of the original. But different translators may have different manners in translation. Translation requires truth and poems pursue beauty. So the translation of verses should put truth before beauty. The version should convey the beauty of significance, form and sound of the original so as to attain the goal of cultural communication. Translation should perfectly render the words, significance and taste. The essence of ancient poems should be conveyed in the translation. The translation of rhetoric sometimes requires the change of object of analogy, or the rhetoric forms so as to reproduce the significance for the English readers. If corresponding forms cannot be found in the target language, we should make full use of the superiority of the target language and choose the best rather than the corresponding forms to convey. The studies of the translations of the poems in involve many profound theories, which have influenced a lot of principles. This book is only a tentative investigation versions into this complex field. The comparative study of poetry translations in the poems of HLM from the angles of translation linguistics,

translation aesthetics translation rhetorics might give researchers some enlightenment and reference on poetry translations.

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An Intersemiotic Approach towards Translation of Cover Designs in Retranslated Classic Novels

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Abstract—In today's world, visual media has a win-win situation with written texts in reproducing ideologies and creating new meanings. Graphic designs of book covers are examples of such visual texts in intersemiotic translation. Corpus of this study included 4 book covers one of which is original English cover and three of them are their retranslated versions in Persian by different translators. These book covers were analyzed qualitatively according to the eleven criteria proposed by Kress and Van Leeuwen models of semiotic analysis, which were reclassified by researchers in three subclasses: graphic features, literary features and linguistic information. The results of the study showed that cover design of these novels changed during the different times and contexts. Also, translators did not play an important role in cover designing but it was the publisher, or in other words the commissioner, who determined the elements which were presented on the cover or made a decision about their order or other aspects of the cover design. So, cultural and social ideologies can be more or less obvious in texts, depending on the topic of a text, its genre and communicative process.

Index Terms—intersemiotic translation, text, ideology, codes, cover design

I. INTRODUCTION (BACKGROUND AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE)

It is widely accepted nowadays that Translation Studies is characterized as an interdisciplinary. Following current developments in translation studies and knowing it as an interdisciplinary field, the number of new theories and sub-branches is increasing. Interdisciplinarity of translation studies is an undeniable fact and for doing more research we can borrow some theories and notions from other fields which have some affinity with this field. So, in this research we borrowed some notions and theories from the field of semiotics to answer the research questions and to open new ways in translation studies and research in this field.

Intersemiotic Translation

The research of Semiotics bloomed in the 1990s in a real sense. Semiotics is 'the study of signs'. It is not purely a method of textual analysis, but involves both the theory and analysis of signs, codes and signifying practices. Semiology is used to refer to the study of signs within the Saussurean tradition. Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), Swiss-born, is the founder and father of modern linguistics. Founder of the structuralist tradition of semiology who envisaged it as 'a science which studies the role of signs as part of social life'. While 'Semiotics' refers to Peircean tradition. Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914), the American philosopher whose 'Semiotic' was the 'formal doctrine of signs', which was closely related to logic. Peirce is the founder of the American semiotic tradition. (Chandler, 2007, pp.259, 233, 232)

Roman Jakobson (1959/2000, p.114) describes intersemiotic translation as one of the three possible types of translation:

I. Intralingual Translation	—————>	Rewording
II. Interlingual Translation	—————>	Translation Proper
III. Intersemiotic Translation	—————>	Transmutation

Intersemiotic Translation or Transmutation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems. Intersemiotic translation in Jakobson's sense becomes associated with all manifestations of total translation. It can be autonomous in the case of screen adaptation and complementary in the case of illustration. Intersemiotic translation involves translation between two different media, for example, from the verbal medium into the musical medium, from the verbal medium into the cinematographic medium, and so on. Intersemiotic category for book illustrations to be seen as a type of translation of the text in the illustrated book. Illustrations not only re-create the literary and cultural values of the text, but multiply those values into different cultural systems each time the work is illustrated acting, thus, as refractions / rewritings of the text into different cultures, in a similar way as translation do. Thus, intersemiotic translation increases the number of parameters of the evaluation of translating activity: (Kallendorf, 2001, p.106) and (Petrilli, 2003, p. 272).

Text

Text is the most linguistic element of interpretation. Each text has its own specific construction based on the specific relations between its constituents. From Linguistic's point of view, text is defined as 'any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole'. It is a unit of language in use, not a grammatical unit like a clause or a sentence. The length or the size of a text is not important. The text is regarded as a 'semantic unit', in which the meaning has priority over the form, it is realized in clauses or sentences through coding of one symbolic system in another. (Emmon, 2005, p.5-6)

From Halliday's View (1977), a text does not have a beginning and end, unlike clauses or syllables which are well-defined entities. Halliday knows text as a continuous process of semantic choice. The essential feature of text is interaction, in which the meanings are encoded in and through the semantic system, forming the text. (Halliday, 1977, para 9).

From Structuralist's point of view, when language is considered, a text is signifiers of a system, and when it is realized in a code, it is regarded as parole. A text is originally speech registered by writing. (Torop, 1999, p.27)

From Semiotic's perspective, a text is a system of signs in the form of words, images, sounds and gestures. Text could be extended to include verbal or non-verbal, artistic or non-artistic, real or virtual texts and even the most ordinary things such as: sign language, musical, cinematic, architectural, visual artwork. Thus, text is the means of realizing non material social meanings, in language or in other representational modes. Discourse is social, and text need not be linguistic. (Kress, 2001, p.183)

Ideology

People are driven in the society by forces which are neither understood nor controlled. These forces can be seen in different areas such as governmental authorities, economic organizations and markets, social values and ideologies, accepted ways of life, and learned patterns of behavior. (Harrison & Dye, 2008, p.4)

An ideology is the set of factual and evaluative beliefs that is the knowledge and the opinions of a group. In other words, ideologies consist of those general and abstract social beliefs and opinion of a group (Van Dijk, 2001, pp.48-49). Ideology is viewed as a vehicle to promote or legitimate interests of a particular social group. It allows researchers to investigate modes of thinking, forms of evaluating, and codes of behavior which govern a community by virtue of being regarded as the norm. (Calzada Perez, 2003, pp.3-5)

The exercise of ideology in translation is as old as the history of translation itself. Sch äffner (2003) claims that "any translation is ideological since the choice of a source text and the use to which the subsequent target text is determined by the interests, aims, and objectives of social agents". She believes, ideological aspects can be more or less obvious in texts, depending on the topic of a text, its genre and communicative purpose. (Sch äffner, 2003, p.23)

Codes

Codes provide a framework within which signs make sense, they are interpretive devices which are used by interpretive communities. Codes organize signs into meaningful systems which correlate signifiers and signifieds through the structural forms of syntagms and paradigms. If the relationship between a signifier and its signified is relatively arbitrary, then it is clear that interpreting the conventional meaning of signs requires familiarity with appropriate sets of conventions. So, the production and interpretation of texts depends upon the existence of codes or conventions for communication. (Chandler, 2007, p.147)

Cover Design and Book Cover

It is believed that when a book is translated to a target language it will be adjusted to the social and ideological factors that are dominant in the target society. One of the items that will be adjusted, is the image and graphic design of the cover of the books. Also, in procedure of translation of a book we can find traces of power relations and ideological implications. Book jackets began to gain importance in the 1890s with the recognition that they could be a way to attract the attraction of potential buyers. The cover has little about the genre of the text. The cover conveys the content, the atmosphere and the setting of the text. This cover employs symbols derived both from the text and outside of the text in a very simple manner. Overall, the relationship of integrity between the cover and the text can be graded as medium. Cover design is a type of intersemiotic translation and develops a method of analysis and evaluation to assess how accurate these translations are. Book cover designs are profoundly influenced by several factors like the cultural and social features of the target audience, market, and the publisher's own opinions and interests. (Sonzogni, 2011, pp.48-181)

Keeping in mind what has been reviewed above, this study aimed at finding answers to the following two questions:

1. What ideological trends can be signified by the cover design of retranslated novels?
2. What socio-cultural features are presented by the cover design and determined by the publisher?

II. METHODOLOGY

Corpus and Samples

The research is a parallel corpus study. Social, cultural, political, and ideological implications are the most fundamental categories when we discuss on representations of cover designs. Therefore, the research corpus is chosen from classic novels which are directly concerned with this ideological concept. Samples are randomly selected. Original cover design is considered it's new edition and about retranslated cover designs we are considered the most of them which have ideological content, and also according to popularity of their editions.

The Sample:

1. The Scarlet Letter (2004) by Nathaniel Hawthorn

1. داغ ننگ، ناتانیل هاثورن، مترجم: سیمین دانشور (1369) نشر خوارزمی

2. داغ ننگ، ناتانیل هاثورن، مترجم: شهاب ماسالی (1381) نشر فیروزه

3. داغ ننگ، ناتانیل هاثورن، مترجم: محمد صادق شریعتی (1386) نشر گویش نو

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework adopted for this research is semiotics analysis that investigates sign systems and the modes of representation that humans use to convey feelings, thoughts, ideas, and ideologies. The approach used to interpret the graphic design of book cover is the 11 criteria proposed by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2005) model of semiotic analysis. In the following the criteria according to which the book covers were analyzed are explained briefly.

1). Frame and Setting:

Frame is mental structure that shape the way we see the world and that is triggered by words. They are part of the unconscious mind and operate automatically to help us make sense of the world. And Setting is the elements of a visual composition such as colors and visual shapes.

2). Foreground and Background:

Foregrounding and backgrounding were applied for artistic purposes (such as: theatre, cinema, costume) as well as to study of language (such as: phonological or syntactic forms).

3). Color and Light:

The forms of colors as signifiers and their meaning as signified play an important role in determining the intended meaning.

4). Cultural, Historical or Social References:

Cultural, historical and social references are elements which sign-makers consider in determining ideological implications.

5). Linguistic Information:

Some levels of linguistic information like: title of the book, author's name, translator's name, are used in the expression of intended meaning.

6). Logo Sign:

The logo sign used by the publisher on the cover may represent the possible commissioner of the novel, logo sign can show a bestselling work.

7). Marked Sign:

Marked sign is the gist of the story, for instance: the letter of A in original cover image is related to Puritain religion.

8). Directionality of Information Structure:

Position and directionality of information structure in respect of central items versus marginal items or upper versus lower elements can be affected from semiotic's view.

9). Point of View:

This criterion refers to the way the viewer looks at the semiotic scene and is impressed by it. In fact the distance created by point of view can relate the viewer more or less to the elements of the design and help understand the meaning of the cover better. It may also show the authors' point of view.

10). Mode of Representation:

Mode of representations like: painting, drawing, color and light helps clarify nature of the story on the cover.

11). Elements of Storyline:

The elements of storyline which presented on the book cover, can help the viewer discern to marked signs and he/she try to understand their ideological implications behind the selection of the cover design.

Procedure

In Farahzad's view (2007), cover designs are regarded metatexts and in the present study, the book covers are analyzed according to the 11 criteria proposed by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2005) model of semiotic analysis.

In Farahzad's (2012) model of Translation Criticism there are three levels: textual, paratextual and semiotic levels. The semiotic level concerns other layers of the text such as the graphic design of the book cover, illustrations, layout, fonts, colors, and the like. (Farahzad, 2012, p.38)

Data Collection and Analysis

The unit of analysis in this study is any chunk of metatext which carries an ideological load and it is to be compared and contrasted with its parallel part in the translation.

In the present study graphic design of book covers were analyzed according to the 11 criteria proposed by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2005) model of semiotic analysis. The researcher applied this model on the book covers of retranslated classic novels from intersemiotic translation' view.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. The Scarlet Letter by Nathaniel Hawthorne

This is a novel revolving around a woman who committed the sin of adultery in a small Puritan town in seventeenth-century Boston. Hester Prynne, the adulteress, refuses to reveal her lover's name, and as a result is forced to wear a

large, red "A" on her bosom. This is to tell everyone of her sin. Hester is also forced to live isolated with her daughter, Pearl, who is the result of her sin. Meanwhile, the small Puritan town remains very devoted to and very proud of their young minister, Arthur Dimmesdale. What they do not know is that it is Dimmesdale who is Hester's Lover and Pearl's father. The fact that Dimmesdale keeps his sin a secret is tearing him up, both physically and emotionally. To complicate matters even more, Hester's old and slightly deformed husband is back. He had stayed in England for quite a while allowing Hester to settle into their new home. Her husband, Roger Chillingworth, comes to the town at precisely the moment that Hester is being presented to the world as an adulteress. Chillingworth sees Hester with the scarlet letter upon her breast and in the moment of Hester's greatest humiliation. He is outraged and vows that "he (the lover) will be known". He pretends to be a physician and eventually suspects Dimmesdale of the breaking the seventh commandment. Chillingworth's mission becomes that of revenge...

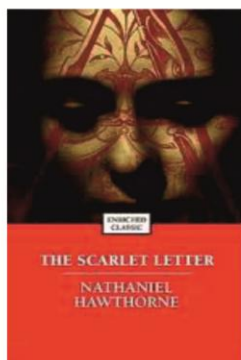


Figure 4.2.2. Original Cover image(2004)

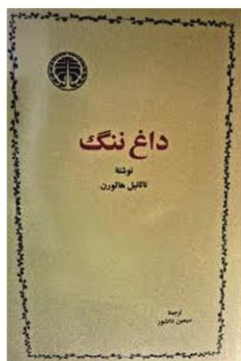


Figure 4.2.2.1. Cover image of Daneshvar's Translation(1369)

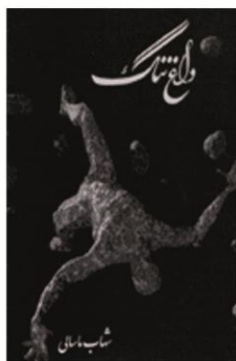


Figure 4.2.2.2. Cover image of Masali's Translation(1381)

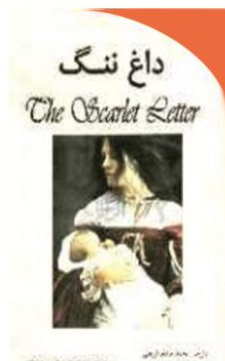


Figure 4.2.2.3. Cover image of Shariati's Translation(1386)

A. Frame and Setting

In Shariati's cover there are two frames one created by the paper and the other one is located inside the paper and the setting is an image of a woman with her infant. In original cover the setting is the figure of a woman with closed eyes. There is no setting in Daneshvar's version, and in Masali's cover the setting is a suspended man in the air.

B. Foreground and Background

A figure of woman with closed eyes is foregrounded and black and red colors all over the cover are backgrounded in original version.

There is no foreground in Daneshvar's version but beige color all over the cover is backgrounded.

In Masali's cover a portrait of suspended man in the air is foregrounded and in the background black color all over the cover.

In Shariati's version an illustration of woman with her infant is foregrounded by putting the illustration in a frame, the black paper in the middle of cover is the background of the illustration and white color on the background of the cover. In accentuating on an illustration opposite colors plays an important role especially in the original cover.

C. *Marked Sign*

The marked sign in the original cover and Shariati's versions is the letter of A in her face and chest of character, it can be inferred that a careful look at her face in original cover shows designs of embroidery on her face may imply innocent and purity of this main character of story, these designs on her face can be imply biography of her embroidery art. Since that the letter A is a symbol of adulteress in Puritan's religion it can be concluded her closed eyes and engraving a glow red letter of A on figure of this main character shows a woman who has deeply sinned. It seems the main and most important theme of the story is influence of sin in humans' life.

And also, in Shariati's cover, she carrying an infant in her arms who is the result of her sin and wearing a scarlet letter A (for Adulteress) as a badge of her disgrace. And letter of A is a physical manifestation of her sin.

In Masali's version the marked sign is suspended man in interplanetary space. It seems there is a character in the story spending in absolute darkness and misleading, his long and tortuous struggle is order to return to God. It seems the black heaps which surrounded him are his sins, so he is the guilty man.

In Daneshvar's version there is no marked sign.

D. *Color and Light*

The black and red colors all over the original cover, and beige figure and linguistic information in white. Opposition of red, black and white colors in original cover may refer to happiness and sadness.

In Daneshvar's cover a beige color all over the cover and linguistic information in red and black colors. Using light beige color all over the cover may refer to the peaceful conditions.

In Masali's cover a black color all over the cover and a black suspended man and linguistic information in white. Using a black color all over the cover may refer to problematic conditions.

In Shariati's version, there is a white color all around the cover and white and black in the middle of cover. Opposition of colors especially white and black may imply going from one level to another level like going from sin to purity.

E. *Cultural Reference*

In all of covers there is a religious symbol in Puritan tradition. So it can be inferred that a fair judgment should be based on Christian doctrines.

F. *Directionality of Information Structure*

In original version there is a figure of closed eyes woman on the top of the cover, black and red colors all over the cover and all of the linguistic information is located at the bottom of cover.

In Daneshvar's version a beige color all over the cover and the linguistic information comes in the middle and at the bottom of cover.

In Masali's image there is a portrait of suspended man in the middle of the cover, a black color all over the cover and the linguistic information is located on the top and at the bottom of the cover.

In Shariati's version there is white color all around the cover, illustration comes in black frame and linguistic information is presented on the top and at the bottom of cover.

G. *Point of View*

In original and Shariati's versions, the legalism in Puritan society is stagnant and inflexible, while sinfulness can lead to penitence and personal growth.

In Masali's version the guilty person struggle futility to get back to where he was.

H. *Linguistic Information*

In original version, on the bottom of the cover, the title of the novel is printed in white and large font which occupies the whole width of the cover and is marked as a literary credit to the audience. The author's name is written below it in the same font and color and it occupy the same amount of width.

In Daneshvar's version the title of the novel comes with a larger font and in a different notable color and is marked in this way. The name of author comes in medium font, it is for more explanation of the work. And the name of translator in small font comes at the bottom right corner. Different fonts and colors in linguistic information of a novel are used to put more emphasis for foregrounding it.

In Masali's version the title of the novel comes on the top of the cover in big and bold font and the translator's name is printed with a rather small font and is placed in the least level of markedness.

In Shariati's version we have the Persian transcription of title of the novel on the top of the cover and English title of the novel under it in big and bold font, English title is made more marked using a special font. And the name of translator at the bottom right corner is in the very small size of font. So, in the hierarchy of markedness the titles of novel into Persian and English are more marked.

I. *Mode of Representation*

Except of Daneshvar's version, mode of the representation in all of the covers is in painting which seems more accentuated and more realistic.

J. Elements of the Storyline

In original and Shariati's versions the letter A shows sin what from Puritain tradition's view is unacceptable and in Shariati's cover the infant shows a forbidden love.

In Masali's image black heaps show sin and the man who is tormented by his guilty.

K. Logo Sign

There is a logo sign in the middle of cover in original version, and in Daneshvar's version logo sign is located on the top left corner of cover. Logo sign can be a main factor in credity and bestselling books.

Therefore, in this part, graphic design of book cover is examined as one of the criteria actively involved in the reading of the text not as a marginal factor. So, cover of a book conveys a message about the contents of the volume, influencing both the retailer who stocks the book and the potential purchaser in the shop. The researcher also believed that different translations of certain works done during different socio-historical circumstances certainly demonstrate the prevailing ideological stances to some extent. Hence by applying different aspects of semiotic approach we intended to shed light on various ideological impacts of cover designs in retranslated classic novels. In this regard, the researcher tried to answer the following questions:

1. What ideological trends can be signified by the cover design of retranslated novels?
2. What socio-cultural features are presented by the cover design and determined by the publisher?

There are always differences between the cover designs of retranslated novels, because they are depended on different times and contexts. Social, cultural, political and religious ideological implications are different from one society to another, and we can see their reflections in text as mean that the images on book covers severely are influenced dominant cultural norms in Source and Target society. And also, the result of the study show that a translator did not play an important role in cover designing but it was the publisher. The researcher has found significant changes and differences in translation between English and Persian. The researcher has come up with five mainstreams in rendering graphic designs of book covers into Persian:

- I. Translations which presents the same representation as the original (especially the first edition of Original);
 - II. Translations which presents a completely different representation of the original;
 - III. Translations which relatively have been restricted to an image of the author of the text;
 - IV. Translations which bore some overt similarities with the original text;
 - V. and Translations which not have any image on their covers and restricted to the colors and linguistic information.
- The results are given in Table 1 in descending order:

TABLE 1.
THE CRITERIA OF COVER DESIGN IN ORIGINAL VERSION AND ITS RETRANSLATED VERSIONS:

Criteria	Translators				Frequency	
	Original	Daneshvar	Masali	Shariati	Total Num.	Percentage
Frame and Setting	1	0	2	3	6	0.9%
Foreground & Background	3	2	2	4	11	1.7%
Color & Light	3	3	2	3	11	1.7%
Cultural References	1	0	2	2	5	0.8%
Linguistic Information	3	3	2	3	11	1.7%
Logo Sign	1	1	0	0	2	0.3%
Marked Sign	2	0	2	2	6	0.9%
Directionality of Information Structure	5	3	4	5	17	2.6%
Point of View	1	0	1	1	3	0.5%
Mode of Representation	1	0	1	1	3	0.5%
Elements of Storyline	2	0	1	2	5	0.8%

As it is presented in Table 1, the most frequent representation of cover design is "Directionality of Information Structure" with the frequency of 2.6%. According to Kress and Van Leeuwen (2005), this criterion also evaluates various aspects of the way information is presented on the cover. Position of elements is a determining factor and makes them more or less valuable. Central items versus marginal items or upper versus lower elements all can affect the way semiotic elements will be represented or interpreted.

The second most frequent manifestation of cover design is "Foreground and Background", "Color and Light" and "Linguistic Information" with 1.7% of other elements. This three elements can play an important role in determining the intended meaning.

The criteria of "Frame and Setting" and "Marked Sign" with the frequency of 0.9% ranked third. According to Kress and Van Leeuwen (2005, p.7), Frame is the disconnection of the elements of a visual composition, for instance by framelines, pictorial framing devices, empty space between elements, discontinuities of color, and so on. And "Marked Sign" is the gist of the story may be summarized in that sign. The rest of criteria in this table ranked in lower levels, respectively.

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In the present study, the translators do not play an important role in cover designing but it is the publisher and it's designers who influence designing process. In this research we don't want to seek the designers' intentions. There are varieties of different graphic design of book cover in different translations of the same book which all of them are associated with the theme of the story and they foreground one aspect of the story's main theme.

In both of English and Persian translations engaged pictorial and linguistic information to generate meaning. In the present study we investigated how a graphic design of book cover from Intersemiotic translation's view, generate mythical and ideological meanings.

This research revealed the impact of social, cultural, political and religious ideological implications on the process of translation. It is clear that translators should be aware of the implicit information hidden throughout the text and should pay due attention and response to them in their translations. This is not possible unless translator trainees learn how to analyze the texts for translation. In this regard, teaching the semiotic method to translation trainees to follow ideological traces throughout the text could be useful for them. Translation trainees should be aware of the impact of their choices in translation. Sign and image choices play a remarkable role in rendering or implying ideological positions. Translation trainees must also become aware of the role their ideology and that of the society can play in constructing culture, and must also consider translation as a tool to spread or control that certain ideology throughout the society.

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A Comparative Evaluation and Analysis of Two General English Textbooks: Four Corners 1 vs. Top Notch Fundamentals A

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Abstract—Evaluation is regarded as the systematic collection of information contributing to decision-making. It encompasses processes for gathering an enough deal of information about a program or curriculum aimed at being conducive to improvement. Evaluation is taken into technical account as formal interpretation and examination of the components of a workplace development initiative so as to find out how well it is meeting its goals, thereby allowing an organization to improve the current initiatives and enabling decisions about support. In English language teaching, textbook evaluation helps curriculum developers and syllabus designers choose the best possible materials for a course of study. Considering the importance of textbook evaluation in language teaching and language syllabus design, the researchers aimed at qualitatively analyzing the two general English textbooks; Four Corners 1 and Topnotch Fundamentals A. The evaluation was based on the checklist of Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979). Three expert EFL teachers who had taught the mentioned books for about three years qualitatively analyzed the two textbooks. The analysis concluded that the two books almost did not differ based on the checklist, though they both had some strengths and weaknesses. Curriculum developers, syllabus designers, and EFL teachers may find the findings useful in their language teaching practice.

Index Terms—Four Corners 1, general English textbook, textbook evaluation, Top Notch Fundamentals A

I. INTRODUCTION

Evaluation exists in different forms and is considered the principle of learning (Bentley, Sandy, & Lowry, 2002). According to Belfiore (1996), evaluation is formal interpretation and examination of the elements of a workplace development initiative in order to determine how well it is meeting its goals. Ongoing evaluation, as argued by Belfiore (1996), allows an organization to improve the current initiative and to plan further initiatives, and it enables decisions about support.

In general, evaluation is the systematic gathering of information for decision making. According to Richards and Schmidt (1985), evaluation may apply quantitative methods, such as tests, qualitative methods, such as observations, and value judgment. In language planning, evaluation frequently involves gathering information on patterns of language use, language ability, and attitude towards the foreign language (Richards & Schmidt, 1985). Richards and Schmidt (1985) further contend that in language program evaluation, evaluation pertains to decision making about the quality of program itself and about individuals in the program.

Nunan (2004, p.214) defines evaluation as “processes and procedures for gathering information about a program or curriculum for purposes of improvement”. According to Richards and Schmidt (1985), the evaluation of programs may involve the study of curriculum, objectives, materials and tests or grading systems, and the evaluation of individuals involves decision about entrance to programs, placement, progress, and achievement. Considering the importance of textbook evaluation in language teaching and language syllabus design, the researchers aimed at qualitatively analyzing the two general English textbooks; Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A. The evaluation was based on the checklist of Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979).

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *Course Book Evaluation*

The process of language education involves many elements, often learners considered as the center. However, this common belief is rejected when textbooks, as sources of providing input, are seen to control the instruction to a large extent (Sarem, Hamidi, & Mahmoudie, 2013). A systematic approach to course book evaluation can, as Nation and Macalister (2010) assert, be based on the parts of the curriculum design process:

- 1- Does the course book suit the environment where it will be used?
- 2- Does the course book meet the needs of learners?
- 3- Does the course book adhere to principles of learning and teaching?
- 4- Do the goals of the course book match the goals of the course?
- 5- Does the content of the course book match the proficiency level of the learners and show sensible selection and sequencing principle?
- 6- Is the course book interesting and does it apply effective techniques?
- 7- Does the course book include tests and ways of the process of monitoring?

Nation and Macalister (2010) further contend that very early in the evaluation procedure, the teacher needs to decide on the features that are essential for the course book. Any course book without these features would not be worth considering further. They mention the following possible essential features:

- 1- The book should be at right vocabulary and grammar level for the learners.
- 2- The book should focus on the language and the skills that are the goal of the course.
- 3- The book should be of a reasonable price.
- 4- The book should be easily available.
- 5- The size and number of lessons in the book should suit the length of the course.
- 6- The book should not include topics and behavior that offend religious and cultural sensitivities of the learners and their parents.

Once a textbook is chosen, it should be evaluated by standard or reliable checklists based on acceptable criteria so that the strong and weak points of the textbook are determined (Hamidi & Montazeri, 2014). Cunningsworth (1995, cited in Richards, 2001) proposes the following four criteria for evaluation of course books:

- 1- They should correspond to learners' needs, and they should match the aims and objectives of the language learning program.
- 2- They should reflect their present and future uses for learners.
- 3- They should take students' needs as learners into account, and they should facilitate their learning process.
- 4- They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they are the mediators between the target language and the learner.

He presents a checklist organized under the following categories:

- 1- Aims
- 2- Design and organization
- 3- Language content
- 4- Skills
- 5- Topic
- 6- Methodology
- 7- Teacher's book
- 8- Practical consideration

Littlejohn (1998, cited in Taylor, et al., 2002) contends that there exists a certain dilemma facing the ones given the task of reviewing text books. The dilemma he refers to is the choice reviewers need to make between the various methods of evaluation. While, according to Taylor et al. (2002), the argument for a systematic and principled approach to evaluation of textbook materials is appealing, it can be encountered by the claim that course book evaluation is fundamentally subjective, which may raise the need for reviews to state at the outset which direction they are moving towards. However, the suggestion they provide to evaluate a course book is to investigate the extent to which it has been successful to reach its objectives.

Gearing (1999) argues that there have been a multitude of checklists used for evaluation course books, while only a few of them have focused on teacher guide evaluation. The main reasons for evaluating teacher guides are argued by Gearing (1999) to be as follows:

- 1- Helping teachers to decide on their selection of textbooks with teacher guides,
- 2- Making them more aware of the content of teacher guide they use, and
- 3- Helping them to make more effective use of it, apprising them of its deficiencies and advantages.

B. *Qualitative Evaluation vs. Quantitative Evaluation*

According to Richards (2001), quantitative measurement refers to the measurement of something that can be numerically expressed. Many test, as he maintains, are designed to collect information that can be presented and counted in terms of frequencies, rankings, or percentages. Other sources of quantitative information are checklists, surveys, and self-ratings (Richards, 2001). Quantitative data, according to Richards (2001), aims to collect information

from a large number of people on particular topics and can generally be analyzed statistically so that certain patterns and tendencies emerge. The collected information can be analyzed simply because of the fact that subjective decisions are not usually involved. Richards (2001) contends that quantitative data are traditionally regarded as 'rigorous' or conforming to scientific principles of data collection, "though the limitations of quantitative information are also recognized, hence the need to complement such information with qualitative information" (p. 296).

Qualitative measurement refers to measurement of something that cannot be expressed numerically and that depends on subjective observation or judgment (Richards, 2001). Information obtained from classroom observation, interviews, logs, journals, and case studies is, according to Richards (2001), objective. Qualitative approaches are holistic and naturalistic and collect information in natural settings for language use and authentic tasks rather than in-test situation. The analysis of the information obtained through qualitative approach is argued by

III. METHODOLOGY

Three expert EFL teachers who had taught the mentioned books for about three years qualitatively analyzed the two textbooks. The experience of the evaluators ranged from 4 to 10 years of teaching. The evaluation was based on the checklist of Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979). This checklist had 25 questions in 5 different sections; a. subject matter, b. vocabulary and structures, c. exercises, d. illustrations, and e. physical make-up. The evaluators joined together and evaluated the books in a joint meeting. The qualitative analysis of each section is presented in explanatory sentences.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This section describes the qualitative analysis of the two general English textbooks; Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A. The evaluation was based on the checklist of Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979). Below are the results of the analysis.

A. Subject Matter

1) Does the subject matter cover a variety of topics appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended (urban or rural environment; child or adult learners; male and/or female students)?

Different topics have been covered in Four Corners (1), such as new friends, daily life, work and play. A variety of different topics have been presented in Topnotch Fundamentals A too, including occupation, events and times, and families. Topics are interesting for both males and females or both children and adults.

2) Is the ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion?

The ordering of materials is arranged in a logical manner in both books. They are arranged from simple to more complicated ones. For instance, in Four Corners (1), materials are started by 'Introducing themselves and others; Saying hello and good-bye', 'New friends' and then 'people and places'. Or Topnotch Fundamentals A begins with 'Introduce yourself', 'Greet people' and then introducing people.

3) Is the content graded according to the needs of the students or the requirements of the existing syllabus (if there is one)?

In both books, the content is graded according to the needs of the students. It has been attempted to use topics that students encounter in their everyday life, such as 'New friends' and 'daily life' respectively in unit one and four of Four Corners (1) and 'Family' and 'Clothes' in unit four and six of Topnotch Fundamentals A that are among the most interesting topics for students.

4) Is the material accurate and up-to-date?

Both of the books, Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A, are acceptable in terms of being accurate and up-to-date. The pictures of the books are attractive, motivating and relevant for learners. However, in contrast to Four Corners, there is a second edition for Topnotch Fundamentals A.

B. Vocabulary and Structures

1) Does the vocabulary load (i.e. the number of new words introduced every lesson) seem to be reasonable for the students of that level?

Both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A are mostly written for English Language Institutes, therefore the vocabulary and grammatical structures must be suitable for these levels. Each unit of Four Corners (1) consists of four parts (A, B, C, D) in which vocabularies are presented in just parts A and C; but in Topnotch Fundamentals A, each unit has three lessons and there is a vocabulary section in all lessons of each unit and there is a vocabulary booster on page 126 too. So, while the number of new vocabularies is good in Four Corners (1), the number of new vocabularies is excellent in Topnotch Fundamentals A. For example, in unit one of Four Corners (1), students learn fourteen words in the vocabulary section, but in unit one of Topnotch Fundamentals A, they learn around twenty words. Of course, students may face with new vocabularies in other sections of both books.

2) Are the vocabulary items controlled to ensure systematic gradations from simple to complex items?

In both books, there is no phonetic transcription for the words. Enough number of exercises for practicing vocabularies is not seen in both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A. Activities such as vocabulary games and word puzzles are neglected in both books. However, students can handle vocabularies of these two books.

3) Is the new vocabulary repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement?

In order to reinforce new vocabularies, they should be repeated in subsequent lessons. But it seems that the frequencies of new vocabularies of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A are not enough for the aim of reinforcement.

4) Does the sentence length seem reasonable for the students of that level?

The sentence length seems reasonable for the students of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A. Of course, there are long sentences that can be surely learned by students if the teacher teaches them by short chunks.

5) Is the number of grammatical points as well as their sequence appropriate?

Today all EFL textbooks consider importance communication rather than grammar. However, each lesson of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A provides different grammars including *possessive adjectives* in unit one and *adverbs of frequency* in unit five of Four Corners (1) and *questions with where* in unit three and *demonstratives* in unit six of Topnotch Fundamentals A. There are also many grammatical points that are similar in both books, such as simple present in unit six of Four Corners (1) and unit seven of Topnotch Fundamentals A. The number of grammatical points is appropriate in both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A. But in Topnotch Fundamentals A, there is a grammar booster in each unit which includes extra activities related to the grammar of each unit. So, Topnotch Fundamentals A is more powerful in this regard.

6) Do the structures gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of students?

In contrast to the progression line of vocabularies that are not clear in both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A, the grammatical points as well as their sequence is appropriate and organized in order of difficulty. The structures are arranged according to the ability of the students. For example, in unit one of Four Corners (1), 'Yes/no questions' is explained and in unit two, 'questions with who and how old' is presented or unit one of Topnotch Fundamentals A deals with singular and plural nouns and unit four presents adverbs. There are more difficult structures in next units in both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A.

7) Does the writer use current everyday language, and sentence structures that follow normal word order?

The writer uses current everyday language and sentence structures in both of the books which the students may face in their real life. For example, in the first unit of Four Corners (1), 'New friends', learners come across with spelling names and talking about where people are from that is so useful to learn or in unit five of Topnotch Fundamentals A, 'Events and Times', students learn about times around the world.

8) Do the sentences and paragraphs follow one another in a logical sequence?

The sections and tasks given in each unit of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A do not have a fixed order. For instance, in the first section (A) of unit one of Four Corners (1), at first it is seen language in context, then vocabulary, grammar, speaking and finally keep talking. While in the first section (A) of unit two, it is seen respectively vocabulary, language in context, grammar, pronunciation, speaking and keep talking and also in the first lesson of unit one of Topnotch Fundamentals A, we have vocabulary, pair work, grammar, grammar practice, pair work and integrated practice, but in lesson one of unit two, we have vocabulary, grammar, grammar practice, pair work, listening comprehension, grammar and grammar practice. Therefore, there is not a logical presentation of activities in units of both of the books.

9) Are linguistic items introduced in meaningful situations to facilitate understanding and ensure assimilation and consolidation?

Linguistic items are introduced in a good and meaningful situation in Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A to facilitate understanding and ensure assimilation and consolidation and there are different and colorful pictures throughout the whole book.

C. Exercises

1) Do the exercises develop comprehension and test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas?

Four major skills, including listening, speaking, reading and writing, need to be appropriate to the learners and all units should cover these skills together. The exercises of Four Corners (1) include the major skills, speaking, reading and writing in each unit, but there is no listening activity. Speaking and writing skills are observed in each unit of Topnotch Fundamentals A, but reading activities are only seen in units one, four, and six. In addition, none of the units are covered by listening activity. In addition, the number of activities in Four Corners (1) is more than Topnotch Fundamentals A. For example, in section A of Four Corners (1), there is nine activities; while lesson one of Topnotch Fundamentals A consists of just three activities. This may due to the fact that in contrast to Topnotch Fundamentals A, the exercises of Four Corners (1) are existed in a separate book. Taking what mentioned above into consideration, Four Corners (1) is more comprehensive in terms of the exercises and regardless of listening activities, the exercises are adequate in Four Corners (1).

2) Do the exercises involve vocabulary and structures which build up the learner's repertoire?

Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A include some similar exercises in terms of vocabulary. In activities of Four Corners (1), vocabularies are seen by matching, completing the chart, using pictures, ordering, completing puzzles, and crossing out the word that does not belong in a list. Vocabularies are presented in the activities of topnotch fundamentals A through matching, circling the different word, completing puzzles, and ordering. However it seems that finding synonym or antonym or guessing the meaning of unknown words is missing in both books.

3) Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion, spelling and dictation, guided composition)?

Writing is more expanded in activities of Four Corners (1) than Topnotch Fundamentals A. For example, in unit one of Four Corners (1) learners are asked to write a conversation, but in unit one of Topnotch Fundamentals A, writing is limited to short sentences. However, there is no rewriting or spelling activities in unit one of Four Corners (1), while they are existed in unit one of Topnotch Fundamentals A. It seems that a composition activity related to the topic of each unit is ignored in these two books. Writing in an expanded way seems more necessary for EFL learners, so the exercises of Four Corners (1) can desirably promote learners` capability of writing.

4) Does the book provide a pattern of review within lessons and cumulatively test new material?

One of the weaknesses of Four Corners (1) is that there is no review in workbook. And one of the positive points of Topnotch Fundamentals A is that it includes a review units1-7. The review section consists of seven activities such as vocabulary, reading and writing. Thus, Topnotch Fundamentals A provides better pattern of review in comparison with Four Corners (1). Of course, a review section immediately after each unit is one of the most satisfactory patterns for a book.

5) Do the exercises promote meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations?

All units of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A promote meaningful communication by providing exercises similar to routine practices occurring in peoples` everyday life such as completing a conversation about names and titles in unit one of Four Corners (1) and introducing occupations in unit one of Topnotch Fundamentals A.

D. Illustrations

1) Do illustrations create a favorable atmosphere for reading and spelling by depicting realism and action?

Different teaching methodologies have been focused on visualization technique and it is considered as an important technique in designing instructional materials. Illustrations create a favorable atmosphere for practice in listening, speaking and reading. Both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A include desirable pictures. The illustrations are more natural in Topnotch Fundamentals A than Four Corners (1) in which animated pictures are seen. Depending on the age and level of the learners, some are interested in funny pictures and others are being attracted by natural pictures. So, we cannot say which one are more preferred, funny pictures or natural ones.

2) Are the illustrations clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learner?

Illustrations are mostly clear, simple and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learner in both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A.

3) Are the illustrations printed close enough to the text and directly related to the content to help the learner understand the printed text?

The illustrations of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A are printed enough to the text and are directly related to the content to help the learner understand the printed text. In this way, students` background knowledge is activated and they can guess or predict the coming text. Even in grammar section, there are related pictures which activate the meaning part of the activity.

E. Physical Make-up

Is the cover of the book durable enough to withstand wear? Is the text attractive (i.e., cover, page, appearance, binding)? Does the size of the book seem convenient for the students to handle? Is the type size appropriate for the intended learners?

The last part of the evaluation checklist is the physical make-up. This section exists in almost all evaluation checklists that are sometimes with a different name such as Lay-out or Physical Appearance. At first, students pay attention to physical appearance of a book than its content.

The cover of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A are both durable enough to withstand wear; their cover and page appearance is so attractive and motivating for students; they use red color for titles that cause readability of the texts. Both of them have a good quality of paper. The size of both of the books could be designed more convenient for the students to handle. The layout of both of the books is clear and well-organized. The topic of each part of the units is written in bold type. There is a good printing in both of the books, but the size and type of the fonts in Four Corners (1) is better than Topnotch Fundamentals A. However, the physical make-up of these two books and factors such as the quality and color of ink used, the top, bottom, left and right margins, the space between words, sentences, lines and paragraphs are nearly the same. In fact, they are satisfactory and well-organized.

Since both Four Corners and Top Notch series are almost newly published general English textbooks, there have been scarce studies comparing the two series simultaneously. In general, by the analysis of Four Corners and Top Notch, it was concluded that the two books almost did not differ based on Daoud and Celce-Murcia`s (1979) checklist, though they both had some strengths and weaknesses. Hamidi and Asadi (2015) found the same results. They simultaneously evaluated Four Corners 1 and Top Notch Fundamentals A using Daoud and Celce-Murcia`s (1979) checklist. Their comparison showed that both textbooks were almost the same in most parts. Though Four Corner seemed not to have appropriate illustrations and physical make up, as a dominating EFL textbook, it was flexible enough to be used. One reason for Four Corners to be used more could be its lower price (nearly half) comparing to Top Notch. Hamidi, Aghamalek, and Bahramian`s (2015) findings were also in line the results of the present study. Using Daoud and Celce-

Murcia's (1979) checklist, they comparatively evaluated New Interchange, Top-Notch, and Four Corners series. They found that teachers were more satisfied with Four Corners series due to its similarities in presentation of materials with New Interchange series. However, Four Corners had more updates comparing to New Interchange and was cheaper in price comparing to Top Notch. Hamidi, Bagheri, Sarinavaee, and Seyyedpour's (2016, in press) findings were in line the results of the present study as well. They comparatively evaluated New Interchange 2 and Four Corners 3. Their findings showed that there was no significant difference between the two textbooks. Only in some issues Four Corners 3 was better than New Interchange 2. However, Four Corners was found to have more updates considering pictures and reading passages comparing to the New Interchange.

The studies mentioned above all used Daoud and Celce-Murcia's (1979) checklist. This checklist was used because of its comprehensive and clear criteria. However, it seems to be a little old. Different results might be found if evaluators use different checklists to scrutinize the sections of the textbook.

V. CONCLUSION

In general, evaluation is considered as the systematic glean of information contributing to decision-making. It encompasses processes for gathering an enough deal of information about a program or curriculum aimed at being conducive to improvement. Evaluation of learning exists in different forms and is regarded as the key principle conducive to learning. Evaluation is taken into technical account as formal interpretation and examination of the components of a workplace development initiative so as to find out how well it is meeting its goals, thereby allowing an organization to improve the current initiatives and enabling decisions about support.

This paper made a comparative evaluation of two English course books; Four Corners 1 and Topnotch Fundamentals A, which aimed at improving EFL and ESL learners' English language proficiency. These two books appear to have similarly met the criteria specified in the course book evaluation checklist to the same extent. In the realm of subject matter, for instance, both books show substantial similarity. Both appear to have presented a variety of different topics, including occupation, events and times, and families. Topics are appealing to both males and females or both children and adults. The ordering of materials is arranged in a logical manner in both books. Besides, in both books, the content is graded according to the needs of the students. It was also seen that they were acceptable in terms of being accurate and up-to-date. The pictures of the books were attractive, motivating and relevant for learners. In terms of vocabulary exercises, as another example, it seemed that finding synonym or antonym or guessing the meaning of unknown words was missing in both books. The third instance verifying the similarity between these books referred to their physical make-up. The covers of both Four Corners (1) and Topnotch Fundamentals A were both durable enough to withstand wear. The layout of both of the books was clear and well-organized. The topic of each part of the units was written in bold type. There was a good printing in both of the books, but the size and type of the fonts in Four Corners (1) was better than Topnotch Fundamentals A.

However, these two books were different in a number of aspects. Four Corners (1) was more comprehensive in terms of the exercises, and regardless of listening activities, the exercises were adequate in Four Corners (1). In terms of writing, it was more expanded in activities of Four Corners (1) than in Topnotch Fundamentals A. For example, in unit one of Four Corners (1) learners were asked to write a conversation, but in unit one of Topnotch Fundamentals A, writing was limited to short sentences. In contrast to Four Corners (1), where there was no review in work book, Topnotch Fundamentals A included a review for units 1-7. The review section consisted of seven activities such as vocabulary, reading and writing. Thus, Topnotch Fundamentals A provided better pattern of review in comparison to Four Corners (1). Curriculum developers, syllabus designers, and EFL teachers may find the findings useful in their language teaching practice

APPENDIX. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR TEXTBOOK EVALUATION (DAOUD & CELCE-MURCIA, 1979)

Daoud, A., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Selecting and evaluating a textbook. In M. Celce-Murcia & L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 302- 307). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

0= totally lacking, 1= weak, 2= adequate, 3= good, 4= excellent

Items to examine	0	1	2	3	4
A. Subject matter					
1. Does the subject matter cover a variety of topics appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended(urban or rural environment; child or adult learners; male and/or female students)?					
2. Is she ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion?					
3. Is the content graded according to the needs of the students or the requirements of the existing syllabus (if there is one)?					
4. Is the material accurate and up-to-date?					
B. Vocabulary and structures					
1. Does the vocabulary load (i.e. the number of new words introduced every lesson) seem to be reasonable for the students of that level?					
2. Are the vocabulary items controlled to ensure systematic gradations from simple to complex items?					
3. Is the new vocabulary repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement?					
4. Does the sentence length seem reasonable for the students of that level?					
5. Is the number of grammatical points as well as their sequence appropriate?					
6. Do the structures gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of students?					
7. Does the writer use current everyday language, and sentence structures that fallow normal word order?					
8. Do the sentences and paragraphs follow one another in a logical sequence?					
9. Are linguistic items introduced in meaningful situations to facilitate understanding and ensure assimilation and consolidation?					
C. Exercises					
1. Do the exercises develop comprehension and test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas?					
2. Do the exercises involve vocabulary and structures which build up the learner's repertoire?					
3. Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion, spelling and dictation, guided composition)?					
4. Does the book provide a pattern of review within lessons and cumulatively test new material?					
5. Do the exercises promote meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations?					
D. Illustrations					
1. Do illustrations create a favorable atmosphere for reading and spelling by depicting realism and action?					
2. Are the illustrations clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learner?					
3. Are the illustrations printed close enough to the text and directly related to the content to help the learner understand the printed text?					
E. Physical make-up					
1. Is the cover of the book durable enough to withstand wear?					
2. Is the text attractive (i.e., cover, page, appearance, binding)?					
3. Does the size of the book seem convenient for the students to handle?					
4. Is the type size appropriate for the intended learners?					

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The Transitivity System and Thematic Meaning: A Feminist-stylistics Approach to Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover*

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Abstract—By employing Sara Mill's feminist-stylistics approach, this paper explores the thematic relationship between transitivity system and the male-dominance theme of Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover*. By analyzing the transitivity choice, we find that material process dominates over other verb processes and in most cases Mellors, the hero, serves as an active dominating role in their daily life, particularly in their sexual love, and Connie, the heroine, always takes a passive obedient role in an episode of their love affair. This paper shows that Lawrence holds a chauvinistic idea towards women and male dominance is easily seen all over his novel.

Index Terms—*Lady Chatterley's Lover*, feminist-stylistics approach, male dominance, sexual relationship

I. INTRODUCTION

Lady Chatterley's Lover is Lawrence's last full-length novel and best-known work, first published privately in Florence in 1928. It is a story of a lonely woman who is trapped in a sterile marriage but accidentally finds love with the virile gamekeeper of her husband's estate. The book thinks highly of the regenerative power of sexual love between man and woman---an affirmation of life and the possibility of happiness. It may be Lawrence's most controversial novel, but perhaps the first serious work of literature to explore human sexuality in explicit detail. Because of the shockingly explicit treatment of its subject matter---the adulterous affair, it is criticized as "reeked with obscenity and lewdness... The muddily minded perverts peddled in the backstreets of Paris are prudish by comparison" (Draper, 1970, p.278). Because of such negative criticism, the hatred against both the author Lawrence and the book were flamed up in the hearts of the general public, especially the church-going crowd. The novel was not canonized until the famous Lady Chatterley trial. In a period after that, it has become the best seller, competing with the Bible in Britain. It is revalued for its reflection of the process of human nature and human's rebirth.

John Middle Murry first offered an interpretation of masculinity and power in Lawrence's works, "he [Lawrence] creates a sexual mystery beyond the phallic, wherein he is the lord; and he makes the woman acknowledge the existence of this ultra-phallic realm, and his own lordship in it" (2002, p.123). Decades later, Simond de Beauvoir, French novelist and essayist, with reference to the novel, found Lawrence "rediscovering the traditional bourgeois conception of sexual relations wherein woman should subordinate her existence to that of man" (Becket, 2002, p.144). Kate Millett, another influential feminist critic, in her *Sexual Politics*, not only restated de Beauvoir's insights but also further undertook a full-scale attack upon Lawrence's male supremacist attitude in the novel. Her criticism began by "doubting the credentials of *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, which had become accepted as a woman-friendly vision of mutual tenderness, but which appears upon closer inspection to be a one-sided glorification of phallic dominance" (Fernihough, 2003, p.264). By employing Sara Mill's feminist-stylistics approach, this paper intends to explore the thematic relationship between transitivity system and the male-dominance theme of Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover*.

II. MILLS' FEMINIST STYLISTIC APPROACH

In *Feminist Stylistics* (1995), Mills offers a feminist-stylistic approach to literary texts, and has analyzed various texts at the levels of words, sentences and discourses. She (1995) concludes: "feminist stylistic analysis is concerned not only to describe sexism in a text, but also to analyze the way that point of view, agency, metaphor or transitivity are unexpectedly closely related to matters of gender, to discover whether women's writing practices can be described, and so on." (p.1)

A. Gender-specific Questions at Various Levels

She has also suggested that, to see if the expressions are used gender-specific, the following points should be paid attention to:

A). At the lexical level:

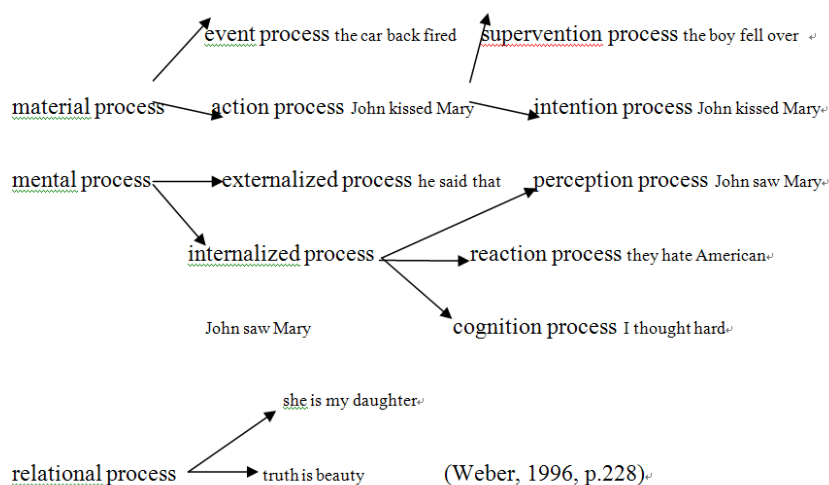
- 1) Is the generic pronoun 'he' used to refer to males in general?
- 2) Are generic nouns used to refer to males?
- 3) Is the suffix '-man' used to refer to males?
- 4) How are males and females named in the text? (surname, first name, diminutives, title)
- 5) Do any of the terms used to describe males and females have sexual connotations?
- 6) Do any of the terms used to describe males or females have positive or negative connotations?
- 7) Do any of the terms used to describe males or females have taboos associated with them?

B). At the clause/sentence level:

- 1) Are there ready-made phrases which refer to gender difference?
 - 2) Does the text assume you hold certain gendered assumptions? Make explicit what this information consists of.
 - 3) In order to make sense of certain statements do you have to make a bridging assumption drawing on stereotypical gender information?
 - 4) Are metaphors or figurative language used which draw upon gendered assumptions? Are males and females compared with different elements?
 - 5) Is the text humorous? What propositions do you have to agree to in order to find the text funny? Why is the text using humor? Is it a difficult area? Is the text addressing you as a male? What type of male?
 - 6) Does the text use *double entendres*? Why does it use them?
 - 7) Analyze the transitivity choices. Are they predominantly material action intention, supervision, material event, mental, or relational? Are they different for males and females represented in the text?
 - 8) Who acts in the text? Examine the use of passive voice. Are females acted upon more than males or vice versa?
- (Mills, 1995, p. 201-202)

B. Transitivity Choice

Among these 6 verb processes, material, mental and relational are the three main types of processes in the English transitivity system. Deirdre Burton has simplified the map of options, which is practical and significant in my study. Please observe the following diagram:



The map allows us really to see “what it means” to have chosen particular prominence for one type of process. Social forces determine the language and language in turn has an impact on society. As we know, there are alternative ways of expressing reality, and people can make decisions about how to express ‘reality’, both for others and themselves. The significance of these divisions is that choices made on a syntactic level are part of the representation of character. As Mills(1995) states: “The extent to which a character is the passive ‘victim’ of circumstance, or is actively in control of the environment, making decisions and taking action, is one of the concerns of feminist stylistics”(p.144). If a character is very active in a text, in control of their own decisions and actions, an analysis of text describing then might be expected to show a range of processes, and a relatively high number of material-action-intention processes- where the character is performing an action which they have voluntarily chosen a course of behavior. A character whose behavior consists of many internalized mental processes might be expected to appear as very introspective; similarly a character whose processes consist disproportionately of externalized mental processes may seem incomplete in some way. A character who is written in terms of supervision processes might appear somehow out of control of themselves. Therefore, this map, we can both deconstruct and reconstruct our realities to an enabling degree. By analyzing patterns in transitivity choice it is possible to make more general statements about the way that characters view their position in the world and their relation to others. Halliday’s interpretation of William Golding’s *The Inheritors* is considered as a classical example of representing two different mind styles between the primitive and the civilized people by certain

key syntactic choices ---- particular patterns of transitivity. In the following section, I shall illustrate the male dominance in Lawrence's novel by analyzing the transitivity choice of the novel.

III. TRANSITIVITY CHOICE IN LADY CHATTERLEY'S LOVER

In this section, I shall focus on how the heroine (Connie) is dominated by her lover (Mellors) in the process of sexual love by analyzing the transitivity choice of the parts of the novel, as Sara Mills (1995) said: "the extent to which a character is the passive 'victim' of circumstance, or is actively in control of the environment, making decisions and taking action, is one of the concerns of feminist stylistics" (p.144). Sexual depiction is a significant feature in the novel of *Lady Chatterley's Lover*. But in all the 7 sexual scenes of Connie and Mellors, male empowerment over female is easy to be found. To be exact, Lawrence believes that it is the male who should be commanding their love affair. The following is the first sexual scene of the lovers.

Curious about the lively chicks fed by Mellors on the clearing, Connie was led to the hut where Mellors lived. The story reads:

And closing his hand softly on her upper arm, he drew her up and led her slowly to the hut, not letting go of her till she was inside. Then he cleared aside the chair and table, and took a brown soldier's blanket from the tool chest, spreading it slowly. She glanced at his face, as she stood motionless.

His face was pale and without expression, like that of a man submitting to fate.

'You lie there,' he said softly, and he shut the door, so that it was quite dark.

With a queer obedience, she lay down on the blanket. Then she felt the soft groping, helplessly desirous hand touching her body, feeling for her face. The hand stroked her face softly, yet with queer thwarted clumsiness, among her clothing. Yet the hand knew, too, how to unclthe her where it wanted. He drew down the thin silk sheath, slowly, carefully, right down and over her feet. Then with a quiver of exquisite pleasure he touched the warm soft body, and touched her navel for a moment in a kiss. And he had to come in to her at once, to enter the peace on earth of her soft, quiescent body. (Lawrence, 2005, p.99-100)

This is the first sexual contact of Connie and Mellors at a hut in the forest after several chance meetings. Mellors controlled the whole process while Connie behaved like an obedient lamb in their love affair.

The transitivity choices in this passage are shown below:

- 1) (he) closing his hand
 - 2) he drew her up
 - 3) (he) led her slowly to the hut
 - 4) (he) not letting go of her
 - 5) she was inside
 - 6) he cleared aside the chair and table,
 - 7) (he) took a brown soldier's blanket from the tool chest,
 - 8) (he) spreading it
 - 9) She glanced at his face
 - 10) she stood motionless
 - 11) His face was pale
 - 12) (he) submitting to fate
 - 13) he said
 - 14) he shut the door
 - 15) she lay down on the blanket
 - 16) she felt the soft groping
 - 17) (his) hand touching her body
 - 18) (his) hand feeling for her face
 - 19) The hand stroked her face
 - 20) (his)hand knew
 - 21) (his hand) to unclthe her
 - 22) He drew down the thin silk sheath
 - 23) he touched the warm soft body
 - 24) (he) touched her navel
 - 25) he had to come in to her
 - 26) (he had to) enter the peace
- (Lawrence, 2005, p.99-100)

The following chart shows a clear picture of what those clauses are, who the actors and goals are, what types of verbs they are, what processes they represent. Two points are explained here: (1) *clauses* for Halliday are different from sentences, the former of which includes not only sentences, but also present participles and past participles phrases; (2) for convenience, all the subjects of the clauses are called *actors* and all the objects are called *goals*, without making any further distinction of participant roles.

The Transitivity Choices in the extract

clauses	actors	verb types	processes	goals
1) (he) closing his hand	he	close,vt	material	his hand
2) he drew her up	he	drew, vt	material	her
3) (he) led her	he	led, vt	material	her
4) (he) letting go of her	he	let, vt	material	her
5) she was inside	she	was, link verb	existential	
6) he cleared ... the chair and table	he	cleared, vt	material	chair and table
7) (he) took a ... blanket	he	took,vt	material	blanket
8) (he) spreading it	he	spread, vt	material	it
9) she glanced at his face	she	glanced, vi	mental	his face
10) she stood	she	stood,vi	existential	
11) his face was pale	his face	was, link verb	relational	
12) (he) submitting to fate	he	submitting, vi	material	fate
13) he said	he	said,vt	verbal	
14) he shut the door	he	shut, vt	material	door
15) she lay down...	she	lay, vi	existential	
16) she felt his groping	she	felt, vt	mental	his groping
17) (his) hand touching her body	his hand	touching, vt	material	her body
18) (his) hand feeling for her face	his hand	feeling, vi	material	her face
19) The hand stroked her face	the hand	stroked, vt	material	her face
20) his hand knew	his hand	knew, vt	mental	
21) (his hand) to unclothe her	his hand	unclothe, vt	material	her
22) he drew down the ...sheath	he	drew,vt	material	sheath
23) he touched ...body	he	touched, vt	material	her body
24) (he) touched her navel	he	touched, vt	material	her navel
25) he had to come in to her	he	come, vi	material	her
26) (he had to) enter the peace of her... body	he	enter, vt	material	her body

(Note: "vt" stands for transitive verb and "vi" for intransitive verb.)

In this passage, we can find that out of 26 processes, 21 processes are initiated by the male or his body parts, only 5 by the female or her body parts. Among those 21 verb processes, 18 are material processes, such as *closing*, *drew*, *led*, *cleared*, *led*, *let*, *spread*, *took*, *shut*, *touching*, *feeling*, *stroked*, *to unclothe*, *to enter*. These verbs or verbal phrases are helpful in giving a detailed description of Mellors' every single action in his love affair. Moreover, almost all the material processes are fulfilled by some transitive verbs as mentioned above, and the goals or patients of those actions are "her" (5 times), her body (3 times), her face (2 times). "She" or her body parts are mostly served as a goal, altogether 12 times. When she behaves as the actor, there are no none material processes, just 2 mental and 3 existential ones and moreover the actor has no obvious goals, such as Clauses 5), 10), 15). It is obvious that the male—Mellors is the controller of the processes and the female—Connie is the receiver of these actions in all the processes.

The following is a clearer description of actor-goal relationship:

- 1) he affects his body part by material process intention
- 2) he affects her by material process intention
- 3) he affects her by material process intention
- 4) he affects her by material process intention
- 5) she affects nothing by existential process
- 6) he affects the chair and table by material process intention
- 7) he affects a blanket by material process intention
- 8) he affects a blanket by material process intention
- 9) she affects nothing by mental process intention
- 10) she affects nothing by existential process
- 11) his body part affects nothing by relational process
- 12) he affects himself by material process intention
- 13) he affects nothing by verbal process
- 14) he affects the door by material process intention
- 15) she affects nothing by existential process
- 16) she affects nothing by mental process internalized
- 17) his body part affects her body by material process intention
- 18) his body part affects her face by material process intention
- 19) his body part affects her face by material process intention
- 20) his body part affects nothing by mental process internalized
- 21) his body part affects her by material process intention
- 22) he affects the thin silk sheath by material process intention
- 23) he affects her body part by material process intention
- 24) he affects her body part by material process intention
- 25) he affects her body part by material process intention
- 26) he affects her body by material process intention

From this analysis, we see clearly that during the whole episode of love, Mellors, the hero, is always active, aggressive and commanding while Connie, the female, is always passive, submissive and servile. Then, how about the female role in the love story? We do find 5 verb processes associated with “she” (5 times), exactly Clauses 5), 9), 10), 15) and 16). But none of them are material processes, and they are existential (3 times) and mental (2 times). These processes are the agent’s self-fulfilling actions and have no obvious goals or receivers. That means, those actions affect none or nothing, and produce no effects at all. Another interesting thing is that from Clauses 17-26, all the actors of the clauses are “he” and “his body parts”, the female agent or her body parts are simply out of sight!

We can safely say that at the latter part of the love affair, Mellors is in full control of the love episode, leaving the female partner in a completely passive place.

In the novel of *Lady Chatterley’s Lover*, the situations are almost the same when Connie and Mellors are in loving scenes. After her first sexual contact with Mellors, Connie felt still vague and confused and went to the wood next day. After a short talk, the following happened.

He put the blankets down carefully, one folded for her head. Then he sat down a moment on the stool, and drew her to him, holding her close with one arm, feeling for her body with his free hand. She heard the catch of his intake breath as he found her. Under her frail petticoat she was naked. ‘Eh! What it is to touch thee!’ he said, as his finger caressed the delicate, warm, secret skin of her waist and hips. He put his face down and rubbed his cheek against her belly and against her thighs again and again. And again she wondered a little over the sort of rapture it was to him. (Lawrence, 2005, p.108)

As for space, a detailed description of the transitivity choices is not given here. The effect is almost the same as that of the first extract of the novel. Lawrence consciously or unconsciously depicts Mellors as a dominator of not only himself but also his lover- Connie. Furthermore, he takes for granted that the female, Connie, should detest being dominated by the male in the course of making love. He makes efforts to describe how happy she is when she receives this kind of forced intercourse and how she gets the so-called rebirth in the end. He thinks highly of Connie only because she is obedient in the course of his instructions. No wonder Clifford (1998) once states: “When Lawrence writes about sexual domination,... he is ...employing rape fantasies which suggest that the subject of forced sex, women such as ...Connie Chatterley, should actually *like* it and even *unconsciously desire* rape”(p.274).

What we are striving at seems to fit well with Kate Millett has said:

In Lawrence’s mind, love had become the knack of dominating another person—power means much the same thing. Lawrence first defined power as the ability to dominate a woman; later he applied the idea to other political situations, extending the notion of Herrschaft to inferior males mastered by a superior male. (Fernihough, 2001, p.4)

In his *Studies in Classic American Literature*, Lawrence (2003) declares, “woman is a strange and rather terrible phenomenon, to man. When the subconscious soul of woman recoils from its creative union with man, it becomes a destructive force.” It exerts, willy-nilly, an invisible destructive influence. “The woman herself may be as nice as milk, to all appearance, like Ligeia. But she is sending out waves of silent destruction of the faltering spirit in men, all the same. She doesn’t know it. She can’t even help it. But she does it. The devil is in her.” (p. 89-90.)

IV. CONCLUSION

By analyzing the transitivity choice, we find that material process dominates over other verb processes and in most cases Mellors, the hero, serves as an actor taking an active dominating role in their daily life, particularly in their sexual love, and Connie, the heroine, always takes a passive obedient role in an episode of their love affair. This paper shows that Lawrence holds a chauvinist idea towards women and male dominance is easily seen all over his novel. Such ideas of Lawrence’s are closely related to his unhappy marriage life, his loss of sexual potency and the die-hard traditional idea of male dominance at that time. As for *Lady Chatterley’s Lover*, when enjoying the charm of the novel, we need to keep wide our critical eyes and guard against the harmful idea of male dominance hidden in the novel.

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Penetrating into the Dark: An Archetypal Approach to Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*

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Abstract—The present paper aims at providing an archetypal analysis of Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness* which in turn gets its most effective impetus from Carl Jung's theory of "collective unconscious". Jung believed that our collective unconscious is a primordial treasure of dreams and myths which we have inherited from the time of our forefathers and which contains the universal themes and images. For him, mythology was a textbook of archetypes, and literature contained the whole dream of mankind. In *Heart of Darkness*, Joseph Conrad has created a modern myth which decodes the language of the unconscious via some archetypal images. These images depict the contemporary issues of the time both on historical and psychological levels. In a series of archetypal images, which Conrad has delicately selected, organized, and interwoven, the novel represents the deepest inclinations of the universal man as well as his unconscious desires like the desire for quest, for growth, for truth, and for self-recognition. To see how these images mirror the human nature, the present paper attempts to analyze the construction and interrelations of these archetypes.

Index Terms—Joseph Conrad, *Heart of Darkness*, Carl Jung, collective unconscious, myth, archetype

I. INTRODUCTION

A myth is, in a mostly used sense, a traditional story about gods, heroes, or supernatural beings. It explains the origins of the natural phenomena and the nature of the human behavior. It also justifies the events and changes in the world. It teaches us how to live, and gives meaning to our lives. When we take the myth in this sense, it is understandable why Pierre Brunel should claim that the light of myth "spills out over us, revealing us to ourselves; it helps us to understand where we have come from" (qtd. in Vivier, 2005, p. 11), for seemingly he wants to acknowledge that the historical man is both a myth-making creature and the product of myth. This seems also to go with Erich Fromm's definition of myth as a message which we send to ourselves and which acts like a secret language that helps us treat the inner events like the outer ones. Myth as message is also a realm of negotiation of the peoples, a space for the intercommunication of the universal man.

Other thinkers have also dealt with the myth typically for its multiple functions in the life of the universal man. From the eye of these thinkers, myth is, among other things, a multidimensional issue of subjectivity. For example, a scholar claims that myth "has concerned ... [many thinkers and researchers] from the time of Plato and the Sophists," and explains that the historical myth has basically been interpreted literally as well as symbolically. He affirms that "Ethnologists have tended to interpret myth literally as an expression of primitive thought ..." while "idealistic philosophers and theologians have, ..., interpreted it allegorically as symbolizing some transcendental, timeless truth ..." (Bidney, 1966, p. 12). In addition, John B. Vickery (1966) sees a myth as "the matrix out of which literature emerges both historically and psychologically" (p. ix). An outcome of this comparison is his affirmation that "literary plots, characters, themes, and images are basically complications and displacements of similar elements in myths and folktales." At the end of his formula, Vickery speaks even more emphatically about the role of myth in literature: the "ability of literature to move us profoundly is due to its mythic quality, to its possession of man, the numinous, or the mystery in the face of which we feel an awed delight or terror at the world of man" (1966, p. ix). Myth-possessing man implies the function of literary narrative via which the blueprint of historical man's consciousness has been provided and up-to-dated in the course of history.

As "depersonalized dreams," these myths are, For Carl Jung, mirrored through "archetypes." And M. H. Abrams says archetypes are the "primordial images" or the "'psychic residue' of repeated patterns of common human experience in the lives of our very ancient ancestors which ... survive in the 'collective unconscious' of the human race and are expressed in myths, religion, dreams, and private fantasies, as well as in works of literature" (1999, pp. 12-13). Originating from our "collective unconscious," these archetypes have their abstract language there in us which literary works reveal through images. In different times and places, these archetypes are usually interpreted in the same way, because what they represent is the deepest dreams, desires, joys, aspirations, and fears of the universal man. As Vickery believes, such "mythological archetypes ... cut across the boundaries of these cultural spheres and are not confined to any one or two, but variously represented in all" (p. 17). However, Northrop Frye's view about literature and archetypes introduces perhaps a more concrete dimension of them which provides man with a kind of life that is both imaginary and practical: "The archetypal view of literature shows us literature as a total form and literary experience as a part of the continuum of life, in which the poet's function is to visualize the goals of human work" (1957, p. 115). Literature is

not only the total form of our being in the imaginary, it is also the possibility of the continuation of our existence in the practical life.

Now it can be argued that archetypes move us also, because they create voices in our lives which are much stronger than our own voices. They have the power to artistically leave impacts upon us and to take us into a world which is up to now unknown to us. They make a creative process which activates an archetypal image into a finished work. And it is the author's job to translate it into a presently used language by turning it into a conceivable shape. The author raises the image from the unconscious and provides it in relation with the conscious values in order that it could be comprehended and understood by his readers.

The present article intends to read *Heart of Darkness* from an archetypal point of view, because in the context of a number of great archetypal images, it dramatizes decoding the language of the unconscious. It portrays the deepest universal desires of mankind depicted through mythic signs which mirror the human nature.

II. DISCUSSION

Heart of Darkness is the story of heroes who undertake long and unbelievable journeys. To achieve their goals of journey, these heroes "overcome insurmountable obstacles" (Guerin et al., 2005, p. 190). They do something great, gain something universally substantial, and are therefore often considered as "saviors" or "deliverers". Thus, one can understand why Campbell (2004) should acknowledge that "the standard path of the mythological adventure of the hero is a magnification of the formula ... of the rites of passage: *separation—initiation—return*" (p. 28). These great heroes on the journey cause man's sensibility to be mended, and the creation to be saved from going rotten.

Heroes with different faces appear in the universal literature, religion, and folktale. But the most common archetypal hero is perhaps the 'hero' in literature. In the world literature, one comes across with different faces of the hero, with different modes and manners of such celebrities. However, literary heroes have many things in common, like a radical determination, a great soul which enables them to play incredible adventures, and the achievement of precious outcomes of their daring quests. Ernest Becker (1975) maintains that

To be a true hero is to triumph over disease, want, death. One knows that [a hero's] life has had vital human meaning if it has been able to bring real benefits to the life of mankind Even more, by his own death the hero secures the lives of others, and so the greatest heroic sacrifice, as Frazer taught us, is the sacrifice of the god for his people. ... The giants died to secure mankind; by their blood we are saved (pp. 149-51).

Marlow, the main character of Conrad's story, undertakes a symbolic journey to a heart of darkness a physical manifestation of which is Africa as "the center of the earth" while a psychological manifestation of it is his own unconscious soul. However, Sherry Salman (1998) points out that "there is no difference between psychological and physical facts" (p. 54) of this journey. "To see" the truth, Marlow leaves the light of European civilization at his back and goes to the darkness of his own heart, which is metaphorized by the African radical barbarism. He embarks on this self-discovering quest mainly to recognize himself in a space where contrast is strategic, because as Nagy (1999) affirms, "a bright light needs a background of darkness" (p. 30). Marlow accomplishes his "sacred mission" in a clime where his Holy Grail is self-knowledge, while all others are far different from him. As Campbell (2004) maintains, his "mythic quest is the journey of the soul" (pp. lvii-lviii). It is a journey through which he discovers his soul in a background of darkness and difficulty.

Sayeau (2006) says Marlow's inquisitive mind is "tired of resting" (p. 344). So, he seeks refuge in the African wilderness "to see". And one can better realize the implication of "to see," if one imaginatively travels back to the 1890s when the novel was published, for although there was still one and a half decades for the outbreak of World War I, the threat of it was imminent, which was manifested in the form of imperialism, colonization, exploitation. And Marlow's devotion for such a quest for the truth about the heart of darkness of these imperialisms is not involuntary. It has originated from his childhood when "he had passion for maps," when he had chosen Africa to explore. He is fascinated by the river which is depicted in the image of "an immense snake uncoiled" which Guerin et al. say can be considered as the symbol of "evil", "mystery", and "wisdom".

The first step in Marlow's initiation is a separation from home. On an exotic journey, he gets separated from Europe and its civilization, and as he passes a series of obstacles behind, he gets prepared for gaining the holy grail of his initiation. His journey to the dark of his heart reminds one of "Dante's imaginative journey in *The Inferno*; and the allusion to ancient Rome helps to recall *The Aeneid*" (Watts, 1998, p. 48), where both heroes descend into hell and face different trials through their journeys. Like the classical heroes, Conrad's hero through his quest descends into hell to gain knowledge and bring it back to others, where the hell represents the darkness of his unconscious.

For Marlow, the steamer crawls to where there is Kurtz on a mission. In fact, the holy grail of the former is the achievement he makes when he goes on the quest to see Kurtz, for it brings him to an "impenetrable darkness," and makes it possible for him to visit a "hollow man" who is also a "universal genius" in charge of the most productive trade of ivory in The Congo. Joseph Warren Beach writes

Kurtz is personal embodiment, a dramatization, of all that Conrad felt of futility, degradation, and horror in what the Europeans in The Congo called "progress", which meant the exploitation of the natives by every variety of cruelty and treachery known to the greedy man. Kurtz was to Marlow, penetrating this country, name, constantly recurring in people's talk, for cleverness and enterprise (qtd. in Haugh, 1963, p. 165).

Cole (1998) states that Marlow "quickly turns towards Kurtz as the practical and psychological goal towards which he travels, stressing that his search for Kurtz is connected with his own 'destiny of life'" (p. 259). However, as Marlow progresses through his journey, he gets more obsessed with Kurtz.

For Carl Jung, (1968) the unconscious "contains the hidden, repressed, and unfavorable (or nefarious) aspects of human personality" (p. 110). And Kurtz is the embodiment of this unconscious of which the "impenetrable darkness" is a dimension which is itself a representation of the Jungian archetypal shadow. In his confrontation with Kurtz, that is, when "all real further psychological progress is blocked" (Walker, 2002, p. 34), Marlow sees the dark of human nature. In addition, as he goes further he feels a kinship with the savages and comes to terms with the wild and passionate uproar of the darkness. Now Kurtz becomes one of the savages, and is deeply connected with the wilderness. Therefore, as Hewitt (1961) explains, Marlow "accepts the bond established between them, just as he has accepted the bond between himself and the savage clamour from the river bank on the journey upstream" (pp. 109-110). He cannot spoil the shadow of (the presence of) Kurtz. Therefore, as he identifies himself with him, he comes to be a part of his existence. However, Kurtz is in fact the shadow—the evil side—of Marlow's own soul and nature. Marlow is the ego that undertakes a journey which involves a "descent into the darkness of shadow and ascent towards the light of self" (Coupe, 2003, p. 141).

Jung's "individuation" is, in Frye's words, a "journey" the first step of which is to encounter and recognize the shadow (qtd. in Russell, 2000, pp. 116-117). Therefore, to become a self or a whole personality, Marlow needs "to see" Kurtz as the shadow of his own soul. For this hero, the effect of his encounter with Kurtz is not obscure, because he knows that it has something to do with the expansion of his vision and the truth of his life. Marlow says

It is the farthest point of navigation and the culminating point of my experience. It seemed somehow to throw a kind of light on everything about me—and into my thoughts. It was somber enough, too—and pitiful—not extraordinary in any way—not very clear either. No, not very clear. And yet it seemed to throw a kind of light (p. 35).

According to the doctrine of individuation, in his meeting with Kurtz as his shadow, that is, as "the unwelcome side" (Hart, 1998, p. 92) of his nature, Marlow gains self-knowledge and becomes aware of the truth of his life. Now, this self-recognition helps him gain a whole personality. Also, Reteif (2004) believes that Kurtz is "the culminating point" of the life of Marlow. And he affirms that if Marlow had never reached Kurtz, his story would have been incomplete. After Conrad's hero puts the two stages of separation and transformation behind and reaches 'the heart of darkness', it is the time for him to return home. So, we see him "Carrying the flag of nostalgia" (Zimring, 1997, p. 332). However, he returns to Europe as "a changed and more knowing man" (Guerard, 1963, p. 170).

He has undertaken a journey of individuation, a "spiritual process by which ... his personality is built up" (Goldbrunner, 1965, p. 119). Now we see him as a person who has changed to a wise old man, who is, for Walker (2002), "associated with the source of wisdom and enlightenment" (p. 72). Therefore, he returns home to apprise others of the truth and to transform them. After gaining the wholeness of his personality, Marlow becomes a "Buddha" who is, to speak for Joseph Campbell (2004), "the classic example of mythological hero whose journey takes him to the underworld where he retrieves a lost, secret, knowledge—a boon—by which he is transformed and with which he returns and transformed the world" (Morgan, 2001, p. 45).

The second hero in *Heart of Darkness* is Kurtz who is also sent to Africa. Like Marlow, he undertakes the journey with a "sacred mission" that is to civilize the African natives and bring "light" to the heart of darkness. There in the Congo, he is a "remarkable man" who is in charge of the inner station of the ivory-trading company, a "universal genius" who is musician, orator, writer, politician, poet, and painter also.

Like in the case of other white "pilgrims," Kurtz's lack of humanity makes him into a "hollow man." However, he is different from them also, in the sense that, as Haugh (1963) notes, he is, in the eye of Marlow, "a hero who had shown him the limits of the moral spirit" (p. 167). Kurtz knows what Marlow is searching for, and it is he that helps the latter to see the truth. He sees the truth and gains self-recognition, but his reaction to truth is different from that of Marlow. For him, this self-knowledge is a "disturbing truth" (Bowers, 2006, p. 133). Both of them gain what they quest for: knowledge about man's nature; and both of them are enlightened. But the nature of their enlightenment is different too. Kurtz is, as Panagopoulos (2002) maintains, linked to Dionysus, and is associated with intoxication, ecstasy, and indulgence, while Marlow is linked to Apollo, and is connected with wisdom, reason, and restraint. The reaction of the former to truth is "Dionysian," while that of the latter to it is "Apollonian." "Light and civilization" are associated with the Apollonian, while "darkness and savagery" are so with the Dionysian. Kurtz's direct exposure to truth makes his knowledge dangerous and destructive. Therefore, in the course of his artistic narrative, Marlow shows "an Apollonian response" to it. In this way, the destructive truth of the "incoherent and chaotic Dionysian experience" of Kurtz is put into "a familiar and meaningful Apollonian form" (p. 148). Kurtz's response to this experience is "The horror! The horror!" which he cries at the end of his life, while Marlow's response to it is the lie which he tells Kurtz's Intended, as well as Conrad's story in which his universal readership finds enlightenment. If we consider Kurtz as the tragic hero of the story, Marlow can be labeled a cultivated spectator. And the natives and the Russian are ultimately the chorus of the tragedy.

In the wilderness, if Kurtz is not associated with the light of civilization, he is associated with the gun, with power, with the God-figure. He knows the truth, and is aware of the "omnipresent evil" (Hewitt, 1961, p. 110). As an "enchanted princess sleeping in a fabulous castle" (Heart, p. 70), he is worshiped both by the natives and by the Russian.

This Kurtz has the power to create a Hell into which Marlow is to descend to gain insight. He will restore the hell which will burn the self of Kurtz but in which others are to rot.

Therefore, he can be regarded as a sacrificial hero. As the victim of the evil of the human nature, he is sacrificed to help Marlow see as well as others. According to Guerin et al. (2005), a "sacrificial hero must die ... to restore the land to fruitfulness" (p. 190). However, to restore such a wasteland there is only one way: to make others aware of the horror of it. Kurtz's last word before his death is quite enlightening. It is his death — his sacrifice indeed — which brings others to enlightenment.

Other characters of Conrad's story, the pilgrims, the manager, and the Russian for example, go on the same journey as Kurtz and Marlow go on. But they are not able "to see" what these heroes see and experience, and the outcome of their quests is different from the quests of Kurtz and Marlow. The pilgrims too are heroes, but they are materialistic heroes, because their holy grail is only ivory. And there are those who only make the appearance of heroes, but are not capable to understand "the redemptive value of those two 'The horror! The horror!'" (Heart, p. 98) The Russian declares "I am a simple man. I have no great thoughts" (Heart, p. 86). Therefore, he is also too good to be a hero, for he is simple and sentimental, and he lacks the seriousness needed for a hero. He is not a hero but is a "harlequin". These guys lack the qualifications of heroes, for they are factually "faithless".

There is still another character on "the Nellie" who wants to be a hero. He is the narrator of Conrad's story, but in the whole story he remains unnamed. The story reports that the narrator was once a sailor. But now he is among Marlow's auditors. To gain knowledge, this man undertakes a metaphorical journey to the story of Marlow. But when he is transformed, he brings the truth back, and renders it to Conrad's readers in his own narrative. Gross says his relationship to Marlow is the same as the relationship of Marlow to Kurtz. If Kurtz was the enigmatic purpose of Marlow's journey, Marlow is the narrator's mysterious "voice" as well as the goal of his journey. While others might be sleeping, he is awake and listening to his surroundings. He is different from the other fellows aboard the Nelli, because for him Marlow is the "choice of nightmares" (Heart, p. 90), as Kurtz is for Marlow. As Gross points out, at the beginning of the story he is an optimistic person who looks at experience through a lightened, but hardly enlightened viewpoint. But as Marlow's narrative progresses, he undergoes a transformation and sees the truth. At the end of the story, he sees the Thames as the heart of a great darkness. Williams (1963) maintains that even "the turn of the tide," which is westward at the outset of the story and eastward at the end of it, indicates a "change in narrator's vision" (pp. 206-207). By the time the narrator has completed his initiation, he is a transformed character who discovers the truth. When he returns home, he also returns to share his knowledge with Conrad's readers, and he helps them "to see".

III. CONCLUSION

In *Heart of Darkness*, the heroes are often on the ship. They undertake a journey to the 'heart of darkness' to gain precious knowledge and "to see" into the things. After that, they return home—"to begin ... a new life" (Bodkin, 1965, p. 124), and to share their knowledge with their fellow creatures. In this sense, the hero of the novel on the quest becomes qualified firstly "to see" and then to reveal what he has seen. Therefore, if Kurtz and Marlow are the heroes of Conrad's story, the author himself, as well as The Romans, the Pilgrims, and Conrad's narrator and readers are also on the model of his heroes, because, to speak for Campbell (2004), they "all [are] in quest for the essence of Truth and Wholeness in life" (p. xxviii). If they are capable "to see" the truth, that is, to witness the nature of the human being, if they can discover the secrets of the creation and then reveal them to the world, typically they are heroes. However, as Jung (1958) mentions, "it is often tragic to see" (p. 9). Thus, undertaking a "heroic journey" is far from an easy task which "few" characters can do. Myth is the language through which Conrad has created a heroic world in *Heart of Darkness* to help his readers realize the secret of things. His story is the mirror he holds up before them to make them witness the reality of their own nature, like when Marlow asks if we "see the story" (Heart, p. 55).

For enabling the reader "to see" this truthful reality, the author depicts "the moral evil" in the contemporary issues of his time, (Brodey & Malgaretti, 2002, p. 236), by which he mainly means "colonialism." He also criticizes and condemns "the Bourgeois materialism and commercialism" (White, 1995, p. 173) of the European society. Instead of narrating the quest story of a hero who imitates the old fashioned motifs of the classical literature, he depicts the nature of the universal man. Conrad is the hero of his own story also. He writes for the purification of his readers in the course of his enigmatic narrative, and he depicts the issues of his times through myths which are deeply rooted in the self and in civilization (Barthes, 1984).

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A Study of the Humor Aspect of English Puns: Views from the Relevance Theory*

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Abstract—A distinctive rhetorical device, puns are wittily applied in advertisements, daily conversations, riddles, etc. Formed by the combination in certain contexts with polysemic or homophonic words, puns naturally lead to more than one interpretation in an actual communication. Puns have many different functions in utterances as well. In this paper Sperber and Wilson's Relevance Theory is used to analyze how the humor effects of puns are constructed. In the process of comprehending a pun, the audience decodes the communicator's ostensive utterance in its a context. If the context contradicts the usual interpretation, the audience rebuilds a new assumption with their encyclopedic knowledge, logical and lexical information, and deduces the real implication of the utterance—and appreciates the great humor effects of English puns.

Index Terms—English puns, Relevance Theory, contextual effect, humor effect

I. INTRODUCTION

The pun, the short form of paronomasia, has a long history in the West as well as in China. One of the most ancient rhetorical devices, it has multi-functional effects, such as making the language briefer or more humorous. As a special language device, puns enhance the appeal of a language and strengthen its informative effect; and English puns have many different functions, such as providing brevity, humor, satire, and persuasion. Widely used in many fields, such as literature, advertising, and funny riddles, puns have penetrated almost every aspect in our lives, and have thus attracted the attention of more and more scholars in various fields.

Being an effective rhetorical device, English pun is a common language phenomenon. For the puns in English, they are formed by combing certain contexts with the homophone, polysemy of words, or homophonic words so that two meanings are given birth to at the same time, i.e., surface meaning and deep meaning, which will naturally lead to more than one interpretation for the actual communication. And the pun has many different functions, such as brevity, humor, satire, persuasion, forming riddles and so on. The Relevance Theory developed by Sperber and Wilson in 1986 is the foundation of cognitive pragmatics. The core issue of Relevance Theory is communication and recognition. In the views of this theory, there is always be a rule for cognition, namely, to understand the world according to related information.

This paper uses Sperber and Wilson's Relevance Theory to analyze how the humor effect of pun is constructed. According to Relevance Theory, in the process of understanding a pun, audience decodes what the communicator's ostensive utterance is and constructs the first contextual assumption, so audience would get a context effect. If the context contradicts the broad context, audience would rebuild a new assumption with their encyclopedic knowledge, logical information, and lexical information, and deduce the real implication of the utterance. Then audience would get the humor effect of English pun. After the analysis, there are some applications of humor pun in our life. From this paper, people would learn how to appreciate a humor pun, and would have greater interests in English.

II. PUNS

A. Definitions of the Term Pun

To understand the nature of a pun, it is helpful to look at its various definitions. According to The Webster's Third International Dictionary, a pun can be defined as "a humorous use of a word in such a way as to suggest different meanings or applications, or of words having the same or nearly the same sound but different meanings: a play on words." The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines a pun as "an amusing use of a word or phrase that has two or more different meanings which is called polysemy or of words with the same sound and spelling but different meanings which is called homonymy." The Collins English Dictionary defines a pun as the "use of words that have more than one meaning, or words that have the same sound but different meanings, so that what you say has two different meanings and makes people laugh." The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language says it is, "A play on words, sometimes on different senses of the same word or sometimes on the similar or the same sound of different words. Also calls paronomasia." The Oxford English Dictionary defines it as, "The use of a word in such a way as to suggest two or more meanings or different association, or the use of two or more words of the same or nearly

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the same sound with different meanings, so as to produce a humorous effect." A pun is a figure of speech which consists of a deliberate confusion of similar words or phrases for rhetorical effect, whether humorous or serious. A pun can rely on the assumed equivalency of multiple similar words (homonymy), of different shades of meaning of one word (polysemy), or of a literal meaning with a metaphor. Bad puns are often considered to be cheesy. Walter Redfern (1984) succinctly said: "To pun is to treat homonyms as synonyms".

These various definitions of a pun also have certain understandings in common. First, a pun is a play of words. That is to say, a pun always uses words that have the same sound or similar pronunciation, or a word that has two or more interpretations. Second, a pun is a kind of rhetorical device that produces certain language effects, especially humor. It can be noticed from the definitions above that a pun is defined as "a humorous use of a word," "an amusing use of a word or phrase," "a use of words that make people laugh," "the use of a word so as to produce a humorous effect." Punning, therefore, challenges us to make good use of possible pressure syllable of language, and it amazes us by deliberately violating the law of nature which pretends two things that can not convey the same place at the same time.

Generally speaking, punning, one of the rhetorical devices which are widely used in English, makes language become more concise, funny, humorous, novel, and so on, and it will leave a deep impression on readers with readability and humor.

B. *A Brief Review of Studies on Puns*

Because of the popularity of pun used in languages, many scholars have studied it from different perspective in various fields, such as rhetoric, semantic, pragmatic and cognitive perspective. The pun is one of the most popularly used and studied figures of speech. Some scholars, such as Louis G. Lippman, Kristine Bennington, and Ivan Laars Sucharski use Tom Swifities (ridiculous adverbial puns) to analyze the humor function and flexibility of language in relation to its context. Zhang Hongyu and Li Yan (2003), Mao Fasheng (2003), Zhao Yongguan (2002), have all studied English puns from the perspectives of their rhetorical classification, properties, and rhetorical functions. From the perspective of semantics, Chen Xing (1996) analyzed the functions of puns in funny riddles. Peng Jiayu & Yu Shaoping (2001) and Tan Wenfen, have also studied puns semantically, and in their papers, they discussed the ambiguity of a pun, noting how its two meanings shapes a pun. Some scholars, such as Zhao Aiping (2002), Sun Weiwen (2008), Li Yang (2010), Shi Xiaowen (2011), and Meng Xianjie (2010) have examined puns from the perspective of pragmatics, noting their appearance in advertising, literature, and riddles. Zhao Ming (2011) wrote emphasizing the beauty of both the form and contents of puns. Some scholars, such as Lin Yan (2011), Ai Lin and Li Yufeng (2009), and Lin Tingting (2010) have studied the puns in English movies. In the year 1984, Red fern illustrated that pun is a highly economic tool in discourse and it's a "labor-saving" (1984, Redfern).

On the basis of the Relevance Theory, Tanaka(1994) is one of the most influential scholars who studied how the audience achieve establish optimal relevance by means of attracting the potential audience's attention on the basis of the Relevance Theory. While these scholars have examined English puns from the perspectives of rhetoric, semantics, and pragmatics and noted their humor, Sperber & Willson's Relevance Theory provides new information, as noted in the following section of this paper, about how puns achieve humor, which is, indeed, the main function of English puns. It's no doubt that punning, as a special linguistic device for communication, it is very attractive and can convey much more information efficiently.

III. THE HUMOROUS EFFECT OF PUNS: THE RELEVANCE THEORY

A. *The Relevance Theory*

In 1986, Sperber and Wilson introduced the Relevance Theory for the first time in their book *Relevance: Communication and Cognition*. According to them, following Grice's Conversational Principle, relevance governs the communication process. In light of Relevance Theory, communication is a process that proceeds under certain cognitive inferences. It is relevance-oriented; that is to say, human beings pay attention to the things more relevant to them rather than others. If for example, while reading or listening to a speaker or program, people will pay attention only if they think the information is valuable. In ostensive-inferential communication, the speaker produces an ostensive stimulus that creates a presumption of optimal relevance; however, the audience will process and interpret the speaker's utterance only in line with what is relevant to them.

Sperber and Wilson hold the opinion that relevance principle applies to ostensive-inferential communication. That's to say, in order to guarantee a successful communication, the first step is that the communicator must catch the addressee's attention. The most important feature of ostensive communication lies in its guaranteeing the relevance. Sperber & Wilson think that relevance is the cognitive key to successful communication. To understand an utterance, there are two demands: a. having enough contextual effect to attract audience; b. enabling the audience to understand the contextual effect with a reasonable amount of effort. Further, to achieve optimal relevance, the utterance must be set in a clear enough context so that audience can readily reach the desired interpretation. If the audience cannot understand the context, they will not interpret the utterance correctly; thus the relevance principle has been negated. However, if an audience makes an extra effort to understand the context, they may arrive at the intention of the utterance. That is to say, additional effort may generate additional contextual understanding. Hence to understand an English pun and appreciate its humor, one may need to put in extra effort to understand its context.

The essence of the Relevance Theory is the cognitive activity. It suggests that the cognitive activity is a referential process during communicating. Additionally, it explains the audiences' inference effort of the communicators' intended meaning.

B. *An Analysis of the Humor of English Puns*

While communicating, according to Relevance Theory, communicators rely on certain context, process of which is a psychological construct and a set of assumptions in mind, to convey their intention and purpose. These assumptions, definitely play a leading role in the processing of understanding utterances. In the puns' communication process, the audience decode the communicator's ostensive utterance first and construct their first contextual assumptions. But when they sense a contradiction in contexts and with their own encyclopedia information, lexical information and logical information build a new contextual assumption, they can then deduce the real implication of the utterance.

According to the Principle of Relevance Theory, understanding the humor of puns requires extra effort because the communicator uses an ambiguous contextual assumption deliberately. Thus the audience cannot readily see the context. The humor is illustrated in the following examples.

(1) Customer: "Waiter, will the pancakes be long?"

Waiter: "No, sir. Round."

(2) Smiles is the longest word in the world.

Obviously, in the first dialogue, we can infer that the waiter's contextual assumption contradicts our encyclopedic knowledge. And to get the contextual result that the customer wants, we have to abandon the waiter's contextual assumption of shape, and look for lexical information and logical information. We then discover that long can also refer to time, a new contextual assumption: the customer was asking how long he would need to wait, but the waiter gave an answer that was totally unrelated. Though we need pay extra effort to understand it, we get the humor in the end.

In the second example, smiles cannot be the longest word in the world. But to get the contextual effects the addressor desired, we have to take full advantage of our encyclopedic knowledge, lexical information and logical information. Through that, we discover that smiles can be divided into three parts: s—mile—s. From the series of logical inference, we can construct a new contextual assumption: in smiles, there is a mile away between the first letter and the last letter. That is why it is the longest word in the world. Eventually we get the contextual effect—the humor.

IV. THE APPLICATION OF PUN'S HUMOR

Sperber and Wilson suggest that successful communication relies on the audience's recovery of the intended interpretation. As is mentioned above, Relevance Theory can supply the most comprehensive account of utterance interpretation. In the interpretation of puns, extra processing effort first holds the addressees' attention and makes them strengthen their memory. According to Relevance Theory, extra effort means extra effect. During the decoding process of puns, most often great humor will be generated simultaneously. Punning, the indirectness of utterance demanding some extra effort in decoding, can achieve additional effects in communication, such advertisements, conversation, riddles, and so on. During the decoding process of puns, most often great humor will be generated simultaneously.

A. *In Advertising*

Advertising is a non-personal communication of information usually paid for and persuasive in nature about products, service or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media. Advertising, a special and effective tool to persuade consumers to buy advertised products or services, has become a part of our daily life. In the process of creating advertisements, advertisers value the power and flexibility of language with distinctive skills to catch consumers' attention. In order to enhance the appeal of an advertisement, advertisers pay much attention to the choice of words and phrases. Puns, as one of the rhetorical devices, are frequently and widely applied in commercials. Take the following two pieces of advertisement, for example:

(1) We know **eggsactly** what you want.

At first glance, people may not get its meaning. Then changing their cognitive environment and using their encyclopedia knowledge, logical and lexical information, they are likely to build a new contextual assumption. This is an advertisement for eggs, and the word eggsactly sounds like exactly. The advertisement conveys the meaning since customers seek for the best quality and least expensive goods, these eggs are exactly what they want. Therefore, after changing their cognitive environment, people can figure out the meaning of this commercial. Undoubtedly this is a smart way to attract people's attention and impress them deeply by the transformation in spelling of the word eggsactly.

In addition, many "brand name puns" are used in ads as well. The advertiser makes the brand name act as a part of the ad and plays upon it. Certainly it is a useful way to inform the audience about the special characteristic(s) of the brand. Another advantage of brand name puns is that the advertiser makes the audience connect the brand with the advertiser's selling ideas, for example:

(2) You will go nuts for the nuts of the Nux.

This is an advertisement for nuts. In it, nuts in go nuts and the nuts have the same pronunciation, while Nux has a different spelling, but a similar pronunciation. The three, actually, refer to different things respectively. The first nuts collocates with go, which means that something can send somebody out of his mind — in a good way this time. The last

Nux refers to a brand name for nuts. The nuts, in the middle, however, mean the literal nuts of Nux brand. The three words used in this concisely structured sentence form a pun. Reading it, we will be attracted by its repetition of the key words and will appreciate the humor and smart way of advertising. Let's take a look at the following one:

(3) More sun and air for your son and heir.

In an impressive way, this commercial makes customers be aware of the great significance of the living in a clean environment and keeping good health. Undoubtedly, for the smart use of the two pairs of words "sun" and "son", "air" and "heir", which are easy for customers to read and remember, this advertisement is a big success.

B. In Conversation

Puns also function as effective devices to express our meaning. While communicating with others, people sometimes may not say something directly when they want to comfort or criticize somebody. Instead they turn to puns for help. Puns, which are applied in a humorous way, interestingly make our utterances more impressive under some circumstances. And sometimes a pun can have both a humorous contextual effect and an ironic effect as well. Take the following one, for example:

(1) A: *Here are a few views of our hotel for you to take with you, sir.*

B: *Thanks, but I have my own views of your hotel.*

This is a conversation that happened between a housekeeper and a guest. In their dialogue, one word is used twice, views. As mentioned above, the process of grasping the contextual effect is, in fact, the process of the continuously selecting and adjusting the contextual assumptions. In this cited example, the views that A referred to meant postcards of the scenery around the hotel. However, if we comprehend what B said, he had his own view the hotel -- obviously this contradicts our encyclopedic information. Thus we should rebuild a contextual assumption with our lexical information to discover that view has another meaning--opinions about things. We can then infer that actually the guest may not be very satisfied with that hotel; he has his own opinions of the hotel. The humor here is clearly ironic.

More funny examples:

(2) A Professor tapped on his desk and shouted, "Gentlemen, order!"

The entire class yelled, "Beer!"

(3) You're not eating your fish." A waitress said to a customer in a restaurant. "Any thing wrong with it?"

"Long time no sea. (see)

(4) A little boy came up to his mother. "Ma", he said, "I have some to tell you. My teacher kissed me."

"Well, were you and good boy and did you kiss her back?"

"Of course not"! He denied indignantly. "I kissed her face"!

The following are another example of pun used humorously. One day a customer told the waitress that he would like to have some concubines --- he meant to say cucumbers, but his vocabulary was limited. The waitress seemed to know what he meant, but she sake, "Dressed or undressed?" Obviously in the 3 conversations happened in classroom and the restaurants, the students and the waitresses are punning on purpose to achieve amusement and fun. In example (4), the little boy interpreted the word "back" literally. Hence great humor appeared and the naïve image of a kid was depicted.

C. In Riddles

Puns are subtle form of word play. It involves the technique of similar sounding words and alternative meanings of the same words. Besides, it requires more subtle and sophisticated language skills than most humor forms. Humorous puns are very popular in riddles in English through the use of homophones, polysemy of words, homophonic words, or sometimes the idioms. For example, the riddle of trick question often uses a pun in setup, the story line, or more often, the punch line. For example, in the following riddle, one person asks, "What's black and white and red all over the world?" The other person usually cannot answer the riddle, so says, "I give up. What's the answer?" The riddler replies, "A newspaper." This is an obvious answer if one knows that "red" is pronounced the same as "read" in English, but the meaning is clearly different.

Take these examples.

(1) A: *When does the baker follow his trade?*

B: *Whenever he kneads the dough.*

This example uses both homophone and polysemy of words to construct the pun. In B's answer, there are two words--*kneads* and *dough*, which are the keys to comprehend this pun. First, *kneads* has the same pronunciation as *needs*, while *dough* has two meanings--an informal term for money and a fairly firm mixture of flower and water. These two words produce the humorous puns that convey two meanings differently.

a. Whenever the baker is going the necessary step to make bread;

b. Whenever the baker needs some money.

Hence a humorous effect is achieved successfully.

(2) A: *What weather do mice most dislike?*

B: *When it's raining cats and dogs.*

In English, most idioms cannot be understood literally. To get the contextual effect of this riddle, we have to know that the idiom *rain cats and dogs* means rain very heavily. Then let's get back to the question, the kind of weather mice most dislike. When faced with such a question, we may feel puzzled and unable to answer it. Unexpectedly, the answer

is in this conversation: *When it's raining cats and dogs*. That is to say, mice most dislike a rainy day. But why? To comprehend this, we refer to our language knowledge and figure out that the literal meaning of *raining cats and dogs* means cats and dogs—the enemies of mice dropping from the sky!

V. CONCLUSION

Generally speaking, a pun is a form of word play. It's true that in some cases the initial meaning of the pun is either rejected or just helping to obtain additional contextual effects that speaker intends. Sperber & Wilson's Relevance Theory has been used here to analyze the ways audiences comprehend the humor of puns. It's claimed that relevance is compatible with human psychology. Sperber and Wilson define relevance as a combined function of effort and effects, which is also mentioned as achieving the optimal relevance. The whole comprehension process is one of searching for the optimal relevance. According to Relevance Theory, audiences will cognitively select and adjust their contextual assumptions as they listen to an utterance. In the process of comprehending puns, when a contextual assumption contradicts the big context, the audience has to abandon their first understanding and rebuild a new one according to their encyclopedia knowledge, lexical, and logical information. With that extra effort they can decode and arrive at the intended context.

As one of the rhetorical devices, the pun plays an important role in languages, shines with the luster of wisdom, adding color to language, and its main characteristic is humor. English puns have special English characteristics because of their backgrounds in history, literature, and politics. Whether puns appear in advertisements, daily conversations, or riddles, they attract and delight their audience. It is hoped that this paper will encourage an increasingly large number of people to use and study humorous puns. In addition, English learners may strengthen their English comprehension and enjoyment.

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The Impact of Implementing Computer Games and Motor Activity on Early EFL Vocabulary Achievement

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Abstract—Study aims to investigate the effect of implementing computer and motor activity games on early EFL vocabulary achievement and using it at the sentence level. To do so three intact groups were chosen. Then the game group learned English vocabulary through motor activity, computer group was taught by using two software *Jumpstart English* and *Baby Einstein*, and children in control group was taught through traditional methods. In the last session an oral achievement test (reliability= 0.87) was run and the results revealed that at the both levels (vocabulary retention and sentence level) children who learned through motor activity game performed significantly better on the achievement test than those who learned through other methods.

Index Terms—game, language game, vocabulary learning, computer game, motor activity

I. INTRODUCTION

Game provides communication, sharing and relaxing fields that play an important role in human education process (Binark, 2009, as cited in Soylu çøk, 2011). Studies on the using games had shown that teaching a lesson in a game context attracts students and increases their enthusiasm to the lesson (Cornillie, 2012, Demirbilek, 2010).

Teaching through games develops into a new method during this decade. Followers of teaching through game concentrate their studies on teaching in the course of computer game or motor activity or language game. CALL programs have been found to be effective in many language learning studies. Through playing digital games, even the shy students participate in language learning (Aghlara& Hadidi Tamjid, 2011). The other method of teaching through game is motor activity game. Because children learn better through discovery and experimentation and being motivated to learn in a playful and relaxed context.

On the other hand, teaching children is different from adults. They are energetic with little patience to stay in the class. Therefore, it is obligatory to find a proper technique for this group of learners.

Computer and motor activity games have their followers. However, it is not clear which one is more beneficial. Followers of each method just mentioned the benefits of their preferred method and less attention was paid to disadvantages of its process. Therefore, it is important to search for more details about these different methods and comparing them with each other to find which one is more beneficial.

It should be mentioned that Iran as a non-English speaking country needs method that helps students to acquire language in more convenient way. The educational context in Iran is mostly grammar translation method and new methods are used just in small size institutions. Therefore, the result of such research can help teacher to be more effective and helpful in the classroom.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Foundation

1. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Using technology in our daily life not only affects our life but also brings new methods in education. Instead of using chalks and boards, teachers employ computer applications to present lessons. In digital education, instead of going to school students can stay at home and learn by using software. “Micro computers used as word processors complement the audio facilities, enabling the interactive teaching of all four language skills reading, listening, speaking and writing” (Crystal, 1987, p.377).

Gorjian (2012) stated that use of technology in teaching languages has been increasing over the past decade and has great effects on language learning. The ability to present information in different formats is one of its importances, which uses graphics, sound, text, and video. (Cummins, 2008, as cited in Gorjian, 2012).

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) is made of various parts like computer games, video games, and learning software. Jacob (2009) put that using means like CD-ROM, DVD's or Web-based resources, English as a second language in classes changed to a more dynamic, and focusing class that offers new ways of learning.

Educational software is the other teaching materials, which increases students' inspiration to do activities. It is vital to prepare settings with multimedia to motivate a student to learn (Yürütücü, 2002, as cited in Ayvaci & Devecioglu, 2010). They must provide the students with knowledge and practice.

2. Game in Education

When we were born, we can play with others or ourselves without any teaching. We made games, assigned rules to them, learnt from them, lived with them, played our wishes, and acted like a desired man, therefore playing is a feature of human nature and can be claimed that the history of playing goes back to a primitive society (Demirbilek, Yılmaz, & Tamer, 2010).

"Games are made of various categories such as 'role play' games, 'physical' games, 'sorting', 'ordering', or 'arranging puzzles', 'labeling' games, competitive and cooperative ones" (Griva, & et. al., 2010, p.3701). These categories can be used as a game-based learning environment. In this environment, game is explained to the students, and then teacher and students play it. Students learn the desired point even without special attention.

Kebritchi (2008, as cited in Donmus, 2010, p.1499) states the positive effects of game as a motivation and a different learning environment, increasing attention, and remembering concept longer.

B. Related Studies

1. The History of Game Language

Teaching through practical game is not limited to early ages. Different ages with different level of proficiency are subject of studies. The problem with game is the number of studies in this field. Technology brings attention to itself and scholars too, work on it. In other word, motor activity games are disregarded not only in our educational system but also in our daily life, where children instead of playing face to face, play with each other by internet.

Moon (2005) searched for teacher's beliefs in using play and it's role in literacy learning children from different language backgrounds and found that each teacher has a unique understanding of play in learning, which may be affect classroom activities. Besides, Liu and Chu (2010) investigated the effect of game in learning. They worked on how ubiquitous games influenced English learning achievement and motivation and as a result stating that using ubiquitous games in English learning lead to a better learning results and motivation than using traditional method.

Using language game in teaching vocabulary has some disagreements. For instance, Gale (2011) in a study revealed while serious games improve learning, it does so at a lower rate than other instructional techniques.

Among different studies about applying language game at the classroom, some scholars focused on the attitudes of instructors about using game. Muhammet Demirbilek and et al (2010) introduced four categories that present the standpoints of foreign language teachers: "current situation", "usage", "game features" and "efficacy to lesson" respectively. Then, they showed the usage, and the usage depends on the game features and current situation.

2. The History of CALL

Is there any difference between constructing and playing an educational game on student motivation and deep learning strategy use? Vos, Meijden, & Denessen (2011) design a study in this area and found that there was a significant difference between intrinsic motivation and strategy use. Students were less motivated during the game play than during their regular school lessons" (p.135).

Paraskeva, Mysirlaki, & Papagianni (2010) examined whether online games were engaging for learners. They found that adults spend more time on playing digital games to identify with games' characters.

"As educational games had to negotiate the intriguing conundrum of being interesting enough to engage students, without being addictive and thus detrimental to academic performance" (p.504), Paraskeva et al. suggested that "this could be achieved by integrating elements that limit play sessions and oblige players to actively engage in an external educational task before continuing play, ideally in collaboration with other players" (P. 504). Moreover, this study could not clearly defined the relationship between game use and self-esteem.

Using web-based application is one branch of teaching through computer. Sahin and Ozdemir (2012) worked on it to support children's learning process. Researchers at the end of this study wrote, "for a better pedagogy of kids, educational computer games, visual multiple choices and matching tests are ideal to support children's learning process" (p. 2047).

Graphical design is the other part of teaching through computer games that in a study Soylu Çek (2011) worked on it and stated that "proper and interesting designs for the target audience, fascinating game design, guidelines being encouraging according to the age group helped the message that was wanted to given to the kids to be effectively understood" (p.645).

As it was mentioned, teaching children regarding computer assisted has different field. In a study Ayvaci and Deveciolu (2010) worked on the contrast concepts of pre-school children that were taught into two groups (computer and traditional). They believed that students in pre-school age needed to develop their motor skill so computers were helped them. It means that they needed both methods not just one of them.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Does using activity game have any significant effect on vocabulary retention and vocabulary learning at the sentence level of elementary EFL learners?
2. Does using computer game have any significant effect on vocabulary retention and vocabulary learning at the sentence level of elementary EFL learners?
3. Is there any significant difference between the vocabulary retention and vocabulary learning at the sentence level of the group using motor activity game in classroom and the group applying computer game?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

1. students

Sokhan institute as the only English institute for children in Ahwaz, Iran is selected as a place of study. At the time of search, 36 children (4 to 6 years old) were enrolled. Four students who know some English vocabularies were removed from study. To have three groups with same number of participants, two other students randomly removed. In each group five girls and five boys who knows only Persian as their first and mother language, participated in study.

Teachers

Each group had an experienced teacher (teaching English to 3-7 years children for almost two years). Computer group's teacher works with computer software and had experience of teaching at different levels. Therefore, she was chosen to teach computer group.

The teacher of game group was not an English teacher. Because of her interest in teaching English to children, she learned it herself, and devoted all her times to teaching English. She has an intuition in teaching children and believes in game like classes. Control group's teacher trusts in books and does not deal with supplementary tools in teaching.

Settings

2. Computer setting

The experiment was conducted at the computer laboratory located at Sokhan institutions.

Every two participants used one system for this study and all of children had one headphone for themselves. There was a central system that teachers used and guided children. All of computers were located on the rectangular table and children could see each other. There was not any picture on the wall and no window in the class. There was only a big whiteboard behind teacher's system. In this group, parents did not have access to the class and at the end the teacher informed them about what happened in the class.

3. Game setting

The game classroom was made of child-size furniture, books, and chairs. Many colorful pictures (like children's painting, vocabularies' pictures, and some children's handicrafts) were installed on the wall. There was a big whiteboard on the wall and a central system in the class that was used for songs and sounds. Teacher had a small table to put needed objects on it. All of class's time, she stood. Above her table, there was a small television set and a video. A window was in the class with a pink curtain. The window was opened during the class and parents observed what happened in the class and when children did not pay attention to their teacher, teacher pulled across to cover window. Of course, when teacher used curtain parents could hear the class and done the same as the teacher at home.

4. Control setting

Control class is small with two big windows that pink curtains covered them and parents were not allowed to observe teacher instruction. Between two windows, there was a bookcase full of institution files and children were not allowed to use them. There was a big whiteboard and teacher's table. Children had children-size chairs.

B. Materials

1. My First English Adventure' book

This package consists of pupil's book, activity books, picture cards, stickers, and audio CDs. The pupil's book consists of six lessons and each lesson has four main words.

2. "Jumpstart English" and "Baby Einstein"

1) *Jumpstart English*: Through fun activities and songs, Jumpstart Phonics Read & Rhyme encourages children to master each new word and sound as they progress through engaging activities. It is consisted of eight CDs: alphabet, reading adventure, geometry, numbers, time, and my magic playground. (Ebrahimi & Zamanian, 2013, p.155)

2) *Baby Einstein*: "Its focus is to create high quality, innovative products that bring the arts and humanities to babies in a way that is fun and appropriate to their age. The philosophy of this company is to engage babies and make discovery." (Baby Einstein's website, as cited in Ebrahimi & Zamanian, 2013, p. 155)

To have the same content for teaching some parts of each of these programs were used.

3. Achievement Test

It was an oral test, which was made of twenty items. Children answered questions one by one. Test was based on covering content in class, therefore it has content validity and two experts approved it. To have a reliable test, test retest is used with the same condition of study (number of students and consider their gender) and its reliability was 0.876.

C. Data Collection

1. Treatments

The classes were held for sixteen sessions, three days a week, and an hour each section.

1) *Group One (Using Game)*: the class was held on Saturdays, Mondays, and Wednesdays from 17 to 18 o'clock. Teacher used *My First English Adventure* book, songs, and plays. She utilized different games: role-play, play in yard, handicraft, pantomime, painting, and singing song. Teacher used appliances like crayons, painting colors, pictures, gum, scissors, colorful papers, mp3 systems, whiteboard, picture cards, stickers, and voice CDs.

Each section was begun by a song in *Hello*. Then teacher reviewed what she taught in previous session by picture cards. At the second part of the class time, she taught new lesson and in teaching, students were allowed to express their ideas and changed their seat in the class. Teacher listened to them and answered their questions. Then they had snack time. At the end, class's time was devoted to review new lesson.

2) *Group Two (Computer Group)*: this group's class was held on Saturdays, Mondays, and Wednesdays from 18 to 19 o'clock. This group worked with computers. Each pair of the children used one system and each student had one headphone. They sat around a rectangular table and saw each other. Teacher ran the program and they worked with it. They hear song, and played games like matching. At first part of class, teacher ran program to review. At this level students' name were written on the board. When they answered right, teacher drew a flower in front of their name. At the end of that program, teacher gave sticker to the best students.

At the second part, it was teacher who made decision about the best program because most of vocabularies were covered in both programs and the teacher used one of them for teaching part and the other for reviewing. Before second part of the class, the teacher gave explanation to the children about what they were faced. In this class, there was not any difference between types of words. Computer programs covered all vocabularies. Children were allowed to use computer program at home.

3) *Group Three (Control Group)*: control's class was held in Sundays, Tuesdays, and Thursdays on 18 to 19 o'clock. Teacher use the same book of game group. Class consisted of two parts: the first part referred to review prior lesson (teacher showed picture cards to children and asked questions in Persian, they repeat it in English several times), and at the second part teacher explained new expression first in Persian then in English. Control class was not equipped with voice systems, so teacher sang song by heart.

2. Posttest

This study included one posttest (see Appendix A). Before using the test, it was piloted with another group and its reliability was acceptable and two experts confirmed its validity. After sixteen sessions, children in three groups took part in the post-test. The test was oral and the students one by one answered teacher's questions.

V. RESULTS

A pilot study was conducted before gathering data in the same institution and with the same number of children. The aim was to evaluate the consistency of the post test. The test was administered twice with two weeks intervals. For this purpose, test-retest was employed.

TABLE 5.1.
RESULT OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENT OF PILOT STUDY

		pilot	pilot2
pilot	Pearson Correlation	1	.876**
	N	10	10
pilot2	Pearson Correlation	.876**	1
	N	10	10

As it is obvious, the test is reliable ($r = .876$). About the validity of test, it should be mentioned that the test is based on content of materials that is covered in the classrooms. Two experts scrutinized the test and confirmed its validity. When the reliability and validity of the test were confirmed, it was used as post-test and the results are as follows.

Addressing the First questions

TABLE 5.2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE POST-TEST FOR ACTIVITY GAME AND TRADITIONAL GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
game	10	9.2000	.29059
control	10	7.2000	.55377
Valid N (listwise)	10		

As table 5.2 shows activity game has a greater mean than the control group. Therefore, an independent sample *t*-test was run. The results were displayed in table 5.3.

TABLE 5.3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE POST-TEST FOR TWO GROUPS (ACTIVITY AND CONTROL)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Group	Equal variances assumed	4.571	.046	3.198	18	.005	2.00000
	Equal variances not assumed			3.198	13.607	.007	2.00000

Based on the table 5.3 the amount of sig. is .005, which is significant. In other words, there is significant difference between the two groups. In the other words, there was significant difference between control and game group in the knowledge of vocabularies.

Table 5.4 displays the descriptive statistics of the post-test for control and activity groups at sentence level.

TABLE 5.4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE POST-TEST FOR CONTROL AND ACTIVITY GROUPS AT SENTENCE LEVEL

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
game		10	9.7000	.21344
control		10	7.4000	.45216
	Valid N (listwise)	10		1.42984

As table 5.4 shows, activity game group has a greater mean than the control group. So, an independent sample *t*-test was run. The results are displayed in table 5.5.

TABLE 5.5.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE POST-TEST FOR TWO GROUPS (ACTIVITY AND CONTROL) AT SENTENCE LEVEL

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
group	Equal variances assumed	3.797	.067	4.600	18	.000	2.30000
	Equal variances not assumed			4.600	12.821	.001	2.30000

Based on table 5.5 the amount of *t* is 4.60, which is significant at the probability level of .000. so we can concluded that, there is significant difference between the two groups.

Addressing the second question

Table 5.6 displays the descriptive statistics of post-test scores between control and computer game group.

TABLE 5.6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF POST-TEST SCORES FOR THE CONTROL GROUP AND COMPUTER GAME GROUP

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
computer		10	8.6000	.37118
control		10	7.2000	.55377
	Valid N (listwise)	10		1.75119

As table 5.6 shows, computer game group has greater mean than the control group. In order to see if the difference is statistically significant or not, an independent sample *t*-test was run. The results are displayed in table 5.7.

TABLE 5.7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF POST-TEST SCORES FOR THE CONTROL GROUP AND COMPUTER GAME GROUP

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
group	Equal variances assumed	1.881	.187	2.100	18	.050	1.40000
	Equal variances not assumed			2.100	15.729	.052	1.40000

As table 5.7 shown, *t* is 2.100, which is not significant at the probability level of .50. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the two groups.

Table 5.8 displays the descriptive analysis of treatment for control and computer group.

TABLE 5.8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TREATMENT FOR THE CONTROL GROUP AND COMPUTER GROUP AT SENTENCE LEVEL

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
computer		10	8.3000	.36667
control		10	7.4000	.45216
	Valid N	10		1.42984

As table 5.8 shows, computer game group has greater mean than the control group. In order to see if the difference is statistically significant or not, an independent sample *t*-test was run. The results are displayed in table 5.9.

TABLE 5.9.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF POST-TEST SCORES FOR THE CONTROL GROUP AND COMPUTER GAME GROUP AT SENTENCE LEVEL

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
group	Equal variances assumed	.135	.718	1.546	18	.140	.90000
	Equal variances not assumed			1.546	17.263	.140	.90000

Based on table 5.9, the amount of *t* is 1.54, which is not significant at the probability level of .140. So, there is no significant difference between the two groups.

Addressing the third question

Table 5.10 represents descriptive data of two experimental groups based on post-test result.

TABLE 5.10.
DESCRIPTIVE DATA OF TWO GROUPS BASED ON POST-TEST RESULT

type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
game	10	9.2000	.91894
computer	10	8.6000	1.17379

According to table 5.10, there was a difference between the means. Therefore, independent sample *t*-test was run to determine whether the difference between mean scores were statistically significant. Table 5.11 shows the result of independent-samples *t*-test of two groups.

TABLE 5.11.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF POST-TEST SCORES FOR THE ACTIVITY GAME GROUP AND COMPUTER GAME GROUP

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
group	Equal variances assumed	1.000	.331	1.273	18	.219	.60000
	Equal variances not assumed			1.273	17.020	.220	.60000

The result of independent sample *t*-test shows that significant value (.219) is more than .05. In other words, this study found that there is no significant difference between two groups in using vocabulary and two methods have same effect on teaching vocabulary to children.

The last hypothesis refers to analysis of data of vocabularies employed into the sentences. The descriptive analysis of the collected data of the first part of achievement test (using vocabularies in sentences) is conveyed in table 5. 12.

TABLE 5. 12.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF USING VOCABULARIES IN SENTENCES

type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
game	10	9.7000	.67495
computer	10	7.2000	1.81353

As it is seen in Table 5.12, there is difference between two means; so independent sample *t*-test is used to determine whether the differences between mean scores are statistically considerable. The outcome of independent sample *t*-test is brought into table 5.13.

TABLE 5.13.
THE OUTCOME OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST AT SENTENCE LEVEL

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
group	Equal variances assumed	19.478	.000	4.086	18	.001	2.50000
	Equal variances not assumed			4.086	11.446	.002	2.50000

Based on table 5.13, the amount of *t* is 4.086, which is significant at the probability level of .001. In other words, there is a significant difference between the two groups.

VI. DISCUSSIONS

This study found that utilizing game language has a positive effect on children's learning. The result is in line with other researches like Turgut and Irgin (2009) which showed efficiency of activity games on the young learners' language learning and in another research by Connolly, Stansfield, and Hainey (2011, as cited in Ebrahimi & Zamanian,

2014) found that game-based language learning has made progressively significant contributions in helping to promote enhanced learning experiences within education.

Game language method helps students to employ vocabulary at sentence level. They used words at sentence level when they sang song, role-played, and even played at yard before and after the class. Their Parents reported that their child spoke in English with their dolls or taught them English vocabularies. It shows that they learned role-play at class and used it outside of the class.

The second question refers to if there was any difference between computer and control group. Based on table 5.9 and table 5.7, there was no difference between computer and control group in vocabulary learning and applying them in sentences. Therefore, “computer method was not more influential than traditional method of teaching words to children” (Ebrahimi & Zamanian, 2013, p.159).

The result is in line with Penna and Stara (2007) as they found “educational software and environments did not help students to learn more and better than in traditional training contexts” (p. 127).

As it was mentioned before, the main objectives of the study is to compare two experimental groups. The same as first question, there is not any significant difference between applying methods to help students to learn new vocabularies individually.

The results regards to last question confirms that computer programs cannot help children to use vocabularies in the correct form as a unified sentence. This result is in contrast with Berns, Gonzalez-Pardo, and Camacho (2013), Guillén-Nieto and Aleson-Carbonell (2012), Soylu ç ek (2011), Ayvaci and Deveciolu (2010), and Evreinova, Grigori Evreinov, and Raisamo (2008). All of these researchers arrived at the effectiveness of computer programs on the learning English but they just compared computer program with traditional method. The reason behind the difference between two groups at the sentence level and no significant difference at the level of individual words can be this point that children process (both comprehension and production) vocabularies better within the co-text.

VII. CONCLUSION

When conducting the study, a couple of the variables in the study were controlled. Gender was one of them; the number of boys and girls in each group were equal except the control group that included three boys and seven girls. This must be taken into account before any generalization can be made.

The first analysis conducted attempted to validate some of the ideas and suggestions of researchers such as Aghlara (2011), Gee (2007), Prensky (2005, 2006), and Squire (2004). The findings of those researches suggested that game (computer game or activity game) could be used as an effective instructional tool. The result of this study showed that although activity games significantly increased the participants test scores, it did not fare as well when compared to the increases found with the other instructional technique (computer game) at vocabulary level.

VIII. LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

One important limitation of this project was the small sample. The other limitation of the study was related to the institution’s environment. Sokhan institution is placed between two large apartments. Whenever students playing at yard, neighborhoods objected and students became silent or played at classroom. This situation made some changes in the game’s rules and students became frustrated.

APPENDIX A. POST-TEST

This is an oral test:

e.g. student’s name: Zahra

Teacher: hello

Zahra: hi

Teacher: what’s your name?

Zahra: I’ Zahra/ my name is Zahra

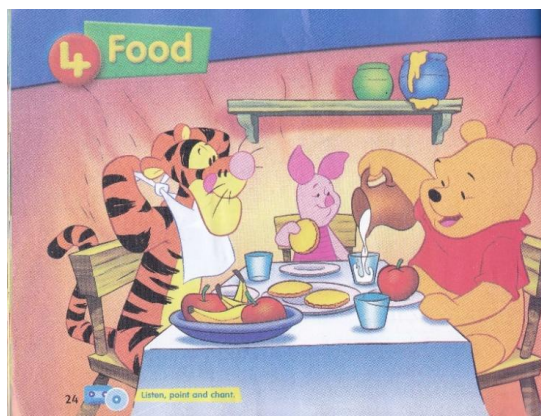
Teacher: Zahra, how are you?

Zahra: I’m fine

Teacher: Zahra, look at this picture:

A: how many apples do you see in the picture?

Zahra: three apples



B: (teacher point to the picture and ask) is there any fruit on the table or not? Zahra: yes

B2: so what kind of fruit it is? Zahra: banana

C: what color is it? Zahra: it is yellow

D: what is in the pig's hand? Zahra: it is a biscuit.

Teacher: Ok, please do whatever I say to you: (she sing a song): jump, jump, jump with me, jump up and down/ turn, turn, turn around, turn with me

Teacher: now do this: touch your head, touch your arms, and touch your legs

Teacher: Zahra, look at this: what is this? (Just name it)



Teacher: A house has Zahra: bedroom, bathroom, living room

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Types of Chinese Negative Transfer to English Learning and the Countermeasures

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Abstract—Based on the knowledge of language transfer and previous research achievements, the paper attempts to analyze the types of Chinese negative transfer and the countermeasures. By introducing the knowledge of Chinese negative transfer reflected at the levels of English pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, grammar, pragmatics and culture, the paper presents a relatively comprehensive study of the types of Chinese negative transfer. Meanwhile, the paper is organized in a logical way: identifying the problem, analyzing the problem and putting forward methods to solve the problem. This paper may serve to enrich language learners' knowledge of Chinese negative transfer to English learning. Meanwhile it provides learners with some practical measures to mitigate the effects of negative transfer. Knowing the differences between English and Chinese would help learners get rid of the interference of mother tongue. Consequently, learners' English proficiency and intercultural competence will be improved.

Index Terms—negative transfer of Chinese, English learning, types, countermeasures

I. INTRODUCTION

A. General Introduction to Language Transfer

It is commonly acknowledged that language transfer plays an increasingly important role in SLA. Rod Ellis (1999) pointed out that where there are differences between the L1 and L2, the learner's L1 knowledge would interfere with the L2; and where the L1 and L2 are similar, the L1 could actively aid L2 learning. The process which is responsible for this phenomenon is called language transfer. Accordingly, there are two types of language transfer: positive transfer and negative transfer, depending on the similarities and differences of language features. When L1 knowledge facilitates L2 learning, positive transfer occurs. For instance, Chinese learners of English have no difficulty in learning the English "S+V+O" sentence structure, because it corresponds to the Chinese structure "主+谓+宾" (subject + verb + object; zhu+wei+bin). So, it's easy for Chinese learners of English to express "我爱你" (I love you; wo ai ni) in English as "I love you". The other type of language transfer is negative transfer. It occurs when previous L1 knowledge impedes L2 learning. It's common to hear Chinese learners of English articulate /sæŋks/ when they pronounce the word "thanks". Actually the word is pronounced incorrectly. The correct pronunciation should be /θæŋks/. It is because there is only /s/ and no /θ/ in Chinese that Chinese learners pronounce the word in the wrong way. This is an example of negative transfer. Researches show that Chinese negative transfer is one of the majors causes of poor performance in English learning. Consequently, in order to become more successful in second language acquisition, learners are bound to know more about Chinese negative transfer to English learning.

B. Aims and Significance of This Paper

With China's increasingly active participation in globalization, English has been playing a more and more important role in our daily life. Not only can we use it in various bilateral and multilateral activities, but also we can use it in every day life: public signs, instructions, abbreviations, advertising, etc. Even though English is very popular, its use is not without problem. One of the problems is the negative influence of Chinese which is known as negative transfer. It is acknowledged that listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation are five fundamental skills to grasp in learning English. When English is used, it is inevitably influenced by Chinese. The influence can be found during the processes of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. This type of English which is influenced by Chinese is called Chinglish. Chinglish is very common in English learning. Here are several examples from translation:

人山人海 (huge crowds of people; ren shan ren hai) people mountain, people sea

我认为他不对。 (I don't think he is right; wo ren wei ta bu dui) I think he is not right.

我有时间。 (I'm free; wo you shi jian) I have a free time.

It's easy for Chinese learners of English to understand these English versions, because they are produced according to the Chinese expressions. However, for native English speakers, these versions are weird. Actually, the correct English versions should be:

人山人海 huge crowds of people

我认为他不对。 I don't think he is right.

我有时间。 I'm free.

Many translation errors are caused by negative transfer of L1. Some of them are so serious that they affect the relationship between countries. Therefore, it's of great significance to study the negative transfer of Chinese so as to enhance English learning and avoid unnecessary troubles. For this reason, a lot of researches have been done about the negative transfer of mother tongue. Even though the types of L1 negative transfer have been covered, they are not discussed comprehensively. L1 negative transfer can be found in almost every aspect of L2 learning: pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, grammar, pragmatics, culture, etc. L1 plays such an important role in L2 learning that many scholars take great interest in it. As the saying puts it, "Knowledge is infinite." So there is still much room left in the area of L1 negative transfer. Based on the study of Ellis (1999), Gass and Selinker (2008), Chen Huijun. (2006) and Wang Xuan (2010), this paper analyzes the types of L1 negative transfer to L2 learning from a relatively comprehensive perspective.

II. TYPES OF CHINESE NEGATIVE TRANSFER TO ENGLISH LEARNING

The phenomenon of L1 negative transfer is inevitable in the field of second language acquisition. The process of second language learning is so complex that language learners can not avoid making errors. Of the many factors which may lead to language errors, L1 negative transfer runs top on the list. Therefore, studying L1 negative transfer is of great importance. Inspired by the article of Lu Lihong(2011), the author explores the types of Chinese negative transfer at the levels of pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, grammar, pragmatics and culture.

A. Chinese Negative Transfer to English Pronunciation

Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Liu Runqing, & Wen Xu, 2006). Since language is vocal symbols, poor pronunciation often cause breakdowns in communication. Also as they say one needs to learn almost 100% of its pronunciation, 50-90% of its grammar, and only 1% vocabulary in order to speak a new language. So pronunciation is of fundamental value in learning a second language. Where the influence of L1 negative transfer is the most obvious is at the level of pronunciation.

As is known, English belongs to Indo-European language family while Chinese belongs to Sino-Tibetan language family; English is intonation language while Chinese is tone language. Phonemes in these two languages are organized in different ways. Some phonemes appear only in English and they are totally strange to Chinese students. Since Chinese learners have never met these phonemes before, when they pronounce these sounds for the first time, they tend to find a similar sound in Chinese to replace the sound in English. For instance, most Chinese pronounce the word "thanks" incorrectly as /sæŋks/ instead of /θæŋks /, because there is no dental sound /θ/ in Chinese. In this way Chinese negative transfer occurs in pronunciation. Other forms of negative transfer to pronunciation are included in the following content (Wu Ying, 2010; Yu Xuelei, & Bao Chengli, 2009; Yu Lixia, 2008).

(1) There is no consonant clusters in Chinese, because consonants are always separated by vowels. Consequently, when Chinese learners pronounce consonant clusters in English, they tend to add a vowel between the consonants. For example, the word "blue" is pronounced as /bəlu:/ instead of /blu:/.

(2) In Chinese language, the pronunciation of a word usually ends up with vowels, /n/ or /ng/, e.g. 拉 /la/, 看 /kan/, 胖 /pang/. As a result, when they articulate an English word, Chinese students tend to add a vowel at the end. So they pronounce the word "like" as /laikə/ with /ə/ added to the end.

(3) In English language, the sound /l/ is often placed before a consonant while there is no such a phenomenon in Chinese language. Therefore, Chinese learners always put a vowel between /l/ and the consonant or pronounce /l/ as a consonant. For instance, the word "milk" is often pronounced as /mɪlək/ or /mɪju:k/.

(4) Chinese learners tend to add vowels between the nasal plosive such as /tn/ and /dn/. The word "written" /rɪtɪn/ is pronounced incorrectly as /rɪtən/.

(5) The two sounds /θ/ and /ð/ appear only in English, so Chinese learners pronounce them as /s/ and /z/. For example "three" /θri:/ is replaced by /sri:/.

B. Chinese Negative Transfer to English Vocabulary

Vocabulary is often considered as the central part in language learning. Some beginners believe that if they learn the vocabulary well they are sure to learn the language well. So they take great efforts to learn the vocabulary. Even though they work very hard, they can't avoid making lexical errors. Many of these lexical errors are caused by L1 negative transfer. These lexical errors include the following types (Zhai Haixia, 2009; Wu Mingjun, 2004).

1. Negative Transfer of Word Meaning

It is taken for granted that every Chinese word has its corresponding form in English and the words which refer to the same thing in two languages exist in pairs. However, the truth is that Chinese words and English words are not symmetric. One Chinese word can have several corresponding forms in English in different situations. For instance, Chinese people often collocate the word "看" with different objects and say "看黑板" (look at the blackboard; kan hei ban), "看电视" (watch TV; kan dian shi), "看报纸" (read newspaper; kan bao zhi), "看朋友" (visit friends; kan peng you). In most situations, "看" is translated into "look". After they know "看黑板" is expressed as "look at the blackboard", they translate "看电视", "看报纸", "看朋友" as "look at TV", "look at newspaper" and "look at friends".

Actually, the correct forms should be “watch TV”, “read newspaper” and “visit friends”. The phrases “look at TV”, “look at newspaper” and “look at friends” are the products of Chinese negative transfer at the vocabulary level.

2. Lexical Redundancy

Lexical redundancy occurs when learners don't understand the meaning of the word in English and when learners are influenced by the equivalent Chinese phrase. For instance the Chinese word phrase “进入” (enter; jin ru) is often translated into “enter into”. In fact, “enter” alone can express the meaning. “Into” is added because of the Chinese word “入” (into; ru).

3. Misuse of Word Categories

Many Chinese learners try to remember English words by memorizing the meaning, pronunciation and spelling without paying attention to their categories. For example, the word “家” (home; jia) in Chinese is a noun, while its counterpart “home” in English can be used either as a noun or as an adverb. Beginners often translate the Chinese phrase “回家” (go home; hui jia) into “go to home”, because they think “home” and “家” belong to the same category. Actually, the word “家” here is used as a noun, while “home” is used as an adverb.

4. Inappropriate Collocations of Words

Many words which can be used together in Chinese may not be collocated in English. Chinese learners often ignore this phenomenon, thinking these words are used in the same way as in Chinese language. The influence of L1 negative transfer is quite obvious in word collocations. Here is an example:

Since Chinese people say “吃药” (take medicine; chi yao), they often express the same meaning in English by putting together “吃” (eat; chi) and “药” (medicine; yao), thus producing the phrase “eat medicine”. The correct form should be “take medicine” (Wu Mingjun, 2004).

5. Literal Translation of Words from Chinese to English

Polysemy is very common in many languages. A word may have different meanings in different situations. Language learners often think in his or her native language mode and translate the word literally, thus producing inappropriate target language. For example, “休息室” (sitting room; xiu xi shi) is literally translated into “rest room”. In fact, “rest room” is used as a synonym for washroom. The correct translation should be “sitting room”.

6. Misuse of Countable Nouns and Uncountable Nouns

Some words are countable in one language but not in the other. For instance, in Chinese language we say “一只羊” (one sheep; yi zhi yang), “两只羊” (two sheep; liang zhi yang), “三只羊” (three sheep; san zhi yang). The word “羊” (sheep; yang) is countable in Chinese. Consequently, learners would say “one sheep”, “two sheeps”, “three sheeps” in English. These are wrong English expressions influenced by Chinese features, because the word “sheep” is uncountable in English. When people want to express the concept of more than one sheep, they have to use the word “sheep” in its original form.

C. Chinese Negative Transfer to Syntax and Grammar

Syntactic negative transfer is another important type of L1 negative transfer. Since Chinese and English have huge differences in syntax, Chinese learners of English are very likely to make syntactic errors and these errors are the types of Chinese negative transfer at syntactic level. In addition, language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Liu Runqing, & Wen Xu, 2006). We say language is a system because elements in it are combined according to certain rules and principles. These rules and principles are called grammar. To some extent, syntax is part of grammar, so negative transfer at the two levels is introduced together. According to the studies of Fa Xiaoying (2011) and Lin Lin (2013), Chinese negative transfer to English learning at the level of syntax and grammar include the following types:

1. Word Order

Compared with Chinese, English word order is more flexible. The flexibility does create troubles for Chinese learners. In Chinese, the declarative sentence and interrogative sentence have almost the same word order. People can get an interrogative sentence by putting only one interrogative at the end of the sentence. For instance we can change the declarative sentence “你喜欢读书。” (You like reading books; ni xi huan du shu.) into an interrogative one by adding “吗” (a word used to form a question; ma) at the end of the sentence and get “你喜欢读书吗?” (Do you like reading books; ni xi huan du shu ma). However, things are quite different in English, because when people want to get an interrogative from a declarative they have to change the word order. For instance, the declarative “You like reading books.” is turned into an interrogative by changing the word order into “Do you like reading books?”. Adverbs are often placed before the verb in Chinese while in English they can be placed after the verb. For instance, the Chinese adverb “很” (to a high degree; hen) comes before the verb “想” (miss; xiang) in the sentence “我很想你。” (I miss you very much; wo hen xiang ni.). Influenced by this structure, Chinese learners express the same meaning in English as “I very much miss you.” This is obviously wrong. The correct form should be “I miss you very much.” Besides the above-mentioned types, there are other forms of negative transfer to word order, such as the incorrect placement of the attributive word and negative word.

2. Loss of Subject

Chinese is characterized by parataxis and its syntax is connected by invisible logical relations, not by those visible words. On the contrary, English is characterized by hypotaxis and its syntax is closely bound up with punctuation as well as other typographical devices. Chinese often omit the subject when the subject is clear in the situation, thus producing many sentences without subjects, which obviously violates the rules of English syntax. For instance, we Chinese often say “有空就来吧!” (when have time, come to visit me; you kong jiu lai ba”) to the interlocutors and they know what we mean is “如果有空你就来吧!” (When you have time, please come to visit me; ru guo you kong ni jiu lai ba!). Under the influence of Chinese habits, when learners want to express the same meaning, they produce “when have time, come to visit me.” This sentence is wrong, because it has no subject and it violates the rules of English syntax. The correct form should be “When you have time, please come to visit me.”

3. Misuse of Conjunctions in Complex Sentence

Since Chinese is a parataxis language, it relies strongly on logical conjunctions to express meanings. It is often the case that conjunctions in Chinese appear in pairs, such as “因为……所以” (because...so; yin wei...suo yi”), “虽然……但是” (even though...but; sui ran...dan shi). But in English complex sentences, one conjunction is enough. We Chinese say “因为在下雨，所以你不能出去。” (It’s raining, so you can’t go out; yin wei zai xia yu, suo yi ni bu neng chu qu.). When learners want to express the same meaning in English, they produce the sentence “Because it’s raining, so you can’t go out.” It’s Chinglish. The correct way to express this is “Because it’s raining, you can’t go out.” or “It’s raining, so you can’t go out.”

4. Theme-structured vs. Subject-predicate-structured

The basic structure mode of Chinese sentence is “topic + comment” while the basic structure mode of English is “subject + predicate” (Lv Juncui, 2009). Different structure modes lead to negative transfer. Affected by the Chinese structure mode, learners produce many Chinese-like English sentences.

When learners want to express “孩子们很难理解它。” (It’s difficult for kids to understand it; hai zi men hen nan li jie ta.) in English, they say “Kids are difficult to understand it.”. Actually the correct way to say this is “It’s difficult for kids to understand it.”

5. More than One Verbs in a Sentence

Different from English verbs, Chinese verbs don’t have inflectional forms and they remain unchanged. As a result, Chinese learners tend to say “有许多人支持他。” (Many people support him; you xu duo ren zhi chi ta.) in English as “There are many people support him.” Chinese language allows the co-occurrence of more than one verbs in a sentence, while English does not. One English sentence has only one verb and other verbs in the sentence should be used in their inflectional forms or used in a sentence submitted to the main sentence. So the correct version of the above Chinese sentence should be “Many people support him.” or “There are many people supporting him.”

6. Misuse of Verbs’ Tense and Number

As is known, English is a language with inflectional changes while Chinese is not. In Chinese, verbs don’t change in tense or person no matter when or whom the sentence refers to. For example:

我讲英语。(I speak English; wo jiang ying yu.) I speak English

你讲英语。(You speak English; ni jiang ying yu.) You speak English

他讲英语。(He speaks English; ta jiang ying yu.) He speak English

In the above sentences, the verb “讲” (speak; jiang) remains unchanged in Chinese which gives birth to the unchanged form of “speak” in English. This violates the English rule, because in the third sentence “speak” should be used in its third person singular form “speaks”. As for negative transfer to tense, the next example will illustrate the phenomenon well.

我看电视。(I watch TV; wo kan dian shi.) I watch TV.

我昨天看电视了。(I watched TV yesterday; wo zuo tian kan dian shi le.) I watch TV yesterday.

我明天看电视。(I’ll watch TV tomorrow; wo ming tian kan dian shi.) I watch TV tomorrow.

The three sentences indicate different time tenses. But as a result of Chinese negative transfer, the verb didn’t show any change in tense. This is absolutely incorrect. In the English language, time tense in the above sentences should be as follows:

我看电视。I watch TV.

我昨天看电视了。I watched TV yesterday.

我明天看电视。I will watch TV tomorrow.

7. Misuse of Voice

Since Chinese is a parataxis language, its passive voices are often expressed without using any passive marks. On the contrary, English uses passive structures a lot. Due to the negative transfer of Chinese, learners tend to omit the passive marks when they express a passive voice in English. Here is an example:

房间需要打扫。(The room needs to be cleaned; fang jian xu yao da sao.) The room needs to clean.

There is nothing wrong with the Chinese sentence, however the English one which is produced according to Chinese language feature is wrong. There should be passive voice marks in it. So the correct form should be:

房间需要打扫。The room needs to be cleaned.

8. Omission or Misuse of Functional Words

One of the difficulties for Chinese to learn English is the use of functional words. Two types of functional words are worth mentioning: prepositions and articles. Since there is no article in Chinese, when Chinese learners produce English sentence they tend to omit the articles.

地球围着太阳转。(The earth goes around the sun; di qiu wei zhe tai yang zhuan.) Earth goes around sun.

The English sentence is incorrect. According to English grammar, definite articles should be placed before unique things in the world, like the sun, the moon, the earth, the United States, etc. So the correct English version is:

地球围着太阳转。 The earth goes around the sun.

As for the misuse of prepositions, it's very common. Here is one example:

太阳从东方升起。(The sun rises in the east; tai yang cong dong fang sheng qi.) The sun rises from the east.

We know that the word “从” (cong) means “from” in English. So the preposition used here is “from”. Actually, this is ungrammatical. According to English grammar, it should be expressed in this way:

太阳从东方升起。 The sun rises in the east.

Besides the types mentioned above, there are other aspects of L1 negative transfer at the levels of syntax and grammar. Those aspects are left to be explored.

D. Chinese Negative Transfer to Pragmatics and Culture

Pragmatics is defined as the study of language in use. Due to different cultural backgrounds and life experiences, Chinese and English tend to use language in different ways. Consequently, it's easy for learners to suffer from pragmatic failure. Pragmatic failure refers to the inappropriate utterances that are caused by the ignorance of the target language norms and cultural background. To some extent, negative transfer at the levels of pragmatics and culture can be called pragmatic failure. Based on the studies of Jia Zhiyong (2005), Lin Lin (2013) and Liu Jinbao & Zhou Guiying (2007), the paper analyzes Chinese negative transfer to pragmatics and culture in the following way.

When they are praised, Chinese and English behave in different ways. Chinese often respond modestly by saying “I don't deserve it.” or “You praise me too much.”, while English just accept the good comment by saying “Thank you”. The following example illustrates this very well:

A: 你英文真好。(in ying wen zhen hao.) Your English is very good.

B: 哪里哪里。(na li na li.) You praise me too much.

This conversation sounds weird to native speakers, because they normally don't respond in this way. The native-like conversation is as follows:

A: Your English is very good.

B: Thank you.

Language is used for human communication. So for the sake of satisfactory communicating results, attentions should be paid to negative transfer. That is to say, not only should we know the types of negative transfer, but also we should find out methods to handle negative transfer. So, the rest part of the paper shall provide the readers with some fundamental countermeasures.

III. THE COUNTERMEASURES TO DEAL WITH CHINESE NEGATIVE TRANSFER TO ENGLISH LEARNING

Part one dealt with the introduction to negative transfer and part two analyzed the types of Chinese negative transfer to English learning. Part three will introduce some possible solutions.

A. Making Contrastive Analysis about the Major Differences between Chinese and English

Wang Li, an expert in education, once said, “The most efficient teaching method is teaching by the comparison of the two languages.” Second language learning and teaching can become more effective by comparing and contrasting the L1 and the L2. According to the works of Chen Huijun (2006), Tan Jiashan (2006) and Wang Xuan (2010) the paper concludes that contrastive analysis can be made between the two languages at the levels of pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, grammar, pragmatics and culture. Through contrastive analysis, learners can realize the differences and difficulties in learning a second language, thus paying more attention to what they need to learn. In this way, they can learn a second language with high efficiency. For instance, with the help of contrastive analysis, learners will be aware that articles is widely used in English but rarely used in Chinese. So whenever articles are needed, learners would concentrate on their usages, thus avoid making errors.

B. Enhancing Language Learning by Laying Solid Foundations of Basic Knowledge

As the saying puts it, “A thousand-li journey starts with the first step.” If one wants to climb a ladder he has to start from the bottom. It's the same with second language learning. If we want to learn it well, we should start from its basic knowledge (Liu Jinbao & Zhou Guiying, 2007). Listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation are five fundamental skills to grasp in learning English. No one skill should be ignored. They are of equal importance. For instance, listening ability can be strengthened by listening to native speakers' tapes, native news, watching TV programs broadcasted in native English language. The same listening material can be used over and over again, which is a very efficient way to improve listening ability. Only with enough input can learners produce output. Knowledge of

the five skills can be learned in class teaching and personal experience. Besides language knowledge, knowledge of other types is also important. If we are careful enough we can find that knowledge is everywhere.

C. *Knowing English Culture*

Language is the reflection of culture. This sentence perfectly illustrates the importance of culture in language learning. Many linguistic forms have their cultural origins. So it's necessary for language learners to know target language culture. Knowing English culture would help Chinese learners reduce the chances of making mistakes in learning English. Knowing English culture means knowing the following aspects of English speaking countries: geographical conditions, historical backgrounds, political policies, literary works, legends, religious beliefs, social customs, values and thinking modes, etc. All these cultural factors have undoubtedly exerted great influence on the English language.

D. *Making English Learning More Interesting and Providing Learners with Certain Strategies*

Many language learners agree that learning language is a tough job. Without proper guidance, learners would be fed up with English. Teachers should be clear about students' feelings and attitudes and make proper adjustments according to students' performance. As the saying puts it, "Give a man a fish, he eats for a day; teach him how to fish, he eats for a lifetime." So teachers should tell students how to learn instead of what to learn. This idea is of great importance in language learning.

IV. CONCLUSION

Through the above analysis, it is concluded that Chinese negative transfer to English learning exists at the levels of pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, grammar, pragmatics and culture. Since negative transfer would impede second language learning, countermeasures should be taken to minimize it. As learners, we should put ourselves in native speakers' shoes and try to think in their way, increasing authentic input, taking opportunities to put what we have learned into practice, and combining learning with application. In addition, language teachers should provide students with strategies to learn the target language, inspiring students' potential, telling them how to learn instead of what to learn. This conforms to the policy of "quality-oriented education" and "education for all-round development". Only in this way can we realize sustainable development of education.

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Teaching Metacognitive Strategies through Anderson's Model: Does It Affect EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension?

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Abstract—Metacognitive Strategies (MS), as one of the main categories of language learning strategies, are presumed to encourage higher-order thinking, autonomous learning, and, in all actuality, better learning. Based on this premise, this study attempts to investigate the effect of teaching MS on intermediate-level EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners' Listening Comprehension (LC). To fulfill this objective, a group of 130 male and female EFL learners, attending a TOEFL test preparation course, took a sample of Preliminary English Test (PET) as a proficiency test, and 90 of them were selected as homogeneous learners. This homogeneous group, then, took a LC (pre)test whose scores functioned as the basis for selecting a number of 60 male and female students, between the ages of 18 to 35 ($M_{age} = 26$), as the participants of this study. The participants were randomly assigned to two experimental groups and two control groups ($n = 15$ in each class). These four classes were instructed by four EFL teachers, employing the same textbook and content, over 18 sessions. Only the two experimental groups received MS training based on Anderson's 2002 model. At the end of the training course, a listening posttest was administered to all four classes. Analyzing the data through a *t*-test revealed that the two experimental groups significantly outperformed the other two control groups; accordingly, it was confirmed that teaching MS has a significant and positive impact on EFL learners' LC in this context. The study concludes with stating some pedagogical implications and highlighting some avenues for future research.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, language learning strategies, metacognitive strategies, strategy instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Acquiring language proficiency, either in the first language (L1) or the second language (L2), is believed to be deeply dependent upon individuals' receptive skills, i.e. listening and reading (Al-Issa, 2000; Hirsch, 2003; Wu-ping, 2006). More specifically, the ability to comprehend the aural input is perceived to determine, to a large extent, the quality and quantity of L2 learning and successful L2 communication (Celce-Murcia, 1997; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014a). This significant role has been highlighted in numerous studies which have explored the way listening comprehension contributes to and affects L2 learning (Atai & Ghotbeldin, 2011; Oxford, 1993; Vandergrift, 2008). That is why Celce-Murcia (ibid) maintains that listening comprehension "is not only an important skill by itself but also has a paramount role in oral proficiency" (p. 60).

Being able to decipher the aural input is believed to determine the ease with which ideas are exchanged among individuals and actual communication takes place (Rost, 2002). Anderson and Lynch (1988) confirm this notion by stating that "listening skills are as important as speaking skills; we cannot communicate face to face unless the two types of skill are developed in tandem" (p. 3). However, developing this skill might be difficult or even challenging for many L2 learners due to its unobservable and ephemeral nature (Vandergrift, 2008).

It is a widely-held opinion that language learners' unique mental factors and peculiarities are of paramount importance in the process of language learning (Fahim & Zaker, 2014; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2013, 2014b, 2015). Therefore, it can be argued that based on these individual-specific features, different listeners employ different mental processes and techniques in order to comprehend and give meaning to the input they are exposed to (Cohen, 2000). A major group of the mental capacities consists of the metacognitive techniques learners employ to facilitate dealing with the given task (O' Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2012). Therefore, on the basis of the abovementioned premises, it can be envisaged that different L2 learners vary in employing strategies and metacognitive processes in dealing with listening

tasks. Accordingly, offering a specific instruction on these higher-order thinking skills would assist L2 learners in dealing with the difficulty of comprehending the aural input (Chen, 2005; Dunkel, 1991).

According to Griffiths (2010), since 30 years ago and concurrent with the emergence of cognitive revolution, many researchers have explored the possibility that success in language learning might be related to the strategies students use, and many studies have investigated the way learning strategies and its components interact with learning and learner factors (e.g. Nosratinia, Saveiy, & Zaker, 2014; Nosratinia, Shakoori, & Zaker, 2013). In this new movement, it seems that behaviorism and behavioristic views have been overshadowed by cognitive views. Accordingly, many studies have attempted to explore the cognitive processes involved in different dimensions and types of learning, including language learning. Older studies in the domain of language learning mainly explored those behaviors of language learners which were externally observable. This trend was followed by the recognition of a strategic pattern in some learners' behaviors and attempts to study the way these strategic behaviors are related to language proficiency (Griffiths, 2007).

Strategies are defined as "the specific attacks that individuals make on a given problem, and that vary considerably within each individual" (Brown, 2007, p. 132). According to Chamot (2005, p. 112) strategies are "procedures that facilitate a learning task.... strategies are most often conscious and goal driven." When it comes to learning, strategies are defined as "any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (Wenden, 1987, p. 19). Learning strategies were also illustrated as "Special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Kupper, 1985, p. 1). Therefore, learning strategies were believed to be certain techniques employed to process different pieces of information which could develop comprehension, retention of the information, and learning.

Although previous accounts of learning strategies highlighted the products of learning and behaviors rooted in unobservable cognitive processes, more recent definitions provided a clearer understanding of the mental processes during language learning. To elaborate learning strategies further, Cohen (1998a) stated that:

Learning strategies are processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in actions taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language. (p. 4)

Language learning strategies have been classified by many professional experts. O'Malley et al. (1985, p. 582-584) categorized learning strategies under three main groups: a) Metacognitive Strategies, b) Cognitive Strategies, and c) Socioaffective Strategies.

Cognitive Strategies: Cognitive Strategies according to Brown (2007) are "more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself" (p. 134). It has been argued that repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, and inferencing are the major cognitive strategies.

Metacognitive Strategies (MS): O'Malley et al. (1985) argue that the term metacognitive indicates an executive function or a group of strategies which consists of planning for learning, reflection upon the learning process as it happens, self-assessment of production or comprehension, self-correction of mistakes, and evaluating learning after completing an activity. According to this classification, advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation are among the major MS.

Socioaffective Strategies: Socioaffective strategies are closely related to social-mediating activity and interacting with others. The major socioaffective strategies are cooperation and question for clarification (Brown, 2007).

Among other taxonomies and models available, it seems that the most comprehensive taxonomy of language learning strategies is the one proposed by Oxford (1990). Oxford (1990) suggested two main categories for language learning strategies: Direct Strategies and Indirect Strategies; they are, subsequently, subdivided into six classes. Direct strategies include Memory, Cognitive and Compensation strategies, and indirect strategies include Metacognitive, Affective and Social strategies. Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies is summarized below:

DIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Memory Strategies

- a) Creating mental linkages, Grouping, Associating/Elaborating, Contextualizing words
- b) Applying images and sounds, Imagery, Semantic Mapping, Keywords, Sounds in Memory
- c) Reviewing well, Reviewing after increasingly longer intervals of time
- d) Employing action, Physical response or sensation, Mechanical techniques

II. Cognitive Strategies

- a) Practicing, Repeating, Formally, Formulaic, Recombining, Naturalistically
- b) Receiving and sending messages, Getting the idea quickly, Using resources
- c) Analyzing and reasoning, Deductive, Expression analyzing, Contrastively across languages, Translating, Transferring
- d) Creating structure for input and output, Taking notes, Summarizing, Highlighting

III. Compensation Strategies

- a) Guessing intelligently; Using linguistic and other clues
- b) Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

Mother tongue, Help!, Gesture, Avoidance, Topic
Selection, Approximating, Coining words, Circumlocution

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Metacognitive Strategies

- a) Centering your learning, Overviewing and linking, Paying attention, Just listening
- b) Arranging and planning your learning, Meta-linguistics, Organizing, Setting goals, Identifying purposes, Planning for a task, Seeking times to practice
- c) Evaluating your learning, Self-monitoring, Self-evaluating

II. Affective Strategies

- a) Lowering your anxiety, Relaxation/meditation, Music, Laughter
- b) Encouraging yourself, Positive statements, Wise risk-taking, Rewarding yourself
- c) Taking your emotional temperature, Body awareness, Emotion checklist, Diary, Sharing feelings

III. Social Strategies

- a) Asking questions, Clarification/Verification, Correction
- b) Cooperating with others, Peer support, Interaction with native speakers
- c) Empathizing with others, Developing cultural understanding, Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Among the strategies mentioned above, MS are regarded as the most crucial strategies which affect learners' skills (Anderson, 1991). This point has been confirmed by O'Malley et al. (1985) who state that employing metacognitive approaches is essential for learners, enabling them to monitor their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions. On the other hand, it has been stated that possessing high levels of metacognitive awareness enables learners to become more autonomous language learners (Hauck, 2005). Table 1 presents some of the main examples of MS involved in learning.

TABLE 1.
METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES (AS CITED IN RASHTCHI & KEYVANFAR, 2010, P. 181)

Metacognitive strategies	Examples
Planning and organizing for learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Previewing the next unit of the course book • Deciding in advance to pay attention to general or specific aspects of language input
Finding ways to make learning more effective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making word cards • Categorizing words in semantic groups
Self-monitoring while learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reviewing one's notes while studying • Monitoring one's production of tenses while speaking
Evaluating one's work on language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading the teacher's comments and corrections on a written work • Checking one's writing for accuracy

Regarding the interaction between MS and listening comprehension, Yang (2009) argues that increasing metacognitive awareness assists listeners to accomplish listening tasks more effectively. Moreover, Vandergrift (1997) argued that employing MS such as inspecting the requirements of a listening task, actuating the appropriate listening processes, making proper predictions, and monitoring comprehension are the most important differences between a skilled and a less skilled listener. In a similar vein, Goh (2008) lists some of the positive effects of MS on listening comprehension and that weak listeners in particular benefit much from the training.

Training Models of Language Learning Strategies

Strategy training has been described as the process of explicitly teaching how, when, and why to exercise language learning strategies in order to improve learners' learning (Carrell, 1996; Cohen, 1998b; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). However, regarding the explicitness of the purpose in such a training program, a major question that crops up is whether to inform students of the value and purpose of the training or not (Wenden, 1987). There are two main types of explicit instruction, namely direct instruction and embedded instruction (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) or, put another way, informed training and blind training (Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione, 1983).

In direct/informed instruction, learners are advised of the advantage, intention, and importance of the strategies instructed. In other words, learners simultaneously become cognizant of the use of the strategy and its rationale (Oxford, 1989). In addition, learners are provided with feedback on their performance, enabling them to estimate the effectiveness of the process of training (Wenden, 1987). This type of has been favored by many researchers, such as Brown, Armbruster, and Baker (1986), Palincsar and Brown (1984), Weinstein and Mayer (1986), and Wenden (1987). On the other hand, in embedded instruction, learners are exposed to activities and materials intending to elicit the use of the target strategies, but the reasons are not clear for the learners (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 1987). The strategy instruction administered in the present study is of the direct type, i.e. participants in the experimental group were informed of the value, purpose, and importance of the MS taught.

Different models have been developed and utilized to teach learning strategies explicitly. One of these models was proposed by Anderson (2002). According to Anderson (2002, p.1), "Metacognition combines various attended thinking and reflective processes." Anderson further adds that metacognition can be divided into the following five major components:

1. Preparing and planning for learning,
2. Selecting and using learning strategies,
3. Monitoring strategy use,
4. Orchestrating various strategies, and
5. Evaluating strategy use and learning.

Each of these components is briefly discussed below:

1. *Preparing and planning for learning*: Learners reflect on what they need or want to achieve and how they are going to achieve it. Teachers may assist this reflection by explicitly defining the particular learning goals which are set for the class and helping the learners in setting their own learning goals. If goals are clearly articulated, it will be easier for the learners to measure their progress.

2. *Selecting and using learning strategies*: This important component deals with selecting and using particular strategies in a given context for a specific purpose. It is based on learners' thinking and making conscious decisions about the learning process.

3. *Monitoring strategy use*: This component enables students to direct their own progress. This component primarily deals with revisiting the way strategies are employed and making sure that the strategies are implemented correctly.

4. *Orchestrating various strategies*: The mastery of employing a number of strategies together is a crucial and influential metacognitive skill. Being able to coordinate, organize, and relate different strategies can make a distinction between strong and weak learning strategy users. Teachers might develop this ability in learners through introducing various available strategies.

5. *Evaluating strategy use and learning*: At this stage "students attempt to evaluate whether what they are doing is effective by means of self-questioning, debriefing discussions after strategies practice" (Goksun, 2010, p. 38). This ability can be developed by teachers through asking students to answer: a) What is s/he is trying to accomplish? b) What strategies is s/he employing? c) How well is s/he employing the strategies? and d) What other strategies can s/he employ? These questions address all of the aspects of metacognition stated earlier. In fact, these questions enable learners to reflect through the cycle of learning. At this step, all the steps stated above are revisited and evaluated. This is in line with Anderson's (2002) idea, stating that teachers should attempt to encourage using all of the components of metacognition.

To yield dependable results, strategy training needs to be carried out with in a well-constructed model. A review of strategy training models led to the decision that Anderson's (2002) model would best fit this study because the components of this model could well lend themselves to the strategy training of the Iranian students.

Moreover, there seems to be a consensus among many of L2 researchers that L2 learners do not tackle listening tasks effectively through employing strategies (Cohen, 2000). Furthermore, many L2 listening researchers have stated the concern that listening should be dealt with like a skill which requires using strategies, and, as a result, teaching students how to use these strategies would lead to development in their listening ability (Coşkun, 2010). Nevertheless, very few studies have investigated the impact of teaching different types of strategies on EFL learners' listening comprehension. Some researches have explored EFL learners' MS awareness through employing pertinent questionnaires (Akbari, 2003; Pishghadam, 2009; Salarifar & Pakdaman, 2010; Salehi & Farzad, 2003; Serri, Jafarpour Boroujeni, & Hesabi, 2012) and a limited number of studies (Coskun, 2010; Selamat, & Kaur Sidhu, 2012; Tabeei, Tabrizi, & Ahmadi, 2013; Tavakoli, Hashemi, & Rezazade, 2012) have employed a mixed method design to explore the way MS affect different aspects of learning. However, no study has addressed the impact of explicit instruction of MS on listening comprehension through a solely quantitative experimental design and employing Anderson's (2002) model. That being the case, the present study attempted to investigate the impact of teaching MS through Anderson's model on EFL learners' listening comprehension. To fulfill this purpose, the following research question was formulated:

Research Question: Does teaching MS have any statistically significant effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension?

II. METHOD

Participants

To accomplish the purpose of this study, 130 intermediate-level male and female EFL learners who were attending a TOEFL test preparation course in a language school in Karaj, Iran were selected. They came from different socio-economic backgrounds, and their educational levels varied from high school diploma to bachelor's degrees as well as master's degrees in different fields. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, a Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered to them. After analyzing the results, 90 students who scored within one SD above and below the mean were chosen as the homogeneous group and took the listening (pre)test whose scores functioned as the basis for selecting listening-wise homogeneous learners.

From the 90-member group, 60 learners (19 females, 32%, and 41 males, 68%) whose scores fell one SD above and below the mean were chosen as the participants of this study. Since 30 is a large number for the students in one class, these participants, who were between the ages of 18 to 35 ($M_{age} = 26$), were randomly assigned to two experimental groups ($n = 15$ in each class) and two control groups ($n = 15$ in each class). These four classes were instructed by four experienced EFL teachers, employing the same textbook and content, over 18 sessions.

The EFL teachers who participated in this study were 2 male and 2 female, between the ages of 26 to 36 ($M_{\text{age}} = 31$). One of the instructors, a female, was one of the researchers who with a male colleague delivered the instruction to the two experimental groups through Anderson's (1990) model whereas the control group had a 1 male and 1 female teachers (each teaching one 15-participant class) who followed the common teaching program.

Moreover, two trained raters who were MA holder in TEFL with five years of teaching experience attended in the assessment of the writing and speaking sections of PET based on the "General Mark Schemes for Writing" and "General Mark Schemes for Speaking" provided by Cambridge. Running a correlation coefficient between their given scores, on both writing and speaking sections, showed that there was a significant correlation between the two sets of scores; hence, the assumption of inter-rater reliability was met.

It should be mentioned that 30 other intermediate EFL learners, similar in their characteristics to the actual participants of this study, participated in the pilot study of the PET test, the listening pretest, and the listening posttest.

Instrumentation

All the participants in both experimental and control groups received 18 sessions of instruction based on *Longman Preparation Course for the TOEFL Test: The Paper Test, with Answer Key* by Phillips (2003) (parts A, B, C of listening section) as their course book.

Language Proficiency Test

The English language proficiency test used in the study for homogenizing the learners was a sample of the Preliminary English Test (PET) adopted from *PET Practice Tests with Key Pack* by Quintana (2004). The test consisted of three papers: paper 1 for reading/writing, paper 2 for listening, and paper 3 for speaking. The administration of the whole test took 120 minutes.

Writing Rating Scale

The rating scale employed in this study in order to rate the writing section of the PET test was the rating scale provided by Cambridge under the name of *General Mark Schemes for Writing*. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale, and scores ranged from 0 to 5.

Speaking Rating Scale

The employed rating scale for rating participants' oral proficiency was the official Cambridge *General Mark Schemes for Speaking*. Based on the introduced criterion in this rating scale, the speaking scores varied in the possible range of 0 to 5.

Listening Tests

Two listening tests were administrated in this study: a) a listening pretest for assessing participants' entry listening performance; and b) a listening posttest as the achievement test to estimate participants' exit listening performance. The first test was adopted from *Pre-test: TOEFL Diagnostic Pre-test*, Section 1, Part A; and the posttest from *Posttest: TOEFL Diagnostic Posttest*, Section 1, Part A. Each one has 30 four-option items.

Procedure

In order to select the homogenized participants of the study, the study began with piloting the PET test with 30 intermediate-level EFL learners with almost the same characteristics to the target sample before the actual administration. Once the test was modified following the piloting, it was administered to the 130 EFL learners. From this group, 90 EFL learners whose score fell between one SD below and above the mean were selected as homogeneous individuals. Thence, these 90 EFL learners took the listening pretest in order to ensure that those participating in the study are homogeneous in terms of their listening comprehension ability. The listening test had already been piloted using 30 students with almost the same characteristics to the target sample. Based on the obtained results, 60 learners whose scores fell one SD above and below the mean were chosen as the participants of this study.

Following this, the participants were randomly divided into two groups: experimental and control. Since it was not possible to have 30 participants in one class, there were two classes of 15 students in each group. All the participants were instructed employing the same material and the same amount of time. The only difference lay in the teaching of MS which was included in the experimental group. The course lasted for 18 sessions of 120 minutes, spanning over a period of six weeks.

Four experienced EFL teachers participated in this study to deliver the treatments. The first two teachers were assigned to teach the common teaching listening program for the control group. One of the researchers and the other teacher delivered the MS training for listening based on Anderson's (2002) model in the two experimental groups. Although the second MS teacher had enough experience in teaching listening comprehension courses, he was provided with three briefing sessions on the MS and Anderson's Model in order to make sure the treatment would be delivered as intended.

As mentioned before, metacognitive learning process, according to Anderson (2002, p. 1), can be divided into five primary components:

1. Preparing and planning for learning,
2. Selecting and using learning strategies,
3. Monitoring strategy use,
4. Orchestrating various strategies, and
5. Evaluating strategy use and learning.

Anderson (2002) believes that "teachers should model strategies for learners to follow in all five areas" (p. 1). A brief summary of each component is discussed below:

1. *Preparing and planning for learning*: Learners reflect on what they need or want to achieve and how they are going to achieve it. Teachers may assist this reflection by explicitly defining the particular learning goals which are set for the class and helping the learners in setting their own learning goals. If goals are clearly articulated, it will be easier for the learners to measure their progress.

2. *Selecting and using learning strategies*: This important component deals with selecting and using particular strategies in a given context for a specific purpose. It is based on learners' thinking and making conscious decisions about the learning process.

3. *Monitoring strategy use*: This component enables students to direct their own progress. This component primarily deals with revisiting the way strategies are employed and making sure that the strategies are implemented correctly.

4. *Orchestrating various strategies*: The mastery of employing a number of strategies together is a crucial and influential metacognitive skill. Being able to coordinate, organize, and relate different strategies can make a distinction between strong and weak learning strategy users. Teachers might develop this ability in learners through introducing various available strategies.

5. *Evaluating strategy use and learning*: At this stage "students attempt to evaluate whether what they are doing is effective by means of self-questioning, debriefing discussions after strategies practice" (Goksun, 2010, p. 38). This ability can be developed by teachers through asking students to answer: a) What is s/he trying to accomplish? b) What strategies is s/he employing? c) How well is s/he employing the strategies? and d) What other strategies can s/he employ? These questions address all of the aspects of metacognition stated earlier. In fact, these questions enable learners to reflect through the cycle of learning. At this step, all the steps stated above are revisited and evaluated.

In every session, one or two pertinent metacognitive listening strategies were introduced, explained, demonstrated, and practiced. The main MS strategies consisted of: Planning and arranging for listening tasks; Identifying and organizing purposes; Analyzing the requirements of a listening task; Advance organizers; Meta-linguistics; Note-taking; Grasping the main idea; Using contextual cues; Prediction; Directed attention; Selective attention for special aspects of a listening task; Activating the appropriate listening processes required; Paying attention and making appropriate predictions; Monitoring information to be remembered; Evaluating comprehension of listening activity; Seeking times to practice; Reflecting on and questioning the effectiveness of his/her actions; Self-evaluating and self-monitoring comprehension, errors and one's progress; and delayed production are included among the major MS.

Put another way, students prepared for strategies instruction by identifying their prior knowledge about and the use of specific strategies. The presentation of the strategies followed a direct, explicit, and informed manner. In each session, the target strategy was labeled and given a rationale. Students practiced, using the strategy with regular class activities and adequate opportunities were offered to compare and evaluate the strategies. Students self-evaluate their use of the learning strategy and the way the strategy assists them (Self-monitoring, self-evaluating, evaluating their leaning). The teachers checked participants' responses; if the participants did not understand the whole sentence which had been played for them, the teacher would try to elaborate them with the help of strategies the teacher had taught them.

In the control group, the common teaching techniques of the language school were followed for tackling listening tasks, i.e. no MS instruction was provided and practiced. The participants in the control group listened to the tape and, based on their understanding, they chose the most appropriate options. For those who had problems in understanding or made mistakes in choosing the alternatives, the teachers played the tape for more than one time and if necessary, they asked the students to repeat the words, phrases, and sentences. Therefore, based on the situation, the teachers clarified the points, but no strategic attempt was introduced.

At the end of the course, the listening posttest was administered whose scores were used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the mean scores of experimental and control groups after the treatment. Next section reports the gathered data along with the statistical analyses conducted to answer the research question.

III. RESULTS

This study set out to investigate the impact of MS instruction through Anderson's model (2002) on EFL learners' listening comprehension. In order to answer the research question of this experimental study, some statistical procedures were pursued which are thoroughly discussed below.

Piloting the Language Proficiency Test (PET)

At first, the PET test was piloted with 30 intermediate-level EFL learners whose characteristics were similar to that of the participants of the study. Thence, an NRT item analysis, including item facility and item discrimination, was carried out for each item. After omitting six malfunctioning items, the reliability of the test was estimated using Cronbach's alpha formula. The results of this analysis came out to be satisfactory (Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$; No. of items = 37).

Administering the PET Test

After completing the piloting process, the PET test, including four sections (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) was administered to 130 intermediate level students. Based on the obtained descriptive statistics ($n = 130$, $M = 71.7$, SD

= 10.17, *Skewness ratio* = 1.05) 90 students whose scores fell between one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected as the homogeneous group to take the listening test.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Scoring the PET Writing Section

There were two writing tasks in the PET writing test which, both rated by two qualified raters using the PET rating scale. The rating scale used in this study was the official *Cambridge General Mark Schemes for Writing*. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale, and scores ranged from 0 to 5. In order to calculate the inter-rater reliability between the raters, the researchers used Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient.

The results showed that there was a significant correlation between the raters' given scores on part two, $r = .55$, $n = 30$, $p < .05$, and part three, $r = .42$, $n = 30$, $p < .05$. This gave assurance to the researcher that the same raters can be used for the actual administration of the test.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Scoring the PET Speaking Section

The speaking part of the proficiency piloting test was also rated by two qualified raters using the PET rating scale. The rating scale used for this aim was the official *Cambridge General Mark Schemes for speaking*. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale, and the obtained scores ranged from 0 to 5.

The researchers used Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient in order to calculate the inter-rater reliability between the raters. The results showed that there was a significant correlation between the two raters $r = .70$, $n = 30$, $p < .05$. This gave assurance that the same raters can be used for the actual administration of the test.

Administering the Listening Pretest

Before starting the treatment phase, a listening pretest was administered to make sure that the participants bore no significant difference in terms of their listening ability before the treatment. The test was adopted from the *Pre-test: TOEFL Diagnostic Pre-test*, Section 1, Part A, and the rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale of the book. Prior to its real administration, this listening test was piloted with 30 intermediate-level students bearing almost the same characteristics as the target sample ($n = 30$, $M = 22.43$, $SD = 2.38$, *Skewness ratio* = -1.49).

As stated earlier, based on the scores they obtained on the PET test, 90 EFL learners were selected as the homogeneous individuals. Then, they took a listening pretest whose results functioned as the basis for selecting listening-wise homogeneous EFL learners as the participants of the study ($n = 90$, $M = 23.5$, $SD = 4.38$, *Skewness ratio* = -1.23).

Descriptive Statistics of the Listening Posttest Piloting

Prior to its real administration, the listening test was piloted with 30 intermediate-level students bearing almost the same characteristics as the target sample. After piloting, descriptive statistics was obtained ($n = 30$, $M = 19.43$, $SD = 2.29$, *Skewness ratio* = -1.49).

Descriptive Statistics of the Listening Posttest

Following the piloting of the posttest which observed no malfunctioning items, it was administered at the end of the treatment to both control and experimental groups. Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics for this administration in both groups with the means being 23.43 and 19.95 for the experimental and control groups respectively.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE LISTENING POSTTEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
Experimental Group	30	4.50	20.50	25.00	23.4333	.28135	1.54101	2.375	-.638	.427
Control Group	30	9.00	16.00	25.00	19.9500	.46507	2.54731	6.489	.413	.427

As shown in Table 2, the mean of the experimental group (23.43) was higher than that of the control group (19.95). However, further statistical analyses were required to see whether this difference was significant or not.

t-test Analysis of the Listening Posttest

In order to investigate the research question of this study, the researchers conducted an independent samples *t*-test. However, prior to this, the normality of distribution of the scores within each group had to be checked. Going back to Table 2, the skewness ratio was -1.49 (-0.638/ 0.427) while that of the Control group was 0.97 (0.413/ 0.427). Therefore, the distributions of scores in both groups were normal by virtue of the skewness ratios which fell within the normality range of ± 1.96 . Thus, the assumption of normality for *t*-test was met, and the researchers conducted an independent samples *t*-test. Table 3 presents the results of the *t*-test.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-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
Listening:	Equal variances assumed	6.565	.013	6.408	58	.000	3.48333	.54355	2.39529	4.57137
	Equal variances not assumed			6.408	47.719	.000	3.48333	.54355	2.39028	4.57639

The results of running the independent-samples *t*-test (see Table 3) which was conducted to compare the scores of the listening posttest between the experimental group (MS instruction) and the control group (no MS instruction) suggested that there was a significant difference in scores for the experimental group ($M = 23.43$, $SD = 1.54$) and the control group ($M = 19.95$, $SD = 2.54$; $t(48) = 6.40$, $p = .001$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = 3.48, CI : 2.39 to 39) was very large (eta squared = .41). Therefore, it was concluded that teaching MS have a significant effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension in this context.

IV. DISCUSSION

It is an agreed-upon fact that the ability to comprehend the aural input, i.e. listening comprehension, plays a determining role in L2 learning and successful L2 communication (Atai & Ghotbeldin, 2011; Celce-Murcia, 1997; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Oxford, 1993; Rost, 2002; Vandergrift, 2008). However, many have argued that developing this skill is challenging or even daunting for many L2 learners (Vandergrift, *ibid*). On the other hand, it is believed that MS, as a major group of the mental capacities (O' Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2012), and also the most essential one among language learning strategies (Anderson, 1991), can be employed to facilitate dealing with listening tasks. Therefore, offering a specific instruction on these higher-order thinking skills would assist L2 learners in dealing with the difficulty of comprehending the aural input (Chen, 2005; Dunkel, 1991).

Based on the abovementioned premises, this study attempted to investigate the effect of teaching MS, thought employing Anderson's (2002) model, on intermediate-level EFL learners' listening comprehension. To fulfill this purpose, the following research question was formulated:

Research Question: Does teaching MS have any statistically significant effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension?

This study began with administered a piloted PET test to 130 EFL learners. Based on learners' performance, 90 individuals were selected as homogeneous learners. Thence, they took a piloted listening (pre)test in order to ensure they are homogeneous in terms of their listening comprehension ability. Based on the obtained results, 60 learners were selected as the participants of this study and were randomly divided into two experimental and two control groups. The only treatment difference between the two groups lay in the teaching of MS in the two experimental groups.

At the end of the course, a piloted listening posttest was administered in order to investigate the effect of the treatments on the participants. The results of running an independent-samples *t*-test suggested that there was a significant difference in scores for the experimental group ($M = 23.43$, $SD = 1.54$) and the control group ($M = 19.95$, $SD = 2.54$; $t(48) = 6.40$, $p = .001$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = 3.48, CI : 2.39 to 39) was very large (eta squared = .41). Therefore, it was concluded that teaching MS has a significant and positive effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension in this context. In other words, the experimental group surpassed the control group in terms of listening performance at the end of the experiment.

This finding seems to confirm the results of another similar study in which Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) model was employed (Tabeei et al., 2013). Tabeei et al. (*ibid*) have delivered the MS instruction only in 6sessions which seems to bring about questions about the validity of findings (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Springer, 2010). Although the effect size was not reported in their study, based on the data provided in their report, the researchers of the present study could calculate the eta squared of their study which would make it possible to compare the findings of the two studies.

The calculated eta squared for Tabeei et al. (2013) was 0.022 which is a small to moderate effect size. When compared to the findings of this study (.41 > .022), it can be argued that the present study has observed a very large effect size in comparison with the previous study. This might be due to the following possible reasons: a) the participant pool in the previous study was smaller than the present study; b) the duration of the treatment in the previous study was 6 sessions which is a very small number when compared to a 18-session treatment; and c) instead of Anderson's (2002) model, Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) model has been employed which might have a different impact on participants' performance.

Based on the findings of this study, it seems reasonable to argue that EFL teachers should be cognizant of the significant role that strategy training plays in learning English, especially developing listening comprehension. EFL teachers need to realize that teaching involves more than the delivery of instruction. More specifically, in an EFL

setting, the procedures for tackling learning tasks through employing strategies should be encouraged and emphasized. Therefore, English teachers should attempt to integrate strategy training into the process of teaching and inform EFL learners about the nature of metacognitive strategies, the way they affect learning, the way listening tasks can be tackled by using these strategies, and the way these strategies can be employed to deal with other language skills.

From a pedagogical perspective, it seems reasonable to argue that the traditional view of listening instruction in which EFL students are exposed to the listening task without introducing higher-order thinking skills should be challenged and substituted by an approach in which strategies are accepted as the important components of the curriculum. Perhaps, carrying out other studies on the impact of metacognitive strategy training can develop our understanding of the peculiarities of metacognitive strategy instruction in an EFL context. In this regard, we believe that other studies should investigate the impact of strategy training on other language skills and through employing other training models. This way, EFL teachers, EFL syllabus designers, and even EFL learners will achieve a higher level of understanding about the capacity, features, and teachability of metacognitive strategies.

The goal of strategy training, according to Cohen (1998b), is to empower learners and allow them to take control of the learning process. This control can be exercised through employing MS. The current study has shown that metacognitive training can be an effective way of improving the listening comprehension of EFL learners. This facilitative role might be addressed officially by teachers, educators, and material developers or by any well-informed teacher who recognizes the difference that metacognition can make to the process of language learning. However, it should be borne in mind that the objective of strategy training is to develop learners' strategy systems, autonomy, self-direction and self-evaluation (Cohen, 1998b), which all underpin the process of language learning. Thus, more process-oriented and qualitative studies are needed to make fair evaluation of strategy training programs.

According to Vandergrift (2003b), if teachers intend to have an effective teaching and outcome, they need to go one step beyond the simple and ordinary instructions done in the classrooms. Their success is fulfilled in case they introduce and exercise learning strategies to develop learners' understanding of what they have been exposed to and how they can deal with different tasks and tests. To do so, EFL teachers are expected to play an active role in exploring the results and features of various studies on instructing strategies in L2 contexts. Moreover, through attempting to test the practicality of employing different strategy training methods, they should develop their own understanding of the issue, the practicality of strategy training in each specific context, the role of first language culture, and the pedagogical concerns pertinent to strategy training.

Curriculum and material developers should infuse strategy training into EFL materials and teacher-related materials. It is also reasonable and well-justified to incorporate awareness of MS into the body of prognostic tests of English courses, namely placement tests. This way, EFL teachers will achieve a higher level of understanding about the present state of learners regarding using metacognitive strategies. Based on this information, teachers will be able to adapt the strategy training instruction using the data related to every specific context (Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014b).

There are certain points which should be considered when discussing and attempting to interpret the abovementioned findings. The main limitation imposed on the findings of this study is the fact that learners were aware of the intention behind the MS instruction. Being aware of participating in a study increases the possibility that learners' performance be affected by Halo Effect and Hawthorne effect (i.e. wanting to please the researcher and higher level of motivation due to participation in a study respectively) which would undermine the validity and generalizability of the findings (Best & Kahn, 2006).

Further studies may replicate this study with a larger sample size. Moreover, it is suggested to inspect the effectiveness of MS instruction through Anderson's model in a context with equal number of male and female participants so that gender might not function as a potential confound. Besides, inspecting the way mental and personality factors are affected by MS instruction would reveal the nature of strategy training more. This study can also be replicated employing some qualitative instruments, e.g. interviews, in order to increase the validity and generalizability of the findings. Finally, it is suggested to replicate this study among other age groups.

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A Pre-symbolic Struggle: Pearl's Subject-construction in *The Scarlet Letter*

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Abstract—Being identified with the imaginary father to separate from the abject mother, Pearl in *The Scarlet Letter* is finally able to construct her subject. This paper takes an excursion into Kristevan exploration of how Pearl's subjectivity develops. It also reveals and analyzes Pearl's bewilderment and dilemma in the process of her subject construction.

Index Terms—subjectivity, symbolic, semiotic, abjection

I. INTRODUCTION

Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* is widely regarded not only as a moral, cultural, and religious masterpiece, but also of prescient psychoanalytic insight. The psychoanalytic reading of the novel includes the classic Freudian reading by Frederick C. Crews in *The Sins of the Fathers: Hawthorne's Psychological Themes* (1966), the Lacanian reading by James M. Mellard in "Nathaniel Hawthorne and Gender" (1989), and others. Hawthorne's romance "has become almost a paradigm for the psychological interpretation of other fiction." (Mellard, 2007, p. 66) In the late 1970s, Julia Kristeva, the French psychoanalyst, linguist, semiotician, began her psychoanalytic study. Drawing on both Freud and Lacan, modifying their view points, Kristeva walks out a complex and ambiguous road from a unique woman's perspective and does nonetheless provide a particular insightful model for analysis, though perhaps not more privileged nor prevail. This paper takes an excursion into Kristevan exploration of how Pearl's subjectivity develops in *The Scarlet Letter*. It also reveals and analyzes Pearl's bewilderment and dilemma in the process of her subject construction. The excursion starts with how Kristeva parts company with Lacan, and how Kristeva's theory radically expands on Lacan's.

II. THE SEMIOTIC CHORA: AN ENERGY ORIENTATION

Semiotic and chora are two fundamental concepts in Kristeva's psychoanalytic theory. According to her, when one attends to language within the signifying process, one may notice two ways or modes in which it operates: either as an expression of rational and explicit meaning, or as an imaginative re-creation of one's feeling and a discharge of inner drives. These two modes are respectively called *symbolic* and *semiotic*. Put it in another way, the symbolic means the communicative discourse, which includes the field of the sensible object. It is either a transparent representation or a clear idea. At the same time, the semiotic means the non-discursive nature of meaning and subjectivity, which embraces the less comprehensible: vague tone or unclear rhythm.

Chora is often used in conjunction with the concept of semiotic. Kristeva borrows the term from Plato's *Timaeus* to "denote an essentially mobile and extremely provisional articulation constituted by movements and their ephemeral stases" (Kristeva, 1984, p. 25). Plato meant by the term the original space of the universe, while Kristeva seems to identify the concept to each particular person, indicating a specific individual's confusion before he or she develops a stable personal identity. She downplays the Platonic view of the chora as amorphous, formless, and completely shaped to whatever fills it, in favor of Plato's view of the chora as the caregiver or wet-nurse of any being. In such an early psychological space defined by Kristeva, the infant child experiences a great amount of inner drives or energy that might be rather disorienting and destructive, and it finds shelter by its relation with his or her mother's body. The notion "the semiotic chora" proposed by Kristeva reminds the reader that meaning is produced within the space of the chora. The semiotic chora is an emotional field, which opposes the symbolic. In *The Scarlet Letter*, the forest in which Pearl merrily runs and plays could be regarded as a symbol for a large chora. It signifies the pursuit to happiness, love, and nature. As a prosperous part of nature, it is wild and generous.

In this wise, Kristeva moves away from the father-centered structures Lacan and Freud rely on and suggests that the infant child starts to learn the laws of the symbolic not just from its father, but also from its mother at an earlier stage. In *The Scarlet Letter*, Pearl, a child who solely knows her mother and nothing about her father, learns the ways of the symbolic from her mother Hester rather than her absent father. She is quite conscious about the fact that the only person she can rely on is her mother, when she exclaimed that "I am mother's child" (Hawthorne, 1984, p. 119) and "I have no heavenly father!" (p. 106) This is a fact that forces Pearl to rely on her mother. The child's energy could solely be oriented from Hester since there is no one else to take this role. The fact is consequently available in other situation. Insofar as the mother is the child's primary caregiver, the chora is a maternal space. The infant child orients its energy in relation to its mother, who has not become an "object" for the child's "subject". However, little Pearl is unconscious

about from whom would she derive her energy. In Lacan's terms, the child is in the imaginary realm; while in Freud's terms, the child is experiencing primary narcissism.

On the other hand, the mother is conscious about the caregiver and energy-spring role. Hester announces that she can teach the little girl what she has been taught by the scarlet letter. (p. 120) The mother provides an essential support to Pearl's subject development, despite of the absence of the child's father. Hester puts Pearl in the central position in her life, and she could notice every single change or development of the child. She could recognize Pearl's "wild, desperate, defiant mood, the flightiness of her temper, and even some of the very cloudshapes of gloom and despondency that had brooded in her heart." (p. 98) As a mother, Hester knows her daughter quite well, thus she could provide the child with any comforts or encouragement she needs. Interestingly, the mother and the daughter have an inter-subjective communication. Pearl acquires energy and inner-drive from the maternal body, while Hester also realizes her lasting life in Pearl. Even Hester's spirit "was perpetuated in Pearl" (p. 98).

Freud distinguishes between primary narcissism, which is what the infant experiences in the chora (to use Kristeva's term) and secondary narcissism, which is "a withdrawal of the ego from the world of objects even after the ego has been constituted and taken love objects" (Oliver, 1993, p. 71). Kristeva develops Freud's notion that primary narcissism is a structure. In her theory, the narcissistic structure provides a way for the child to start incorporating and thus mimicking what is other to itself, even before it has a concept of a self-other distinction. In this structure, the infant child imagines that mother's "breast", which in fact is an "other", belongs to itself. In Hawthorne's novel, the mother's breast is replaced by the scarlet letter that is always on Hester's bosom as part of the maternal body. The fact that the milk-producing organs and the scarlet letter are in the same position on Hester's chest verifies this conclusion. The letter A has been recognized to embody various meanings, from Adulteress to Angel, from Admirable to Artist. It enables an infinite space for imagination and explanation. But for Pearl, the scarlet letter is exactly the very first thing that she has noticed, just the same as mother's breast, and the letter A is everywhere in her life. This explains why when Pearl becomes anxious and frustrated when the letter is discarded by Hester. The girl feels threatened by the possible disappearance of the shelter she is used to living in.

III. THE PRE-SYMBOLIC DIMENSION: AN ALWAYS COMPANION

Different from Lacan, whose distinction among the realms of the imaginary, the symbolic and the real are "too rigidly demarcated" (Becker-Leckrone, 2005, p. 26), Kristeva argues that the imaginary is not a lost territory. On the contrary, it continues to be discernible in the semiotic mode of signification, thus the pre-symbolic dimension is never out of range. This is a major difference between Kristeva and Lacan in their psychological contributions. To use Lacan's terms, "[t]he semiotic, ... corresponds to phenomena that for Lacan are in both the real and the imaginary" (Guberman ed., 1996, p. 23). The semiotic chora, with its affect-driven modes of signification, remains a companion in the process of signification. That is, as the infant child takes up the symbolic disposition, it does not leave the semiotic behind. The semiotic will remain a constant companion to the symbolic in all its communications. Moreover, in Kristeva's theory, the symbolic does not always take up the most prominent position. Rather, the semiotic is not only a restriction within which one's subject develops, but also composed of a specific poetic language. "[I]t tends to gain the upper hand at the expense of thethetic and predicative constraints of the ego's judging consciousness" (Kristeva, 1980, p. 34). The semiotic has a potential to take an advantageous position in a seemingly definite identity. It announces that the speaking subject is not a stable one. He or she is something or someone else: what Kristeva defines as a *subject in process*.

To define the self-contradict subject, Kristeva restricts it within the psychoanalytic field. She refuses to admit that it is unitary. "[T]he unitary subject discovered by psychoanalysis is only one moment, a time of arrest, a stasis, exceeded and threatened by this movement" (Kristeva, 1998, p. 134). Any unity is momentary, and every subject is in process. This notion emphasizes the mobility of the subject and ensures the companionship of the semiotic chora.

This subject in process explains Pearl's hazard behavior. In the novel, the girl would always laugh loudly once and once again, just like a creature that is incapable and ignorant to human sorrow. (Hawthorne, p. 100) As remarked by the scholar Chillingworth: "There is no law, nor reverence for authority, no regard for human ordinances or opinions, right or wrong, mixed up with that child's composition" (p. 145). "Law", "authority", these are typical keywords for the symbolic. Ignorant to the orderly world, Pearl is still a child, full of the semiotic power and representation. Pearl's communication with the wild animals, restless birdlike movement, and breaking constantly into shouts of a wild, incoherent, and sharp music are other examples. It seems that little Pearl is more proficient in communicating with the wild, even barbaric creatures than with the civilized people. As a smart and innocent girl, she is curious about the world, in which wild behaviors are regarded as being driven by devils. Even her mother Hester is frightened when she doubts that Pearl is an elf rather than her own daughter. In fact, the girl is just presenting her nature that is driven by the semiotic chora. Indeed, she is "wild" compared with the other children, but it is relative with the fact that she has been refused by the orderly society in the first place. Being regarded as a mark and product of evil, poor Pearl is banished from the world since she was born. An invisible circle has been around her to separate her from the other children. However, Pearl's harmonious relation with nature indicates that she is part of nature. She bravely expresses her strong emotion to every natural thing. She has lived her life with the companion of the semiotic, and she will always be a subject in process.

Moreover, Hester herself is a complex unity of diversified power, an adult child being accompanied by the semiotic

under the symbolic appearance. From a traditional romantic perspective, she is regarded as a heroine symbolizing an ideal to pursue individual freedom and independence. While from a gothic viewpoint, she is a solitary individual who is expelled from the society, being threatened constantly by an invisible and potential hurt. Such contrasting recognitions make the image of the mother a mysterious complex. It also provides a historical thread to explain the origin of Hester's strength. To a certain extent, the mysteriousness could be read from the semiotic. One's subject is always in process, which develops with the fighting and cooperation of the symbolic and semiotic. Hester's apparent symbolic and orderly behavior is and will be accompanied by the semiotic and non-discursive one throughout her life.

IV. ABJECTION: BEFORE THE BEGINNING

Apart from the distinction among the three realms, Kristeva disagrees with Lacan about the point in time when the infant child begins to realize the difference between itself and its mother. She agrees that the mirror stage may indeed bring about a sense of unity. Nonetheless, she believes that the infant child starts to realize the difference between "I" and other even before the mirror stage. It has already begun to distinguish itself and others to develop the border between "I" and other. She posits this break at an earlier moment than the mirror stage, when the infant child begins to eject from itself what it finds unpleasant. "I abject *myself* within the same motion through which 'I' claim to establish myself." (Kristeva, 1982, p. 3) To abject indicates to expel what is once part of oneself, and such process is called *abjection*. The content of abjection is radically expelled but never banished altogether. Similar with the semiotic dimension, abjection is not simply a repression. It haunts both in the consciousness and the unconsciousness, and remains a revolting strength to threaten one's seemingly stable self.

Abject is proposed on the basis of the distinction of the semiotic and the symbolic. It is termed for what threatens the boundaries between "I" and other thus threatens the subject. Because abject is neither subject nor object, leading to a place where meaning no longer exists and self collapses. In *The Scarlet Letter*, the scene beside the brook in Chapter 19 has typically been quoted as a Lacanian mirror stage. When "(Pearl) peeped curiously into a pool, left by the retiring tide as a mirror for Pearl to see her face in" (Hawthorne, p. 183). The image, with the same face and curling hair, peeped back at Pearl out of the pool. The child felt being invited to enter the pool as a better place than the real world. "This image, so nearly identical with the living Pearl, seemed to communicate somewhat of its own shadowy and intangible quality to the child herself." (p. 227) The Lacanian readings regard the brook as a mirror, which is an opportunity for Pearl to know herself. When she sees that Hester discarded the scarlet letter, she refuses to come back until Hester wear it again. Pearl responds to the loss of the scarlet letter as if there is a fear of castration. However, in this famous and vital scene, the reader can easily find that at this moment, the other Pearl in the water has already become an "other", since Pearl held out her hand and invited to take the other girl's hand to run a race with her. She even communicates with the other girl by "flirting" with her. Pearl is eager to converse with this "other", which indicates the recognition of her "self". Her response afterward informs the fear of the loss of her mother. The situation becomes complicated in that on the one hand, Pearl is willing to identify the girl-image in the brook, on the other hand, she is reluctant to leave her mother behind. Her double-bind comes to a climax when she was "pointing her forefinger, first at the scarlet letter on her bosom, and then at the clergyman's own breast" (p. 159). She is willing to be identified with an "other", the imaginary father, but at the same time being in fear of the loss of her mother. The return of the letter makes her feel safe and erases her anxiety temporarily, for she cannot lose both at the same time.

The brook has no origin, just as Pearl know nothing about her father. Both of their lives are mysterious. Nonetheless, the most pointed case of abjection is the abject mother. The abjection first arises when the infant child is still in an imaginary union with its mother, before it has recognized its image in a mirror, and well before it begins to learn language and enter Lacan's symbolic realm. The infant child could not yet be regarded as a subject, even not quite yet on the boundary line of subjectivity. In order to get there, the child has to abject the mother's body, which is also the child's own origin. As Kelly Oliver (1993) writes, "The not-yet-subject with its not-yet, or no-longer, object maintains 'itself' as the abject" (p. 60). Abjection is nearly a way to expel the primary narcissistic identification with the mother.

The scarlet letter A is the symbol for the maternal body to little Pearl, as well as an object for abjection. She kisses it and decorates it to express her love to the letter. While on other occasions, she just hates it and attacks it. Here Pearl is in a dilemma. She longs for a narcissistic union with its first love and an urgency to renounce this union in order to become an independent subject. The same as the semiotic chora, this state of "maternal abjection" is an ever-lasting companion of consciousness. The infant child longs to draw back into the maternal chora with a deep anxiety over the possibility of losing her subjectivity. In order to become a subject, Pearl must renounce its identification with its mother; she must draw a line between herself and Hester. As Dimmesdale's peculiar fancy articulates: "this brook is the boundary between two worlds, and that thou canst never meet thy Pearl again." (Hawthorne, p. 227) Her Pearl back from the brook is no longer the original girl. The brook signifies the child's realization of otherness. But it is so difficult to identify her borders, for it was once in her and now here it is outside her.

V. THE IMAGINARY FATHER: THE IDENTIFICATION WITH ANOTHER

It is discussed in the first part that the infant child begins to comprehend the laws of the symbolic not only from its father but also from its mother, and the child relates its energy to its mother. In Freud's terms, the infant child is

experiencing primary narcissism. Kristeva develops Freud's later notion that it is a structure. In her theory, the narcissistic structure provides a way for the child to start incorporating and thus mimicking what is other to itself, even before it has a concept of a self-other distinction. This structure paves the way for the infant to become a subject in a signifying order. Kristeva draws both on Freud's idea of the "father of individual prehistory", and on the Lacanian notion that metaphor is one of the foremost mechanisms of the unconscious, to indicate what she calls *the imaginary father*. As John Lechte (1990) explains, the Imaginary Father is "the basis for the formation of a successful narcissistic structure" (p. 30). In the imaginary realm, while the child is beginning to lose its mother, it also begins to incorporate or identify with an imaginary father, a phantasm of the logic of identifying one thing with another. If the structure works successfully, the infant child will complete its separation from its mother while at the same time learning to use words to name what he has lost. "Primary identification initiates a compensation for the Thing and at the same time secures the subject to another dimension, that of imaginary adherence..." (Kristeva, 1989, pp. 13-14). The primary identification makes the subject believe that one object in the world could possibly stand in for another. Therefore the mother of both sound and image could be connected with a signified meaning. The primary identification gives the subject faith to believe that there will be consolation in the realm of signs.

Kristeva defined the pre-history father or pre-Oedipus father as pre-Oedipus mother. In that stage, the mother plays the role of both father and mother. The imaginary exists before the symbolic and the mirror stage. This symbol is not threatening. It is a combination of father and mother. Consequently, though regarded as an "other", the imaginary father is never opposite to the self. It is closer to the self, thus makes it rational to identify with it. During the process of Pearl's subject development, she is always longing for identification with her imaginary father in order to construct her subjectivity. Even when she was a poor baby, she "was affected by the same influence" with her imaginary father. (Hawthorne, p. 73) She stares vacantly at the minister, and held up its little arms with a murmur to him. Without self-consciousness, the child has already expressed her need and desire to hold a father. When Dimmesdale helps Hester defend her right to raise Pearl, Pearl takes his hand "in the grasp of both her own, laid her cheek against it; a caress so tender, and withal so unobtrusive" (p. 125). At this moment, even Hester the mother doubts whether it is Pearl or not. Both her restless inquiry to Dimmesdale about whether he will stay there with them for noontide the next day, and endless question on why he keep both hands over his heart express her desire to welcome and identify him with something other. From this perspective, the separation from the maternal body is not only a misery process, but also a delightful and desirous one. The infant child enters the society or language not only because of the father's threat, but also of his kindness.

Similar to Pearl, who deeply loves nature, Dimmesdale is a nature-enthusiast as well. Although he is somewhat afraid of their meeting in the forest, he is nonetheless longing for it. He even accepts Hester's suggestion to flee to the Britain, which testifies that he is also a father pursuing love and freedom. However, the appearance of the imaginary father in the brook scene is a misery to Pearl. Returning from her wandering, Pearl could not get back to her fertile and warm chora, even hardly knew her position. This either-or relationship with Dimmesdale confuses Pearl and traps her into dilemma. Besides, Hester refuses to tell the father's name, indicating a refusal to a father's authority in the family. Ignorance of the farther intensifies Pearl's dilemma. Until the last moment, when the scarlet letter appeared on Dimmesdale's chest, "Pearl kissed his lips. A spell was broken" (p. 279). The symbolic becomes the more powerful mode at this very moment.

VI. CONCLUSION

The Kristevan exploration of how Pearl's subjectivity develops in *The Scarlet Letter* demonstrates the four developments Kristeva contributes to psychoanalytic approach based on Freud and Lacan. It also reveals and analyzes Pearl's bewilderment and dilemma in the process of her subject construction. Being identified with the imaginary father to separate from the abject mother, Pearl is finally able to construct her subject. Like everyone else, Pearl's subject is and will be always in process; unlike everyone else, Pearl has experienced a typical mother-oriented development with the absence of her father. However, this subjectivity will be an on-going pre-symbolic struggle since the semiotic and the abjection will be always companions throughout her whole life.

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The Effect of Explicit Pronunciation Instruction on Listening Comprehension: Evidence from Iranian English Learners

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to examine the effect of two methods of instructing English words' pronunciations on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. Pretest-posttest design was employed to scrutinize the possible improvements of three classes of intermediate English learners (two experimental and one control group) as listening comprehension was concerned. A 25-item listening test was constructed inspired by the Cambridge Key English Test listening materials to measure students' listening ability. All groups were exposed to the same listening test as the pre and the post-test, however, only the experimental groups received the special treatment regarding the phonetic symbols and phonemic transcription, segmental features (group A) and supra-segmental features (group B). After the application of the study's treatment, data analysis process initiated which indicated that experimental groups who received explicit pronunciation instruction had a better performance than the control group on the final listening test. In addition, the findings suggested that the experimental group which received segmental pronunciation instruction had a better performance than the experimental group which received supra-segmental pronunciation instruction. Generally, the findings imply that pronunciation instruction can positively affect the listening comprehension ability of intermediate EFL learners.

Index Terms—pronunciation instruction, listening comprehension, segmental features, supra-segmental features

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most urgent problems facing non-native speakers of English is listening comprehension which it is usually the big obstacle on learner's way to achieve English language proficiency. Many non-native speakers have studied grammar and vocabulary for many years but are unable to speak like or at least near to native speakers. One of the reasons for this phenomenon is inability in pronouncing the sounds of words properly which consequently can affect on listening comprehension. Wei (2004) pointed out that even when the non-native speakers' vocabulary and grammar are excellent, if their pronunciation falls below a certain threshold level; they are unable to communicate effectively. If listeners can't differentiate between sounds, they may not be able to convert meaning. One of the reasons why listening is a difficult skill to acquire may be related to various features of spoken language like the use of intonation, tone of voice, rhythm, etc (e.g. Wei, 2004; Gilbert, 1995; Arvariti, 2009).

Although listening comprehension plays the important role in communication and it is one of the most vital skills in the English teaching and learning context, it has never received the priority it deserves. According to Gilbert (1995), listening comprehension attracted little attention in terms of both theory and practice, while the other three skills (reading, writing and speaking) received direct instruction attention, teachers often expect students to develop their listening skill by osmosis and without help. Arvariti (2009) have stated that when learners of English are asked about the most difficult English language skill, most of them would reply listening comprehension, also, there is evidence that this assumption is true (e.g., Echelberger, 2013).

To solve this problem, many different ways have been applied and many researchers and teachers used different techniques and strategies. Based on Hişmanoğlu (2006), pronunciation teaching is of great importance for successful oral communication to take place since it is an important ingredient of the communicative competence. On the other hand, the poor pronunciation can cause the misunderstanding in communication and the listener can't get the precise speaker's message in conversation and even in listening audio text. Hence, it is necessary that English pronunciation instruction should be viewed in the same light as the other aspects and skills of the English language.

Pourhosein (2011) stressed that the teaching of English words pronunciations has to aim at intelligible pronunciation considered as an essential component of communicative competence. The students should be encouraged to concentrate on right pronunciation and to check their own pronunciation in their speaking and reading. Teaching pronunciation can help to a better understanding of speakers and even improves their ability to speaking and communicate. According to

Ghorbani (2011), speech production is affected by speech perception. Also based on Hişmanoğlu (2006), pronunciation has remained one of the most difficult skills to teach and remained unknown in the classroom. In order to apprehend what is meant thoroughly, one has to be aware of the nature of spoken language which is directly related to the phonological features of the language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Relationship between Pronunciation Instruction and Listening Comprehension*

The importance of the pronunciation is undeniable and it inevitably determines the major part of the oral language. According to Hişmanoğlu (2006) sounds play an important role in communication, and pronunciation instruction is an essential factor in the field of foreign language teaching and teachers must attribute proper importance to teaching pronunciation in their classes. The communication is dependent on the speaker and the listener perceptual understanding which requires an intelligible pronunciation skill; in the view of Gebhard (1996) there is a close link between pronunciation and listening comprehension since the ability to perceive and produce speech requires the knowledge of sounds, intonation, and stress pattern and how speech is organized.

Kenworthy (1987) enhanced the importance of pronunciation teaching in terms of intelligibility. He indicated that foreign speakers need to be intelligible, so that they can communicate. Pronunciation instructing of sounds can help students to distinguish words from the passage in listening comprehension. Also work on supra-segmental features of pronunciation would be very useful for a learner in understanding longer utterances. Pronunciation instruction is of great importance for successful oral communication to take place since it is an important ingredient of the communicative competence (Hismanoglu, 2006). So in order to comprehend spoken messages, the learners should acquire how the sounds pronounced. Listener may to comprehend need to phonetic, phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information.

Harmer (1993) stressed on the need for gaining certitude that language learners can always be understood and says what they want to say. Students need to master “good pronunciation”, not perfect accents. Lundsteen (1979) have stated that listening is the first language skill to be appeared. Chronologically, children listen before they speak, speak before they read, and read before they write. Like reading, listening is member of receptive skills, and it is the basis for other skills, and also is necessary for second language as well as first language acquisition. Listening and speaking can't be separable; they are two sides of a coin. In fact, listening help to learning other skills especially speaking. To become a fluent speaker in English, advancing in listening skill is required. Listening not only help learners to understand what people are saying to them, it also helps them to speak clearly to other people. Lundsteen (1979) defined listening as the process in which spoken language changes into meaning in the mind.

The process of speech recognition is very complex, for example, Jahangard (2007) have stated that, “listening is attending to and interpreting oral language. The student should be able to hear oral speech in English, segment the stream of sounds, group them into lexical and syntactic units (words, phrases, sentences), and understand the message they convey” (p. 73). It shows that the listening is a complicated skill, and it requires to the precise and complete program to acquiring; it needs to apply appropriate techniques and procedures to progress.

Listening comprehension includes recognizing the sounds of speech and processing them into words and sentences. When learners listen, they use their ears to receive sounds (letters, stress, rhythm and intonation etc.), then focus on different features and instructing them can be effective for listening comprehension. Based on the research of Larsen-freeman (2000), effective listening requires concentration and the use of other senses - not just hearing the words spoken. Then people who have difficulty concentrating are typically poor listeners. Listening in second language should be taking more attention because it is very important for ability to receive messages accurately in any communicative process. Listening is a key to all effective communication, without the ability to listen effectively, messages are easily misunderstood and communication breaks down and the hearer can easily become frustrated or irritated.

B. *Pronunciation Instruction*

Due to the time restrictions on most courses for EFL, often the case of pronunciation teaching receives relatively the least attention. But since poor pronunciation may cause serious misunderstanding, it is important for teachers to know how provide pronunciation instruction in the classroom. Gilbert (1995) stated that the skills of listening comprehension and pronunciation are interdependent, if people can't hear English well; they are cut off from the language if they can't be understood easily, and they are cut off from conversation with native speakers. It is clear that the pronunciation integrated to listening and it should be considered. Since the pronunciation instruction is hard and time consuming, in the most of classrooms it has been neglected.

The function of pronunciation instruction is to provide students with the tools that they need to gain accurate control within the sound system that they are learning (McNamara, 2002). However, the role of pronunciation in the EL classroom and the most effective methods of instruction have long been debated. Throughout the 1940's to the 1960's, pronunciation was widely considered to be an essential skill in learning English, primarily taught through the system of audio-lingual methodology (McNamara, 2002). The underlying premise is that the goals of pronunciation instruction are, first, helping students acquire knowledge, awareness, and skills that will address intelligibility and comprehensibility while, second, promoting the use of effective communication strategies when engaging interlocutors

from diverse backgrounds (Moore, 2001; Nakashima, 2006). In the program presented by McNamara (12002), pronunciation is viewed as a process of modifying pre-existing sound patterns toward increased speech intelligibility. Theories of speech production and comprehension support the idea that L2 production is dependent upon the learner's ability to establish corresponding categories in the brain (Noske, 2011).

Gilbert (1995, p.1) described pronunciation as the "poor relation of the English language teaching world". In a survey of Canadian English language teachers, only 30% responded that they had any formal training in pronunciation pedagogy (Kansakar, 1998). Far too frequently, pronunciation instruction occurs at an intermediate or advanced level, where it has been considered to be "remedial training" and is an indication that the pronunciation levels of the learners in the class has fossilized at a fairly low level (Hesmangolu, 2001).

To speak a foreign language, learners should be aware of the phonological features of the language. This fact signals the importance of the pronunciation component in language learning and their effects on listening comprehension. Pronunciation is connected to language teaching and in recent years, pronunciation teaching by different ways auditory, visual, etc. has become very popular within the field of foreign language teaching. As Table 1 depicts phonetic features of English and their definitions (presented from Ladefoged (2006)) which can be broadly classified into two main categories of segmental and supra-segmentals based on which two approaches of pronunciation instruction were designed and applied in this study.

TABLE I.
PHONETIC FEATURES IN ENGLISH

Phonetic features of English	
Segmental features Segments are phonological units of the language, such as consonants which include stop, fricative, approximant, nasal etc. and vowels are include (a, o, u, i, e), diphthongs and triphthongs.	Supra-segmental features Supra-segmental features refer to those properties of an utterance that apply to groups of segments, rather than to individual segments
Consonants	voiced voiceless
Vowels	single
	diphthongs triphthongs
	Stress It refers to the use of extra respiratory energy during a syllable articulation. Intonation It refers to the rising and falling pitch over an utterance. Intonation can be defined as pitch movement in spoken utterances. Linking It refers to the way the last sound of one word is joined to the first sound of the next word. Assimilation This means one segment become more like another, or two segments become more like each other. The sound is assimilated because it is influenced by the place or the manner of articulation from the sound neighboring. Pitch the pitch of a sound is an auditory property that enables a listener to place it on a scale going from low to high, without considering its acoustic properties. Elision It refers to the omission of an unstressed vowel, consonant, or syllable. Rhythm the rhythm depends on some factors: one is where the stresses fall, but equally important are factors such as whether the language contrasts long and short vowels, whether sequences of vowels can occur, whether vowels in unstressed syllable can be reduced, and what syllabic structures are allowed.

This study intended to show the possible effect of teaching pronunciation on listening comprehension's improvement of a sample of EFL learners. Furthermore, the study tried to compare two methods of pronunciation instruction based on the final performance of the participants who underwent these two methods. It was an attempt to find reasonable answers to the following research questions:

- Does explicit pronunciation instruction of English words' have any effect on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension?
- Do different types of pronunciation instruction (segmental versus supra-segmental pronunciation instructions) have different effects on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 57 English learners of both genders at an English learning institute in Iran. They were at the intermediate level of English proficiency and studied at the levels 1 and 2 of True Colors series (Hesmangilu, 2011) while their ages ranged from 15 to 19.

The institute offered 6 hours of instruction for the learners weekly and each semester takes 7 weeks. The institute followed integrated skills approach; along with the core course, listening, reading, writing and speaking skills are

supplemented with particular activities for each skill. The classes are equipped with technological devices and the teachers make use of them constantly. Regular video classes are held in which students receive natural input through movies in English. Participants of the study were randomly selected and put in three groups, two experimental and one control. There were 19 learners in each experimental group, a total of 38 experimental students. Control group contained 19 students. The following Table shows the details about the participants.

TABLE II.
PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

Participants	Experimental group(A)	Experimental group(B)	Control group(C)
Male	8	7	9
Female	11	12	10
Total	19	19	19

B. Instruments and Materials

First, the listening subtest of Cambridge Key English Test 4- test one was used to homogenize the participants. The second set of instruments which used, were Cambridge Key English Test 4- test two which used as the pre-test and post-test. KETs are examination for students of other language studying English as a second or foreign language. They test reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The listening part of these tests which used in this research consisted of five parts which each part include five questions which made 25 questions in total. In first part participants listen to five short conversations. There is one question for each conversation which they should put a tick under the right answer. In second part, participants should listen to conversation and according to it; they should answer to the questions 6-10 and write the letter A-H next to each person. In third part, participants listen to another conversation and then should answer to questions 11-15 and tick A, B or C. In fourth part, they listen to another conversation and then should complete the questions 16-20. In the last part they should complete the questions 21-25 based on the heard conversation.

In addition, a TV set and a DVD player used as the audio-visual equipment. Also the other materials which used in this study include the chart which was a system of symbols for writing the sounds of English, a guide to these symbols along with videos to show how to pronounce each of the sounds. And also the researcher asked the students to use a good dictionary which was completed with the pronunciation transcription. The participants in different groups performed the following activities along term.

TABLE III.
CLASS ACTIVITIES OF THE STUDY'S PARTICIPANTS

Group	Activities
Experimental group A	1-regular activities according to course book. 2- Practicing the segmental features (consonant sounds, voiced, unvoiced, vowel sounds, single, and diphthongs). 3-listen to related materials. 4-the word transcription. 5-pronounced the words and repeating them.
Experimental group B	1-regular activities according to course book. 2- practicing the supra-segmental features (linking, intonation, stress, rhythm, assimilation, elision, pitch) 3-listen to related materials. 4-the word and sentences transcription. 5-pronounced the words and sentences and repeat them.
Control group C	Doing the regular program of institute without any special pronunciation instructing. Reading and vocabulary exercises.

C. Procedure

The pretest-posttest design was employed for the study's accomplishment. There were three groups (A, B and C). Groups "A and B" were the experimental and "C" was the control group. The listening pretest was administered to each group on study's commencement. Then, the treatment was held for seven weeks for experimental participants. Pronunciation practice of the segmental features (consonant sounds, voiced, unvoiced, vowel sounds, single, and diphthongs) as treatment for group "A" and practicing supra-segmental features (linking, intonation, stress, rhythm, assimilation, elision, pitch) as treatment for group "B". The participants in the experimental groups received half an hour of explicit instruction on pronunciation activities in every session; then, they listened to the related material audio. Then, the subjects asked to pronounce the words using their transcription. The final step was listening to the audio again in order to enhance listening ability. The subjects in the control group only listened to the same audio exercises without spending any time on pronunciation activities. To see the significance of the study's treatment, the same listening test was administered for the participants of all groups as the posttest at the end of the last session.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

In order to answer the research questions, two experimental groups (A and B) and one control group were formed. A pre-test was administered for the participants of all groups to see if the listening comprehension of the participants in both the control and the experimental groups were similar. After the pre-test, the experimental groups received a seven-week special pronunciation instruction. Meanwhile, the control group continued its regular classes offered by the institute. After seven weeks, all groups were taken the same test as the post-test which was administered to examine the possible improvement of the experimental participants at the end of seven-week instruction. To examine the pre-existing difference between the experimental and the control groups, the performances of control and experimental participants on listening comprehension pre-test were compared with the aid of a one-way ANOVA on study's commencement.

TABLE IV.
THE MEAN COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL PARTICIPANTS ON THE LISTENING PRE-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.368	2	.684	.222	.801
Within Groups	166.105	54	3.076		
Total	167.474	56			

According to the results of the ANOVA analysis there wasn't a statistically significant difference between the pre-test results of experimental participants and control participants ($p = .801 > .05$). After gaining certitude that the listening comprehension of all the participants was approximately similar the study's treatment began and its efficacy verified on the listening comprehension post-test. The descriptive statistics of the post-test showed that the mean for experimental group "A" was 20.42, for the experimental group "B" was 19.73 and for the control group "C" was 18.94, i.e. the mean of experimental groups were slightly higher than control group's mean. In order to see whether this difference is statistically significant, one-way ANOVA test analysis was ran.

TABLE V.
THE MEAN COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL PARTICIPANTS ON THE LISTENING POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	20.667	2	10.333	3.689	.032
Within Groups	151.263	54	2.801		
Total	171.930	56			

According to ANOVA analysis results there was a statistically significant difference between the post-test results of the experimental and the control participants ($p = 0.032 < .05$). This implied that that explicit pronunciation instruction brought about a significant improvement for the experimental participants. Figure 1 shows the means of the control and experimental participants on the listening comprehension pre and post-test.

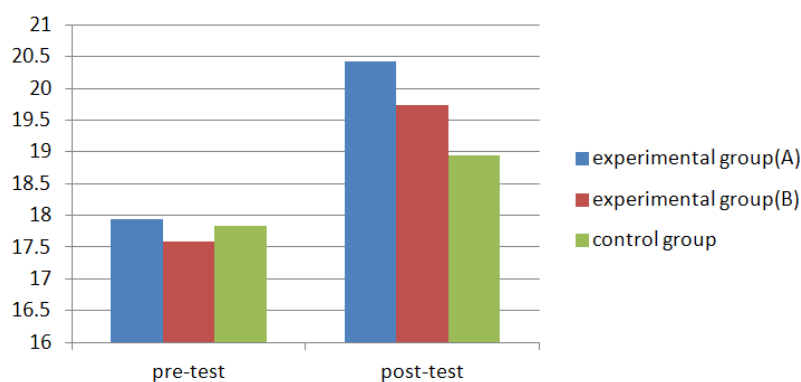


Figure I. Pre and post-test means of the experimental and control participants

Finally, the performance of experimental participants of two groups (groups "A" and "B") were compared on the listening post-test to find out which one of the pronunciation instruction types has been more successful in improving the learners listening proficiency. According to the descriptive statistics of the post-test the mean of experimental group "A" was slightly higher than the mean of experimental group "B". In order to see whether this difference is statistically significant, an independent sample *t*-test analysis was run.

TABLE VI.
THE MEAN COMPARISON OF THE TWO EXPERIMENTAL PARTICIPANTS ON THE LISTENING POST-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	6.491	.015	1.362	36	.182	.68421	.50238
Equal variances not assumed			1.362	29.359	.184	.68421	.50238

According to independent samples *t*-test results, there was not a statistically significant difference between the post-test results of experimental group “A” ($p = .182 > .05$). Although, this difference was not statistically significant but according to means of groups, it became clear that experimental group “A” performance was better than their peers in group “B” and this shows that segmental pronunciation instruction type has been more successful in improving the learners listening proficiency in compare to supra segmental pronunciation instruction type.

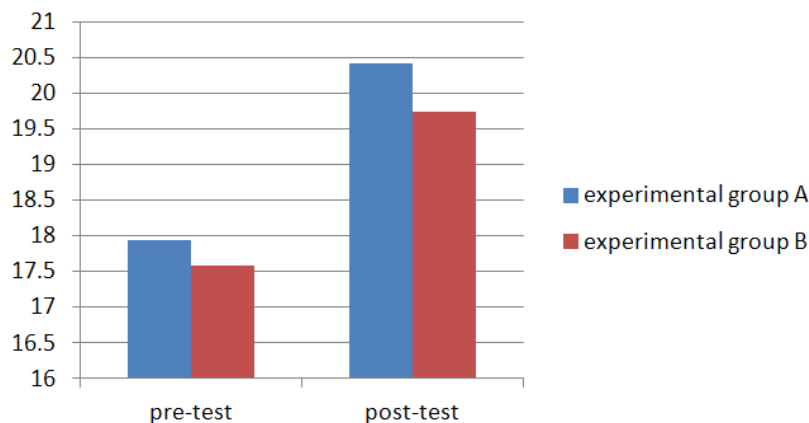


Figure II. Means comparison of the experimental participants who underwent two different approaches of pronunciation instruction

B. Discussion

According to the employed statistical analyses conducted by the researcher, there was a statistically significant betterment observed in the experimental participants after a seven-week of pronunciation instruction. In a similar way, the control group has also demonstrated a development after a seven-week of regular classes. The results suggested that pronunciation instruction has an effect on the listening comprehension skills of EFL students. Meanwhile, according to the findings, the experimental group “A” (segmental) has performed better in comparison with the other experimental group “B” (supra-segmental) although the difference was not statistically significant.

As mentioned earlier, the listening comprehension skill is a complex skill and requires a heavy processing. On the other hand, it is a crucial element in English language learning and how to develop listening is a subject of debate to many researchers. The good listener can be a good speaker and this skill can be affected on other skills. Learners should be trained in bottom-up and top-down processes, to use the both together because one alone is not enough to develop listening comprehension. However, using strategies alone will not aid in improving this complicated process.

According to literature, integrating various techniques into classrooms such as benefiting from authentic materials, and use of technology were useful to acquire this skill (e.g., Arvariti, 2009; Noske, 2011). Using technology can promote the development of listening comprehension by providing learners with compelling, interesting material (e.g., Poulston & Bruder, 1976) and it can also aid listening comprehension development by enhancing listening input (Nakashima, 2006). Using authentic materials include use of songs, TV serials, movies, documentaries; and using technology includes use of videos, computers, and the Internet.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of the study suggested that the experimental groups improved their listening comprehension significantly at the end of the seven-week pronunciation instructing. These increases may be attributed to the pronunciation instructing which these groups received. As suggested by the literature (e.g. McNamara, 2002; Gilbert, 1995), listening comprehension can be developed through training learners in the pronunciation. There have been very few studies into the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction (Kansakar, 1998) despite its obvious importance for successful communication.

The reason behind the effectiveness of the pronunciation instruction can be explained in reference to the literature on listening comprehension. The literature not only suggests integrating listening with pronunciation but also employing both the segmental and the supra-segmental features focusing on sound discrimination, intonation, stress, and so forth, all of which existed in the training. The pronunciation instruction in the present study included both the segmental and supra-segmental features of pronunciation.

In pronunciation teaching, researchers have also pointed out that L2 learners might not necessarily put into practice in spontaneous speech what they learn under controlled tasks (e.g., Gebhard, 1996; Jahangard, 2007). This is why a communicative component in pronunciation instruction has been advocated to develop fluent and comprehensible L2 speech (Hinkel, 2006).

In conclusion, the results of this study pointed out that explicit phonetic instruction benefits L2 learners overall, which confirms previous results. These results demonstrated that even adding only a relatively time-limited explicit

pronunciation component in a primarily communicative classroom can lead to beneficial results in production for learners. In addition, the qualitative analysis demonstrated that complex classroom interactions of instructional focus and teacher implementation can make a difference in learner development, as demonstrated in the differences in explicitness between the experimental and control groups in this study. Finally, although supra-segmental instruction is indeed necessary and important, the difference in outcomes between the two treatment groups suggests that explicit segmental instruction may give learners a better improvement in comprehensibility.

Pedagogical Implications

In light of the study's findings, it seems reasonable to accommodate the pronunciation components of English language teaching in class activities with a more attention given to the relationship between listening comprehension and pronunciation instruction since both skills contribute to each other. Pronunciation has been a neglected component of English language teaching, which has not received the attention. This negligence may be due to the lack of teachers' attention at language schools, or it may be because of time limitation in the classes. However, as this study has indicated, pronunciation plays an important role in the ELT world, particularly in developing listening comprehension.

There are a number of limitations to the present study suggesting that the findings should be interpreted with caution. This study was limited to 57 students that participated in the experiment at the institute. And in respect to the numbers of students, the researcher had to perform the experiment in two consequently period. And another limitation had to do with the shortage of time; the study had to be conducted in a limited time period, so the instructing lasted only seven weeks. Although some development has been observed in all groups, a seven-week period is not enough for a language skill to develop, especially for listening, which is one of the most difficult skills. Since, the classes participants were studying in were not determined by the researcher right before the research; they were already set by the institute at the beginning of the first semester. Therefore, individual differences among the classes were not controlled by the researchers, limiting the generalizability of the findings. Also, the present study was conducted only with intermediate level students; it may not be possible to generalize the findings since the results might change with different proficiency levels.

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Vague Language in Business Negotiation—From a Pragmatics Perspective

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Abstract—Business negotiation is a complex process of communication. It is generally believed that, using precise language is encouraged for fear of causing misunderstanding and inconvenience in business negotiation. However, from this point of view, it ignores a fact that vagueness is an inherent property of human language. Since the fuzzy theory was put forward in the 1960s, scholars have made much systematic researches on vague language from various perspectives only to find that the initial study on semantics can not thoroughly explain the linguistic phenomenon. So they preferred to a comprehensive and profound analysis from the perspective of pragmatics. Gradually, the pragmatic value and significance has been reflected. As a matter of fact, in business negotiation, using vague language has been regarded as a kind of frequently-used and effective negotiation strategy to achieve certain communicative purpose. As one of the pragmatic strategies in business negotiation, vague language is of great importance which should be highly expected. Therefore, the author hopes that the present study may be of some significance in enriching the researches on vague language. Meanwhile, the study can draw some inspiration to negotiators and some reference to business English teaching. Because the appropriate use of vagueness can help negotiators to communicate smoothly and achieve their goals successfully.

Index Terms—business negotiations, vagueness language, pragmatics

I. INTRODUCTION

The basic criteria of traditional linguistics are clearness and correctness. However, due to the ambiguous boundaries of objective entity and incomplete understanding on the different observed perspectives, it is inevitable to use vague language when we are inconsistent in using language. Vague language has never been given necessary attention to for a long time. Fuzzy linguistics was set up after American professor Zadeh proposed the concept of vagueness and created new scientific thought way. However, the study on pragmatic significance and functions of vagueness in Business English is far from enough. The previous studies on vagueness mainly focused on the framework of Grice's Politeness Principle, Leech's Politeness Principle and Verschueren's linguistic adaptation, interpreting vagueness from the perspectives of semantics, psychology, logic and cognitive context. Less attention has been paid, however, to the pragmatic motivations, functions and vagueness in business negotiation. Therefore, in order to make up this insufficiency, this paper hopes to have a good inspiration for business negotiators and business English teaching and learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Abroad Pragmatic Study on Vague Language in Business Negotiation*

As we know, the correct use of polite and considerate language will greatly promote the effect of negotiations and accelerate the realization of negotiating goals. A refined and courteous speech can make a negotiator set up an honest and enthusiastic image with good artistic appreciation and professional ethics in the eyes of the counterpart. Sometimes, to convey an intended message, for some reasons, the negotiator may partially flout certain maxims by using vague language. For years, pragmatics has been viewed as a branch of linguistics. This notion is challenged by Verschueren, secretary-general of the International Pragmatics Association, who argues in his latest work *Understanding Pragmatics* (Verschueren, 1999) that pragmatics is a perspective on language, social and the investigation of language phenomena should take the cognitive, cultural forces functioning into account in the employment and interpretation of language.

B. *The Pragmatic Study of Vague Language in Business Negotiation at Home*

The first person who introduced fuzzy-set theory to China is Wu Tiejing, who published the famous article about fuzzy linguistics entitled "Discussion about Fuzzy Language". In his work *Fuzzy Linguistics*, Wu Tiejing contributes seven pages to the discussion of vagueness, which mainly focuses on the classification of vagueness. Wu Tiejing studies vagueness mainly from the perspective of semantics. Finally the author studies the psychological motivations that partly account for the adoption of vague language. It is shown that the pragmatic functions vague language has can

properly serve the negotiators' communicative purposes. As well, there are still some specific studies, for example, from the angle of classifications and features of vague language employed in business negotiation: structural vagueness, hedges, question-answer type (Gan, 2005).

In summary, most of researches on vagueness are concentrated on the politeness principle, cooperative principle, adaptation theory and related theory, at the same time in semantics, pragmatics, psychology and cognitive research context are more detailed, but they are out of touch with reality of discourse, language material. This paper mainly from the perspective of vagueness in pragmatics combined with the specific case of business negotiation, to the purpose of using vagueness in business negotiation context more scientific, reasonable and systematic.

III. BUSINESS NEGOTIATION AND LANGUAGE FEATURES

A. *Business Negotiation*

As defined in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the word "negotiate" can express the following meanings: 1. to try to reach an agreement by formal discussion; 2. to arrange or agree something by formal discussion; 3. to successfully get over or past a difficult part on a path or route. And the word "negotiation" refers to a formal discussion between people who are trying to reach an agreement. Hence, in a negotiation, more than one party should be involved, and they must have both common and different interests and goals. For their final goal is to reach an agreement by discussion on their interests and goals, the negotiation should be a cooperation at the same time. In this process of cooperation, both parties should share common and open information and try to grasp the idea of each other. They are all hold equal status in negotiation and mutual benefits. This is the basic factor of business negotiation. Both parties should be sincere to each other since all parties involved are attempting for better negotiation result of win-win situation rather than a win-lose one.

Importantly, not all information and intentions should be released to other parties. Some flexibility and fluid are necessary in the process of negotiation. Also, all parties in a negotiation should be aware of their common and conflicting objectives and try to reach common and complementary goals acceptable to each of them. In business negotiation, all things are negotiable and each party in the negotiation should find a way to achieve the greatest concessions but leaving the other parties just enough to maintain them interested in the deal.

B. *Language Features in Business Negotiation*

Business negotiation is a commercial activity full of wisdom, courage, art and technique of wits. The wits are the negotiators language exchange process. The key to a successful business negotiation is to coordinate the various negotiation languages.

Business negotiation language includes audio language, paralanguage and written language. Audio language is spoken language, it is the main language of negotiation, because the negotiating table is a place where oral language highly centralized. Paralanguage refers to the nonverbal language and body language with spoken language. In addition, silence is also a kind of the language. Silence and body language constitute nonverbal language. In the process of negotiation, it sometimes can play an unexpected rule. In face-to-face negotiation, written negotiation language mainly refers to a language symbol file to formulate plans for negotiation, write negotiation scheme, record the negotiations. Sometimes, negotiation can not always reach a deal. It also needs correspondence consultations. So, correspondence is a kind of written language. Written language mainly plays the role of put down in black and white. A transaction cannot do without these three aspects' coordination. The reason why language users can make the appropriate choice in the process of using language is that language has variability, negotiability and adaptability. The three features are fundamentally linked together.

IV. VAGUENESS IN BUSINESS NEGOTIATION

This paper does detailed research and analysis in one of pragmatic strategies in business negotiations. Vagueness, as one of the pragmatic strategies plays an important role in business negotiation.

A. *Definition of Vagueness*

Qiu Tianhe (2000) pointed out that: In international business negotiations, sometimes due to inconvenience or unwilling to put their true thoughts exposed to each other, or to test each other's intentions, negotiators can use hedges to output vague information, avoid too sure, make the negotiators at ease, leave the necessary leeway.

There are two properties of vagueness, one is despite clear boundaries of the concept, but in fact it is difficult to define, the most typical example is used to describe the vocabulary of time, such as "morning", "afternoon", "evening", "night", "midday" etc. The boundaries between these words and phrases are ambiguity, there is a transition zone. This uncertainty also exists in the description of seasons. Another class of fuzzy language refers to the meaning expressed by itself is not completely determined the scope, description is actually a kind of the degree of relative concepts, understanding of its line is made according to different conditions. To understand this type of words can easily be the influenced by subjective factors. People of different age, cultural background will produce totally different understanding.

B. *The Classification of Vagueness*

According to He ziran, there are two kinds of vagueness called approximators and shields. The approximators can be divided into adaptors and rounders. Shields can be divided into direct and indirect hedges. According to the commodity exchange and business negotiation feature Gan Changyin in his paper "on fuzzy language in business negotiations" divide approximators into four types. They are commodity quality vagueness, commodity prices vagueness, time vagueness and other vagueness, on the basis of his study, the author list the number vagueness.

Commodity quality vagueness is used to describe the quality of commodity, such as good, high, superior, top excellent, reliable, acceptable, satisfactory, up to one's standard, (seriously)damaged etc. Commodity prices vagueness is used to describe the price of commodity, such as (most) favorable, (un)workable, attractive, reasonable, competitive, bottom/floor price etc.

Time vagueness is often involved in business negotiation. They refer to acceptance, delivery, shipment etc. vagueness, such as in a few days, in the near future, promptly, immediately, urgently, in recent years, as soon as possible, not later than etc. In order not to let each other know themselves, business negotiators often use number vagueness to vague supply orders sufficient or not. Such as quite, really, entirely, to some extent, a bit, a few, substantial, more or less, around, about etc. Other vagueness refers to the hedges except all above.

Direct vagueness, it mainly refers to negotiators' advice and opinions in uncertainty tone without exposing to the other. They are also called expressions of euphemism, such as I think, I believe, I assume, I suppose, I understand, as far as I know, I wonder, to tell the truth etc. Indirect vagueness involves three kinds of pronouns. The first person usually with passive tone, the second person usually express the conditions the other person has known, the third person often uses it as the subject to express the objective

For vague language, uncertainty, imprecision, relativity are its essential features. For example, the sentence "The price seems to be a little bit high" is a vague expression. In this sentence, "a little bit" and "high" can not tell the hearer how high the price is or the exact degree of "high". Also, the word "high" is being discussed corresponding to the notion of "low". Without the notion of "low", there isn't anything that we can describe it by "high".

V. PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF VAGUENESS IN BUSINESS NEGOTIATION

A. *Reasons for the Existence of Vague Language in Business Negotiation*

The human world is complex, so are the items in the objective world. Though the human language is full of content, it is limited to express all of the items all around the world. And sometimes it is hard for people to determine the boundaries or the scope of certain concepts. For example, in the sentence "I think it is a little expensive." Maybe nobody can define how much expensive and how much cheap as the boundaries of "expensive" and "cheap" is not clear. The very standard of being "expensive" and "a little" is not clear. In business negotiation, negotiators often use such kinds of vague expressions to convey their intentions without offending other parties. So in business negotiation, the speaker is sometimes unable to use precise expressions. Instead, the vague language is employed to save the negotiators from memory loss or lack of related knowledge.

But under some other circumstances, the use of vague language is owing to the speaker's unwillingness to be more precise when it is unnecessary to be precise or specific purposes must be achieved. Business negotiation is a complex activity. In business negotiation, sometimes, the negotiators have no authority or they are inconvenient to respond to some issues, then, vague language should be used. To promote business relations with other parties and realize commercial purposes, negotiators usually adopt vague language, for it enables to remove bad effects brought by being absolute, direct and open. Hence, we can see that the use of vague language is adopted mainly in the aspects of contextual influence in business negotiation and psychological factors of negotiators.

B. *The Main Factors Influencing Vagueness in Business Negotiation*

In the process of language expression, the speaker often conveys beyond the language itself, to achieve this objective, the speaker must master the vagueness language expression. In addition, the hearer must also have the ability to fully understand the significance of all speakers' expression. Besides the cognition rule, psychological factors influence people's using vagueness, there are other important factors that restrict people's speech behavior. Here are from H.P. Grice's Cooperative Principle and G. H. Leech's Politeness Principle to analysis the reasons leading to the use of vagueness in verbal communication.

In order to achieve successful communication, both conversation sides need to work together, follow certain principles. Linguist, H. P. Grice believes that both negotiation sides should abide by some principles of cooperation, in order to achieve the purpose of communication. The cooperative principle includes the following criteria: the first is maxim of quantity. The second is maxim of quality. The third is maxim of relevance. The fourth is maxim of manner. In business negotiation, people often use vagueness to violate one or more language criteria, to achieve a particular purpose.

The politeness principle can explain why people in verbal communication using hedges, euphemism, indirect and flexible expression. In terms of vagueness, if used properly, can make the word appear manners polite, make both parties get understanding and respect, which helps to achieve ideal communication. In daily communication, some speech actions threaten the other's face in essence, namely Face Threatening Acts. To have a face to each other, to

maintain good social relations, negotiations are conducted in a peaceful and friendly atmosphere, as a result, which will realize communicative purpose, then polite language play a significant role.

C. *Pragmatic Functions of Vagueness in Business Negotiation*

One of the characteristics of the application of vague language in BN is its being intentional and deliberate. If something is intentionally or purposely employed, it must have some special functions that others do not possess. The following is an analysis of these functions or effects, brought about by the application of vague language in BN. Based on the BN data so far collected, the functions brought about by the application of vague language can be condensed into five aspects, including, being flexible, giving the right amount of information, being persuasive, self-protection and being polite. And these functions are not strictly separated, sometimes they have overlapping areas.

D. *Pragmatic Motivations of Vagueness in Business Negotiation English*

The language of negotiation is full of fuzzy expressions. It is very common that vagueness may be used in the description of products or services. Theoretically speaking, vagueness can be interpreted as a source of potential deception in certain context. The following commonly used vagueness is likely to mislead the hearers in a text-based situation, such as virtually, almost, about, or so, etc. Negotiators also use vague language for self-protection, which is meant that vagueness can vague the relationship between the speaker and the audience. On the one hand, vagueness has been widely used as a way to reduce the risk of opposition and to protect the speakers. On the other hand, vagueness is used to create fuzziness or vagueness of certain statements in case being later shown to be wrong. However, to avoid taking responsibility later and for the purpose of protecting themselves, they will use vague expressions.

The previous analysis shows that negotiators use vagueness to avoid later negation and to escape from responsibility. Therefore, self-protection, as the instinct of all human beings, should be people's motivation to employ vagueness in negotiation.

VI. VAGUENESS IN BUSINESS NEGOTIATION ENGLISH TEACHING

A. *The Degree of Vagueness in Business Negotiations*

Qiu Tianhe (2000) points out that: In international business negotiations, sometimes due to some reason inconvenience or unwilling to put their true thoughts exposed to each other, or to test each other intentions, the negotiator can use vagueness to output vague information, avoid too sure, make the other feel at ease, leave the necessary leeway. Degree is decisive to the quantitative limits. The limit points to degree are called critical points. Qualitative change happens if quantitative change beyond the critical point, vice versa. (Wang, 1995) We can not only see vagueness play positive role in business negotiation but also pay attention to avoiding the negative effects. Vagueness whether used appropriate or decent depends on the vagueness degree the negotiators master. That is to say, vagueness in business must be controlled within vagueness degree, defined within the people can understand, and achieve the expected communication effect, otherwise it will cause language ambiguity.

Business English serve business activities as the goal, set practicality, professionalism and a clear purpose, and require accurate words, clear expression. Therefore, where must use the clear expression that we cannot adopt fuzzy expression, otherwise that will make incorrect judgment, restrict the right of information transmission, be easy to cause confusion and misunderstanding, result in negative effects.

Vagueness and precisions are the basic attributes of human language. Language fuzziness and accuracy were well interdependent in language system. Language communication requires both precise and vague, which is the same with business English. In different categories of business English, fuzzy language plays a variety of pragmatic functions. Vagueness pragmatic strategy has become an indispensable part of the international business negotiation. In the context of international business communications, properly using vagueness pragmatic strategy, grasping the degree of vagueness pragmatic strategy can make expression more flexible and vivid, make business English euphemism and accuracy. What is more, business English language can appear more rigorous and appropriate.

B. *Cultivate Using Vague Language in Business Negotiation*

Using vague language in business negotiation is an important ability. We favor Faerch and Kasper's point of view: teaching should be in all aspects of their consciousness of behavior, teach students the use of communication strategy, especially the use of oral English pragmatic strategies.

To better cultivate students the ability to use of vague language, first of all, we design choice task that should reflect real business negotiation activities, real communication purpose and the real role. Select tasks should not be too difficult or too easy, should according to the situation of the students, the task should let students feel the psychological pressure of real communication environment. Task design should follow the following principles: Reaction principle is that task needed to include knowledge and skills to process information, including the understanding, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, response, consultation and debate. In the process of the business mission to make the students experience how to utilize the positive pragmatic strategy.

Teaching methods from lectures or cramming education way to interactive activity pattern, let students participate in a lot of interactive language practice, to master foreign language communication skills. After determining the task and

the aim, we should create a real classroom context, stimulates the students' interest to participate in the activities. We can program the steps or phases interactive business activities in accordance with the business negotiation, provide more practice opportunities for students to better grasp the vagueness pragmatic strategy. Negotiation procedures generally include topic leads, express demand, bargaining, break the deadlock, concessions and agreement. According to the above each negotiation program or the whole negotiation program or negotiating style, social activities, the students pay attention to the negotiation process involved in the process of negotiating language features and language skills.

Vagueness pragmatics in business negotiation application enlightens our teaching. We should pay attention to the understanding of language and language expression, they are two different kinds of language information processing and their use of vagueness pragmatics are also having differences. Negotiators must pay attention to the communication object, to study the gender, age, educational level, occupation, faith, love, the pursuit, experience, personality and psychological characteristics. Negotiators pay attention to scene occasions: time, place, content, intention, and the relationship between the communicator level; pay attention to the social and cultural norms. Negotiators should according the specific situation to choosing the appropriate positive vagueness pragmatic strategy, prevent abuse vagueness strategy in all occasions, leading to a negative pragmatic failure. In foreign language teaching, we can use the explicit method of teaching, trains the student to deal with cross cultural strategy. Raise students' vagueness awareness and deal with communication difficulties in students' social language and vagueness language consciousness. Teachers at the early stage can give students knowledge of the mission and social vagueness pragmatic materials, guides the student to pay attention to the unpredictable situations. As a result, in the process of performing tasks students can experience social vagueness language, understand the intention of the speaker, and then choose the appropriate language and vagueness pragmatic strategy. After the participation and communication task, ask students to discuss and evaluate the use of vagueness pragmatic strategies, deepen the students' vagueness pragmatic consciousness.

In activities of foreign language teaching, we emphasize the independence and initiative of students. Students often observe and experience the use of vagueness pragmatic strategies actively through the independent participation in interactive activities. Students should be actively involved in the communicative classroom activities, observing others using appropriate vagueness strategies to solve problems to evaluate their different communicative effects and the advantages and disadvantages while using different vagueness strategies. The most important is that trying to communicate and contact with foreign teachers in higher English level, which uses the communication context and vagueness pragmatic strategy in practice.

VII. CONCLUSION

Vagueness is an important phenomenon of language. The present study focuses the attention on the vagueness pragmatic study in business negotiation English, which is an important yet has not pragmatic interpretation and functions been explored thoroughly. After probing several major findings are made. The pragmatic interpretation of vagueness in business negotiation English discourse and categories that appear most often discussed. The vagueness pragmatic motivations of hedging are found to be deception and self-protection. And the vagueness pragmatic functions in business negotiation English are found to be expressive, reliable and objective, flexible, efficient and polite.

There are several limitations in the present study. Firstly, it is a challenging job to collect data for a corpus analysis of a pragmatic phenomenon. Most of the reference books of the study are written by foreign researchers, and the examples in them are also from real business communication, all of which help to improve the reliability of the analysis and the result. Although much effort has been made in this respect, it still leaves much to be desired and the data collected are far from exhaustive. Secondly, similar to many linguistic studies, a major weakness is the lack of experimental support which makes the analyses more or less subjective. It would be better if the research also resorted to some experimental studies. Thirdly, the present study might also suffer from the problem of in exhaustiveness and over simplification to some degree. The analyses here are far from complete.

Further research is obviously demanded in the theoretical approach to vagueness where a number of issues remain unresolved. The most significant of these is to determine a means of more precisely distinguishing vagueness: a more principled means to differentiate examples and identity vague language uses is needed. In addition, the categories of vague language elaborated in the paper are far from inclusive. And the corpus study in a larger scale is required to make the study more objective and thorough.

In conclusion, vague language constitutes a rich and virtually valuable subject in linguistic analysis and further research of their forms, their frequencies and their functions in different contexts and cultures should be explored deeply in the future.

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On the Use of Apology Strategies by Iranian EFL Learners: Do Gender and Proficiency Level Matter?

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Abstract—The current body of knowledge presents a great emphasize on teaching EFL learners to become pragmatically competent. Despite such an emphasis on pragmatics competence, apology strategies in English and Persian have been ignored. Moreover, it is known that EFL learners' gender and level of proficiency affect the use of these strategies while second language communication. To this purpose, 120 EFL students from State and Azad universities of Zahedan and Zabol were selected (60 males and 60 females). Two instruments were used for collecting data including Oxford Placement Test and Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The participants were divided into three levels (pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate) based on their scores on the placement test, then they received DCT; they were required to provide the L2 equivalents of apology strategies depending on the communication situations. Data were tabulated and analyzed based on Olshtain and Cohen (1983) model. The results of the study showed that the most frequent used apology was IFIDs; (59%), Offer of Repair (15%), taking on Responsibility (8.3%), and Explanation or Account (7.17%). The findings further revealed that male and female respondents differed in the order of the secondary strategies they used. Females were intended to use intensifications twice more than males. Also it has been cleared that level of proficiency is a significant factor in determining the kind of the strategy an individual is intended to use. However the percentage of intensified IFIDs for males were increased by raising the level of proficiency, while decreasing happened for females by raising their level of proficiency.

Index Terms—pragmatic competence, speech act, apology strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Communicative competence, as a new approach to language teaching, has been broadly acknowledged by applied linguists as a response to inadequacy of linguistics competence theory and structural linguistics (Rodgers & Richards, 2001). Leung (2005) claims that communicative competence comprises of both linguistic competence and pragmatic competence. The main supposition of the communicative competence is that language learners should be linguistically, pragmatically, and socio-pragmatically competent so that they can communicate efficiently (Krasner, 1999). Pragmatics competence as one the constituents of communicative competence has been studied by many researchers. A significant matter within pragmatics which effects communication among the speakers from two dissimilar language backgrounds is speech acts. Apologizing as speech act has been stated to be significant in communication failures or success.

Viewing the related studies on pragmatics and speech act theories, it could be assumed that simple knowledge of any language is not sufficient. For one to communicate one's meaning properly, one should have both the social conventions and knowledge of the language that have an impact on it (Sharifian, 2005).

While a large number of researches done in apology, insufficient research done on apology strategies in Persian (e.g., Shariati and Chamani 2010, Karimnia & Afghari, 2012). The impact of the level of proficiency and gender of the language learners on the use of apology strategies has, to my best of knowledge given, little attention. Therefore, this study is an attempt to shed light on these issues on Iranian EFL learners' apology strategies use.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Pragmatic competence is the ability to communicate your proposed message with all its gradations in any socio-cultural context and to interpret the message of your interlocutor as it was intended. As serious as this ability is for communication success, it is often not given the emphasis it deserves in the teaching of a second language, with the result that second-language speakers, who absence pragmatic competence, may produce grammatically faultless speech that nonetheless miscarries to achieve its communicative aims (Fraser, 2010). Leech and Thomas categorized pragmatics into two constituents: Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics is the properties for carrying communicative acts and relational on interactive meanings. Leech (1990) described the sociological boundary of pragmatics, mentioning the social insights underlying contributor's clarification and enactment of unrestrained act (p.

10). According to Holms (2001) speech communities vary in gradation of their calculation of social distance and social power distance. Bardovi-Harlig (1996) claims pragmatic instruction can happen in the classroom. Rose and Kasper (2002) consider a variety of studies that verified the efficiency of teaching explicitly.

Bachman (1990) divides 'language competence' into two constituents: 'organizational' and 'pragmatic' competence. Organizational competence is the linguistic knowledge units and the rules that connecting them together at the levels of sentence. and discourse competence. Pragmatic competence has two type named; 'illocutionary ' and 'sociolinguistic' competence.

Utterances do not only cover words and grammar but they also carry actions. The term "speech act" is used to define an action such as apologizing, requesting, refusing, promising, informing, and questioning (Yule, 2006). For instance, if someone says "*I'll be there at six*", the utterance carries the speech act of promising. Allan (1996) splits speech acts into three main kinds: (a) locutionary act, which is embodied in the act of saying an utterance; (b) illocutionary act, which is the acknowledgement of the speaker's utterance, or as Searle (1979) puts it, they are efforts made by the speaker to make the hearer do something. For example, uttering a fact or attitude, confirming or rejecting something, giving advice or permission, requesting, asking, ordering, promising, offering, thanking, greeting, etc.; (c) perlocutionary act, which is the act done by the hearer that is formed by means of saying something, for example the act of closing the door is a perlocutionary act for the locutionary act "*Close the door.*" (Richards & Schmidt 2002, p. 315). Actually, speech acts are categorized in different ways. There is no best classification for them but researchers divide them along with their own findings.

Politeness is one of the notions that is linked directly to speech acts. Brown & Levinson (1987) and Lakoff (1973) deliberate politeness to be a universal notion that is in all languages. According to Lakoff, politeness has three main universal rules: "Don't impose, give options, and be friendly". He shows that only in the way the sequence in which they occur may vary from one language to another. Incidentally, Brown & Levinson (1987) indicate that the 'negative face' refers to one's desire for his actions not to be stopped by anyone while the 'positive face' refers to the situation when people suppose that their needs are accepted and desired by others.

Austin argues that locutionary act is differ from illocutionary act, and consequently the meaning study may remain self-sufficiently, but improved by an illocutionary theory of acts. Mey (2003) mentions that when someone says the sentence like: *It's cold in here*, he says that the weather is cold and nothing else, meanwhile the speaker utilizes locutionary part of competence. Illocutionary part refers to the act completion through words. Perlocutionary part refers to the resulting effect(s) from the statement. For hearer it may mean close up the door. Searle(in Levinson, 1983, p. 240) classifies the action we can do in speaking in five categories: (i) representatives, which force the speaker to the information of uttered offer such as concluding, asserting, etc. (ii) Directives, in which the speaker make the addressee do something such as ;questioning, requesting, etc. (iii) commissives, which obligate the speaker to some approaching sequence of action such as; offering ,threatening, promising. (iv) expressives, which shows the psychological state of utterer such as; apologizing, thanking, congratulating, welcoming (v) declarations, such as; declaring war, excommunicating, , firing from employment, christening.

In line with Austin and Searle's Speech Act Theory, a variety of related theories have been emerged for instance, Lakoff's politeness rules (1973), Leech's Politeness Principles (1983) and Grice's Theory of Conversational Implicature and Cooperative Principles (1989). The Cooperative Principle (CP) is made of four maxims which consist of quality, quantity, relation and manner (Grice, 1989), and the politeness rules are camaraderie, deference and formality, through two pragmatic competence rules: "be polite" and "be clear" (Lakoff, 1973). Leech constructs his theory of pragmatic and utilizes Politeness Principles which are intended to "minimize (equality of all things) the manifestation of impolite opinions; maximize (equality of all things) the manifestation of polite opinions" (Leech, 1983, p. 81).

The largest speech act study has been the cross-cultural speech act realization project (CCSARP) conducted by Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989). They focused on requests and apologies in five languages (i.e. Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew, and English) to establish patterns of realization for native speakers', compare speech acts through languages, and establish the similar and different patterns of realization of these acts between NSs and NNSs. The framework used by the CCSARP was replicated in later speech act studies (e.g. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Kasper, 1989) and led to a large body of comparable data from many more languages. Consequently, continuing debate between universality and culture-specificity in speech act realization appeared.

Dispite a variety of studies on apologies in other languages, merely a few researches have been done on apologies by Persian learners of English. Afghari (2007) conducted a study under title of "A socio pragmatic study of apology speech act realization patterns in Persian". He found similarities between Persian and English use of apology strategies. In line with the other western studies, he found that apology strategies in Persian fit with the structure of those findings of scholars like Olshtain and Cohen (1983) and, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, (1984).

Shariati and Chamani (2009) launched a study to explore and describe apology strategies in spoken of Persian language. They scrutinized 500 apology strategy exchanges. The results showed that Persian speakers used the same strategies in speech act set, however they used a demand for forgiveness (bebaxš'id) as IFID more than other apology strategies. Chamani and Zareipour (2010) launched a study to compare and contrast the apology strategies in British English and Persian. They used Persian corpus in order to collect data during one year. It was interesting that in the

British data males offered 46% and received 40% of the apologies while females performed 54% and received 42% of the apologies. Similarly, in the Persian corpus 50% of the apologies were performed by males and 50% by females while 49% of the apologies were directed toward males and 51% toward females. Thus, they concluded that there were no significant gender differences between the two language groups. Chamani and Zareipur (2010) also intended to analyze and contrast apology strategies and the events that motivated apologies in British English and Persian. The analysis demonstrated that hearing offenses in English (31%) and accidents in Persian (27%) elicited the highest rate of apologies. It was also found that both groups used the same apology strategies relatively with the same hierarchy. By focusing on intensifying strategies; Esmaili-Rasekh and Mardani (2010) investigated effectiveness of teaching apology strategies on development of pragmatic competence of EFL Learners. The outcome of the study shown that short, explicit, and interesting dialogues accompanied with illustrations should be apply in classrooms. Esmaili-Rasekh and Mardani (2010) asserted that the EFL learners convey their intensification strategies from L1 to express exaggerated utterances in L2. Farashian and Amirkhiz (2011) carried out a comparative study and analyzed the apology strategies used by Malaysian ESL learners and Iranian EFL in the same apology situations. Results of the study showed certain similarities and differences in terms of frequency and typology of strategies utilized by Iranian and Malaysian students. Shahrokhi and Jan (2012) investigated the apology speech act realization which are used by Iranian male native speakers. They classified and articulate the apology strategies used in their communications in numerous community settings. Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) were the most frequently used strategy in Persian language. The second frequent category of apology strategies among Persian male participants was taking on Responsibility (TOR). Explanation of Situation and Offer of Repair were the third and fourth strategies respectively.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants of the present study comprised of 120 Iranian undergraduate EFL students majoring in English literature, English Translation, and Teaching English (60 males and 60 females) from Universities in Sistan and Baluchestan province of Iran. They were at age range of 18- 25. At first 120 students were selected through convenience sampling. Then, a placement test was administered to all of them. Based on their scores on the placement, they were divided into three groups: pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate. 40 out of 120 were labeled as pre- intermediate and 40 were labeled intermediate and 40 upper-intermediate.

Procedure

Since this study followed an ex-post facto design to investigate the types of apology strategies which Iranian Language learners use, to identify the relationship between gender and language proficiency of the language learners and the apology strategies which they use, no special treatment was needed. Therefore, after selecting the participants and identifying their level of proficiency through the placement test, they were all required to take the discourse completion test. To this end, the current study was conducted in two consecutive sessions. In the first session, the participants took the proficiency test. In the second session, the participants were divided in three groups based on their performance on proficiency test (pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper- intermediate). Then they answered to the items in DCT. The collected data were analyzed through appropriate statistical procedures.

The data of the present were analyzed in different phases. At first the apology strategies used by the participants were analyzed. In doing so, different classification systems developed for the strategies of apology (Owen, 1983; Meier, 1992; Brown & Attardo, 2000) were reviewed. The data were investigated as stated by Olshtain and Cohen (1983), as well as the coding manual Blum-Kulka et al (1989).

Instruments

Two types of instruments were used in the present study: English proficiency test and Discourse Completion Test. Each is explained in details in the following section.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Overall strategies

Olshtain and Cohen (1983) strategies have been used as the basis of the analysis. Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) was the strategy most frequently used by male and female respondents across the sample. The use of "An expression of regret" was the most frequently strategy (32.2%) utilized by Iranian EFL students. The expression of regret "sorry or I'm sorry" is the most crucial and most frequently used strategy in the apology strategies, which was proved by the results of the current study and numerous studies have done before. (e.g. Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Bardovi-Harlig et al., 2008; Shahrokhi & Jan, 2010) viewing that it is the most regularly utilized strategy, and consequently is learned earlier. The second sub strategy which participants utilized was "request for forgiveness" strategy. In this study it gained the second position among apology strategies (16.5%). It is a matter of Persian culture which all Farsi speakers extensively use *bebaxšid* 'forgive' as a request for forgiveness (Chamani & Zareipur, 2010).

Table 1 reveals that 'offer of repair' is the third apology strategy that EFL learners tended to use (15%). It is because Iranian are sensitive to observe other people right and like to keep others' belongings safe, as a trustworthy behavior. Therefore if the damage is happened to others' belongings, promote a duty for offender to repair it in addition to

apologize. "An offer of apology" e.g. I apologize, was the fourth strategy (11.3%). All in all ,Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) were the most frequently used apology strategies in compare to other strategies.

TABLE1:
THE OVERALL APOLOGY STRATEGIES USED BY MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPANTS.

Category	NO./Percentage
A. PRIMERY STRATEGIES	////////////////////
(1)Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	////////////////////
a. An expression of regret	461/ 32.1%
b. An offer of apology	163/11.3%
c. A request for forgiveness	238/16.5%
(2)Explanation or Account	103/7.17%
(3)Taking on responsibility	////////////////////
a. Explicit self-blame	9/0.62%
b. Lack of intent	16/1.1%
c. Expression of self-deficiency	55/3.8%
d. Expression of Embarrassment	18/1.2%
e. Self-dispraise	2/0.13%
f. Justify hearer	9/0.62%
g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt	////////////////////
- Denial of responsibility	12/0.83%
- Blame the hearer	0
- Pretend to be offended	0
(4)Concern for the hearer	9/0.62%
(5)Offer of Repair	218/15.1%
(6)Promise of Forbearance	28/1.9%
SECONDRY STRATEGIES	////////////////////
Intensified IFDs	31/2.15%
Hope for forgiveness	13/0.90%
Thanking	33/2.29%
Brushing off incident as not important	10/0.69%
Silence	8/0.55%

In investigating the data, five other minor strategies were found. However four of them (Intensified IFDs, Hope for forgiveness, Thanking, Brushing off incident as not important) were considered as apology strategies by Sigmoto (1997). In addition the participants did not answer some situations properly. They wrote down "I become ashamed and I will say nothing." or "I stay silent, because s/he is my professor". These expressions showed that Iranian EFL students are very respectful to others especially when they are in a high status. Additionally, there is an expression of shame in Persian Language" s'armandam" (Shariati & Chamani, 2012), which does not exist in any so far investigated languages. So when an Iranian student tries to make an appropriate apology, s/he does not have" s'armandam" means: I am ashamed, as an apology strategy in L2, so s/he prefers to act as a polite person in Persian culture and be silent ; show his/her shame by facial expression.

It is worth to say, silence was L1 socio pragmatic strategy, appearing in L2 reproduction, thereby transfer from L1 to L2 was occurred.

Tabulating the data, we believed that the Iranian EFL learners use two or three apologies together. It is because of the feature of Iranian culture; for being more polite Persian speaker should try to use more than one apology strategy. Table 2 illustrated the frequency of combined apology strategies. It shows that "an expression of regret+ Offer of Repair" e. g. "I am sorry, I will repair it for you"(26%), is the most frequently used apology combination. Use of this combination is originated from the Islamic ethic; says "You should compensate the offense to someone's face or damage you caused for her/his belongings". Therefore, Iranian EFL learners do their best to satisfy the offended person by express their regret or apologize in addition to remedy the offense and compensate the damage they caused.

An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency (10.7%) was the second strategy combination used mostly by participants. Again, it is because of the cultural feature of Iranian families. In Iran most families construct based of the power of father as the head or the manager of the family, so all members of the family, especially children, should respect and obey father and also should be responsible in front of him; if they commit an offense or do wrong thing. Therefore, accepting the responsibility and expressing of self-deficiency is easier for Iranian people than other nationalities.

TABLE2:
OVERALL COMBINATION USE OF APOLOGY STRATEGIES (MALE AND FEMALE)

Category	NO./percentage
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency	11/7.3%
A request for forgiveness+ An offer of apology	14/9.3%
An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account	9/6.0%
A request for forgiveness+Offer of Repair	15/10.0%
A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair+ Intensified IFDs	2/1.3%
A request for forgiveness+ Explanation or Account	3/2.01%
An expression of regret+ Offer of Repair	40/26.8%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency	16/10.7%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Promise of Forbearance	3/2.01%
Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	3/2.01%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-blame	3/2.01%
An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	6/4.02%
An offer of apology+ Offer of Repair	10/6.7%
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Offer of Repair	5/6.0%
A request for forgiveness + Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	4/2.6
An expression of regret+ Self-dispraise	3/2.01%
An expression of regret+ Denial of responsibility	2/1.3%

A request for forgiveness+Offer of Repair (10%) is the third most utilized combined strategies, which is categorically so similar to the first combined apology strategy, encompasses all provided explanations.

Male used apology strategies

Single strategies

According to table 3 Iranian male EFL learners utilize the following strategies mostly: An expression of regret, a request for forgiveness, offer of Repair, an offer of apology, explanation or account (17.9%, 15.5%, 14.4%, 10.6%, 7.4% respectively).

TABLE3:
MALE USED STRATEGIES

Category	NO./Percentage
A. PRIMERY STRATEGIES	////////////////////////////////////
(1)Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	////////////////////////////////////
a. An expression of regret	210/ 27.9%
b. An offer of apology	80/10.6%
c. A request for forgiveness	117/15.5%
(2)Explanation or Account	56/7.4%
(3)Taking on responsibility	////////////////////////////////////
a. Explicit self-blame	5/0.66%
b. Lack of intent	5/0.66%
c. Expression of self-deficiency	29/3.8%
d. Expression of Embarrassment	5/0.66%
e. Self-dispraise	0
f. Justify hearer	0
g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt	////////////////////////////////////
- Denial of responsibility	7/0.93%
- Blame the hearer	0
- Pretend to be offended	0
(4)Concern for the hearer	9/1.1%
(5)Offer of Repair	109/14.4%
(6)Promise of Forbearance	16/2.1%
SECONDRY STRATEGIES	////////////////////////////////////
Intensified IFDs	7/.93%
Hope for forgiveness	12/1.5%
Thanking	12/2.9%
Brushing off incident as not important	3/0.39%
Silence	6/0.79%

Combined strategies

Table 4 shows different strategies and their frequency used by Iranian male EFL learners. an expression of regret + offer of repair (26%), a request for forgiveness+offer of repair (14.6%), a request for forgiveness + an offer of apology (12.1%), an expression of regret+ expression of self-deficiency(10.9%).

TABLE4:
MALE COMBINED STRATEGY

Category	NO./percentage
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency	6/7.3%
A request for forgiveness+ An offer of apology	10/12.1%
An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account	6/7.3%
A request for forgiveness+Offer of Repair	12/14.6%
A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair+ Intensified IFDs	0
A request for forgiveness+ Explanation or Account	2/2.4%
An expression of regret+ Offer of Repair	22/26.8%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency	9/10.9%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Promise of Forbearance	0/2.4%
Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	0
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-blame	2/2.4%
An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	2/0.30%
An offer of apology+ Offer of Repair	0
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Offer of Repair	5/6.0%
A request for forgiveness + Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	0
An expression of regret+ Self-dispraise	0
An expression of regret+ Denial of responsibility	0

Female used apology strategies

Single strategies

Observing table 5 reveals that the most frequently apology strategies Iranian females use are the same to males. The most highly used apology strategies are: an expression of regret (37.9%), offer of repair (16.4), an offer of apology (12.5%), and a request for forgiveness (10.1%).

TABLE5:
FEMALE USED APOLOGY STRATEGIES (SINGLE APPLICATION)

Category	NO./percentage
A. PRIMERY STRATEGIES	////////////////////////////////////
(1)Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	////////////////////////////////////
a. An expression of regret	251/ 37.9%
b. An offer of apology	83/12.5%
c. A request for forgiveness	67/10.1%
(2)Explanation or Account	47/7.1%
(3)Taking on responsibility	////////////////////////////////////
a. Explicit self-blame	5/0.75%
b. Lack of intent	11/1.6%
c. Expression of self-deficiency	21/3.1%
d. Expression of Embarrassment	13/1.9%
e. Self-dispraise	2/0.30%
f. Justify hearer	0
g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt	////////////////////////////////////
- Denial of responsibility	5/0.75%
- Blame the hearer	0
- Pretend to be offended	0
(4)Concern for the hearer	0
(5)Offer of Repair	109/16.4%
(6)Promise of Forbearance	12/1.8%
SECONDRY STRATEGIES	////////////////////////////////////
Intensified IFDs	17/2.5%
Hope for forgiveness	1/0.15%
Thanking	11/1.6%
Brushing off incident as not important	4/0.60%
Silence	2/0.30%

Female combined strategies

Table 6 shows that most Iranian females who utilized combined strategies are intended to apply "An expression of regret + Offer of Repair (30.7%)" e.g. I 'm sorry I will buy another one for you ,while "An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency (15.3%)" e. g. I am sorry, it's my fault, stands at the second position of application. An expression of regret+ A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair (7.6%) e. g. Sorry ,please forgive me, I will pay all cost of repairing it; which is a triple strategy, is the third strategy applied by females.

TABLE6:
FEMALE COMBINED APOLOGY STRATEGIES

Category	NO./percentage
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency	1/1.9%
A request for forgiveness+ An offer of apology	3/ 5.7%
An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account	1/1.9%
A request for forgiveness+Offer of Repair	2/3.8%
A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair+ Intensified IFDs	1/1.9%
A request for forgiveness+ Explanation or Account	3/ 5.7%
An expression of regret+ Offer of Repair	16/30.7%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency	8/15.3%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Promise of Forbearance	0
Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	2/3.8%
An expression of regret+ Explicit self-blame	2/3.8%
An expression of regret+ A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair	4/7.6%
An offer of apology+ Offer of Repair	2/3.8%
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Offer of Repair	0
A request for forgiveness + Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	2/3.8%
An expression of regret+ Self-dispraise	2/3.8%
An expression of regret+ Denial of responsibility	2/3.8%

Comparing table 3 and table 5, we can observe some similarity and differences between males and females in adopting the proper strategies. The first strategy both groups use (male: 17%, female: 37%) is the Expression of Regret, but female use it more than males. A Request for Forgiveness (15%) is the second strategy for males while it is the fourth one (10%). The third apology for men is Offer of Repair but for women it appears as the second apology strategies. An Offer of Apology is the fourth strategy attracts males but for females it is the third one. The other similarity between male and female use of apology is applying Explanation or Account as the fifth strategy.

Scrutinizing the secondary strategies, researcher finds that the first three strategies for males respectively are Thanking (2.9%), Hope for forgiveness (1.5%),and Intensified IFIDs (0.93%); and for females are Intensified IFIDs (2.5%), Thanking (1.6%), Brushing off incident as not important(0.60%).

Table4 and table 6 provide us with a comparison between males and females combined strategies. The most frequently used strategies for males are: An expression of regret+ Offer of Repair (26.8%), A request for forgiveness+Offer of Repair (14.6%), An Expression of Regret+ Explanation or Account (12.1%), An expression of regret + Expression of self-deficiency (10.9%),while the following strategies have no attraction to apply by males: A request for forgiveness + Offer of Repair+ Intensified IFDs, Explanation or Account + Offer of Repair, A request for forgiveness + Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair, An expression of regret + Denial of responsibility.

For males, the first utilized combined strategy is the combination of An Expression of Regret+ Offer of Repair (30%); while the second, third, and fourth common combined strategies among females are: An expression of regret + Expression of self-deficiency (15.3), An Expression of Regret+ A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair (7.6%), A request for forgiveness+ Explanation or Account (5.5%). Females do not use two apology strategies; An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Promise of Forbearance and A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Offer of Repair.

In Iran, using an appropriate apology strategy as a matter of politeness is crucial. So a man should be polite enough to attract his prospective wife, and also a young lady needs to decorate her personality with a charming way of welcoming and apologizing. The most frequent apology strategy which Persian speakers are intended to apply is" bebaxs'id" (Afghari, 2007; Shariati & Chamani, 2009) in every situation even they do not commit a serious mistake. Expressing regret, requesting forgiveness, offer of repair, and intensified IFIDs are the strategies which show the fitness of the behavior of wrong dower for saving the face of the other person. Observing the above assumptions, the researcher concludes that both male and female use nearly the same apology strategies, but females are little more polite than males because of the application of intensified IFIDs. Applying the IFIDs, females have an opportunity to be sure that the remedy of the committed offense is done correctly. Therefore, gender is assumed as a significant variable.

Level of proficiency and apology strategies

TABLE7:
MALE USE OF SINGLE APOLOGY STRATEGIES ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

Category	Pre-intermediate	Intermediate	Upper intermediate
A. PRIMERY STRATEGIES	No./Percentage	No./Percentage	No./Percentage
(1)Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
a. An expression of regret	68/26.3%	85/29.4%	57/27%
b. An offer of apology	12/4.6%	32/11.0%	36/17.06%
c. A request for forgiveness	96/37.2%	47/16.2%	28/13.2%
(2)Explanation or Account	12/4.6%	27/9.3%	17/8.05%
(3)Taking on responsibility	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
a. Explicit self-blame	0	5/1.7 %	0
b. Lack of intent	0	2/0.6%	3/1.42%
c. Expression of self-deficiency	4/1.5%	15/5.1%	8/3.7%
d. Expression of Embarrassment	0	2/0.6%	3/1.42%
e. Self-dispraise	0	0	0
f. Justify hearer	0	0	0
g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
- Denial of responsibility	4/1.5%	0	3/1.42%
- Blame the hearer	0	0	0
- Pretend to be offended	0	0	0
(4)Concern for the hearer	3/1.1%	2/0.6%	4/1.8
(5)Offer of Repair	28/10.8%	50/17.3%	31/14.02%
(6)Promise of Forbearance	8/3.1%	5/1.7%	
SECONDRY STRATEGIES	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
Intensified IFDs	0	3/1.03%	9/4.07%
Hope for forgiveness	4/1.5%	5/1.7%	3/1.42%
Thanking	12/4.6%	7/2.4%	3/1.42%
Brushing off incident as not important	3/1.1%	3/1.03%	3/1.42%
Silence	3/1.1%	2/0.6%	0

Table7shows that the most frequent apology strategies, use by pre-intermediate males are: A request for forgiveness (37.2%). An expression of regret (26.3%), Offer of Repair (10.8%), while intermediates use An expression of regret (29.4%), Offer of Repair (17.3%), A request for forgiveness (16.2%).Finally upper-intermediates use An expression of regret (27%), An Offer of Apology (17.06), Offer of Repair (14.02%).

In secondary strategies, the first strategy adopted by pre-intermediates and also intermediates is thanking, respectively 4.6 and 2.4 percent. Contrastively, male upper –intermediates are intended to use Intensified IFDs (4.6%), while male pre-intermediates do not use Intensified IFDs at all and for intermediates it is only one percent.

TABLE8:
MALE USE OF COMBINED APOLOGY STRATEGY ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

Category	Intermediate	Pre-intermediate	Upper-intermediate
////////////////////	No./Percentage	No./Percentage	No./Percentage
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency	6/15.7%	0	2/20%
A request for forgiveness+ An offer of apology	6/15.7%	4/9.09%	0
An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account	0	6/13.6%	0
A request for forgiveness+Offer of Repair	10/26.3%	2/4.5%	10/10%
A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair+ Intensified IFDs	0	0	10/10%
A request for forgiveness+ Explanation or Account	0	2/4.5%	0
An expression of regret+ Offer of Repair	9/23.4%	12/27.2%	10/10%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency	3/7.8%	6/13.6%	0
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Promise of Forbearance	0	2/4.5%	0
Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	0	0	0
An expression of regret+ Explicit self-blame	0	0	0
An expression of regret+ A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair	0	2/4.5%	20/20%
An offer of apology+ Offer of Repair	3/7.8%	4/9.09%	10/10%
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Offer of Repair	0	4/9.09%	10/10%
A request for forgiveness + Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	0	0	10/10%
An expression of regret+ Self-dispraise	0	0	0
An expression of regret+- Denial of responsibility	0	0	0

Table 8 shows the first and second apology strategies for pre-intermediates are A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair (26.3%), An expression of regret + Offer of Repair (23.6%), for pre- intermediates An expression of regret+ Offer of Repair (23.6%) and An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account (13.6%), but male upper-intermediate utilize A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency (20%) and An expression of regret + A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair (20%).

TABLE9:
FEMALE USE OF SINGLE APOLOGY STRATEGY ACCORDING LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

Category	Pre-intermediate No./Percentage	Intermediate No./Percentage	Upper intermediate No./Percentage
A. PRIMERY STRATEGIES			
(1)Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
a. An expression of regret	80/40%	73/35.2%	98/36.4%
b. An offer of apology	20/10.2%	31/14.95	32/11.8%
c. A request for forgiveness	17/8.6%	27/13.04%	23/8.5%
(2)Explanation or Account	17/8.6%	12/5.7%	18/6.6%
(3)Taking on responsibility	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
a. Explicit self-blame	2/1.02%	0	3/1.1%
b. Lack of intent	4/2.04%	0	7/2.6%
c. Expression of self-deficiency	4/2.04%	10/4.8%	7/2.6%
d. Expression of Embarrassment	7/3.5%	3/1.4%	3/1.1%
e. Self-dispraise	0	0	2/0.74%
f. Justify hearer	0	0	9/3.3%
g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
- Denial of responsibility	2/1.02%	1/0.4%	2/0.74%
- Blame the hearer	0	0	0
- Pretend to be offended	0	0	0
(4)Concern for the hearer	0	0	0
(5)Offer of Repair	27/13.7%	33/15.9%	49/18.25%
(6)Promise of Forbearance	4/2.04%	3/1.4%	5/1.8%
SECONDRY STRATEGIES	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////
Intensified IFDs	9/4.5%	5/2.4%	5/1.8%
Hope for forgiveness	0	1/0.4%	0
Thanking	3/1.5%	5/2.4%	3/1.1%
Brushing off incident as not important	3/1.5%	1/0.4%	3/1.1%
Silence	0	2/0.8%	0

A single glance at the table 9 shows us that the first and the second most frequent utilized strategies by all three levels are an expression of regret and An offer of apology. Intensified IFDs has the most attraction for females in all levels of proficiency, but its percentage is lessening from pre-intermediates to upper intermediates. This means that females lose their polite behavior when they become educated.

TABLE10:
FEMALE USE OF COMBINED APOLOGY STRATEGY ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

Category	Intermediate No./Percentage	Pre-intermediate No./Percentage	Upper-intermediate No./Percentage
////////////////////	No./Percentage	No./Percentage	No./Percentage
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency	1/12.5%	1/4.3%	1/4.3%
A request for forgiveness+ An offer of apology	1/12.5%	1/4.3%	2/8.6%
An expression of regret+ Explanation or Account	2/25.00%	1/4.3%	0
A request for forgiveness+Offer of Repair	0	2/8.6%	0
A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair+ Intensified IFDs	0	1/4.3%	0
A request for forgiveness+ Explanation or Account	0	1/4.3%	0
An expression of regret+ Offer of Repair	1/12.5%	3/13.04%	11/47.8%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency	2/25.00%	3/13.04%	2/8.6%
An expression of regret+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Promise of Forbearance	0	1/4.3%	0
Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	0	1/4.3%	2/8.6%
An expression of regret+ Explicit self-blame	0	1/4.3%	2/8.6%
An expression of regret+ A request for forgiveness+ Offer of Repair	0	2/8.6%	0
An offer of apology+ Offer of Repair	0	1/4.3%	0
A request for forgiveness+ Expression of self-deficiency+ Offer of Repair	0	1/4.3%	0
A request for forgiveness + Explanation or Account+ Offer of Repair	1/12.5%	1/4.3%	0
An expression of regret+ Self-dispraise	0	1/4.3%	2/8.6%
An expression of regret+ Denial of responsibility	0	1/4.3%	1/4.3%

As table 10 shows Iranian females in all level of proficiency are intended to express their regret and then try to compensate the damage they caused.

Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10 provide us with data which make it possible to compare males and females use of apology strategies based on their level of proficiency. All participants eagerly use the IFIDs as their first apology strategy .This show that Iranian speakers are polite accepted of their gender and level of proficiency level. Male use of secondary strategies reveals that the upper-intermediates are intended to use intensified IFIDs, so they are more polite than the pre-intermediates and intermediates. Therefore, we imply that educated men are more polite than others.

Males, by increasing the level of proficiency, do not use silence as an apology strategy and try to speak and apply the other strategies. This shows educated male's benefit by the stronger self-confidence in comparison than less educated males or even educated females. Pre-intermediate females' higher percentage use of "Explanation or Account" shows

that less educated females are more talkative than males and females. So, this belief that women are more talkative than man is approved.

In line with Eslami-Rasekh and Mardani (2010), Iranians want to show a positive self- image of themselves through an over use of intensifiers in their apology, tables 7 and 9 show confirm it. However the percentage of intensified IFIDs for males are increasing by raising the level of proficiency, while decreasing happens for females by rising their level of proficiency. Therefore we can imply; educated men are more polite than less educated men and less or well educated women. The level of proficiency has no role for males in utilizing the intensified IFIDs, so more proficient lady, more impolite behavior is supposed to commit.

TABLE1
OVERALL APOLOGY STRATEGIES USED BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

Category	NO./Percentage					
	Male			Female		
A. PRIMERY STRATEGIES	Level of Proficiency			Level of Proficiency		
(1)Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	Pre-int.	Intermediate	Upper-int.	Pre-int.	Intermediate	Uper-int
a. An expression of regret	68/26.3%	85/29.4%	57/27%	80/40%	73/35.2%	98/36.4%
b. An offer of apology	12/4.6%	32/11.0%	36/17.06%	20/10.2%	31/14.95	32/11.8%
c. A request for forgiveness	96/37.2%	47/16.2%	28/13.2%	17/8.6%	27/13.04%	23/8.5%
(2)Explanation or Account	12/4.6%	27/9.3%	17/8.05%	17/8.6%	12/5.7%	18/6.6%
(3)Taking on responsibility	////////	////////	////////	////////	////////	////////
a. Explicit self-blame	0	5/1.7 %	0	2/1.02%	0	3/1.1%
b. Lack of intent	0	2/0.6%	3/1.42%	4/2.04%	0	3/1.1%
c. Expression of self-deficiency	4/1.5%	15/5.1%	8/3.7%	4/2.04%	10/4.8%	3/1.1%
d. Expression of Embarrassment	0	2/0.6%	3/1.42%	7/3.5%	3/1.4%	3/1.1%
e. Self-dispraise	0	0	0	0	0	2/0.74%
f. Justify hearer	0	0	0	0	0	9/3.3%
g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt	////////	////////	////////	////////	////////	////////
- Denial of responsibility	4/1.5%	0	0	2/1.02%	1/0.4%	2/0.74%
- Blame the hearer	0	0	0	0	0	0
- Pretend to be offended	0	0	3/1.42%	0	0	0
(4)Concern for the hearer	3/1.1%	2/0.6%	4/1.8	0	0	0
(5)Offer of Repair	28/10.8%	50/17.3%	31/14.02%	27/13.7%	33/15.9%	49/18.25%
(6)Promise of Forbearance	8/3.1%	5/1.7%	3/1.42%	4/2.04%	3/1.4%	5/1.8%
SECONDRY STRATEGIES	////////	////////	////////	////////	////////	////////
Intensified IFDs	0	5/1.7%	9/4.07%	9/4.5%	5/2.4%	5/1.8%
Hope for forgiveness	4/1.5%	3/1.03%	3/1.42%	0	1/0.4%	0
Thanking	12/4.6%	7/2.4%	3/1.42%	3/1.5%	1/0.4%	3/1.1%
Brushing off incident as not important	3/1.1%	3/1.03%	3/1.42%	3/1.5%	1/0.4%	3/1.1%
Silence	4/1.1%	2/0.6%	3/1.42%	0	2.08%	0

A compressed data are presented in table11 which clearly shows and justifies all the above findings.

V. CONCLUSION

This study was an attempt to investigate a) the realizations of EFL Iranian learners apology strategies, b) the relationship between EFL learners gender and apology strategies, and c) the effect of level of proficiency and apology strategies they adopt.

The most frequent used apologies were IFIDs; over 59 percent of male and females used this category. However among the IFIDs sub categories the expression of regret was the most frequent one (32%), request for forgiveness(16%) offer of apology (11%) and were the second and third sub strategies. Offer of Repair was the second primary strategy (15%) which participant of this study utilized.

Taking on responsibility (8.3%), and Explanation or Account (7.17%) were the third and fourth primary apologies Persian speaker adopted. The first four apology strategies show that Persian speaker use first apology strategy (IFIDs) the same as the English speakers use. Under the effect of Islamic ethical rules, Iranians try to observe others' rights and intended to repair the damages they caused or recover the offence they committed, that's why they apply Offer of Repair as the second primary strategy.

Although, Iranians use all the strategies are presented in Olshtain and Cohen (1983) and Blum-Kulka et al.(1989), they rarely use Denial of responsibility, and also they never use Pretend to be Offended as two sub strategies of Taking on responsibility. The application of these strategy consider as impolite behavior in Iranian culture.

In line with Sigmoto (1997); Intensified IFDs, Hope for forgiveness, Thanking, Brushing off incident as not important were the secondary strategies used by participant of this study. Additionally, they apply another strategy which the researcher labeled it as "Silence". One respectful way in Iranian culture is try to compensate damage and be silent in front of the face –threatened person especially if s/he was at the higher position or older than offender.

Intensification is other most valuable factor in Iranian culture; more intensifier users are assumed more polite person. So, Intensified IFDs were used as a tool to enrich apology act as an acceptable and effective act.

One of criteria for being polite is application of Request for forgiveness, "Excuse me" or what Iranian utter as "bebaxšid". In this criterion there was no difference between males and females. The other criterion is intensification of IFIDs. Assessing the apology strategies based on this criterion, we recognized that gender can be significant; because female used intensification over two times than male. So it should be concluded that females are more polite than males.

Findings of this study showed that proficient person was a more suitable selector of apology strategies. Under the effect of L1, they used more intensifications and reparations as face saving act in Persian. Different percentages of utilizing apology strategies among different levels of proficiency were a sign to confirm the role of proficiency in determining the proper apology strategy.

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The Motivation of Ellipsis*

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Abstract—The article seeks the motivations of ellipsis from three perspectives: physiology, cognition and pragmatics. In total, there are seven principles which can account for necessity, reasonability, usefulness and importance of ellipsis. These principles constitute the motivations of ellipsis including the principle of information efficiency coding, the principle of information constancy, the principle of cognitive economy, the principle of prominence, cooperative principle, relevance theory and the principle of intentionality.

Index Terms—ellipsis, motivation, physiological principle, cognitive principle, pragmatic principle

I. INTRODUCTION

It is impossible and unrealistic to express all of meaning and thoughts completely in the daily communication. To some extent, we are apt to express what we want to say in an elliptical way in order to communicate each other rapidly and efficiently. Therefore, ellipsis is a common and necessary linguistic strategy. When we regard ellipsis as a linguistic phenomenon, some questions occur to us, for example, why do we need to omit some words? why does ellipsis exist in communication? These questions are related to the motivation of ellipsis. In this article, the author will explore the motivation of ellipsis and answer the above questions. The phenomenon of ellipsis conforms with general laws of language use. The motivation is the reason why something exists, namely, its theoretical basis. The author manages to find out the motivation of ellipsis from the perspectives of physiology, cognition and pragmatics.

II. MOTIVATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF PHYSIOLOGY

From the perspective of physiology, language is an information system stored in the neural network of brain (Chen, 2001). There are many methods to convey information in social communication, however, the most common and convenient way to convey information is language, both spoken and written.

As an information system, language shares main features with other information systems. Language is storable, carriable and sharable, with worthiness, transitivity, self-regulation and workability (Li, 2005). Language is carried by the neural network of brain which acts as not only its carrier but also the medium of information transmission. From the perspective of physiology, the process of information transmission is represented by the activation process of a series of brain neurons.

A. The Principle of Information Efficiency Coding

Information theory early derived from communication technology, which was established by American engineer C.E.Shannon as a new subject in 1948. The following figure is a model of communication system theory (Dai, 2003):

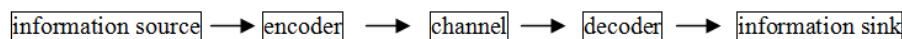


Fig 1. Model of communication system

From the above schema, we can see that communication process is actually the transmission process of information, information starts from information source and goes through encoder, channel and decoder and ends in information sink, in this way, information is transmitted from information source to information sink. Therefore, the task of communication system is to transmit information.

As the main carrier of information, the function of language is also to convey information like communication system. One of communication goals is to improve the efficiency of information transmission, however, how to transmit information effectively? Let us have a look at the information efficiency coding principle in information theory. The 'efficiency' is to transmit the same information volume within the shortest time with the least equipment and materials. 'Effective coding' means that the redundancy rate of information source is compressed by encoding, the average bit number demanded by information source symbol is reduced during transmission, it is realized that lesser code is used and more information is transmitted (Dai, 2003). In this way, we can improve transmission efficiency of information and effectiveness of communication.

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As we know, language is a kind of information system and the carrier of information, how does language transmit information effectively and rapidly in communication? The information efficiency coding principle can be realized by ellipsis in language use. According to the analysis of the information structure, the omitted part usually is the known information which can be inferred from context, therefore, it belongs to redundant information. What we need to express is new 'unknown' information instead of 'known' information. What is 'known' information? What is 'new' information? According to Chafe's consciousness standard in psychology, he defined 'known' information as "existed knowledge in listeners' consciousness speakers suppose during conversation" and defined 'new' information as "introduced knowledge to listeners' consciousness by speakers through conversation" (Zhang, 1998).

Therefore, ellipsis accords with information efficiency coding principle, which not only makes language expression brief and clear and emphasizes new and important information, it will draw listeners' attention to focus on new information and gain better communication effect.

B. *The Principle of Information Constancy*

The information efficiency coding principle proves that ellipsis is necessary and reasonable in language, but what information should be omitted is determined by the principle of information constancy, that is, the sum of the known and unknown information is constant. If the information is known for listeners, speakers are apt to apply ellipsis strategy to omit known information, if the information is unknown for listeners, speakers should express new information. However, the total information volume in one communication unit is equal to the sum of the known and unknown information which keeps constant. For example, we set the total information volume is "five", if known information value is "two", and unknown information value is "three"; if known information value is "three", and unknown information value is "two", the total information volume always keeps "five".

III. MOTIVATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF COGNITION

Compared with formal linguistics, cognitive linguistics holds that language is not a closed and self-sufficient system, it can't be separated from cognition because it is a part of cognition. Language is a kind of cognitive activity and the embodiment of cognitive capability of human beings (Zhao, 2001). The use of language should accord with general cognitive principles.

A. *The Principle of Cognitive Economy*

From the perspective of cognition, ellipsis in language embodies the principle of cognitive economy, which states that an organism like a human being attempts to gain as much information as possible about its environment while minimizing cognitive effort and resources (Evans, 2007). This cost-benefit balance drives category formation. In other words, rather than storing separate information about every individual stimulus experienced, humans can group similar stimuli into categories, which maintains economy in cognitive representation. Cognitive economy relates to the way in which human categorization works so as to provide a maximally efficient way of representing information about frequently encountered objects.

In cognitive linguistics, the theory related to categorization is Prototype Theory posited by Eleanor Rosch. Prototype Theory holds that there are two basic principles that guide the formation of categories in the human mind: (1) the principle of cognitive economy; and (2) the principle of perceived world structure. These principles together give rise to the human categorisation system. Based on Prototype Theory, George Lakoff put forward idealised cognitive model (also ICM) in order to account for the typicality effects uncovered by Prototype Theory. ICMs are similar to the notion of a frame, since both relate to relatively complex knowledge structures. ICMs or frame also represents the principle of cognitive economy because they are abstract schemas across a range of experiences rather than representing specific instances of a given experience. Language is a kind of cognitive activity, the principle of cognitive economy also guides the use of language. In other words, if speakers and listeners share the same ICM or frame, it is unnecessary to express the detailed information but activate the relative ICM by prompt of language.

In sum, the principle of cognitive economy guides our knowledge structure in brain and the use of language, ellipsis accords with the principle of cognitive economy in language. The principle of cognitive economy is the motivation of ellipsis from the perspective of cognition.

Before the principle of cognitive economy is applied in linguistics, linguists have already put forward similar principle, that is, the principle of least effort or economy principle, which can be summarized as: "To gain the largest benefit with the least cost, it is a fundamental principle instructing people's behavior". In current academic community, George Kingsley Zipf was the first man to put forward this principle in 1949 (Jiang, 2005). Zipf pointed out principle of least effort is a basic principle directing people's behaviour, originally, he started with economy of words and applied it into linguistic field. This principle accepted great response in linguistic field, French linguist Andre Martinet developed Zipf's principle of least effort, he published the book of "A Functional View of Language" in 1962 and further illustrated this principle, however, he preferred to the name of "economy principle".

Martinet thought that economy of language is a basic principle: In order to realize communication successfully, paid efforts are always in directly proportional with transmitted information volume. Language economy includes two factors: one is that speakers need to transmit their own information; the other is that they try their best to reduce their

mental and physical efforts (Martinet, 1962). During the communication process, people use lesser language unit with little efforts as possible, and transmit more information with less efforts. That is to say, with the premise of successful communication, consciously or unconsciously, people will reduce their efforts for the sake of economy. It is because that economical expression not only reduces burden of encoders but also makes listeners easy to decode language.

Comparing:

(1) a. The Chinese eat their food with chopsticks, the Europeans eat their food with knives and forks. (before omission)

b. The Chinese eat their food with chopsticks, the Europeans with knives and forks. (after omission)

As Zipf said, the principle of least effort can direct human beings' activities in daily life, language is also a kind of activity of human being. In daily life, we can hear some Chinese words such as "save time", "save labour", "save money", "save material", "save room" and so on, it seems that any physical things can be economized, similarly, language can also be economized or omitted. In fact, this omission behavior is restricted and drove by some kind of mental factor of human beings--laziness. Just as Jespersen realized, everybody has some kinds of mental power to direct his/her action such as laziness, idleness, escape, casualness, leisure (Li, 2000). Therefore, we prefer to say "China" in shorten form instead of "the People's Republic of China" in full name. In commercial mails, we often use "ASAP" to replace "as soon as possible", these examples show that people prefer to ellipsis in order to save efforts.

However, we can't misunderstand "economy" and "least effort" as "least words" or "no words", it is a naive mistake. "Economy" and "least effort" is related to communication effect, which is the basic purpose of communication. The principle of least effort emphasizes that people usually adopt an economical approach with least effort in order to gain ideal communication effect. That is the real connotation of principle of least effort. We can't only emphasize ellipsis, we should master the degree and contents of omission. Ellipsis doesn't mean arbitrary omission, it is a kind of omission with principles. Its basic principle is to realize the best communication effect, to omit words which should be omitted, and keep words which can't be omitted. For example:

(2) Seven men were lost, and one (was) saved in the crash.

In example (2), if "was" in bracket is omitted, grammatically, the whole sentence is a wrong sentence, because the predicates of two clauses are different, the former "were" is plural, the latter "was" is single, so "was" here shouldn't be omitted. The above example shows us improper ellipsis.

B. *The Principle of Prominence*

Denmark psychologist Rubin illustrated the prominent or salient principle of our perception organization through his famous face/vase illusion, we can't see the face and vase at the same time because human beings have a basic cognitive capability of figure-ground segregation, and we always see the prominent figure at first instead of ground in a scene.

Gestalt psychologists hold that perceptual field of perceivers is always divided into two parts: figure and ground. Figure is a gestalt, the most prominent or salient entity in a scene, which can be perceived by us, however, ground is reduced to the background to foil figure (Ungere & Schmid, 2001).

Based on the prominence principle, Figure-Ground theory is applied and developed in cognitive linguistics. Talmy discussed figure-ground theory in his attentional system, and Langacker studied figure-ground theory in the frame of perspective. Langacker gave its definition as follows: Impressionistically, the figure within a scene is a substructure perceived as "standing out" from the remainder (the ground) and accorded special prominence as the pivotal entity around which the scene is organized and for which it provides a setting (Langacker, 1987).

Figure-Ground theory can be applied to account for the organization of language information. In cognitive linguistics, prominence determines the choice and arrangement of language information. In detail, the selected information acts as figure, the omitted information acts as ground (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001), that is to say, the new unknown information stands out by omitting old and known information. In other words, new information is a figure and gains prominence, old information is a ground which is often hidden or omitted, therefore, ellipsis has a function of prominence, which is another cognitive motivation of ellipsis.

IV. MOTIVATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF PRAGMATICS

We can also find motivation of ellipsis from the perspective of pragmatics. As we know, cooperative principle and relevance theory are the main principles and theories in pragmatics. Is ellipsis related to these pragmatic principles?

A. *Cooperative Principle*

As we know, cooperative principle is the main theoretical achievement in pragmatics, which was put forward by American philosopher Grice in 1967, who called it as "revised Occam razor principle". Grice pointed out in a speech in Harvard University: In order to ensure conversation to go smoothly, two speakers should obey by some basic principles, especially cooperative principle: "According to the purpose of conversation and communication direction, the utterance of speakers must meet the communication requirements under certain conditions (Grice, 1989)". It includes four sub-maxims: (A) Quantity Maxim; (B) Quantity Maxim; (C) Relation Maxim; (D) Manner Maxim.

Professor Hu Zhuanglin (1994) also gave an detailed account of cooperative principle in his book of "Cohesion and Cohesiveness of Text": (1) Quantity Maxim means that provided information is moderate, not more, not less; (2)

Quality Maxim means that provided information accords with facts; (3) Relation Maxim means that provided information is related to current conversation; (4) Manner Maxim means that provide information is brief and clear, no ambiguity. Among these four maxims, “Quantity maxim” and “Relation Maxim” can account for ellipsis phenomenon. “Quantity maxim” reflects the necessity of ellipsis, it is required that speakers need to give necessary information and omit unnecessary information, in other words, to express new information and omit known information. “Relation maxim” directs how to use ellipsis, it is required that speakers only give relevant information and omit irrelevant information. Based on these two standards, we can use ellipsis properly and gain optimal effect of language communication. We just keep new, necessary and relevant information and omit known, unnecessary and irrelevant information.

Jiang Wangqi also mentioned Grice’s cooperative principle in his article of “Zipf and his principle of Least Effort”, he thought Grice’s Cooperative Principle and Zipf’s principle of Least Effort are related to each other, because both principles derived from the same “Occam razor principle” (Jiang, 2005). However, it is American linguist Laurence Horn who was the first man to combine Grice’s Cooperative Principle with Zipf’s principle of Least Effort. He simplified their theories into two principles in 1984: Q principle based on listeners, R principle based on speakers. Q principle is called “listeners’ principle of least effort”, derived from Grice’s Quantity Maxim; R principle is called “speakers’ principle of least effort”, derived from Grice’s Relation Maxim. Therefore, Horn’s theory is called “new Grice theory”. I agree to Horn’s simplified principles, his theory is a good explanation for the necessity and motivation of ellipsis. Ellipsis not only obeys by Q principle--to speak necessary information and omit known information, but also obeys by R principle--speak relevant information and omit irrelevant information.

B. *Relevance Theory*

Grice’s cooperative principle was revised and developed by subsequent scholars, especially for his relation maxim. Sperber and Wilson (1986) wrote a monograph to discuss relevance theory in their book of “Relevance: communication and cognition”, actually, relevance theory is the development of relation theory. What standard or principle do listeners understand utterance according to? Sperber and Wilson held that the standard of utterance interpretation is based on a cognitive hypothesis, that is, principle of relevance--“Any ostensive communication activity aims at the optimal relevance (Sperber & Wilson, 1986)”.

Relevance theory is a kind of cognitive theory about human communication and discourse interpretation. It admitted two basic facts: (1) Information processing requires people to pay some efforts; (2) The larger the effort degree paid for information processing is, the smaller the chance of communication success is, vice versa (He, 2001). On one hand, human beings pursue successful communication by information processing, on the other hand, they pursue effects of communication as possible as they can. “Brain is an information storing and processing system to gain the largest efficiency with least effort (Zhao, 2001)”. Relevance theory requires two partners participating in communication to obey by this principle. As for speakers, the information what he provided should be related to the cognitive context of listeners, they should omit those irrelevant information in order to make listeners understand their own intention easily and realize successful communication; As for listeners, they must try their best to search for new information related to context and understand speakers’ intention.

C. *The Principle of Intentionality*

Intentionality has a long history in philosophy. Aristotle, Avicenna, and medieval doctrines of knowledge and experience lead indirectly to the highlight of intentionality research in the nineteenth- and early twentieth-century phenomenology in the works of, among others, Bolzano (1837), Brentano (1874) and Husserl (1900). Phenomenology is a study of conscious experience, the study of how things (phenomena) are presented in consciousness. In contemporary research, intentionality is understood as a feature of brains, and thus only secondarily, epiphenomenally, as a feature of language. Language is intentional insofar as it allows for expressing beliefs, desires, and other mental states (Lyons, 1995). For Fodor, ‘intentional’ means ‘representational’, having informational content (Fodor, 1994). Linguistic expressions are intentional by force of the corresponding mental states being intentional. Utterances are intentional: they are about something, someone, or at the very least they are about a state, event, or process.

Searle defined intentionality as “the feature of mental states and events, the feature of aiming at something, about something”, this “aboutness” and “directivity” of mental states is called “intentionality”. Searle introduced intentionality in linguistic meaning theory at first, he emphasized that intentionality is the foundation of language and the basic feature of speech act (Searle, 1983). In Searle’s opinion, speech acts not only use language symbols but express the intention of speakers, language symbols are the medium to express intention. Utterance is to speak out the heart of speakers, which is the meaning of utterance. Grice argued that the basic feature of linguistic communication is that speakers express their intentions to hearers, and hearers must recognize speakers’ intentions (Grice, 1989). Sperber & Wilson also summarized that the basic feature of linguistic communication is to express and recognize intention. (Sperber & Wilson, 2002)

Jaszczolt holds that intentionality can be stronger or weaker and intentions allow for degrees, then he puts forward the principle of Degrees of Intentions. He regards the strongest intentionality as the default intentionality and calls this type of default a cognitive default (Jaszczolt, 2005). According to Default Semantics, there are three kinds of intentions in communication: the communicative intention, the informative intention embedded in it, and referential intention.

Speakers communicate certain content (they communicate that they intend to inform about something), they inform the addressee about certain content, and they refer to objects and eventualities. Jaszczolt assumed a scene to illustrate default intentionality: a baby is careless to hurt one of his fingers and cries loudly, but his mother doesn't think it is serious and shouts at her baby:

(3) You are not going to die.

As for the above sentence, we can understand it in two ways: A) You should not worry. B) You are not going to die from this wound. Utterances are intentional, we must find out the default intentionality of mother, she thinks her baby's hurt is not serious and there is nothing to worry about it. Therefore, A) reflects the mother's intentionality properly.

According to Jaszczolt's default semantics, the intentionality of speakers can be default, listeners will find speakers' default intentionality, that is why we can understand conversational implicature. Default reasoning is a special way to understand ellipsis, therefore, the principle of intentionality provides another motivation of ellipsis from the perspective of pragmatics.

V. CONCLUSION

This study aims at shedding light on the motivation of ellipsis and account for the existence reasonability of ellipsis. First, language is an information system, ellipsis in language accords with the principle of information efficiency coding and the principle of information constancy. Secondly, language is a kind of cognitive activity, ellipsis in language accords with basic cognitive principles such as the principle of cognitive economy and the principle of prominence. Finally, language is usage-based, ellipsis in language accords with basic pragmatic principles including cooperative principle, relevance theory and the principle of intentionality.

The nature of economy is our pursuit nowadays, the economy of language reflects the demand of times. The economy of language is realized by ellipsis. The motivations discovered in this study help us to recognize the necessity, reasonability, usefulness and importance of ellipsis.

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The Effect of Inferencing the Meaning of New Words from Context on Vocabulary Retention by Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of inferencing the meaning of new words from context on vocabulary retention by Iranian EFL learners. The participants were 67 Iranian university students of Tehran Islamic Azad University. They were sophomore English translation students who had enrolled in reading comprehension course in two different classes. To assign homogeneity, all students took language proficiency test. One group was assigned randomly as the control group (CG) & the other as experimental (EG). A pretest was administered to ensure that the new words were unfamiliar to them. During the 6 sessions of treatment, 48 selected items were exposed to the control group in the conventional way. (The vocabularies were taught through giving explanation, definition, synonyms or antonyms). But in the experimental group, the students inferred the meanings from the context and wrote down their inferences. Then, the surprised post-test was administered to both groups to evaluate their vocabulary retention. After applying t-test, the results showed that the experimental group did much better on the final test.

Index Terms—inferencing word's meaning, context, vocabulary retention

I. INTRODUCTION

One cannot learn a language without vocabulary. (Krashen, 1989; Nation, 1990). Scholars believe that vocabulary is one of the most significant, if not the most significant, component in learning a foreign language, and foreign language curriculum must reveal this (Carter & McCarty, 1988; Coady, 1997; Nation & Newton, 1997; Ruutemets, 2005).

When asked, learners often emphasize vocabulary because they know how communication and comprehension stop when they lack the necessary words. English language learners who experience slow vocabulary development are less able to comprehend text. Such students are expected to perform weakly on measurements in these areas and generally are diagnosed as learning disabled (August & Carlo, 2005).

According to Nation (1990), giving attention to vocabulary is unavoidable, and teaching must include needed vocabulary even when the teacher uses communicative-directed approaches to language teaching. Wilkins (1972), a prominent advocate of communicative approach, also proclaimed that, “without grammar very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”.

In the early 1980s, we witness serious criticism for neglecting of vocabulary studies (Meara, 1980; 1984). Despite this, the importance of vocabulary was not completely overlooked in language pedagogy, even during the glory days of CLT. Wilkins (1972; 1974), clearly indicated that learning vocabulary is as important as learning grammar.

Allen (1983) also highlighted that “lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words”. Nonetheless, at that point in time the notional and functional aspects of language teaching were emphasized to help learners get communicative competence, so the teaching of vocabulary was not the priority in many ELT classrooms.

From the late 1980s, vocabulary attracted researchers' attention within the mainstream of L2 acquisition (Nation, 1997). One of the research suggestions about the importance of vocabulary is that “lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence” (Meara, 1996).

Recently, vocabulary gains its central and essential position in discussions about learning language. Particular approaches were developed, like *discourse-based language teaching* (Carter & McCarthy, 1988), the *lexical phrase approach* (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992), the *lexical approach* (Lewis 1993, 1997), and the *lexical syllabus* (Sinclair & Renouf, 1988; Willis, 1990). Selection of core vocabulary by modern technology of (Birmingham COBUILD corpus) was also expanded.

However, how best to learn vocabulary has long been a topic of controversy. The problem lies not just in learning L2 words, but in remembering them. Anderson (1980) stated that, "The most troublesome problem educators face, is ensuring long-term retention". Chastain (1988) also noted that, "The value of learning correlates directly with the amount of learned information that is stored in memory and the proportion of that material that the individual can recall". In fact, unless individuals can store, retain, and recall information, they have not really learned it. They may have attended to it and understood it, but they have not learned it."

Several factors seem to affect retention and recall of information. One is the type of encoding and the depth of processing in preparation for storage in long-term memory. Craik & Lockhart (1979) stated that "memory trace is a function of depth of analysis & shallow processing like oral rehearsal does not lead to long-term retention."

For longest retention, new knowledge must be associated with previous knowledge (Ausubel, 1968). Lawson and Hogben (1996) explained that, "The act of drawing out relationships between parts of the sentence on the basis of known words would establish strong links between the new word and other known words. These links could then be used to facilitate the retrieval of the meaning later." Hulstijn (1992) also presents experimental support for a *levels of Processing* hypothesis of vocabulary learning. He adds that inferred word meanings were remembered better than those presented to the learner through the use of marginal glosses.

Schmitt (2000) proposed seven factors that affect inferring success, this factors are as follows: a) The context must be rich enough to offer adequate clues to guess words meanings. b) Readers can use local definition near an unknown word. c) Learners may slip an unfamiliar word for one they already familiar. d) Cognates can help guessing from context. e) Background knowledge about the topic and the culture aids inferring. f) Learners need to be skilled in guessing. g) Guessing a word from context does not mean that it will be remembered.

One of the prominent theories about vocabulary acquisition in which an attempt has been made to combine certain findings from linguistics and learning psychology in to a systematic way of word acquisition is a theory of Schouten Van Parreren, as proposed in her doctoral thesis. Her theory is that inferring the meaning of new words from the context has a clearly positive effect on vocabulary retention.

Thornbury (2002) also believed that "guessing from context is probably one of the most useful skills learners can acquire and apply, both inside and outside the classroom". Thus it can be taught and used as one of the important strategies for vocabulary learning.

However, there are some counter arguments in this regard. Nation (2000) claimed that most studies carried out in this issue failed to reveal any obvious advantage of learning in context over translation learning; he also believed that a deliberate intentional emphasis on developing the skills and strategies is required to vocabulary learning. Bialystok (1983) found that giving the meaning of words was better than inferring. Moreover, Prince (1996) investigated the role of context and translation in vocabulary learning. He suggested that "effective vocabulary learning requires a stage in which the word is in fact isolated from its context and submitted to elaborative processing" (p.489).

Schmitt (2000) claims that if the word in the text is easy to guess, then learner may not pay any attention to the word, and the therefore be unable to recall the word after finishing the reading. On the other hand, if the process of guessing the word is relatively more time-consuming and needs more attention, then the word is more likely to be remembered.

From the empirical studies performed by Nassaji (2003) and Bengelil & Paribakht(2004), it is clear that lexical inferring may not be completely successful or may not guarantee vocabulary gains; however, those researchers still claim that lexical inferring really has an important positive effect on vocabulary learning.

Ziad (2009) in his study explored the effect of two strategies in teaching vocabulary. One strategy emphasized direct and explicit teaching of individual meanings for a group of unknown words and the second strategy encouraged students to get word meaning from context. The results demonstrated that both approaches were effective in helping students acquire, retain and further recall the lexical items instructed.

As could be seen from this brief review of available literature, there is ambivalence to the desirability of presenting new lexicon in context, especially when it comes to long-term retention and recall.

Some researchers favor mental effort hypothesis, which expects that the retention of an inferred word meaning will be higher than the retention of a given word meaning.

Other researchers, however, are against using context. They claim that: a) context rarely offers enough information for the inferring; b) learners may make wrong inferences, and this leads to obtaining the wrong meaning; c) the inferring method only help learners with good problem-solving skills.

As it can be seen, finding the effective way for second/foreign vocabulary acquisition and retention has been one of the much debated issues. Thus, concerning the importance of lexical inferring in foreign language research and its effect on vocabulary retention, the present study tries to answer this question:

Does inferring the meaning of the new words from the context have any effect on vocabulary retention by Iranian EFL learners?

II. METHOD

A. Subjects

The subjects were 67 Iranian university students of Islamic Azad University, Tehran-North branch. They were sophomore English translation students who had enrolled in reading comprehension 3, in two different classes. The sample included 5 males and 62 females.

B. Instrumentation

Tests

Three major English tests were used to collect data during the course of the study:

1. A language proficiency test consisting of 70 items was compiled on the basis of the BARRON'S TOEFL test, consisting of two parts: structure and written expression, and reading comprehension. But since it was not a standardized test, the researcher carried out an item analysis procedure, including item facility (IF) and item discrimination (ID) procedure. As a result the number of items for data analysis was reduced from 70 to 37.

2. A pretest of 105 vocabulary items in a form of word list was developed by the researcher and was administered to ensure that the new words were unfamiliar to the students. On the basis of the result of this test, 48 items, all entirely unknown by subjects were selected as the target items. The words were tested in the isolation so that no contextual clues were provided. The researcher was interested in the subject's prior knowledge of vocabulary i.e. the amount of words they could understand without any contextual clues. The vocabulary items were taken from among the new words of lesson 10 and 11 of the book "Expanding Reading Skills-Advanced". The subjects were asked to provide either a translation or a definition of target words. The time allocated to the pretest was 40 minutes.

3. After performing the treatment those selected items from the pretest were administered as a post test to investigate the effect of the treatment. This test consisted of 48 vocabulary items, and the time allocated to the test was 30 minutes.

Texts

The difficult words of lesson 10 and 11 of "Expanding Reading Skills-Advanced" the university text book of reading comprehension 3 were selected. The main criterion for choosing words was a high probability of being unknown to subjects. It is worth mentioning that, there was no limitation on vocabulary types; they included verbs, adjectives and nouns – abstract nouns as well as concrete ones.

C. Procedure

This study was carried out in four phases:

Phase one: To determine the homogeneity of the subjects a language proficiency test of 70 items on the basis of BARRON'S TOEFL test (1996, Eighth edition by Sharp) was administered.

In order to standardize the test the researcher carried out an item analysis procedure and the characteristics of individual items including item facility (IF), an item discrimination (ID) were determined. As a result the number of items was reduced from 70 to 37 for data analysis.

After applying an F-test, the results indicated that the two groups were homogenous. Then one class was randomly assigned as the control group and the other as the experimental group.

Phase two: One week after phase one, a pretest was administered to both groups. The allocated time to this test was 40 minutes. The main purpose of pretest was to determine a set of lexical items that were not known by any of the subjects.

Phase three: This phase was conducted 2 weeks after the second phase. During this phase, 48 selected items were thought to the subjects in two different ways. The control group was exposed to the vocabulary items in the traditional way, and continued with regular class program; the vocabularies were thought through explanation, definition and giving synonyms or antonyms.

But in the experimental group, 48 target words were thought through having the students infer their meanings from the context. The EG had the inferencing activity for about 45 minutes each session. In EG the sequence of the lessons was changed in order to make sure that the subjects had not checked the meanings of vocabulary items before.

In the EG, first the subjects were asked to read the reading text once in silence. Meanwhile, the target words were written on the board. Then they were asked to read each paragraph separately and try to infer the meaning of words based on the context. Moreover the subjects were asked to write down their inferences and try to justify the meaning of words based on the context. Inferring the meaning of words and consequently the subjects' mental activity was the researcher main concern, rather than correct guessing.

After their papers being collected, the students could check the meaning of words from dictionary. As Knight (1994) and Luppescu & Day (1993) mentioned, looking up in a dictionary, possibly after inferring, led to higher retention than inferring. These procedures were conducted throughout the six treatment sessions similarly.

Phase four: The surprised post-test in a form of word list was administered one week after the treatment to both groups. The subjects received one point for each correct answer.

D. Data Analysis

To compare the difference between the means of control and experimental group in a post-test, t-test procedure was performed. The number of subjects at the final data analysis was reduced from 67 to 61 due to experimental mortality.

III. RESULT

In the first step, as it was mentioned, language proficiency test was administered to both groups. An item analysis procedure was done to standardize this test.

Then An F-test statistical procedure was employed to identify homogeneity of the two groups.

TABLE. I
F-TEST FOR THE HOMOGENEITY OF THE TWO GROUPS IN THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Variance	F- observed
EG	32	22.53	6.57	43.22	
CG	35	18.14	6.16	37.94	1.139

$F\text{-critical} = 1.80$

As table.1 shows, since the observed F-value (1.139) did not exceed the F-critical (1.80), it can be concluded that the two groups were homogeneous.

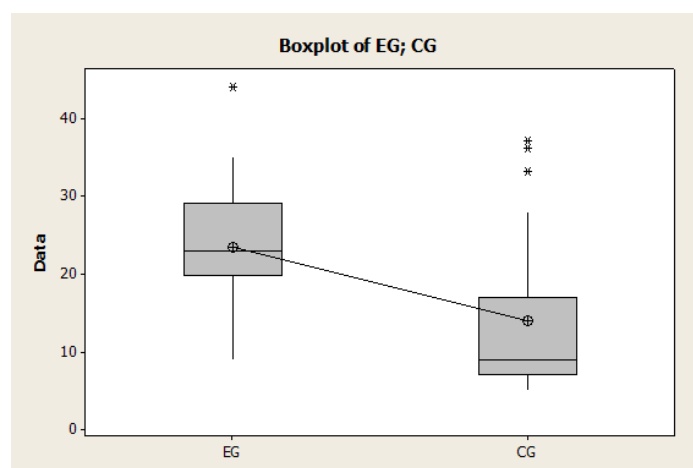
Then one group assigned randomly as an EG and the other as a CG.

After carrying out pretest and performing treatment, a post-test was administered to measure the degree of retention of the two groups. Then, the t-test was employed to compare the two mean scores. According to table 2, the calculated mean and variance for EG were 23.4 and 59.35 and for CG, they were 14 and 88.73. The t-observed was 4.29.

TABLE. II
THE T-TEST FOR THE POST-TEST SCORES

Group	N	Mean	SD	S2	t-observed
EG	30	23.4	7.7	59.35	
CG	31	14	9.41	88.73	
					4.29

$p < 0.05$ $df = 59$ $t\text{-critical} = 2.00$



Considering table 2 & its box plot, a remarkable difference was observed between the two groups in the post-test ($t\text{-observed} = 4.29 > t\text{-critical} = 2.000$).

The two groups scored differently on the posttest, and the difference was statistically significant. So it can be concluded that the treatment received by the EG was effective. The students who inferred the meaning of new words from context did much better on the final test than the CG who learned the vocabulary through the conventional method.

IV. CONCLUSION

Teaching methodologists have long been trying to explore the possibilities of improving teaching qualities. For many scholars and teachers, who want to help learners, understanding how information is stored in memory is very essential. For language teachers, this knowledge would lead to development of more effective classroom procedure.

As Chastain (1988) noted "the value of learning correlates directly with the amount of learned information that is stored in memory and the proportion of that material that the individual can recall" (p.39).

According to one cognitive view, meaningfully processed materials enhance learning and retention. In contrast, rote processed materials are more prone to limited retention. So it is believed that vocabulary is not a separate item to be learned; it is a basic part of discourse and is expanded along with reading strategies like contextual guessing and inferencing. As a matter of fact, how well people remember something depends on how profoundly they process it; using the meanings of words in context is the deepest level of processing and leads to the better memory. Similarly, Schouten Van Parreren (1985) encouraged the introduction of new words in context. The reason is that text provides many valuable clues for the retention of new words.

Although in our educational system most of the Iranian university students have several years of EFL study behind them, they are over dependent upon translation links, and so have failed to develop certain processing strategies crucial

to the effective use of the context. Unluckily, as Krashen(1989) mentions, since most novice L2 learners are not devoted linguists, between a high-effort strategy such as inferencing and a low-effort strategy as translation, they will generally prefer the low-effort activity.

In the process of inferencing, as Schouten Van Parreren (1985) noted, the reader engage in mental processing on the word-form, making associations between the context and his own background knowledge (both linguistic & world knowledge), and thus establishing a cognitive foothold. Moreover, inferring results in a strong affective involvement on the part of guesser.

The results of the present study confirm the above mentioned learning theory. The subjects' mental activity, which was vocabulary inferencing, caused a significantly improved retention of words in the EG in comparison with the CG. Their cognitive search and evaluation activities are conducive to retention (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001).

The results validated these assumptions stated by Jacoby, Craik and Begg (1979) that when learners are encouraged to infer the solution of a problem, they will have more mental effort and this mental effort can lead to better retention.

V. IMPLICATION FOR TEACHING

Thus what solutions may be found for teaching practice? First, teachers can make students think and participate in learning process. They can encourage learners to learn the new words directly in the L2 sentence context and give proper training in this regard. Learners should be trained to use all the semantic and syntactic clues available. It might be very helpful to train learners to determine meaning from the context consciously and choose the most relevant meaning associated with the word to be learned.

Second, the development of metacognitive strategies and attitudes can be very beneficial in this domain. Discussion about the probable pitfalls of low-effort strategies like translation increase learners' awareness. . Consequently, it seems that we need to discuss strategies in our class to raise conscious awareness of the learners and help them manage their own learning of lexis.

Moreover, fostering pleasure in learners when they search for meaning of words can be very useful. This is arguably the most important aspect of any language teacher's work.

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The Globalization of Chinese Culture and Goldblatt's Translation of Chinese Literature—A Case Study of *Big Breasts and Wide Hips**

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Abstract—In recent years, with the uprising of China in the stage of the world, it becomes more and more urgent for the globalization of the Chinese culture in order to boost the soft power of the country. This article argues about the importance of cultural globalization and the important role that the translation of literary works plays during this process. To provide a scientific interpretation and illustration of the methods of culture translation, the author chooses the Chinese version of *Big Breasts and Wide Hips* by Mo Yan and the English version translated by American scholar Goldblatt as the study case. This article compares the two versions and from which some examples of culture translation are discussed here. The conclusion of the article is that, in order to globalize the Chinese culture more effectively, the translator should put the reader as his first priority, know both cultures and languages well and try to reduce cultural mistranslation to the smallest degree.

Index Terms—Chinese culture, literature, translation methods, *Big Breasts and Wide Hips*

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, with the rapid development of China's economy and the enhancement of its comprehensive national strength, there is a strong need to promote its soft power so as to boost the comprehensive power. The Chinese government has called on its people to make efforts to globalize Chinese culture. Many elites of the country believe that Chinese people have the capability to influence other peoples' thoughts and be received and respected by them, not merely cater to the others' taste passively. It is time to rouse the westerners and have them informed that they are not the only part of the world, and the world actually comprises another part, without which it could never be complete. Therefore it is time that they learn, or we teach them, to appreciate and respect this different culture of China. This process should be realized with the willingness and spontaneousness of people from other cultures, without their feeling of being forced or coerced. A culture should win the fancy, respect and recognition, which are the values contained in it, of another culture by its attractiveness and charm and only when it is in this way can the country have more powerful influence in the international society, which means it will have more powerful soft power.

II. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE GLOBALIZATION OF THE CHINESE LITERATURE AND CULTURE

Cultural globalization is highly important in promoting China's national image and establish its cultural confidence and consciousness because China needs to construct in cultural ways its image as a large country towering up through peaceful ways. To reach this goal, one of the most important and effective ways is to facilitate the introduction of its own literature to the world because literature is the carrier of culture. The relationship between the two is like that between body and clothes. No matter how beautiful and elegant the clothes of literature are, they could not exhibit their charm and styles without being put on the body of culture.

However, today both Chinese culture and literature are still in the brim of the world, both of which need and are trying to go out of the country and be known to other nations and peoples. In this progress they need to and could help each other, promote each other and win together. Without culture, literature is like a piece of wood without roots or a river without source and it is impossible to last long and stay energetic.

In 2012, Chinese writer Mo Yan won the Nobel Literature Prize, which means the western world is making progress in accepting Chinese culture. Although it is difficult for the globalization of the Chinese literature and culture, the hope has come, and the road is being setup, not very slowly.

III. HOWARD GOLDBLATT'S TRANSLATION THEORY

Mo Yan's success came with many years of help from the American translator and Professor Howard Goldblatt, who

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had been cooperated with him and translated many of his works into English and have them published in the USA. Thereby his works were translated into other languages and known to the world.

As to Professor Goldblatt's contribution to Mo Yan's utmost success, two different opinions stand out. Mostly he is praised. For example, Professor Xia Zhiqing honored him as the "Prime translator of modern and contemporary Chinese literature". He said that without Goldblatt, probably Mo Yan couldn't go out of China so fast. There are also negative remarks. German sinologist Gu Bin criticized that Goldblatt considered merely the viewpoint of America and the western world, without giving enough consideration to the original works. Therefore to a great extent he created not serious literature translation but popular translated books.

Obviously Goldblatt (2002) himself had his guidelines; he believed that translation is betraying and rewriting, but loyalty is always the first priority. Everything he did is to convey the original text loyally to the target readers. He said in the entire 20th century, what Chinese literature attracted foreign readers was its social political motives and application, not the literature value. Foreign readers read these works to know what has happened during this period more than to acquire aesthetic or entertaining value, because modern Chinese literature works reflect all the ups and downs in the political and ideological areas. Therefore the readers are composed of people who intend to know China, and compared with the textbooks literary works are much more interesting and easier to read. He said he turned good, bad, and indifferent Chinese proeses into readable, accessible, and even marketable English books.

IV. OTHER TRANSLATION THEORIES

As to the translation method of contemporary literature, scholars in this field have been arguing for many years. Sun Zhili (2002) held that in the 21st century, the translation of Chinese literature should use more foreignization and the purpose of this method is to transmit to the greatest extent the different element of the original text. Specifically, the special cultural characteristics of another country, another language form and the different writing method of the author should all be conveyed to the utmost. While other Chinese scholars hold that domestication should be advocated. For example, Hu Anjiang (2010) said that domestication should be adopted to make Chinese literature come near to the western readers, and then come near to the mainstream of western culture. Only when they have learned some of our cultural routines and thinking patterns can further changes and influence of the western writing mode be possible afterward. He also said translation studies are like translation practice, in which the distinctness of another culture should be respected and its complicated part annotated.

Concerning culture in translation, Venuti (1995) said the Anglo-American culture, as well as the English language, has a global domination and complacency in its relations with other cultures, which can be "described as imperialistic abroad and xenophobic at home". There is a trade imbalance that decreases the cultural capital of foreign values in English by limiting the number of foreign texts translated and submitting them to domesticating revision. Therefore, English translators tend to use more domestication.

V. THE CHOICE OF CASE STUDY

This article is going to focus on Goldblatt's translation version of one of Mo Yan's novel *Big Breasts and Wide Hips* and have a tentative study, as far as culture is concerned, of the principles he followed, the artistic characteristic and aesthetic tendency of his translation, whether he retained or changed the image to and the effect on the target language readers. The author intends to find out whether his principle is to put the reader or the original work at the first place, whether he is respectful, casual, uncomplimentary toward the culture in the original work or uglify it, whether he used foreignization or domestication, and whether he adjusted according to the reader's preference or fancy or retained the features of the original works. Examples from this popular novel has been chosen and used as illustrations in the following chapter.

VI. FIVE CATEGORIES OF CULTURE

Culture is a most complicated part of a society and difficult to analyze. This chapter will be based on the five categories of culture advocated by American translation theorist Eugene Nida (1997): ecology culture, material culture, social culture, religion culture and language culture.

A. Ecology Culture

In most cases the translator used domestication to translate the ecology culture, for example, he put "灵芝草", a very rare plant and very efficient in improving people's health and curing some diseases, directly into "my grass of miracles", which is perfectly good in conveying the effect on the reader of the original text and retains the aesthetic beauty of the figures of speech. "Miracle" expressed very well of the effect of hope and awe.

B. Material Culture

Goldblatt, as a native America and translator, obviously knows Chinese culture very well and tries to make it as easy to accept to the target reader as possible. For example, in the original text, there are several occasions in which the characters talk while *sitting on the threshold* (坐在门槛上). A threshold is a piece of wood or stone placed beneath a

door. There is a flat and smooth top surface. At the time and place the story happened, people put wide and high wooden threshold, which could be as high as an average person's knee, beneath the door of a house and it usually stays there whenever the door is closed or open. So it is very convenient for someone of the family to sit casually on and face the house when talking to another family member, who is probably cooking, because the cooking place is usually near the doorway. It is also handy to sit with the back to the house when talking to someone in the court. While the translator didn't translate it directly, he put it as "sitting in the doorway". Maybe he thought it not proper for someone to sit on a threshold, or the reader will be confused because they don't have this and therefore not act like this in their culture.

C. Social Culture

Social culture is a very large and complicated category, which can be further divided into many smaller categories. In this article the author will only involve four types as follows:

1. psychology culture

People from different cultures have different psychology culture and the same thing may be acceptable to this culture and not acceptable to another one. A typical example in this aspect is after the stiff birth of the twins, Mother was bleeding and it could not stop. It seemed that the three of them had no chance to live. Some Japanese soldiers came and killed Mother's father-in-law and her husband, as well as several other people who came to help the family. Afterward a Japanese doctor came to the room, saved the two stiff born babies and stopped the bleeding therefore three lives were saved. During the process a Japanese journalist was taking photographs, which appeared in Japanese newspapers back in the country the next day as an evidence to show the friendliness between Japan and China. Then the author wrote "the Japanese killed my father and grandfather, while they also saved the three lives of Mother and kids (日本人杀了我的爷爷和父亲, 但也救了我们母子三人的命①)". The author has explained that the doctor did this just as an act to show his people that they were kind and friendly to Chinese people. This sentence is ironical. Actually in the family, the grandparents and father were very cruel toward mother. If they didn't die and the grandmother didn't go out of her mind and found out the twins were not her grandchildren, it is hard to say whether they would let the mother and twins live. This event is a significant turning point in Mother's life, from then on she would not be bullied by her parents-in-law and became the master of the family. Therefore the sentence is a narration of the fact. It has double meanings and alright for Chinese readers to accept and understand.

However this sentence was omitted and not translated. The translator may think it not proper and dignified for someone some of whose family members have just been killed or for any one whose country has been ravaged and fellows killed to show gratitude, which in not what meant by the writer, toward the brutal invaders.

2. traditional culture

When Malory cursed Mother's uncle, Mother stopped him and said "他对我有大恩大德!" In Chinese culture, people are taught since they are young to have a thankful heart. If one is offered a little help when needed, he should multiply the repayment when he has the chance. This moral standard of being grateful from the bottom of a person's heart is admired as respectful and it is deep rooted in the Chinese culture.

The translation is "I'll forever be in his debt", which is domestication and an objective expression in English to show that one owes another something. It doesn't convey the deep subjective gratitude and feeling of sincere thankfulness of the speaker. This undertranslation is according to the reader's tradition and therefore acceptable for a popular novel.

3. behavioral culture

On the 100th day after I was born, Mother took me and my twin sister to see Malory, who was our father. I was biting a finger and letting out some blurring sound (我含着一根指头, 让嘴里发出呜呜哇哇的声音②), which although not hygienic, was a fact and very common among babies at the time and parents usually didn't try to stop them. This act is a comparison between the twins, with one well fed and developed and the other lack of nutrient and very weak and quiet. But the translator changed it into "Grabbing hold of one of his fingers, I began to gurgle③." The translation makes the baby boy more adorable, although not consistent with the context because it was the first time for priest Malory to see us, and it was not possible that he gave me a finger to grab or just gave me one while not gave my sister.

4. Folk culture

In this novel, "茂腔" is a very popular form of entertainment for local people, which is a type of opera, an art like Beijing Opera, although not as famous. Goldblatt substituted it with "cat's meow", probably because "茂" has similar pronunciation as "猫" in Chinese, and thus comes "猫腔", meaning sending out sounds like the cat's meow. The translator may substitute this on purpose, and he is probably to make this form of art sound interesting and fanny to local people. However, as an important folk art in north-eastern Shandong Province, this opera has large influence and a lot of fans in history and still does today. There is obvious culture loss here. The proper translation method should be the filling-up translation (literal translation with notes), and render it as "Mao Qiang Opera", in which way the original culture will be well saved.

D. Religion Culture

When Shangguan Lu invited Aunt Sun to the house to help her daughter-in-law with the delivery, Aunt Sun questioned whether she or Fan Three was asked to do the job, Shangguan Lu used the term "您这尊神" to express her respect and scrupulousness, as well as irony, making Aunt Sun sound more awesome and at the same time showing that

they are far from being friendly with each other. Goldblatt translated it as “such an eminent personage”, which altered the religious factor “神” into an ordinary term which explains the meaning of the original term. Although there is cultural loss here, it is easy to understand for the target reader.

Another similar example is “十八辈子祖宗” used as the object of a verb indicating about sex. In the original culture, this term is used by some vulgar men to insult someone else when they are very angry with this person. It is virtually a very vague usage, mainly to insult the person’s ancestors, which is worse and ruder than insult the person himself because Chinese people respect their ancestors and usually wouldn’t bear it when their ancestors are humiliated, not to mention their eighteen generations of ancestors. The translation is “the eighteen generations of women”. Here “women” is used to make the term specific and clear. The readers of translation may not be able to understand the significance of the word ancestor is to Chinese people. As a word to curse someone, it is not necessary for the translator to explain in detail to the readers. This translation could also have the effect of insulting and the impact understood by the readers from any culture. This is an example of alteration.

E. Language Culture

The title of the original work “丰乳肥臀” caused great dispute among people of all walks and was severely criticized when it was first published because at the time this language was vulgar, not popular and acceptable in orthodox Chinese culture, although things have greatly changed now and many people have get accustomed to hearing it and even talking about it. The literal translation “big breasts and wide hips” can be received easily in the target culture because this type of figure of a woman is highly admired and can be talked about openly and freely.

On the contrary, another term “小舅子” is also literally put into “my little uncle”. But here there is a misunderstanding of culture. In northern China, this term is used indirectly to refer to the youngest brother of the wife, while not an address to him face to face. This actually is a sort of euphemistical term to insult someone, meaning, usually jokingly, the speaker has taken advantage of the other person’s sister. So this term has nothing to do with “little uncle”. It is a typical example of mistranslation.

CONCLUSION OF THE EXAMPLES IN CHAPTER 6

Culture category	原文	译文	翻译方法	考虑因素	译文效果	对文化传播的影响	
Ecology culture	灵芝草	grass of miracles	alteration	reader aesthetic	good	positive	
Material culture	门槛	doorway	domestication Alteration	reader	good	loss	
Social culture	psychology	①	omission	reader		No loss	
	traditional	大恩大德	in his debt	Domestication undertranslation	reader	good	loss
	behavioral	②	③	Domestication alteration	reader	good	loss
	folk-custom	茂腔	cat’s meow	Domestication alteration	reader	unknown	loss
religion culture	神	an eminent personage	Domestication alteration	reader	good	loss	
	十八辈子 祖宗	the eighteen generations of women	Domestication alteration	reader	good	loss	
Language culture	丰乳肥臀	Big Breasts and Wide Hips	literal	reader	good	No loss	
	小舅子	My little uncle	literal	mistranslation	Not good	loss	

VII. CONCLUSION

From the analysis and the table above, we can see clearly that Goldblatt put the reader as the first priority and it comes before all the other factors. Most of his methods dealing with the translation of culture are to make his work readable and acceptable to the reader. To some degree he even omitted or rewrote the original text to make it suitable to the target readers. In this aspect Mo Yan completely respected his decision and gave him total right to make whatever alterations he liked. He tried to lessen the load of new information on his readers and make his work easy to read and understand. Although there is loss in details, it is more familiar and genial for the target language readers. This is the precondition of the globalization of the literature and culture.

When there is cultural difference, the translator should always be careful of not mistranslating, which can be difficult to avoid. There are two types of mistranslation: conscious and unconscious. To reduce the possibility of both types, the translator should know both cultures and languages well, and before the publication of the work, native speakers of the original language who are also good at the target language should be invited to proofread it, reducing mistranslation to the smallest degree.

To globalize the Chinese culture, the Chinese people should get rid of the feeling that their culture is the quintessence

and keep a positive attitude of going out first, without dwelling too much on the details of loss and gain and give more consideration to the reproduction of the aesthetic values of the Chinese literature in the big picture. If the difference does not influence the theme, domestication can be applied to lessen the reader's information load and make the literature easier to accept. When it does affect the expression of the theme, however, foreignization or literal translation would be more proper.

However, if the translator alters or modifies the original text and culture without restraint and only caters to target language readers and critics, merely to secure business success, he then betrays the original work and at the same time deceives the reader. Therefore this translation couldn't be regarded as good translation.

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Hot Potatoes: The Merits and Demerits

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Abstract—The present study was firstly meant to review and study the main functions and applications of the *Hot Potatoes* program and further to identify its main features in terms of the development of various types of language tests and exercises. Secondly the study identified a number of deficiencies both in connection with the applications and the modality of the exercises it produces. The analysis revealed that although the program offers facility in creating different types of exercises together with teacher's feedback that can be posted online for the ease of access, it is limited in some important areas such as providing interactive activities and synchronous feedback for the learners. Moreover, it was found that the efficiency and usefulness of this program to a great extent depends on the creativity and skills of the teacher who uses the program to create tests. Similarly, the language contents that the teacher uses can have a great influence on the effectiveness of the exercises developed by *Hot Potatoes*. Therefore, the program by itself gives no advantage in helping learners with their language learning practice and exposure, but only acts as a learning tool.

Index Terms—Hot Potatoes, teacher's role, online exercises

I. INTRODUCTION

Today the growing popularity of e-learning and computer based education has by far manipulated the way pupils learn, teachers teach and testers assess. Paper and pencil tests are vanishing from the face of modernized academic education rapidly and, instead computer programs and softwares are replacing the traditional means of learning. For example, Davis (1997) emphasizes the importance of collaborative approaches in encouraging the use of technology in teacher training. In this regard, computer assisted language learning and teaching (CALL & CALT) has also been influenced by the development of new programs and multimedia. Amongst the very many programs available online *Hot Potatoes* is quite useful and practical.

Hot Potatoes has been developed by the Research and Development team at the *University of Victoria*, Humanities Computing and Media Centre. It has been available as free software since 2009, and has been designed by the TESL department in this university. In this the department, they try to test and create the best ESL teaching techniques and practices and use them in developing interactive learning programs which are mostly computer or internet based. As reported by the company's official web site, the commercial aspects of the software are given to and handled by Half-Baked Software Inc. This program is among the other very popular English language softwares such as MOO, and MOODLE.

The first version of *Hot Potatoes* (version 2.0) was released in September 1998, at the *EuroCALL* conference in Leuven, Belgium. The *Hot Potatoes* software suite comprises five distinct applications each providing the possibility to create exercises online and offline. The applications used in this program are namely: *JCloze*, *JCross*, *JMatch*, *JMix* and *JQuiz*. A sixth application, called the *Masher* has also been added recently; this allows the user to mix and combine all the *Hot Potatoes* exercises into one whole unit.

The latest version of this program came out in early 2004 by Half-Baked software company; i.e. version 6 of *Hot Potatoes*. The biggest merit of using *Hot Potatoes 6* as compared to its other previous versions is that the *JQZ* program is currently used to make multiple-choice as well as short answer tests. In other words, the user is now able to mix both question types in a single quiz. In practice, a quiz can contain an unlimited number of questions. In addition, it is possible to use a photo attached to the question we intend to ask in order to demonstrate how to post a quiz which contains several files. According to its official website, *JBC* quizzes can contain rich multimedia - sound files as well as image files can be incorporated into questions and answers, for example.

According to Nedeva et al. (2010) overcoming the disadvantages of e-learning for English language training is reached by specialized technologies. In this regard, *Hot Potatoes* is not part of MOODLE but VLE possesses the required instruments to allow for suitable exercises to be imported and integrated. Furthermore, as stated by the producer, *Hot Potatoes* creates an instrumental work environment for Windows users and it includes six major programs which was mentioned above. These applications are meant to be used in creating interactive exercises, but to what extent they achieve this end, is an important issue. They are particularly designed for the purpose of foreign language learning and can produce a wide range of exercises such as multiple-choice, short-answer, jumbled-sentence, crossword, matching/ ordering and gap-fill exercises.

A. *Functions and Applications*

The main function of the *Hot Potatoes*, according to its manual published in its official website, is that it enables the users to develop interactive language exercises on the web that can be accessed easily through any computer and browsing software connected to the internet. HTML and JavaScript are used in creating the exercises of this program in order to make them interactive, but it is not essential for the users to know anything about these languages in order to work with the programs. Teachers and other language experts will only have to enter the data for their exercises and press a button. Then, the program will automatically develop the Web pages for them, and then it is possible to upload them to your personal server.

Nathalie Cazaux, an expert reviewer of the program from Institute of Technology in Blanchardstown, has briefly described and analyzed the different functions and applications of the program in the following way:

1) JBC

This section of the program is responsible for creating multiple choice answer quizzes of the sort that will be immediately recognizable to students. Here it is possible to have a written text, with a time constrained reading test, and questions can have maximum four answers. Additionally, the feedback guiding the learners towards the right answer could be incorporated. However, if nothing is typed here, a default message saying “try again” will pop up.

2) JQuiz

This application develops short answer quizzes. Here, the learner types the answer in the text-field and receives the feedback from the computer. Like the previous section, maximum four possible correct answers are available, assuming that the teacher has included them. Here, according to Cazaux’s review, Holmes and Arneil, who are among the main creators of the program, did not approve of a “one click right/wrong” interface (Holmes & Arneil, 1999). Therefore, they developed a facility in the program to provide more expanded feedback for the users. Afterwards, the computer points out what part of your answer is correct, which in turn involves students more effectively. This is especially helpful for spelling trials and is more subtle than the right or wrong programs.

3) JMix

This part of the program makes jumbled sentence exercises which, in nature, resemble those that can be made with paper and scissors. The biggest plus with this program is that the teachers are able to include different and all combinations of answers, therefore, the learner does not encounter correct suggestions which are not accepted by the computer.

4) JCross

This program can produce small sized crossword puzzles with 20x20 letters in size. The clues can be entered either in word-form or in the form of pictures.

5) JMatch

This section can further generate both listing exercises and matching exercises. For instance, linking countries and capital cities or beginning and ending of sentences and putting frequency adverbs in the correct order. As for JCross, photos can be placed instead of words.

6) JCloze

Finally this application creates gap-filling exercises. In this part, the java-script searches for parts of correct answers, but only one true answer for each gap is accepted and the feedback does not include much detail in this section.

7) The Masher.

According to the software’s manual, the Masher, which is probably the most useful feature of this program, is a tool designed to help users with larger sites containing many different Hot Potatoes exercises. The main application of this feature is to collect a large number of different Hot Potatoes exercises in one test format. Further, since it mixes the exercises, it automatically sets the URLs of the next exercise navigation buttons, in order for the learners to easily go through the exercises in the given order. Beside this, colors can be set and arranged the way you wish and you can also select which navigation buttons to display on the screen.

Furthermore, she added that for the learners, titles and instructions are constantly displayed. It is possible to have them either in the first or second language. The color of the text as well as the font and its size could also be altered from the main page. The program further makes it possible for users to include pictures if necessary. And the default settings offer sufficient information to the student which means no change in the setting is necessary.

The available reviews of the different sections and applications of this program are almost all very akin, uniform and objective. They all conform to what has been published in the official web site of Hot Potatoes software with insignificant variations.

B. *Mayer’s Theory of Multimedia Learning*

The theory of multimedia learning has been developed by Richard E. Mayer and his colleagues. This theory has helped improve the cognitive model of learning through the mediation of other forms of language modality. According to this theory individuals have a tendency to learn more efficiently and rapidly when they make use of picture and visuals along with words rather than resorting to mere words in making sense of the language (Mayer, 2005a). Furthermore, in another study Mayer (2005b) asserted that most research concurs that multimedia is defined as the mixture of *text* and *picture* and maintained that multimedia learning takes place when we use both of these media to

form mental representations of the language components. In developing the cognitive theory of multimedia learning (CTML) other cognitive theories such as Baddeley's model of *working memory* (1986), Paivio's *dual coding theory* (1986), and Sweller's Theory of Cognitive Load (1988), had been very influential as they all fall into the category of information processing model of learning.

In practice, this theory laid the foundation for the development and generation of the many language teaching and learning softwares. The use of both auditory and visual components in these programs was but an attempt to increase the level of learning and facilitate the teaching processes through the combination of all language modalities, i.e. written, oral and pictorial. Drawing on this theory, the program developers have tried to mingle more media in the form of picture and text to improve the cognitive processes of mind in processing the new information and integrating them with the old mental schema. Here, CTML provides us with a practical framework to analyze Hot Potatoes from a new perspective and see to what extent the program is based on a rigorous theory of cognitive learning.

C. Research Questions

The present study tries to address the following two questions:

1. To what extent is *Hot Potatoes* effective in providing students with appropriate exercises and tests?
2. How important is the role of teachers in using this program?

II. THE RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The positive and negative aspects of the program

As for the benefits, firstly there is the fact that the program provides the learners with quick and immediate feedback to every single question. Moreover, learners are able to see or check and study the test items prior to taking the test, and further, learners are given the possibility to go online and check the HTML sources of their quizzes and access the right answers for themselves. This in turn, allows for more autonomy and fosters the heuristic abilities on the part of students.

Additionally, the program is not limited to one particular language and can function similarly for all languages using Latin characters; likewise the interface of the program can be translated into other languages as well, and thereby making it usable by language teachers across a variety of languages.

A further advantage is that any language instructor is able to post a Hot Potatoes file and publish the tests or send them to students and obtain the final results on the web in a way that is safe and reliable. Using Hot Potatoes 6 gives you the possibility to post JQZ quizzes to any online module created for this purpose like a class weblog.

In spite of some minor limitations, the ability to issue Hot Potatoes exams is considered quite useful within an *online course*. In this way the teacher creates and posts the exam, the students then take the exam and finally the teacher receives the files and returns the results at his convenience. Interestingly, by using HP it is also possible to include audio-visual files on the web; this facility is particularly desirable for the development of educational contents and materials since the exercises will be more interesting and fun to students.

According to a more thorough review by Winke and MacGregor (2001), Hot Potatoes can be evaluated according to the following three aspects. Firstly, trying to figure out whether or not the program allows for the creation of language learning exercises that are consistent with the theories of second language acquisition. Secondly, understanding the extent to which the program is user friendly, and finally, asking whether the program is desirable and applicable for language testing.

Moreover, in the same study, they held that the use of technology by EFL or ESL teachers has numerous merits. Firstly, the amount of exposure to and the potential interaction with the target language forms outside the context of classroom, will increase. Hot Potatoes creates exercises which may be of useful technological use when employed by students remotely as supplementary classroom work. In addition, the exercises can be shared with other teachers throughout the world, provided that they are connected to the internet (Winke & MacGregor, 2001).

According to other experts of the field (Cook, 1996; Kottler & Kottler, 2002) generally, Hot Potatoes is easy to use and does not need technical knowledge on the part of the users. By combining pictures, sounds and other links teachers have the ability to create their own variety of interactive activities and can offer help and feedback to the learners more easily. As a result of these facilities, an attractive learning atmosphere is created in classrooms, students can work on their own pace without much stress, they do not need much support by the teacher, and there are plenty of exercises which are necessary for each learning context in order to satisfy all learner styles— multiple intelligences (Gardner 1983).

It is however, clearly evident that the usefulness of the tasks and exercises, to a great extent, depends on how the teachers make use of the program. Findings from a large body of research have shown that in a task-based instruction model, students benefit from being engaged in tasks with a primary focus on content and meaning rather than language (Long, 1996). Moreover, Skehan (1998) identified some of the common features of good task-based activities; e.g. they all focus on meaning, provide a communication problem to solve, have a relationship to real-world activities, and are not concerned with language display (cited in Winke & MacGregor, 2001). In this vein, Hot Potatoes exercises could create the same task-based model of exercises; meaning that if the program is improved so that a larger variety of tasks could be generated it will be of greater value to both the teachers and learners

However, from a different perspective, Winke and MacGregor (2001) observed that a negative aspect of Hot Potatoes is that it mostly makes form-focused activities in which the degree of "interaction" is limited to interaction between the

user and the predetermined feedback created by the program developer. Such activities, according to them, cannot be considered interactive in its truest sense, and is only a little more advantageous than the online traditional grammar activities. Therefore, they concluded that Hot Potatoes exercises can improve SLA in essence, but to what extent this happens relies largely on the materials used by the teacher in the exercises. They further maintained that Hot Potatoes acts like a tool, and thus like all other useful instruments, its value depends on the knowledge and creative skills of the users. From their viewpoint, Hot Potatoes is not merely a testing software, and should not be used this way. In contrast, the Hot Potatoes program gives teachers flexible, easy-to-use modules for creating web-based language exercises that students can engage in while also getting informative feedback that would guide them towards right answers.

Moreover, Baklavas et al. (1999) pointed out that the biggest drawback of Hot Potatoes concerns the statistical analysis and the security of the tests. According to their review, the program does not include any kind of access control and that it should only be used in unofficial testing contexts and student self-evaluation practices. Thus, Hot potatoes is considered of a lower standard than its counterparts such as Cyber Exam.

Further in this respect, Somekh and Davis (1997) observed that HP or similar programs make use of a type of technology which has the following characteristics:

- a) facilitates extensive access to guidance in acceptable methodology. It does so by allowing independent access by students outside of formal instructional time.
- b) promotes and supports a model of collaborative professional development, by presenting a uniform set of presentation templates which will encourage group work; and also allows for the creativity and individuality of content.
- c) expands the goal of the instructor, to inculcate proper and desirable teaching practices, by the rigid nature of the given L2 methodology.

Similarly, Cazaux maintained that using these programs increases the exposure to target language, creates more fun and improve motivation. However, it is clearly evident that the biggest drawback of this software is its deficiency in providing synchronous interaction between teacher and learner. Hot Potatoes like many other programs of this nature acts more like a tool, and thus it can only reach all its potentials once it is being used innovatively by a creative teachers.

Thus in this sense, it can be clearly deduced that Hot Potatoes, like many other similar CALL based programs is by far advantageous for its users both in terms of providing exposure to language and promoting autonomy on the part of learners. What is also important here is that even though the software was produced for the language classroom use it can also be employed for a variety of subjects. Moreover, activities can be uploaded and be shared with teachers all around the world.

III. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The present study aimed primarily at addressing two main questions; first the efficiency of the program in providing suitable exercises and second the importance of teacher's role in using this software. Having used and studied the program carefully I came to terms with the fact that it offers user-friendly features which in turn renders test making and test taking easier and more accessible. Teachers can provide their students with more comprehensive feedback while learners can benefit from online access to their teachers' exams any time during the day. However, the program seems to be limited to only options and applications which produce tests and exercises and is not meant to teach the language directly and interactively.

As with the types of questions, the authors might want to extend the variety of question types that the program generates, as it is only limited to creating multiple choice, matching, cloze, crosswords and mixing words. Other question formats such as table completion, diagram and classification can also add to the value and practicality of HP. In this way, providing exercises in the form of *tasks*, in which the negotiation of meaning get the primary focus, could be improved and extended so that teachers can provide more pedagogical tasks for their pupils.

Finally, the program's addressees are only teachers who can develop and produce different types of exercises and activities for their students at the level of class; meaning that the program by itself cannot be of any value to language learners and the presence of a language expert is always necessary. Personally I believe that if the program provided facilities with which learners could practice and test their language proficiency independent of a teacher either online or in class, it would be of greater advantage to the field of CALL and CALT. It would probably be a good idea if the future editions of the program focused on an additional possibility of learners' independent use of this software.

Regarding the implications, the program could be quite beneficial to all language teachers and supervisors who intend to facilitate and improve the processes of assessment and evaluation and language practice in general. School and university authorities can develop projects in order to foster and encourage the use of these types of CALL-based softwares and further improve the quality of language practices and exercises in their classes. By the same token, these programs could be efficiently used to plan and organize the homework and assignments of the students more effectively, while the teacher's feedback is available anytime and anywhere for the learners.

APPENDIX A. A BRIEF SUMMARY OF HOT POTATOES BY WINKE AND MACGREGOR (2001)

Title	<i>Hot Potatoes</i> , Version 5
Authors	<u>Stewart Arneil</u> , <u>Martin Holmes</u> , and <u>Hilary Street</u>
Platforms	Windows and Macintosh
Minimum Software Requirements	Netscape Navigator or MS Internet Explorer versions 4 or above, with JavaScript enabled. Some modules, JMix and JMatch, use DHTML and require version 5+ browsers.
Publishers	<u>Half-Baked Software, Inc.</u> http://web.uvic.ca/hrd/hotpot
Support Offered	E-mail support direct from author, Martin Holmes, at mholmes@uvic.ca . The <i>Hot Potatoes</i> Web site posts <u>frequently asked questions</u> and has a <u>bulletin board</u> where questions can be posted to be answered by users.
Target Language	Any Roman character set language (program supports the use of accented characters)
Target Audience	Language teachers
Price	Free for non-profit individuals or educational institutions, with the condition that materials produced are freely available to anyone via the Web. Otherwise, license starts with 1 user for \$100 US. Large publication license: US \$350.

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A Further Study of Interpretation Learning Strategies Employed by Successful Interpretation Learners

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Abstract—This study was undertaken to find out the interpretation learning strategies employed by successful interpretation learners to achieve the accuracy and fluency of interpretation and the relationships and interactions between them combined with the previous study on interpretation learning strategies to achieve completeness of interpretation. The significance of this study is to theoretically enrich the existing studies on interpretation learning strategies and practically shed some lights on interpretation learning for future learners.

Index Terms—interpretation learning strategies, successful interpretation learners, completeness, accuracy, fluency

I. INTRODUCTION

In 2014, the researcher published an article titled *A Case Study of Interpretation Learning Strategies Employed by Successful Interpretation Learners* (Li, 2004), which was to find out interpretation learning strategies, especially the completeness of interpretation, employed by three classmates of the researcher who had all successfully passed *Advanced Interpretation Test*. This paper is a further study to fulfill interpretation learning strategies in accordance with Bao's three criteria, namely, completeness, accuracy and fluency of interpretation, in which accuracy and fluency are the focus of this study, and then to set up a model to systematically ravel out their interrelationships.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This part discusses the key terms in this study, theoretical bases and previous studies on interpretation learning strategies.

A. Key Terms in This Study

This section discusses the key terms of this study: definition of successful interpretation learners, criteria of interpretation, especially Bao's criteria of completeness, accuracy and fluency, and definition of interpretation learning strategies.

1. Definition of successful interpretation learners

The researcher has made clear about the definition of successful interpretation learners in her previous study (Li, 2014) that successful interpretation learners are considered to be interpretation learners who have successfully passed *Advanced Interpretation Test* which is one of the training programs for talents in short supply and is considered one of the most authoritative tests in examining the command of interpretation with its high difficulty and low pass rate.

2. Criteria of interpretation

As is discussed in the previous study of the researcher (Li, 2014), with the same situation as translation criteria, there is no unified criterion for interpretation, which could be perceived differently in terms of different perspectives and considerations. Taking all the criteria into consideration, the researcher considered Bao's criteria of interpretation are the most comprehensive ones and are happened to coincide with the criteria of *Advanced Interpretation Test*. It is on this basis that the researcher categorized interpretation learning strategies.

Bao is a professor in Beijing International Studies University. In his monograph *An Overview of Interpretation Theory*, he proposed interpretation criteria of completeness, accuracy and fluency.

a. Completeness

According to Bao (2005), completeness refers to comprehensive and full interpretation of the main points of the contents, original intention and connotation in the original language. Based on a survey made by the researcher, most of the students believe completeness is the most difficult to achieve, and the researcher's previous study has made a detailed and complete description and done a comprehensive research on interpretation learning strategies with this criterion.

b. Accuracy

As is described in Bao's book, accuracy refers to the exact meaning of the key connotative meaning, important terms

and figures conversion. This criterion is mainly manifested in the following aspects in detail: accurate expression of emotional information in source language, transmission of culture and social information in source language that could be taken into account in interpretation, effective transmission of paralinguistic and other information beyond language, accurate interpretation of political and technical terms (including jargons), accurate interpretation of proper nouns, accurate conversion of figures and codes and interpretation of some key grammatical information and internal language meaning that could be taken into account.

c. Fluency

Fluency refers to bilingual facility and smoothness, as well as perfection of other relevant target language expression techniques, such as pronunciation, intonation and tone of voice, etc. It mainly covers the following aspects: sense of hierarchy of target language organization, fluency and pronunciation clarity of the target language, organization of paralinguistic like intonations in target language and timely feedback of communication effect.

3. Definition of interpretation learning strategies

Interpretation learning strategies are involved with learning strategies in the area of interpretation. Thus it would be necessary to discuss language learning strategies at first. However, it is far more difficult and complicated to give a standard definition.

Weinstein & Mayer (1986, P.43) define learning strategies as “the behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that is intended to influence the learner’s encoding process”.

Chamot (1987, P.12) puts forward that “learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information”.

According to Rubin (1987, P.37), “learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly”.

Wenden (1987, P.6) holds the view that “learning strategies involve three aspects: 1) language learning behaviors that learners actually engage into learning and regulate the learning of a second language; 2) learners’ knowledge about their use of strategies; 3) learners’ knowledge about aspects of their language learning which may influence their choice of strategy”.

Oxford (1989, P.41) considers “language learning strategies as behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable”.

According to O’Malley & Chamot (1990, P.73), learning strategies are defined as “the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information”.

Cohen (2000, P.65) believes that “learning strategies are those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, and application of information about that language”.

Drawn from the above definitions given by the scholars at home and abroad, we find that learning strategies can be techniques, approaches, methods, behaviors, actions, activities, and processes. In this perspective of view, the researcher defines interpretation learning strategies in a broad sense: interpretation learning strategies concern with methods and strategies employed by learners, aiming at facilitating and improving their interpretation in the aspects of completeness, accuracy and fluency.

B. Theoretical Bases of This Study

This study is carried out on the basis of two theories: Attribution Theory and Hermeneutics.

1. Attribution Theory

Attribution is a concept from social psychology concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. As for successful interpretation, learners may attribute it to some learning strategies they employed. Thus the research on learners’ ILS (short for interpretation learning strategies) attribution tends to be more important.

Attributions are considered as the causes or reasons given by individuals for a behavior or event which is related to them or some others (Guo & Li, 2005). Attributions are quite universal in our daily life. According to Forsterling (2001), attributions are also labeled as causal explanations. Pintfich & Schunk (2002) indicate that motivational psychology has been further conducted based on the investigations on the reasons or causes of individuals’ behaviors.

It is supposed that attribution theory plays a significant part in affecting students’ motivation to choose and employ interpretation learning strategies for that interpretation learning strategies are concerned with the management of learning experience in a broad sense. Based on attribution theory, individuals are inclined to seek explanations for their behaviors, and their attribution for past performance would have a great influence on future behaviors. For example, an effective learning strategy may be expected to improve one’s interpretation, and thus one may attribute the positive result to the particular strategy rather than task difficulty or good luck. What attributions successful interpretation learners may ascribe to interpretation is just what this research mainly focuses on.

2. Hermeneutics

Hermeneutics is a philosophical technology based on phenomenology and existentialism that explains and understands texts, emphasizing grasping the original intension of the texts and the authors faithfully and objectively.

From the perspective of Hermeneutics, understanding and meaning are of the most crucial of the text. Heidegger & Edward (1999) proposed fore-structure of understanding like fore-having, fore-sight and fore-conception, by which he

means that interpretation is grounded in something we have, we use and we grasp in advance. His notion has been further developed by Gadamer, who proposes fore-understanding: "What's true of the fore-meaning of usage, however, is equally true of the fore-meanings with regard to content with which we read texts, and which make up our fore-understanding." (Gadamer, 1973: 237)

The link between Hermeneutics and interpretation is mainly on how to interpret the differences in intentions and thought, as well as cultures of the source and target language, besides those in language only, and on how to understand the text of source language and interpret it equivalently in target language. From this perspective, Hermeneutics is thus regarded as a theoretical basis of investigating interpretation learning strategies in this research.

C. Previous Studies on Interpretation Learning Strategies

The researcher has done a survey about studies concerning interpretation learning strategies in her previous study in 2014 and found that there were seldom studies in this field other than three academic theses, two of which were Master's theses, discussing around interpretation strategies from the perspective of SLA (Zheng, 2004), effectiveness of interpretation learning strategies (Yang, 2006) and conceptual dimension construction and empirical assessment of learning strategy for interpreting (Lei, 2011). Thus, the researcher found it necessary to do something in this field. In her previous research, she found that to achieve the completeness of interpretation, successful interpretation learners employed knowledge-accumulation, summarization, note-taking and logical-analysis learning strategies, among which the first three learning strategies were employed by all the three subjects. It indicated that in the process of interpretation learning, they all gave priority to content or meaning over form or language, which was consistent with hermeneutical idea of interpretation.

III. METHODOLOGY

This chapter consists of two sections. The first section addresses research questions. The second section describes the research design that consists of the subjects, the instrument, data collection and data analysis.

A. Research Questions

This study aims to investigate the learning strategies employed by successful interpretation learners. Two research questions are addressed as follows:

1. What are interpretation learning strategies employed by successful learners to achieve the accuracy of interpretation?
2. What are interpretation learning strategies employed by successful learners to achieve the fluency of interpretation?

B. Research Design

The research design involves subjects, instruments, data collection and data analysis.

1. Subjects

In order to be correspondent with previous study on interpretation learning strategies to achieve completeness of interpretation, the subjects of this study are still the three MA students from College of International Studies, Yangzhou University majoring in English Language and Literature who have successfully passed *Advanced Interpretation Test*. For the convenience of the research, they are labeled as S1, S2 and S3.

2. Instrument

The instrument of this study was the researcher herself.

Having taken interviews in the previous study, the researcher has known a lot about the procedure and how to alleviate the tension and stress of the subjects. But in order to make sure that the interview could be carried out without flaws, the researcher still conducted a pilot study on the topic of "how do you pass TEM-8" beforehand to review the procedure of an interview.

Being consistent with the previous study, the researcher still prepared an interview guide in accordance with the dimensions that the research questions covered, which was categorized on the basis of Bao's criteria of interpretation, that is, completeness, accuracy and fluency of interpretation, in which accuracy and fluency was the focus of the study.

In addition, the researcher prepared a computer and a microphone to record the interviews for future analysis.

3. Data collection

Given the fact that it had been some time since they took *Advanced Interpretation Test*, it was really necessary to get them together and recall the days they prepared for the test. But what surprised the researcher was that when they talked about the test, it seemed they were so familiar with the test and so eager to share with each other the sweets and bitters of the days they preparing it, which ensured that the interviews could go smoothly and pleasantly.

The same as previous study, considering that the interview may last for too long and that their opinions might be mutually influenced if the three subjects were interviewed together, three interviews were conducted respectively, centering round learning strategies that the subjects employed to achieve the accuracy and fluency of interpretation, each of which involved one subject only.

The interviews were conducted in Chinese rather than English for the purpose of having smooth conversation and

avoiding language obstruction and possible misunderstanding. For each interview the researcher used a laptop and a microphone to record the whole process with the permission of the three subjects.

The interviews were held in the office of the researcher, and each of the interview lasted for one hour or so. The three subjects were very cooperative and showed great enthusiasm and interest in the topic and talked about their interpretation learning experience centering round research questions, including the problems and difficulties they came across, the strategies they had taken and some suggestions they provided for future learners.

4. Data analysis

The whole data analysis involved three steps: coding, categorization and translation. The researcher first applied a set of codes to represent information that may be considered strategies the subjects had taken in the recorded data; then by examining and comparing every piece of code, the researcher classified and categorized them, and in accordance with the criteria put forward by Bao Gang, all the codes that gathered fell into two categories: strategies for accuracy and fluency of interpretation respectively; finally, since the interviews were conducted in Chinese, it was necessary to translate all the relevant information into English.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, it states interpretation learning strategies employed by successful learners to achieve accuracy and fluency of interpretation and sets up a model of interpretation learning strategies.

A. Interpretation Learning Strategies Employed by Successful Learners to Achieve the Accuracy of Interpretation

The three subjects found that interpretations of figures, culturally loaded expressions and technical terms were the most essential to achieve the accuracy of interpretation. For figures interpreting, they employed repeatedly-practicing-shorthand strategy; for culturally loaded expressions interpreting, they employed recitation strategy, literal-interpretation strategy, liberal-interpretation strategy, omission strategy and amplification strategy; and for technical terms interpreting, they employed technical-terms-accumulation strategy and substitution strategy.

1. Learning strategies for figure interpreting

As for learning strategies for figure interpreting, they employed repeatedly-practicing-shorthand strategy. They believed that there is no short cut than constantly practicing shorthand.

S1: Figure interpretation is always the most difficult part in interpretation, as expressions are not equivalent between Chinese and English for figures above 5 digits, and this causes complication for me. Also, the ways comparison is expressed in Chinese are in some respects different from those in English. For example: in Chinese we say “化肥产量比1986年增加了4倍”, while in English we shall have to say “the output of chemical fertilizer has been raised five times as against 1986”. Apart from these, it is also difficult to interpret units of measurement. For example, we have “li” (1/2kilometers), “mu” (1/6 acre), “jin” (1/2 kilogram) in Chinese, which have to be converted into the metric systems on formal occasions to facilitate understanding. Therefore, it is important to take shorthand.

For E-C interpretation, I write figures in English from the right to the left, with a comma every three digits, and each comma stands for thousand, million and billion respectively. Then I draw a vertical line from the right to the left every four digits, and each vertical line stands for “万”, “亿” respectively. Now I will give you an example to better illustrate my shorthand. When I hear a sentence “it covers a total of six hundred fifty-four million eight hundred thirty-five thousand seven hundred and seventy-four square meters”, I may come up with the following notes: “6|54,83|5,774”. For C-E interpretation, I write down the figures and draw vertical lines first, then use commas every three digits from the right to the left, in this way it is more easier to retell figures in English.

Although feeling difficult in figure interpreting, S2 found her learning strategy of both C-E and E-C figure interpretation which she took step by step. She first emphasized the speedy and accurate rendering of figures involving “万” and “亿”, then combined them with various “units of measurement”, after which she practiced shorthand. She provided the following quotes to show how she employed this learning strategy.

In the case of C-E and E-C interpretation, figures do require a sufficient amount of training. I put emphasis on the speedy and accurate rendering of figures involving “万” and “亿” as the first step. I practiced the rapid reading of 5-digit numbers and 8-digit numbers in both English and Chinese, and then combined them with various “units of measurement”. Sometimes I used car numbers and telephone numbers as practicing materials, too. All these were done orally. Then I practiced taking notes. I started with large integers. For example, I usually used comma representing one group of 3 naught: “forty thousand”, represented by “40,”, meaning “四万”; “six million”, represented by “60,,”, meaning “六百万”. Coming across complicated numbers, there is a convenient way of taking notes. When doing C-E interpreting, hearing “亿”, draw a slash(/), and hearing “万”, draw another slash and fill the numbers at the right place. Then draw a comma every three digits from right to left, which is directly the English way of doing numbers. When doing E-C interpreting, hearing “billion”, “million”, and “thousand”, draw a comma, then from right to left draw a slash every four digits, thus we could read the number in Chinese.

S3’s learning strategy is the same as what S1 and S2 employed, that is, repeatedly practicing shorthand of figures with signs.

2. Learning strategies for culturally-loaded-expressions interpreting

They employed recitation strategy, literal-interpretation strategy, liberal-interpretation strategy, omission strategy and amplification strategy for culturally-loaded-expressions interpreting.

a. Recitation strategy

They all supposed that learning culturally-loaded aiming to bridge the gap of cultural discrepancy between two language worlds' expressions was of great help for interpretation, and they recited some common and equivalent ones both in Chinese and English while reading newspapers. The following quotes exemplify this learning strategy.

S1: *Whenever I came across some expressions that contain cultural connotations, I wrote them down in my notebook and recited them afterwards repeatedly. I found that the differences between Chinese and western culturally-loaded expressions were very interesting and learning them help me better understand the western cultures, which is really important for interpretation.*

S2: *Both our mother tongue, the Chinese language and English are rich in cultural connotations which are usually forcible and vivid, and are always difficult to interpret due to the pressing, limited time of interpretation and lack of cultural and cross-cultural knowledge. I suppose that reciting some common and equivalent ones both in Chinese and English is the best way to learn culturally-loaded-expressions interpreting.*

S3: *I enjoy reading western cultures and learn that they have a different emotional tendency towards animals and colors. For example, dog is a humble animal in Chinese culture and most of the expressions concerning dogs have derogatory sense, such as “狗胆包天”, “狗仗人势”, “狗腿子”. While in some western cultures, dog is one of their favorite animals, they will say “a lucky dog” for someone who is really fortunate, and “be top dog” for being in a high position. Therefore, learning western cultures and reciting some culturally loaded expressions are of great help in interpretation.*

b. Literal-interpretation strategy

When there are no equivalents for certain culturally loaded expressions, they interpreted literally if it will not cause misunderstanding. The following quotes illustrate how they employed this learning strategy.

S1: *Sometimes I encounter some culturally loaded expressions, and I don't know their equivalents in English, I will interpret literally if it is understandable. For example, I interpret “纸老虎” as “paper tiger” and “趁热打铁” as “to strike while the iron is hot”.*

S2: *Some cultures are shared by Chinese and western countries, such as in the expression “time is money”, “time” and “money” are considered precious both in Chinese and western cultures. In this case, I will interpret literally.*

S3: *Since it is impossible to memorize all the equivalent culturally loaded expressions in mind, I still find some ways to interpret. Literal interpretation which means interpreting the idioms word for word is my first choice. It is not applied universally but only to those in which the image can be easily understood by the speakers of the target language. For example:*

Good medicine is bitter in the mouth, but good for the disease. 良药苦口利于病, 忠言逆耳利于行。

Even the cleverest housewife cannot make a meal without rice. 巧妇难为无米之炊。

c. Liberal-interpretation strategy

When encountering some culturally loaded expressions that would cause misunderstanding if interpreting literally, they employed liberal-interpretation strategy. The following quotes show how they employed this strategy.

S1: *when I first learned interpretation, I tended to interpret literally in all cases, but it is really awkward for interpretation of such culturally loaded expressions. For example, when we hear “Cupid lives”, we can not interpret literally as “丘比特存在” and nobody knows what you are talking about. We all know that Cupid is a god that represents love, and thus this expression could be interpret as “真爱永存”. What I am trying to say is that when encountering culturally loaded expressions that have not equivalents in target language, try to get the meaning of the source language and interpret liberally in your own words.*

S2: *Interpretation is a process of meaning transmission, and we should give priority to content or meaning rather than form or language. For culturally loaded expressions, we should explore the connotations from the surface meaning. For example, in this expression “a thief is a thief”, we cannot interpret as “一个贼就是一个贼”. We could imagine the situation of this expression: a thief was caught in prison, and was let out after the due sentence. When he came out, he found it hard to earn money by his own hands, and he became a thief again. Then we could come up with a Chinese saying that has the same connotation, i.e. “江山易改, 本性难移”.*

S3: *Some expressions with strong cultural characteristics can never be interpreted literally, because it would cause misunderstanding or could not be easily accepted by native speakers of target language. In this case, it is necessary to resort to liberal interpretation. For example: we can interpret “打开窗户说亮话” into “frankly speaking” or “Let's speak frankly.”*

In a word, provided we manage to get an accurate comprehension of the meaning or implication of the culturally loaded expressions and put across the idea or meaning properly in the light of the context, we could interpret the expressions without any problems. But it's easier said than done. You need to practice a lot to achieve the effect.

d. Omission strategy

They believe that due to the differences of Chinese and western cultures, some of the information would cause misunderstanding and there is no need to interpret. So they employ omission strategy for this reason.

S1: Some of the Chinese expressions contain many cultural connotations, especially in literary works and introductions to tourist destinations. For example, I usually interpret “豫园建于明代嘉靖三十八年” into “Yu Garden is built in Ming Dynasty” and omit “嘉靖三十八年” which is not so important information and will cause misunderstanding if interpret it.

S2 and S3 agreed with S1 that there are some expressions with Chinese characteristics that foreign audiences can not trace its meaning if interpret literally, and there is no need to take a long time to explain it. Therefore, they employ omission strategy especially for those expressions with Chinese characteristics.

e. Amplification strategy

To better interpret some culturally loaded words and expressions in source text, they employ amplification strategy to amplify some references and explanations. The following quotes show how they employ this strategy.

S1: I have learned in class that we used amplification to supply necessary words in our interpretation on the basis of accurate comprehension of the original. Precisely, it is for the purpose of faithful representation of the thought of the original text that we often resort to amplification. This is because English and Chinese are two entirely different languages and each has its own historical and cultural background. Besides, many ideas, idiomatic expressions and shortened words, etc. that are well understood by the natives can hardly make sense to overseas people.

S2: Some culturally loaded expressions interpretation which have no equivalents in target language are the key information of the source language and have to be interpreted. In this case, I employ amplification strategy. For example, with “这是乾隆年间出土的文物”, I interpret as “this is the cultural relic that excavated in Qianlong period, a period of Tang Dynasty in ancient times”. “乾隆” is a unique word in Chinese, which is hard to be understood by western audiences, thus I amplified it with “a period of Tang Dynasty in ancient times” to make it clear.

S3: I employ amplification strategy for some expressions that I cannot find their equivalents especially the names of some persons, places and times, such as, “紫禁城”, “三国时期”, etc. In most cases, I add explanations after them. For example, I interpret the above three expressions as “Forbidden City, a palace that the emperors used to live”, “the Three Kingdoms period, a period in ancient times with a situation of tripartite confrontation by three kingdoms of Wu, Shu, Wei”.

3. Learning strategies for technical terms interpreting

They employed technical-terms-accumulation strategy and substitution strategy for technical terms interpreting.

a. Technical-terms-accumulating strategy

All of the three students supposed that it was necessary to learn some key and common technical terms in their routine studies and they shared the same learning strategy of accumulating those terms at anytime and anywhere, no matter when reading journals, watching TV or listening to the news. The following quotes show specifically how they employed this learning strategy.

S1: It is always possible to come across some new words, especially some technical terms when you do interpretation in a certain field. It is really helpful to get well-prepared beforehand whenever you can. Usually when I listen to the news on politics, economy, culture and society, I would look up some new words which I suppose to be the key and common words of the given field and keep them in mind as many as possible to enlarge my vocabulary.

S2: I have a habit of reading news in Chinese and English, by which I know how some Chinese technical terms, should be interpreted in English, especially some political and economical terms, such as “宏观调控”, “稳定物价”, etc. Therefore, to interpret technical terms or jargons, the foremost is to read and listen to the news as much as possible because the news involves topics on almost every field and then memorize those common and frequently used terms as many as you can. By doing so, you may get familiar with those technical terms and won't be panic when doing interpretation.

S3: I pay much attention to the news interpretation, because news covers all kinds of fields, such as political, economical and social and it is a short cut to learn governmental affairs reports. After the annual session of the National People's Congress, I downloaded its English version and read it comparing with Chinese version. In this way, I accumulate and master many interpretation methods of technical terms.

b. Substitution strategy

When they encountered some technical terms of which they didn't know the exact meaning, they usually replaced them with some synonyms or hypernyms. The following quotes show how they employed this strategy.

S1: One cannot say that he is always prepared for some new terms which create some unexpected obstacles in his interpretation. Here are some of my methods to deal with them in case I'm confronted with them. First, in either C-E or E-C interpretation, I would use some synonyms or hypernyms to replace the new words based on the context I could infer what it is about but could not find the right equivalent in the target language. Interpretation is not as strict as translation because of pressing and limited time and it is acceptable as long as the original meaning of the speaker is conveyed. For instance, there is a sentence “Doctors also say eating less fat will reduce the amount of dangerous cholesterol in the blood.” If we don't know the word “cholesterol”, we at least know that it is a material in the blood. We could interpret the sentence into “医生认为少食用脂肪能够减少血液内一种危险物质的数量。” In some occasions, when I hear a totally unknown technical term which I failed to understand or express accurately, I would guess its possible meaning, the purpose or the function according to the context, then I could paraphrase or explain it.

For instance, for the Chinese term “脆性”, suppose that I don't know how to interpret in English, I could explain that its property is easy to be broken like a piece of a glass.

S2: I always meet some technical terms that are very rarely used in daily life and are unfamiliar to me, such as “漆皮” and “三夹板箱”, etc.. If it is not in a professional situation, I interpret with hyponyms like “leather”, “chair” and “case” for the above three expressions.

Drawn from the above results, to achieve the accuracy of interpretation, they put more emphasis on interpretation of figures, culturally loaded expressions and technical terms. For figures interpreting, they employed repeatedly-practicing-shorthand strategy; for culturally loaded expressions interpreting, they employed recitation strategy, literal-interpretation strategy, liberal-interpretation strategy, omission strategy and amplification strategy; and for technical terms interpreting, they employed technical-terms-accumulation strategy and substitution strategy. It indicates that the interpretation learning strategies for figures, culturally loaded expressions and technical terms contribute to the accuracy of interpretation.

B. Interpretation Learning Strategies Employed by Successful Learners to Achieve the Fluency of Interpretation

This section illustrates how the three students achieve the fluency of their interpretation with the following strategies-----immediate-recall strategy, keeping-a-steady-interpreting-speed strategy and learning-formulaic-language strategy.

1. Immediate-recall strategy

According to the three students, immediate recall is a learning strategy that helps you memorize and speak out what the speaker just said in a very short time, usually less than one minute, which will further expand the capacity of short-term memory and train the response speed to improve the fluency of interpretation. To make it simple, it is to retell what you just heard in a very short time in your own words.

S1 has a good habit of listening to the news everyday for at least one hour. On doing immediate recall, she used CNN STUDENT NEWS as listening materials and she gave a detailed description about how she did immediate recall. S2 exemplified that it was better to recall in one's own words, which is of great help when encountering some complicated and difficult words and expressions. S3 suggested the starters to do immediate recall in mother tongue, for both listening and recalling. Their learning strategies can be seen in the following quotes respectively.

S1: Usually I take CNN STUDENT NEWS as my listening materials to do immediate recall for the reason that there is not too much information in one piece of news and it is easier to understand and retell than BBC and VOA news. The whole text of listening material was heard twice: once without interruption and once with immediate recall. Each text was divided into small sections of 30 to 50 words and after each section I did immediate recall. First I would listen to the news uninterrupted and tried to get the main idea of what the news was about. This process is very much like summarization. For the second time, I would pause after every section of 30 to 50 words of complete sentences and do immediate recall. What is important is that try to get the meaning of the news and retell it in your own words rather than repeating what is said word by word.

S2: When you state the main idea of a text, you can make yourself understood much better if you use your own words. Suppose, for instance, that a speaker says:

“Despite certain similarities, patterns of work for agricultural workers vary considerably for one part of the world to another.”

We could rephrase this as: “Farm work is different in different countries.”

Doing immediate recall in your own words enables you to express the same meaning in different ways, which is of great help when encountering some complicated and difficult words and expressions.

S3: I suppose that as a starter, it is better to do immediate recall in mother tongue at first. I used to directly do it in English, but I failed many times due to my not-so-proficient English listening skills. The news carried large amount of information which was so unfamiliar to me and I couldn't get the whole meaning of it. When I was familiar with the abundant information of the news and got used to the high delivered speed, I turned to English listening materials and at this time, I did a better job.

2. Keeping-a-steady-interpreting-speed strategy

The three students have a common view that they pursue a steady rather than high speed in interpretation. Their ideas are shown in the following quotes.

S1: Most students consider that it seems quite qualified to speak fast in interpretation. While I think it's better to speak steadily than fast for that it helps gain more time for thinking and organizing, especially when I try to figure out how to interpret.

S2: I pursue an interpretation at a regular speed, not too fast or too slow, which buys me more time to organize my target language. More than this, the audience can sense my confidence and proficiency from my regular and steady interpretation speed.

S3: it is really tough for me to keep a steady speed in interpretation. Sometimes I spoke slowly or even paused when encountering some new words or unfamiliar expressions; sometimes I spoke too fast seeming to manifest that I am confident and qualified for doing this. So I usually use a MP3 to record my interpretation when practice, then check my speed and adjust it. At the beginning, I chose relatively easy and understandable listening materials to make sure that I

could keep my interpretation at a steady rather than fast speed in the premise of no new words interference. I didn't use materials of normal difficulty until I could interpret at steady speed.

3. Learning-formulaic-language strategy

This strategy is employed by S3 only who supposed that it was helpful to overcome mother tongue interference and improve the fluency of the output under pressure. For accumulation, he memorized many common and frequently used formulaic languages on various types of topics and practiced putting them into use. His learning strategy can be reflected in the following quotes.

S3: There is an old Chinese saying goes as: After reading up three hundred Tang poems, you can at least intone poems even you can't write them. It refers to the composition of poems, while it also implies that memorization is an important way to learn interpretation. Formulaic language will do much help to overcome mother tongue interference and improve the fluency of the output under pressure.

We know that formulaic language is a kind of conventional expression which has fixed language patterns or frameworks and could be learned and memorized as a whole. In interpretation, it will save a lot of time as long as having these formulaic languages in hand. For accumulation, I found many articles on the Internet concerning various types of topics especially news scripts with both English and Chinese versions to analyze and learn their well-done translations and write them down for further memorization. For example, I memorized some common and frequently used phrasal interpretations, just name a few: declare the closing of (宣布...结束), observe/witness the grand opening of (隆重举行), it is a great pleasure/honor for me to (我很荣幸/高兴...), which respectively are functions of choice, memory and comparison.

There is no better way than hard work and constant practice in this respect. Much interpretation practice is needed to examine the extent to which you have mastered the language patterns and the ability to put them into use without hesitation and difficulty. (Translated)

It is drawn from the above that, to achieve the fluency of interpretation, they employed immediate-recall strategy, keeping-a-steady-interpreting-speed strategy and learning-formulaic-language strategy. They have a common view that in terms of immediate recall, using one's own words in mother tongue is preferred, especially for starters, which is also consistent with Hermeneutics' theory that focusing on meaning of the target language, and a steady rather than high speed buys them more time to think and organize target language. Formulaic language interpreting learning strategy is a unique one that helps overcome mother tongue interference and improve the fluency of the output under pressure. Among the three, the first two learning strategies are shared by the three subjects while the last one is employed by S3 individually. It shows that keeping-a-steady-interpreting-speed strategy is not in line with Ren's idea of interpretation (2009).

C. Model of Interpretation Learning Strategies

Combined with the previous study of the researcher on interpretation learning strategies to achieve completeness of interpretation, the interpretation learning strategies employed by the three successful learners to achieve the completeness, accuracy and fluency of interpretation formulate a model, which is shown in the following figure.

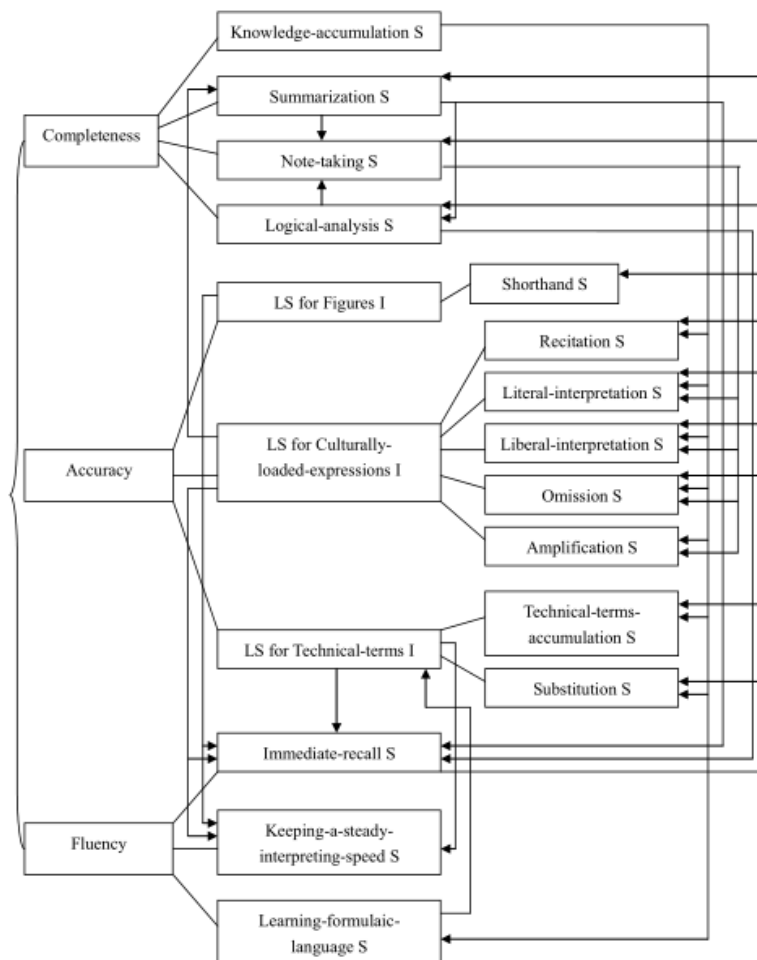


Figure: Model of Interpretation Learning Strategies
 Note: S-Strategy LS-Learning Strategies I-interpretation

From the above figure, it can be seen that all the interpretation learning strategies are considered to be a system, whose components are independent, interrelated and synergetic. By “independent”, it means that every strategy itself in the system exists distinguished from other strategies, like logical-analysis strategy. By “interrelated”, it means that every strategy is related to other strategies, like logical-analysis strategy facilitates note-taking strategy and immediate-recall strategy and is facilitated by immediate-recall strategy and summarization strategy. By “synergetic”, it means that synergies among the learning strategies create a whole that is more than the sum of its parts, like knowledge-accumulation strategy, summarization strategy, note-taking strategy and logical-analysis strategy together contribute to the completeness of interpretation.

V. CONCLUSION

This chapter reports the major findings of this study and provides implications.

A. Major Findings

The major findings yielded from the study are summarized as follows:

First, to achieve the accuracy of interpretation, they put more emphasis on interpretation of figures, culturally loaded expressions and technical terms. For figures interpreting, they employed repeatedly-practicing-shorthand strategy; for culturally-loaded-expressions interpreting, they employed recitation strategy, literal-interpretation strategy, liberal-interpretation strategy, omission strategy and amplification strategy; and for technical terms interpreting, they employed technical-terms-and-jargons-accumulation strategy and substitution strategy.

Second, to achieve the fluency of interpretation, they employed immediate-recall strategy, keeping-a-steady-interpreting-speed strategy and learning-formulaic-language strategy. The first two learning strategies were shared by the three subjects while the last one was employed by S3 individually. It shows that keeping-a-steady-interpreting-speed strategy is not in line with Ren’s idea of interpretation (2009).

Third, combined with the previous study on interpretation learning strategies to achieve completeness of interpretation, all the interpretation learning strategies employed by the three successful learners to achieve the completeness, accuracy and fluency of interpretation formulate a model, which can be considered as a system, where its

components are independent, interrelated and synergetic. By “independent”, it means that every strategy itself in the system exists distinguished from other strategies. By “interrelated”, it means that every strategy is related to other strategies. By “synergetic”, it means that synergies among the learning strategies create a whole that is more than the sum of its parts.

B. Implications

The present study aims at exploring interpretation learning strategies employed by successful interpretation learners in the hope that the analysis and findings here could bring forward either systematic or somewhat new strategies and at the same time shed some lights on interpretation learning.

First, learners should give priority to language proficiency in interpretation learning without which interpretation will have nowhere to exist. Listening, speaking, reading and writing will, to a great extent, help better understand both the source and target language and avoid linguistic mistakes in interpretation.

Second, learners should develop a habit of accumulation, including general knowledge, frequently used culturally loaded expressions and technical terms especially in economic and political field, in one's routine study, which will ease the burden and facilitate the process of interpretation learning.

Third, although some learning strategies shared by all the three subjects, they may be employed in different ways, such as note-taking and repeatedly-practicing-shorthand strategy for figure interpretation. Thus, with the reference of successful interpretation experience, learners should find the ways that suit themselves to achieve the goal.

APPENDIX

访谈提纲

如何提高口译准确性？

1. 平时需要多背些单词吗？是随机选择一本单词书来背？还是有计划的选择一些针对性强的书？哪类单词是记忆的重点？
2. 口译中遇到听不懂的生词你怎么处理？平时怎么练习呢？
3. 口译中经常会有一些平时基本遇不到的专有名词或行业术语，你会怎么处理？平时有针对性练习吗？如何练习？
4. 数字是口译中比较难记的一项，你是怎么保证准确性的？平时如何练习？有没有什么技巧？
5. 你如何理解口译的准确性？你认为口译与笔译在准确性层面有没有异同？相同在哪里？不同在哪里？
6. 口译中涉及到原语的文化社会信息，你怎么处理？

如何提高口译通畅性？

1. 你认为口语水平对口译表达有影响吗？如何针对性的提高口译的口语表达？
2. 你在口译练习过程中有没有卡壳的时候？一般在什么情况下会出现卡壳的现象？你又是如何克服的呢？
3. 你觉得口译时语言表达的速度是越快越好吗？语速要控制在什么程度？
4. 如果口译段落较长，你如何使得语言表达比较有条理，语义层次分明？
5. 你有没有什么方法能使语言表达更通畅？

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A Study of Errors in the Paragraph Writing of EFL Learners: A Case Study of First Year Translation Students at University of Applied Science and Technology in Bushehr, Iran

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Abstract—The present study attempts to reveal the total number of errors in paragraph writing in First Year Translation students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. A total of 70 students at First Year Translation in Bushehr, Iran as foreign language learners take part in this investigation. The outcomes of the study show that sum number of errors in paragraph writing were 165. The outcomes show that there was no significant different in number of errors between topic sentence and supporting sentences. Also there was no significant difference between topic sentence and concluding sentence in paragraph writing. But there was a significant different in number of errors between supporting sentences and concluding sentence in First Year Translation students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. It was observed that the category that included the largest number of errors were the errors in supporting sentence.

Index Terms—error, error analysis, paragraph writing, writing difficulties

I. INTRODUCTION

The present study attempts to examine errors in the paragraph writing of EFL learners in topic sentences, supporting sentences, and concluding sentences of Iranian learners of English committed by First Year Translation students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. In the field of foreign language learning, researchers have been interested in identifying errors, classifying them, and evaluating their seriousness. Error is committed by many second and foreign language students because they are not aware of the rules in second or foreign language. Also these errors show problematic areas which students can't learn perfectly.

Corder (1971) stated that “errors are the result of some failure of performance”. Norrish (1983) defined “an error as a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something and consistently get(s) it wrong”. Lennon (1991) regarded an error as a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would not be produced by the speaker's native speaker counterparts (as cited in Liu and Wang, 2011). EFL learners committed many errors in listening, reading, speaking, and specially writing. Writing is an important and complicated skill. Writing is a productive skill that foreign and second language students need to learn in order to increase their ability in understanding the linguistic knowledge and their communication skill with other people. Writing is a bridge between a reader and a writer and if a writer is able to express his /her idea clearly and exactly, it can then be a useful communication for giving information to the readers. Therefore, the writer has to state material so that the reader can understand it without confusion and ambiguity.

Chidambaram (2005) argued that writing is a conscious, deliberate and planned activity.

Like other skills of language, writing purposes vary for teachers. Some teachers emphasize on forms of language, some functions of language, and others forms and communication. On the linguistic level the purpose of writing is using grammatical forms accurately. On the communication level, the aim of writing is to express an idea in order for the reader to be able to clearly understand the intention of writer. Therefore, by practicing writing, students are able to understand forms and functions of the grammatical goals. There are many reasons for errors in paragraph writing the main reason of which is that learners are acquainted with the rules or grammars of writing, so they can't transfer what they mean to the reader and support their main idea. Rajatanun (1988) said that “a paragraph is a unit of writing which expresses one central idea and consists of two kinds of sentences: a topic sentence and supporting sentences.” Jayakaran (2005) argued that “the basic unit of any writing, be it a composition, an essay, an article of general nature, a short story or a humor piece, is the paragraph”. A paragraph contains some sentences that expand a main basic idea. This basic idea is often expressed in the first part of the sentence and this first sentence of a paragraph is usually called the topic sentence. A paragraph is different in length. Some of them are short and others are long.

O'Donnell and Paiva (1993) provided more details about the essential parts for paragraph writing which include a topic sentence, supporting sentences, details, logical order, logical connectors, a concluding sentence, unity and that parallel progression that is most frequently used in the coherence. Owl (2009) clarified a paragraph as a group of

closely-related sentences which deal with and develop one idea. According to him, it is like a family in which all members are related; likewise, all sentences in the paragraph are related. Almost every piece of writing that is longer than a few sentences should be organized into paragraphs. A paragraph consists of the topic sentence, supporting sentences and the concluding sentence. These parts must be unified and coherent.

According to Wyrick (1999) in writing, it means that one thought flows smoothly into the next. In general, a writing error refers to the errors at the competence level of language students because it occurs regularly in their writing. Many students in universities of Iran have problems in paragraph writing, so the main purpose of this research is to find the common types of errors in paragraph writing made by Iranian students at University of Applied Science and Technology in Bushehr. Also, this research attempts to understand the main reason of problems in paragraph writing of EFL students to suggest solutions and to improve their paragraph writing tasks.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Several scholars, who studied the errors in paragraph writing committed by groups of foreign and second language learners learning English as second and foreign language, have reported interesting findings.

Zhang et al (1995) compared the writing performance of 138 non-English majors and 62 English majors of a Chinese university via a multiple choice test and an essay writing test. The results showed that the non-English majors did much better in the multiple choice task than in the writing task while the English majors did better the other way around, and that the non-English majors made far more errors in the writing task than the English majors did. In addition, they found that, for both English majors and non-English majors, rhetorical problems in their writing were much worse than grammatical problems (as cited in Liu and Wang, 2011). Connell (2000) analyzed different kinds of errors that Japanese students made on tests which required full, written sentences to get the results for constructing a suitable syllabus. Each error was analyzed on how it affected the understanding of the sentence in which it was used. The results showed that the use of subject in a sentence, the parts of speech and general word order created more problems than other grammatical aspects (p. 95-103). Olsen (1999) carried out research in English written by Norwegian EFL learners. Language problems on different linguistic levels were analyzed and the theory of compensatory strategies was used (as cited in Olsen). The results showed that less proficient learners had a higher number of grammatical, orthographic and syntactic errors, which can be attributed to cross-linguistic influence. Thananart (2000) examined errors in comparison and contrast paragraphs written by EFL university students at Chulalongkorn University. The vast majority of errors were grammatical structure (73.86%), and the other types of errors were errors in using transition signals (10.01%), verb forms (7.68%), word choice (6.90%) and spelling (1.55%). Khansir and Shahhoseiny (2013) analyzed the written errors such as articles, tense, active and passive voice of Iranians at pre-university level. The results of the study indicated that the total number of errors committed by pre-university level were 1755. It was observed that the pre-university students produced 669 in articles which came to 38.2%. In fact the largest number of errors was the errors of articles. The total number of errors found in active and passive voice was 506 which came to 28.8%. The number of errors made by Iranian at pre-university level in the use of tense was 580. They constituted 33% of errors for tenses.

Khansir (2013) analyzed the written errors such as punctuations, articles, spellings and conjunctions in the writing of Iranian and Indian students (as cited in Khansir 2013). The results of the study indicated that the total number of errors committed by the Iranian students was 3045 and that of their Indian 'peers' was 3274. The maximum errors made by the subjects were from the realm of 'punctuation' (1387). The number of errors made by the Indian students in the use of punctuation was 718 which came to 22% for errors in punctuation. The Iranian students committed 669 errors. They constituted 22% of errors for punctuation. Thus, the minimum number of errors recorded in writing in this study was 'spelling.' The total number of errors in the use of spelling was 1050. The number of errors committed by the Iranian students in the use of spelling was 578 which come to 19% for errors in spelling. The number of errors committed by the Indian students was 472. They constituted 14% of errors for spelling. Cheng (1994) examined 455 errors in the English compositions produced by six first-year English majors and three second-year English majors from a Chinese university in Beijing. The researcher groups the errors into four categories (morphological, lexical, syntactic, and semantic errors) with several subcategories in each type and concluded that syntactic errors were the most serious, followed by semantic errors and morphological errors. Nevertheless, the researcher did not provide any scheme of classifying the errors or explain what constituted each type of the errors (as cited in Liu and Wang 2011).

Nowadays English is a special place in the university curriculum in many countries, because English is an international language. English is used as second or foreign language by a great number of people in many countries even though their native language is different. Also, English is the language of communication in the world. Many EFL learners have problems in different aspects of English language especially in paragraph writing. In Iran, many instructors in universities face a large number of errors in learning English especially in paragraph writing. Sometimes in paragraph writing student 'sentences do not have a topic sentence, occasionally their sentences are long or short, and once in a while their sentences lead to no conclusion. Therefore, in order to assist the learner to improve their paragraph writing, in this study the researcher needs to recognize most common types of learners' errors in paragraph writing and compare errors in topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence with each other. Using this method, the researcher can understand which part of writing is more problematic for First Year Translation students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology.

Research Questions. The following research questions are of particular interest:

1. Is there a significant difference in number of errors between the topic sentence and supporting sentences in paragraph writing made by Bushehr EFL students?
2. Is there a significant difference in number of errors between supporting sentences and concluding sentence in paragraph writing made by Bushehr EFL students?
3. Is there a significant difference in number of errors between the topic sentence and concluding sentences in paragraph writing committed by Bushehr EFL students?

Hypotheses of the Study. The hypotheses of this study are:

1. There isn't a significant difference in the number of errors between the topic sentence and supporting sentences in paragraph writing made by Bushehr EFL students.
2. There isn't a significant difference in the number of errors between supporting sentences and concluding sentence in paragraph writing made by Bushehr EFL students.
3. There isn't a significant difference in number of errors between the topic sentence and concluding sentences in paragraph writing made by Bushehr EFL students.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study concentrates on the errors in paragraph writing that are committed by First Year Translation Students of Applied Science and Technology in Bushehr. The methodology in this study consists of two stages: At the first stage data are collected and then analyzed. In this study the data are collected in order to a) compare errors in paragraph writing; b) determine the number of errors in paragraph writing; c) to understand main reason of writing errors. In fact in this study the researcher investigates the types of errors in students of Applied Science and Technology in Bushehr and then she compares errors in the topic sentence, supporting sentences, and the concluding sentence of their paragraph writing. The data is analyzed through the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) software in this research.

Participants. The participants for this study consisted of 70 First Year Translation students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. These learners were in their second semester and were learning English as a foreign language. Of the 70 students, 40 were male and 30 were female. Their age range was 19 to 28. Table 1 shows frequency age of these students.

TABLE 1:
AGE AND FREQUENCY OF THE SUBJECTS

Age	Frequency
19-22	32
21-28	38

Instruments. Like Khansir and Shhoseiny (2013) the instruments utilized in this study were a) A General English Proficiency Test for determining the proficiency level in English of the participants; b) A background questionnaire to extract information on subjects' age, gender and level of education and the topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence in paragraph writing were developed by the investigator. According to Khansir (2013) the General English Proficiency Test (Transparent) in this study consisted of 50 multiple choice vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension items. The test was selected in order to estimate the level of English proficiency in students. In this study the background questionnaire consisted of 10 questions about address, age, family, language, etc. The topic sentences, supporting sentences, and concluding sentences in paragraph writing is used for collecting data in this research. Using different parts of paragraph was designed in order to measure the ability of students in paragraph writing and get knowledge about most problematic areas of writing in First Year Translation Students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. In this study, the paragraph writing is used for recognizing the number of errors in different parts of a paragraph.

Procedure. Before concentrating on paragraph writing which has a basic function in this study, in order to collect the data, the researcher gives some proficiency test to the students. The proficiency test was administered to the Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. Therefore, the researcher gives some proficiency test to the students in order to understand the proficiency level of students. The General Proficiency Test was appropriate for Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. The reliability of this test through K-R21 was .68 for these participants. The paragraph writing was the fundamental purpose in this study, therefore the researcher developed A paragraph writing test. In addition, the present researcher visited Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. The researcher gave a simple and an interesting topic to students and asked them to write three short paragraphs which consisted of a topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence. Also the researcher said that their time was limited. The time for paragraph writing was 60 minutes. After a few days the researcher again gave the students topic sentence to the students and asked them to write a paragraph. Again, the topic was interesting and easy to write. Also, in this stage the researcher determined the time. The researcher gave different subjects to the students for paragraph writing. In fact she examined paragraph writing several times in First Year Translation Students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology in order to understand in which parts of paragraph writing (the topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence) students needed more practice. Then the researcher classified, explained,

compared error and suggested remedial measures to overcome these errors. In the first process, the researcher classifies errors in paragraph writing made by the students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. In the second process, the researcher compares the type of errors in the topic sentence with supporting sentences. In the third process, the researcher compares errors in supporting sentences with concluding the sentence and in the fourth stage she compares errors in the topic sentence with errors in concluding sentence in paragraph writing in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology. Finally, the researcher explains the cause of errors in paragraph writing. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is recognizing the common types of errors in paragraph writing in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology and then helping students to improve their writing by avoiding these current errors.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

To assess the different degrees of errors in different parts of paragraph writing, one way ANOVA was applied. The results of the study revealed that the total number of errors in paragraph writing in First Year Translation students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology was 165. The number of errors in the topic sentence was 85 which came to 81.6% errors in this area. The number of errors in supporting sentences was 69 which came to 97.2%. Also the number of errors in concluding sentence was 38 which included 53.5% of students' error. Therefore, the number of students' errors in supporting sentences was higher than the errors in the topic and concluding sentence. The below table shows these errors clearly.

TABLE2:
NUMBERS OF ERRORS IN TOPIC SENTENCE, SUPPORTING SENTENCES, CONCLUDING SENTENCE

Test item	Errors	Percentage
Topic sentence	58	%81.6
Supporting sentences	69	%97.2
Concluding sentence	38	%53.5
Total	165	%23.37

In order to answer the questions of this study, the researcher compares the number of errors in the topic sentence and supporting sentences. The results revealed that there is no significant difference between the topic sentence and supporting sentences in paragraph writing.

TABLE3:
TOPIC SENTENCE AND SUPPORTING SENTENCES

Test item	Mean	N	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Topic sentence	1.4571	70	.8458	.00	4.00
Supporting sentences	2.5072	70	.93342	1.00	6.00

Table (3) indicated that standard deviation (topic sentence = .84589 and supporting sentence = .93342) and mean scores (topic sentence = 1.4571 and supporting sentences = 2.5072) of the two variable are not very different. Thus, there is no significant difference in the number of errors between the topic sentence and supporting sentences. Therefore, the first hypothesis is supported. The students committed more errors in supporting sentences than the topic sentence in paragraph writing. The minimum number of errors in the topic sentence is .00 and the maximum number of errors is 4. The minimum number of errors in supporting sentences is 1 and the maximum is 6 in paragraph writing.

TABLE 4:
CONCLUDING SENTENCE AND SUPPORTING SENTENCES

Test item	Mean	N	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Concluding sentence	1.3143	70	.73313	1.00	4.00
Supporting sentences	2.5072	70	.93342	1.00	6.00

Table (4) indicated that standard deviation (concluding sentence = .73313 and supporting sentence = .93342) and mean scores (concluding sentence = 1.3143 and supporting sentence = 2.5072) of the errors in concluding sentence and supporting sentence were different. Thus, the number of errors in these variables are different. Therefore, there is a significant difference between the numbers of errors in supporting sentences and concluding sentence in paragraph writing of First Year Translation Students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and technology. Again the second hypothesis in this study is rejected.

TABLE5:
TOPIC SENTENCE AND CONCLUDING SENTENCE

Test item	Mean	N	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Topic sentence	1.4571	70	.84589	.00	4.00
Concluding sentence	1.3143	70	.73313	1.00	4.00

Table (5) indicated that the standard deviation (Topic sentence = .84589 and concluding sentence = 73313) and mean scores (Topic sentence=1.4571 and concluding sentence =1.3143) of these two variables are different. The number of errors in concluding sentence is smaller than the number of errors in the topic sentence because the mean and standard deviation of errors in concluding sentence were smaller than the mean and standard deviation in the topic sentence. Thus, the results of this table and comparison between the number of errors in the topic sentence and concluding sentences show that the students committed more errors in the topic sentence than the concluding sentence. But the mean and standard deviation were not very different. Therefore, there is not a significant difference in the number of errors between the topic sentence and concluding sentence. Therefore, the third hypothesis is supported as well.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the errors in paragraph writing of EFL learners and its contribution to English language teaching in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology in Iran. The results of this study show that Iranian foreign language learners have several problems in paragraph writing. It was found that they were not familiar with some rules in paragraph writing. English is not the second language in Iran but it is a foreign language. Students learn English in schools, institutes, and universities. Most of the time, they couldn't use this language in communication and environment. Therefore, they forget rules of English. Also, in some English classrooms, teachers emphasize grammar and they don't teach students a good way for writing. Many students are able to start paragraph writing but they can't continue the subject. Sometimes, their sentences were short and lack meaning. Therefore, it seems that students of First Year Translation in Bushehr University of Applied Science have some problems in supporting their writing. Thus, some students understand the grammar of language but are not able to apply these rules in paragraph writing.

Another source of errors in paragraph writing in this research could be lack of knowledge in grammar, vocabulary, interference of mother tongue, and lack of sufficient practice in writing. In addition, some methodologies in teaching English and learning strategies were responsible for students committing errors in paragraph writing of students in Bushehr University of Applied Science and Technology in Iran. Thus, teachers should choose effective methodology for teaching writing, familiarize students with useful ways of learning English, insist on correct spelling, vocabulary and grammar, and should help students pay attention to punctuation and practicing more regarding writing of different parts of a paragraph. In conclusion, students should be able to write a good topic sentence, support it and reach a reasonable conclusion in paragraph writing. In addition, teachers should help students in paragraph writing by familiarizing students with English grammar, and using accurate ways of expressing ideas in writing and by helping their students apply the certain essential rules in the writing of sentences.

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Symbolic Meanings of *Red and Black*

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Abstract—Stendhal is regarded as “Father of the modern novel”, his masterpiece *Le Rouge et le Noir* (Red and Black), is the foundation of critical realism literature. In novel *Julien Sorel* deeps up his true feeling in order to pursue fame and fortune, to squeeze into the upper class, and he covers up his original face with hypocrisy to adapt to the society. Stendhal's creation and contribution lies in the creative use of symbolic description, depicting the 1830 French Bourbon Restoration of social life truthfully and artistically. In this novel, he ingeniously uses a variety of color description techniques, showing his artistic effect. Attempts have been made to solve the riddle of the title Stendhal chose for his novel, none has proved totally satisfactory. This paper analyses the symbolic meaning of “red” and “black” from different angles on the basis of deeply understanding author's intention. This paper states that the influence of his writing is universal and connected to humans, while studying the meaningful symbolism is a absolutely good beginning for understanding Stendhal.

Index Terms—Stendhal, *Julien Sorel*, symbolism, symbolic meaning of red and black

I. INTRODUCTION

Le Rouge et le Noir (Red and Black) is Stendhal's first masterpiece and a major work of realist literature. The novel's full title, *Le Rouge et le Noir: A Chronicle of the 19th Century*, explains two kinds of literary purposes, one is psychological portrait of the romantic protagonist, Julien Sorel, and the other analytic, sociological satire of the French social order under the Bourbon Restoration (1814-1830); in literature, it is considered the first realist novel.

Nowadays, as many new ideas and new thoughts come out one after another, more and more scholars in China and abroad have put forward questions on the color symbolic significance of Red and Black. Therefore, this paper takes the color “red” and “black” as an example to analyze the unique skills of symbolism by Stendhal. The author makes effort to explore the strength and depth of its symbolic meaning of the novel's title.

The most common explanation of the title is that red and black is the contrasting color of the army uniform of the times and of the robes of priests, respectively. However, the symbolic resonances of the colors in the title including red for love, and black for death and mourning; or red and black as the colors of the roulette wheel may indicate the unexpected changes in the hero's career. This article tries to make a systematic study of the symbolic meaning of color “red” and “black”. It will be analyzed from several aspects of social background, artistic value, plot, the novel's creative intent and humanity. By a further exploration of the theory, we can get a deeper understanding of Stendhal's representative work.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition of Symbolism

Symbolism is the use of multiple symbols representing differentiated terms in a system which conveys meaning. The human mind is functioning symbolically some components of its experience elicit consciousness, beliefs, emotions, and usages, other components are the “symbols” and the latter constitute the “meaning” of the symbols. The organic functioning is transition from the symbol to the meaning is called “symbolic reference”. The symbolic reference is the active synthetic element contributed by the nature of the percipient. It requires some community between the natures and meaning of symbol. Symbolism was usually produced by allegory giving the literal event and its allegorical counterpart a one-to-one correspondence.

B. Development of Symbolism

Symbolism later was a nineteenth-century art movement of French and Belgian origin in poetry. In literature, the movement had its roots in *Les Fleurs du mal* (The Flowers of Evil, 1857) by Charles Baudelaire. The works of Edgar Allan Poe, admired and translated into French, were a significant influence and the source of many stock tropes and images.

C. The Use of Symbolism in Other Works

Some have argued that *Macbeth* provides a possible source of symbolism: black and red stand for night (evil) and blood (ambition, violence). Symbolism is not hard to find in Shakespeare's “*Hamlet*”. The most important symbol is the ghost of Hamlet's father, who makes his appearance at the beginning of the play. As T.S. Eliot once described, “*Hamlet* this character has had an especial temptation for that most dangerous type of critic: the critic with a mind which is

naturally of the creative order, but through weakness in creative power exercises itself in criticism instead" (Sacred Wood, p 83). As that observation implies, it is not so much that Hamlet cannot make up his mind about the symbolic significance of the ghost and what exactly he should do to avenge his father's death; it is just that he continually second-guesses himself.

III. SYMBOLIC SIGNIFICANCE ANALYSIS OF –“RED” AND “BLACK”

A. *Historical Review*

There are three recent articles to which reference should be made: in the first by D. Diono, *Le Rouge et le Noir: The Enigma of a Title* (West Virginia University Philological Papers, 19 (1972), pp.12), a figurative interpretation of the colors red and black is proposed to show the hero's passion and melancholy, with an appeal to Stendhal's probable knowledge of the relevant articles on color in the Encyclopedia. Although this attempts to establish a possible source for the symbolism, the article is mainly valuable for the summary of the views of other critics which it presents. We are, however, still left without a truly coherent picture. The second article is by S. Bokobza, *Rouge et Noir: le blason de Julie* (Stendhal Club, 85 (1979), pp. 37-41). Here the emphasis is on the symbolic colors of the coat of arms which Stendhal is thought of as inventing for Julien. Red stands for courage, etc., black for various aspects of melancholy, and the whole can again be documented from the Encyclopedia and *L'Armorial universel*, not to mention Stendhal's own liking for inventing coats of arms. The third article, by B. Reizov, He convincingly rejects the frequent assertion that red refers to Napoleon's army, and indeed black and red are shown not to be political colors at all. For Reizov, the truth of the symbols lies in two prophetic passages: the red of the Church scene at Verrieres and the black of Mathilde's first appearance in mourning. These are perceived as two aspects of Julien's love affairs, both pointing forward to elements in the final portion of the novel. Reizov seeks to show that the ambition and criminality of the hero are Stendhal's true subject matter.

This work, from beginning to end, run through the following three sets of mainlines of “red” and “black”.

B. *"Red" and "Black" -- A Symbol of Uniforms of Army and Church*

This is Stendhal's explanation in answer to a friend's inquiry. At the beginning of the novel, he shows people a young man, Julien, who looks frail but has some kind of enterprising spirit in his soul.

However, he was born unfortunately at the wrong time. In the Restoration period, the civilian even has no opportunity to wear the military uniform, so the best way toward the upper class is to be a priest. When he saw a venerable old judge in a silly dispute was defeated by a little priest, he was no longer mention the name of Napoleon while strenuously pursued the theology. Here, “red” and “black” is parallel; they are the road of Julien rocketing to success.

C. *"Red" and "Black" - A Symbol of Fame and Death*

1. **The angle of the novel's creative intent**

Why did Stendhal create a young man full of ideals and doing things carefully and prudently, while ended it in tragedy? This is the figurative meaning that Stendhal did not explain completely. That is, “red” symbolizes the pursuit of fame of Julien, “black” symbolizes the death. Here “red” and “black” is not parallel, but antagonistic contradiction. Stendhal regarded this set of red and black as Julien's pursuit of his dream, it is not only because Stendhal joined the army at the age of 17, crusaded in Europe three times with Napoleon, he is the only contemporary writer who really understands the Napoleonic era. While at that time, priest is a career that ambitions can be achieved.

2. **The angle of the novel's plot**

At the beginning of this novel, for Julien began his journey with such a description:

He found it dark and empty. When there was a holy day to be celebrated, all the casement windows were covered with crimson cloth. When the rays of the sun shone through, this produced a dazzling light, deeply impressive and profoundly religious. Julien shivered. All alone in the church, he seated himself in a strikingly attractive pew. It bore Monsieur de Renal's coat of arms.

Kneeling on the prayer stool, Julien noticed a scrap of printed paper, flattened out as if for reading. He leaned forward and read:

Circumstances attending the execution and the last moments of Louis Jenrel, executed at Besancon on the ... (This odd-sounding name is an anagram of Julien Sorel. Stendhal was very fond of anagrams, which frequently figure in the ludic threads that run through his fiction.)

The paper had been ripped. On the back could be made out the first words of a line, which read: The first step.

"Who could have put this bit of paper here?" thought Julien. "Poor wretch," he added with a sigh, "his name ends just like mine..." – and then he crumpled the paper. (Stendhal Club, 85 (1979), pp. 56). Leaving the church, Julien thought he saw blood near the basin of holy water, but it was only sanctified liquid that someone had spilled. The play of light through the red curtains over the windows made the water seem like blood.

Now Julien was ashamed of his secret terror.

"Am I turning into a coward!" he exclaimed to himself. "Forward March!"

These words, so often recited during the old surgeon-major's battle stories, were heroic to Julien. He walked rapidly

toward Monsieur de Renal's house.

From this, the novel began to have foreshadowed the outcome of the hero: Julien departed from the church to Monsieur de Renal's be a tutor and began to run to the battlefield to pursue his career, to be a secretary of Monsieur de La Moles; back to the church to shoot his lover, Madame de Renal; sentenced to death, indicate the result that his pursuit of "red" must be bound to be a failure or death-that is "black".

3. The angle of lexicology

Through the French, English and Chinese dictionary, we can see, the explanation for "red" and "black" are almost the same. "Red": (1)the colour of blood of fire; (2)informal communist or extremely left-wing political views--used to show disapproval; (3) revolutionary; (4)success; (5)smooth; "black": (1)the very darkest colour, like night or coal, (2)without light; completely dark; (3)very dirty; covered with dirt; (4)sad and without hope for the future; (5)full of feelings of anger or hate; (6)death (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Pearson ESL, 2003; Oxford

Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. Oxford University Press, 2004; 精选法汉法词典. 商务印书馆, 2003).

We must distinguish three major aspects with which we will have to deal in providing an interpretation: (1) the literal meaning (a curtain is red because that is its colour), (2) the ethical meaning (the redness of the cathedral curtain symbolizes the glory and the power of the Church); (3) an allegorical meaning (the red colour reminds us of other-emotional-levels of the narrative. The remaining examples of the use of red are the most important and are connected with the Church; they fall into two groups.

First, the ceremonial use of red: in the church at Verrieres, in the cathedral for the Corpus Christi celebrations, and again at Verrieres. There is a link, which has often been remarked upon, joining the first and last of these occurrences by a bond of Fate, sealed by the repetition of colour as well as the details of the newspaper cutting.

However, more can be said: Madame de Renal appears in all three episodes and this forms a further important link between them. The presence of her love runs parallel to the colour and we therefore have a correspondence of elements which allows us to see, on the three interpretative levels mentioned above, ambition and religion (the Church), plus passion (love of Madame de Renal). The narrative itself will show how Julien's ambition is destroyed by his passion.

The second group of instances concerns high ecclesiastical office and power. We may provisionally read equation as black = the humble dress of tutor/priest, and red =the high peaks of success in this same segment of society. For there is no doubt—the only way to success in 1830 is through the Church, and even the aristocratic and military 'blues' are subject to it. This is our second meaning for red.

The most obvious other use is to denote the "soutane- and the "tutor--. This, however, has another level of meaning for it denotes low caste. The soutane is also contrasted with mufti; it is sorrowful, indicating melancholy, poverty, and social inferiority. The black of death gives us a secondary level of interpretation for it is doubtless as an intentional reminder of melancholy and Fate that Stendhal chose that there should be a funeral service at the church before the feast day. Similarly,

Mathilde appears in mourning for a character of whom Julien seems a nineteenth-century avatar; the significance of this is appreciated because she will take his head as Marguerite de Navarre took that of Boniface de la Mole. Black has a more sinister political meaning too, albeit one still associated with the clergy, for the postal spies and the conspirators on both sides are distinguished by this colour.

Therefore, from the perspective of lexicology, the author's allegory is clear: red army uniforms and black robes-pursued success with the enthusiasm (red) is bound to death (black).

D. "Red" and "Black" - A Symbol of Womb, Rebirth of Julien and Church, Death, Cavern

1. View from the plot

Looking back on his four-year pursuit of fortune, Julien repeated "success", "gain of fame and fortune", "to make a rapid career advance", and always envied "happiness" of the rich everywhere, actually he has never been clear about what he wants. In short, it is more accurate to say that Julien is a misguided young man when he pursues his happiness than an individualistic careerist. What he did and thought is contradictory in nature with his mind Red and Black actually described a young man how changed from lost to clear when he pursued happiness. This is also the place which this novel has a great impact. So he found his belongs and was given a rebirth. In this sense, he is a winner and realizes his errors and mends his ways. Here the "red" and "black" are the unity of opposites.

2. View from the Implication

"Red" and "black" make up the relationship of dialectical unity. One symbols of "black" is beyond the existence of chains of linguistic signs. Its token is trauma and death; while the symbols of "red" obviously associated with blood and death. Thus, "red" and "black" had merged.

Analyzing from psychology, cavern and the church may symbolize the womb. They all offer the promise of rebirth in symbolic significance. Through contradiction, protest, practice, he finally got regeneration. Here, "red" is symbolizing the blood, the womb, the church and the and Julien's rebirth. "Black" is symbolizing the church a cave of death. "Red" and "black" here again melt into a parallel.

The transcendence of *Red and Black* lies in the multiple hidden symbolic meaning. It is not only a symbol of the historical existence, but also a symbol of the survival of human spirit. "Red" and "black" shows the relationship

between coexistence and confrontation, which expressed Stendhal's acute observation of history and human nature. It represents the difficulty and contradiction of human spirit. The following respects can formulate another kind of symbolic meaning of the colour-"red" and "black" from humanity.

E. "Red" and "Black"- A Symbol of Ideal and Reality

Life experience is a process of enduring the temptation of interest, money, power, beauty and so on. Julien is an idealist, not a simple, single image of the individual striver and careerist. His performance in the novel is one kind of process that individualism and idealism synchronism, repress, transit, and soar. It can be said that in this tortuous process of ups and downs, all of his personal struggle behavior of Julien paves the way for the final outbreak of his idealism.

Julien can give up the rational death to pursue the perceptual survival, but he does not. "Idealist" has become an important symbol of Julien, while individualist is exactly the opposite of idealists, the two rebels against each other but they are simultaneous in Red and Black. It shows the theme spirit of Stendhal: he confused in the dark reality and light bright ideal which coexists at the same time, however, he also firmly believe the sublimation and guidance for mankind of idealism. "Black" represents the reality's power of darkness; "red" represents the athanasia of idealism. Starting from the primitive human spirit, Julien is a prodigal son returns to idealism that people happy to see, even a hero.

F. "Red" and "Black" -- A Symbol of Love and Conspiracy

Red and Black is certainly a great love story, its greatness lies in the combination of history and love. Whereas, it seems that conspiracy hidden in history, so, love and conspiracy have not been individualized in the novel. Julien's love start with conspiracy, this includes both Julien's own conspiracy. The love began with conspiracy, eventually evolving into true love, whether Julien or Mathilde are all like this, this is not only contrary to their own surprise, but also confirmed that love is invincible to conspiracy.

In *Red and Black*, Julien, Madame de Renal, Mademoiselle Mathilde, represents three kinds of different purity separately. But the purity are surrounded and corrupted by conspiracy and hypocrisy. Julien painfully realizes that innocence will make people never come to anything in the end, but hypocrisy can make a person a fortune overnight with instant fame. Julien pursues status for his honor, and even gives up money and love. Julien really falls in love with Madame de Renal for his first love; second love, Mathilde really loves him, when Julien learns he did not kill Madame de Renal, that resurrects his intemperate love for her. Emotional nature of human purified their souls. It can be proved that love cannot be destroyed when Julien pour out everything in his heart to Madame de Renal, when Mathilde herself buried the head of Julien.

G. "Red" and "Black" - The Most Basic Symbol of Justice and Evil

The justice of human is struggled gradually in this kind of complex chaos, various factors converge together and form some kind of tenacious and dim tendency of justice. The justice mixes with many factors and turns to a complex process of interaction. The composite image is the unique understanding of Stendhal on justice and evil instead of telling it at once. He intends to construct one kind of blended image of red and black; such as the revolutions, history, and love and so on are also the performances of mixed image.

In *Red and Black*, justice and evil are not simple concepts but two complex tendencies of humanity with distinct boundaries. "Red" and "black" combines crime and virtue. It is consistent with Stendhal's longing of human ideal. The suggestibility of the scene that mentioned above typically represents the combination of justice and evil, the combination of humanization:

The play of light through the red curtains over the windows made the water seem like blood...The paper had been ripped. On the back could be made out the first words of a line, which read: The first step...

Red becomes the symbol for life, love, justice, passion and blood. "Black" shadow of the paper announced the death; to pursue the first step "red" means the inevitable ending of "black". The moderate exterior of "red" contains "black" violence, "black" evil highlights justice. Mathilde de la Mole said to Julien that, Republican era is the time of hero; people at that time were not so selfish. Here blood and black cassocks, ideal and reality, nobility and humbleness appear again in the indication.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the major colours provide the reader with a message on three separate but interrelated levels of interpretation. These may be stated schematically:

Red	Black
1. the colour of objects connected with the church	1. the colour of a priest's frock (and similar items)
2. ecclesiastical preferment	2. ecclesiastical and social subordination
3. a) energy and ambition b) passion (including love)	3. a) melancholy b) intelligence

These are connected in such a way that the opposition between low (black) and high (red), between melancholy and passion, is constantly present. And we are left with the following hypothesis: Stendhal may well have changed his title

from Julien in order to catch the eye of his prospective reader, but he would have done so in accordance with the structure which he had already imposed upon his nearly-completed novel. The structure of *Red and Black* is complex, but deliberate; even allowing that Julien's dreams were of Napoleon's army, the novel's title must surely be interpreted as referring to the particular ecclesiastical and emotional levels of the hero's experience in the society of 1830.

The processing of symbolic art skill in *Red and Black* shows excellent literature attainments of Stendhal. Analysis of symbolic significance makes readers step further toward real sense from the "confusing" feeling; understand ideological significance better of this monumental work; and make the analysis of the image more scientific. So, *Red and Black* is not only a symbol of the pursuit of life, but also a symbol of the theme of human spirit. By a further exploration of the theory, we can get a deeper understanding of Stendhal's representative work.

As many articles are increasing rapidly, more and more scholars in China and abroad have put forward questions on the symbolism of the "red" and "black". We hope that this research will help to consolidate our endeavor to formulate new theoretical studies and find answers to many questions in the field that demand answers.

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