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Substitution and Transition of English Lexicons: Focusing on Japglish and Singlish

Prabath Buddhika Kanduboda
Ritsumeikan University, Ritsumeikan International, Global Gateway Program, Japan

Abstract—This article examined the use of English lexicons (i.e., loan words) in the contexts of Japanese language and Sinhala language. Japanese language and Sinhala language are said to be identical in many linguistic aspects. Moreover, with the development of English language education, both languages have successfully adopted many lexicons from English into their own contexts. A comparison was conducted on Japanese and Sinhala languages with relation to the use of English loan words. This study, first, examined the transitional system in Japanese context (alias *Japglish*), and the substitution system in Sinhala language (alias *Singlish*). Then, the two systems are compared to seek whether, the processes of adaptation, and the nature of use, show any typological facts that linguistically binds both languages. The review showed that in Japanese language, the transition system allows to use four types of English loan words. In Sinhala language on the other hand, there are three types of English loan words that are being used by the substitution system. A further analysis showed that both systems possess unique aspects, though not identical conversely. Overall, this study concludes that, *Japglish* and *Singlish* demonstrate typologically incongruence in the process of adaptation and the nature of use.

Index Terms—lexical transition, lexical substitution, loan words, English lexicons, Japglish & Singlish

I. INTRODUCTION

It is widely known that English plays a major role as a common language in communication in many societies as either a second language or a lingua franca (Tonkin, 2004). According to this study, although the number of native speakers are greatly high in Chinese language (and English is been second high), English language dominates the status of been the first among other languages used by many states and people. While there are some contradictions to this phenomenon from different angles, there are also some unique developments in the field of sociolinguistics due to the spread of English language in non-native English speaking societies. Some states have taken additional steps to establish a unique usage of English language with that of their own in the country. In Japan for example, where English language is used and taught widely as a second language, has developed a transitional system of English loan words called Japanized English words [Zhang, Tamaoka, and Hayakawa, (2014), Shibasaki, Tamaoka, and Takatori, (2007)]. On the other hand, in Sri Lanka where English language is considered as a lingua franca, has developed a system that substitute English loan words with that of Sinhala language [Kanduboda, 2009; Premawardhana, 2003; Weerakoon, 2000].

According to linguistic typology on Japanese language and Sinhala language, many aspects in both languages are said to be identical [Miyagishi, 2003, 2005; Noguchi, 1984]. The main typological element between Japanese language and Sinhala language lies in word order phenomenon; in which both languages belong to Subject-Object-Verb word order class and they both possess a free-word-order phenomenon mostly in their colloquial styles [Kanduboda & Tamaoka, 2009; Tamaoka, Kanduboda, and Sakai, 2010; Kanduboda, 2014]. The English language is also being used in both Japan and Sri Lanka for long time. Although the records suggest that English has started to spread through the island as early as 1600 due to the initial contacts between the Japanese and Europeansⁱ, adoption in the society has taken several decades due to many social issues in politics, economics and education. In contrast, the case with Sri Lanka, English education has begun with the roots of colonization during 18sⁱⁱ under British rule. Despite the historical background, both countries possess their own languages; Japan with Japanese and Sri Lanka with Sinhala or (Sri Lankan) Tamil. Thus, the English language automatically becomes the second language to people in both countries¹. However, both countries treat English language in different scheme; for Japan, it's a second language, while for Sri Lanka it's a lingua franca. Despite these differences, both Japanese language and Sinhala language have been able to adopt English loan words into the daily contexts in a unique way.

The main purpose of this study is to examine the transition system in Japanese and the substitution system in Sinhala to discover any typological aspects that can be traced in the usage. The Japanese English is surveyed with transition by many linguistic scholars and have given ample evidence on the phenomenon. For Sinhala English, information on the substitution system is very limited but informative at the same time. Therefore, this study will overview the phenomena via the data from previous studies, and conduct a simple comparison between Japanese language and Sinhala language

¹ It should be noted that for some Sinhala or Tamil people English may be the third language since they learn either Sinhala or Tamil as another language before account with English education. However, is not taken into consideration in this paper.

to seek linguistic evidence on both languages.

This paper constitutes following steps. The next section will be responsible for providing information on Japanese English and its' transition system. Following chapter will present information on the substitution system of Sinhala language according to previous studies. Finally, the conclusion will deliver the overall summary of this study.

II. TRANSITION OF ENGLISH LEXICONS IN JAPANESE CONTEXT - JAPANIZED ENGLISH ALIAS *JAPGLISH*

According to a previous study done by (Shibasaki et al. 2007), there are two main arrays of argument for Japanized English. On one hand, a set of scholars consider Japanized English as an entry to the English language education. On the other hand, another set of scholars consider (especially with katakana English) Japanized English with negative consequences. Many arguments can be made to support and oppose both views in different ways. For example, in pedagogical view, the same phenomenon can be analyzed within the framework of Japanese as a second or third language to the native speakers of other languages. Another approach can be taken from linguistic perspective seeking the properties of the system, typological aspects with other languages and onwards. This paper examines the phenomenon in linguistic typology with relation to Sinhala language. Accordingly, the same phenomenon will be used as *Japglish* for the sake of this paper's purpose.

Japanese basically has three writing systems; *hiragana*, *katakana* and *kanji*. *Japglish* is written mostly in *katakana* (as *katakana* is the system that allocated to write anything that is foreign) and altered to many forms afterwards. There are four types of *Japglish* proposed in (Shibasaki et al. 2007). Further studies have examined the usage of these types with relation to Japanese language education. The results have demonstrated variety of difficulties in the processing of Japanese language by many learners such as English native speakers, Chinese native speakers, and Korean native speakers (Zhang et al. 2014; Yamato & Tamaoka, 2011, 2012). However, these four types of *Japglish* are used in daily conversations by the Japanese native speakers.

In Shibasaki et al. (2007), the first type consists of lexicons that are also in English but used with a different meaning. For example, English "smart" semantically represent the meaning of "being talented", where as in *Japglish* "smart (written and pronounced as *suma-to*²)" is semantically expresses when someone been "thin, good looking and handsome". The second type consists of lexicons which are shorten or deformed. For example, English "department store" is shorten in *Japglish* as "depart (written and pronounced as *depa-to*)". The third type consists of lexicons that are not in English but sounds like English. For instance, in *Japglish* there is word "nighter"³ (written and pronounced as *naita-*) which represents the meaning of a night game (especially in baseball). Finally, the last type consists of lexicons that exists in English but are combined/ adjoined to produce another meaning. For instance, English "hello" and "work" is combined as "hello-work (written and pronounced as *harowa-ku*⁴)" which expresses the meaning of "a job hunting center/ job bank". It should be noted that these *Japglish* widely used in written Japanese as a part of Japanese language.

Overall, it is evidential that the transition system in Japanese demonstrates quite uniqueness in adopting English language to its own. The loan words have been altered to some extend and adjusted in order to fit in the Japanese language context. Thus, original linguistic aspects such as word order, grammatical structure needn't to follow any changes and the new set of words can smoothly be fitted into Japanese context. In linguistic view, even though the semantic properties have being changed, the word class of origins has remained unchanged, nouns/ combined nouns. However at the same time, it is also evidential that due to this uniqueness, English native speakers who learn Japanese as a foreign or second language face difficulties in recognizing and processing sentences with real meaning, and wise versa.

The transition system is quite unique in Japanese language settings. The substitution in Sinhala language is correspondingly promotes another unique method of adopting foreign language into the own contexture. The next part will provide further details in this regard.

1. Substitution of English lexicons in Sinhala context - Sinhala English alias *Singlish*⁵

According to previous studies (Kanduboda, 2009; Premawardhana, 2003; Dissanayaka, 2007) substitution of lexicons from other languages such as Portuguese, Dutch and English have referred to the terms called language mixing and borrowing (and there is another accompanying term as language switching in sociolinguistics, however is not taken into consideration in the present argument⁶). Among other languages, English is said to play a major role in Sinhala context especially in colloquial form (the other is known as written) due to historical reasons (long period of colonialism) and economic, educational developments.

There are evidence that the substitution of English lexicons is mostly happened with content words such as simple nouns, combined nouns etcetera (but not functional words such as at, in, on etc.). An overall outline of Sinhala language

² Long vowel as a in 'car'

³ Pronounced as light-lighter

⁴ English 'lo' is pronounced in katakana as 'ro'

⁵ It is not the first paper to introduce the term *Singlish* as it has been used in some other previous studies (for example, Dissanayaka, 2007). Thus a further explanation will be omitted.

⁶ In some studies the term *language* is replaced with the term *code* according to different approaches. A detailed explanation of these three terms; *borrowing*, *mixing* and *switching*, is given in following studies (Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1990; Hoffmann, 1991; Nishimura, 1992). However, due to the controversies of these terms this study applies the term called lexicon substitution.

and its' substitution system are given by Dissanayaka, (2007). In his book he explains that people in Sri Lanka whose native language is Sinhala, use English in their daily conversations to a great deal. According to this study, there are number of methods which English lexicons are substituted into Sinhala language. As the study suggest, the substitution system depends on whether the English denotes a person, thing/ property, place or action⁷.

Table 1 represents patterns of substitution from English to Sinhala with relation to nouns. First, English nouns that denote persons can be substituted with a Sinhala noun by adding a suffix to the original (which entails no change of original form). For example, English "waiter" is used in Sinhala context by adding the suffix *-kenek* as in *waiter-kenek*. Again, some English nouns which denote properties can also be suffixed to express people from a different angel. For example, word "bicycle" can be suffixed with *-kariya* to make *bicycle-kaariya* to express a "female cyclist". The same method again is applied to substitute nouns like car, bus etc. suffix *-eka* is added to the end of English nouns and used in Sinhala context. The same methodology is used to adopt nouns for places such as China, toilet, Office and so on. Not only the nouns, but also verbs have been substituted into Sinhala context as illustrated in table 2.

Table 1. Patterns of English lexical substitution in Sinhala language – noun substitution

Original properties	English origin	Sinhala Suffix	Embedded form	Representation in Sinhala
Person	waiter	kenek	waiter-kenek	a waiter
		la	waiter-la	waiters
Thing	bicycle	kaari(ya) ¹	bicycle-kaari(ya)	a female cyclist (indefinite)
		kaariya+k ²	bicycle-kaariyak	a female cyclist (definite)
		kaariyo	bicycle-kaariyo	female cyclists
		kaaraya	bicycle-kaaraya	a male cyclist
		kaarayo	bicycle-kaarayo	male cyclists
Thing	car	eka	car-eka	a car
		s ³	cars	cars
		eka-ta ⁴	car-eka-ta	to the car
Place	China	wala-ta	china-wala-ta	to China

Note: All the substitutions are used in colloquial spoken style.

1 *kaari* can be used with or without *ya*.

2 suffix *-k* is a definite marker.

3 Pronounced as in English plural *s*.

4 Dative *ta* showing a direction.

Table 2. Patterns of English lexical substitution in Sinhala language – verb substitution

Original properties	English origin	Verb	Embedded form	Tense
Action (transitive)	develop	karanawa	develop-karanawa	develop/ developing (present)
		kara/kala	develop-kara/kala	developed (past)
		karanna	develop-karanna	request to develop (future)
		karai	develop-karai	will develop (future)
Action (intransitive)	develop	wenawa	develop-wenawa	developing
		wuna	develop-wuna	developed
		wenna	develop-wenna	to develop (future)
		wei	develop-wei	hope development/ing (future)

Table 2 illustrates how Sinhala has substituted English lexicons (in this case verbs), into Sinhala context. An English verb "develop" is embedded in transitive case and intransitive case. Both patterns show that the verb "develop" immediately suffixed with Sinhala verb *karanawa/ wenawa*. In order to adjust the foreign word into the context. The verb *karanawa* in Sinhala language semantically represent the meaning of "do", while the verb *wenawa* represents happen. According to Dissanayaka, (2007), these two types are the most highly used pattern in verb substitution. Similarly, the study done by Kanduboda, (2009), also posited the same ideas on the issue. However, this study has given evidence on a further noun class which was not mentioned in Dissanayaka, (2007). According to Kanduboda, (2009), there are some limited uses of English adjectives such as teaching, working, swimming in the conversations.

As a final point, we can conclude that Sinhala substitution system has two unique aspects. First, there are three main

⁷ The examples in table 1&2 are retrieved from Dissanaya, 2007, pp26-39.

parts of speech that are substituted into Sinhala context; nouns, verbs, adjectives. Second, although English lexicons are substituted into Sinhala context, in most cases, the original meaning remains unchanged regardless to the nature of lexicons⁸.

III. ENGLISH LEXICONS IN *JAPGLISH* AND *SINGLISH*

As noted in section 2, although transition of English lexicons in Japanese language occur mostly in different meaning in the usage, this process bears its pros and cons in many means. The biggest advantage can be noted as it allows Japanese language to intensify lexical capacity through this process. For example, there are many *Japglish* that represent distinctive concepts which are not presented by *hiragana* or *kanji* writings (e.g., *manner-mode* 'silent mode' for cell phones, *morning-service* 'breakfast special' (Shibasaki et al. 2007)). Another point is posited according to some previous studies (for example, Ozaki, 2005; Kawaguchi, 2004), through transition process, Japanese native speakers are motivated to learn and increase their own vocabulary capacity.

However, despite above advantages, many have argued that *Japglish* cause lot of disadvantages not only for Japanese native speakers, but also for the learners of Japanese language as a second or foreign language. The transition system is criticized by some studies since it causes Japanese native speakers to practice mistaken English to a great deal (Wainwright, 2004; Walsh, 2005). Since the transitioned concepts differ from its original English concepts, it is assumed to produce gaps between real English and fake English which eventually holds back of English improvement among Japanese learners who are willing to acquire English proficiency. In addition, the transition system also assumed building blocks among Japanese learners especially when they encounter *Japglish* as they sound English yet represent different. However, despite the controversies regarding the system, some scholars give credit to the system as a linguistic uniqueness which outlines Japanese language among other languages. The substitution system in Sinhala language, *Singlish* on the other hand, possesses its pros and cons again in many means.

As viewed in section 2.1, *Singlish* also illustrates its uniqueness to a great degree. The biggest strong point in *Singlish* is that the substituted lexicons do not undergo any alterations in meaning during the process. For example, nouns, verbs, and adjectives are mostly adapted to Sinhala context while the original meaning in English remains unchanged. Accordingly, it also allows native Sinhala speakers to broaden their English lexicon capacity without semantic misunderstandings.

However, the substitution system also comes up with its disadvantage for Sinhala language itself. As mentioned in previous studies (Dissanayaka, 2007; Premawardhana, 2003), some substituted lexicons possess no Sinhala counterparts (e.g., *apple*, *bus* etc.). As mentioned in (Appel & Muysken, 1987), it can be assumed that this may cause loss of linguistic aspects in Sinhala language if substitution takes place for long period of time.

IV. CONCLUSION

Since Japanese and Sinhala are said to possess many identical aspects in linguistic perspective, this study examined two phenomena that delineate both languages; transition system in Japanese language and substitution system in Sinhala language. The main purpose of this survey was to seek any typological factors between the phenomenon. In this study, the transition system is noted as *Japglish*, while the substitution system noted as *Singlish*. In order to ascertain the characteristics of *Japglish* and *Singlish*, data from previous studies were analyzed in both cases.

The results showed that both *Japglish* and *Singlish* possess unique aspects that outline each other. In *Japglish* for example, the transition system has adopted English lexicons through changing their semantic properties in accordance to Japanese language contexts. On the other hand, in *Singlish*, although the substitution process has not caused to alter semantic properties of the origins (in most cases), it has developed a unique grammar system (especially with relation to suffixes) which enables any English lexicon to smoothly fit-in to the Sinhala sentence structure. Overall, this study concludes that, Japanese transition system alias *Japglish* and Sinhala substitution system alias *Singlish* demonstrate incongruence in the process and usage of adaptation; Japanese converts English into *katakana* and alter the meaning, while Sinhala does not alter the meaning but restructure the syntax.

Although this study was able to reveal whether Japanese language and Sinhala language are identical in the given phenomenon, there are many other topics that are not taken into consideration in the scope of this study. For example, from a Japanese pedagogical perspective, it is important to seek information on how Sinhala native speakers who are learning Japanese language deal with *Japglish* during their studying process. In addition, from sociolinguistic perspective, since *Singlish* appears to play a major role in daily conversations, it is important to gather data on how Sinhala native speakers segregate the use of *Singlish* with that of normal Sinhala conversation. Upon these limitation of the present study, the author plans to conduct further research on *Japglish* and *Singlish* with relation to Japanese pedagogy, second language acquisition, and sociolinguistic area.

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⁸ However, can be exceptional in cases such as *car+kaaraya=car-kaaraya* meaning 'driver'.

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Prabath Buddhika Kanduboda was born in Colombo Sri Lanka in 1980. The general education from elementary school to high school graduation was attained in D.S. Senanayaka College Sri Lanka. The author obtained his bachelors' degree in social science at Asia Pacific Studies, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Beppu, Japan in 2005. Following, the author obtained the masters' degree in applied linguistics at Graduate school of Languages & Cultures, Nagoya University, Nagoya, Japan on 2009. Finally, the author gained the Ph.D. in linguistics at the Graduate school of Languages & Cultures, Nagoya University, Nagoya, Japan in 2012.

In his working experience, he worked as a part-time lecturer in English both in AichiToho University and Vocational School of Social Service, Nursery, Social Welfare & International Business, Nagoya, Japan from 2009 to 2013. He now works as a LECTURER in Ritsumeikan University, Ritsumeikan International, Global Gateway Program, Kyoto, Japan. At present the author conducts and is interested in doing research and survey on syntax (Sinhala language), acquisition and competence of English and Japanese as second & third language, psycholinguistics, academic writing and intercultural communication.

Dr. Kanduboda is a member of Japanese Association of Social Science, The Linguistic Society of Japan, The Japanese Society for Cognitive psychology.

ⁱ Wikipedia source, retrieved on March 4th, 2015, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English-language_education_in_Japan.

ⁱⁱ Wikipedia source, retrieved on March 5th, 2015, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/K._M._de_Silva.

Acquired Language Disorders as Barriers to Effective Communication

Emily Ayieta Ondondo

Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology (JOOUST), Kenya

Abstract—Communication is a complex process that involves various fundamentals. It not only involves different elements but also entails speaking, listening, writing and reading. Effective communication can be curtailed by a number of factors stemming from either the elements of the communication process, the participants, the communication environment or all of these. Language is a vital element in effective communication because communication is predominantly facilitated through language. Communication breakdown is witnessed in communication events involving people with fully developed proper language functions. Therefore, it is logical to argue that effective communication would be severely impaired in communication events involving people with language disorders. However, as the literature reveals, little has been done to find out how acquired language disorders affect effective communication. Adopting a descriptive design, this paper determines whether acquired language disorders pose any barriers to effective communication, what type of barriers they are and how the barriers affect communication effectiveness. It shows that acquired language disorders create process, semantic and psychological barriers that hinder effective communication at crucial stages in the communication process. The barriers generated prevent proper encoding, transmission and decoding of the message. The paper then provides some suggestions on how to improve effectiveness.

Index Terms—communication, barrier, language, disorder, aphasia

I. INTRODUCTION

Understanding communication and how it works is important to human beings. This is because everyday activities and functions involve some form of direct or indirect communication. Regardless of the activity or function, the participants in a communication event communicate with and through other participants. As a result, every participant's communication skills affect the effectiveness of any communication event (Brun, 2010; Summers, 2010). It, therefore, seems reasonable to argue that one of the most inhibiting forces to the effectiveness of any communication event is a lack of effective communication (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010) and that good communication skills are important to ones success as a participant in a communication event.

Human communication, however, is faced with a lot of problems and difficulties. Misinterpretations and misunderstandings arise more often than not. This is because whenever people try to communicate, something often seems to get in the way and they are not understood in the way they intended. Even when there is understanding it is often hard to get people to think or behave the way one would wish them to and this is largely dependent on the objective of the communication. For communication to be effective a message must be received (heard or read), understood, accepted and acted upon (change behavior or attitude), if this does not happen communication has failed and participants in a communication event get frustrated and resentful (Ondondo, 2014; Stanton, 2009).

The message that is to be communicated occurs as a thought in the mind of the sender. This thought has to be converted into an expressible form (code), that is, words and/or gestures (Chomsky, 1986; Ondondo 2014). Words constitute language, which is a code that can only be understood if both parties give the same meaning to the symbols that are used. Language is stored in the brain of human beings in form of lexical items and rules that determine how these items structure and function. To produce real speech these items are retrieved from the brain and structured according to language specific rules. In this way language, thought and the brain are interrelated because they have to work together as a system in the production of speech or writing.

Language is the primary form through which messages (whether spoken or written) are expressed in communication. Language is therefore central and vital to communication. This then implies that language disorders would have a negative effect on communication. However, little has been done in finding out how language disorders affect communication (Ondondo, 2014). As a result there is no research empirical or non-empirical endeavouring to answer this question that the author of this paper is aware of.

In this paper, therefore, I set out to determine and explain how acquired language disorders affect communication. I discuss how acquired language disorders are barriers to effective communication and provide suggestions on what can be done to improve communication effectiveness. I begin by briefly explaining what communication is and the process by which it occurs in section 2. In section 3, I provide a summary of the main types of barriers to effective communication. In section 4, I describe the main acquired language disorders. In section 5, I discuss how acquired language disorders are barriers to effective communication, highlighting what type of barriers they are. In section 6, I

provide some suggestions on how to improve effectiveness. Finally, I give a conclusion to the paper in section 7 and suggestions for further research in section 8.

II. THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication is defined by Keyton (2011) as the process of transmitting information and common understanding from one person to another. The definition accentuates the fact that unless a common understanding results from the exchange of information, there is no communication (Lunenburg, 2010).

There are important elements of the communication process, as figure 1 identifies (Cheney, 2011; Lunenburg, 2010).

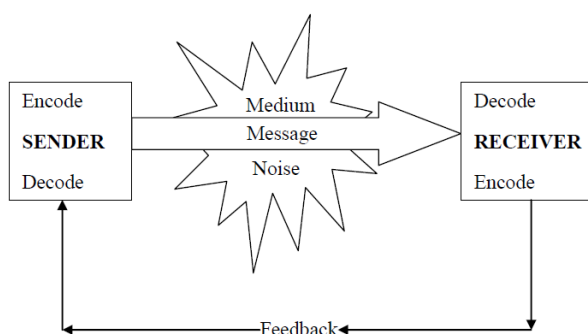


Figure 1: The communication process.

The communication process consists of six important elements, as figure 1 above shows: the sender, the message, the medium, noise, the receiver and feedback. However, the key elements in any communication event are the sender and the receiver (Lunenburg, 2010). The sender, as the person who has a need or desire to convey an idea or concept to others, is the initiator of the communication. The receiver, on the other hand, is the individual to whom the message is sent.

The sender encodes the idea or concept by selecting words, symbols or gestures, which s/he deems important and best to use in the composition of the message. It is also the responsibility of the sender to choose the right channel/medium through which to pass the message. The sender is, therefore, the sole determinant of the message and the channel through which it passes to the receiver. Other than being the encoder (the composer of a message), in the communication process, the sender can also be the decoder (the interpreter of the message). This occurs when the sender receives feedback from the receiver which s/he has to interpret and act upon.

The outcome of the encoding process is the message, which can either be spoken language, written language or nonverbal. The message is the content of the communication act. It is the information intended for the receiver. It has to be in the right code, well organized and understandable to the receiver. To get from the sender to the receiver, the message is sent through a medium or channel. The medium is the carrier of the message, that is, the way through which the information is passed. To achieve effectiveness, the medium chosen has to be appropriate for the message and recipients. It can be a face-to-face conversation, a telephone call, an e-mail or a written report.

The receiver is the person for whom the message is meant. The receiver is to receive and comprehend the message. On receiving the message, the receiver decodes it into meaningful information. After interpreting the message, the receiver reacts to it and sends feedback to the sender. At this point in the communication process, the receiver is the encoder as s/he is the one who composes the message to send back to the sender as feedback. Because they interchange positions, the receiver is as important in the communication process as the sender.

Noise, in the communication process, is anything that distorts the message and includes things like: different perceptions and interpretations of the message, language barriers, interruptions, emotions, attitudes etc.

The last element, in the communication process, is feedback. This is the receiver's response, in form of a message, to the sender's message. Feedback can be verbal or non-verbal cues perceived in reaction to communication. Feedback allows the sender to determine whether the message has been received and understood, hence it helps monitor whether the communication is effective or not. As mentioned above, at the point of feedback, the receiver becomes the sender and encodes the message, while the sender becomes the receiver and decodes the message.

Besides the elements of the communication process outlined in the preceding discussion, the situation or context in which the communication occurs is also important for effectiveness. The art of communication takes place within a context or situation (Stanton, 2009). In order to communicate effectively, participants in a communication event need to learn to recognize the characteristics of the situation they are to communicate in. There is need for them to identify similarities in situations in order to learn from their experiences and know what to do or what to expect. However, participants need to analyze each situation anew. It is problematic for them to assume a situation as familiar as this may lead to assuming that they know what to say and do, which may not be appropriate to that situation.

The quality of any communication is determined by the elements in the communication process discussed above. A problem in any one of these elements can reduce communication effectiveness (Keyton, 2010, 2011). For effective

communication to be achieved, information must be encoded and decoded into a message that can be understood as the sender intended. An appropriate medium for carrying the message must be selected. Elements of noise that may affect the communication must be put into consideration in the encoding and decoding of the message. There has to be some kind of feedback. When feedback does not occur, the communication process is referred to as one-way communication, which is undesirable (Lunenburg, 2010; Stanton, 2009). Finally, participants should be familiar with the context of the communication in order to help notice and tackle any problems that may ensue during the communication.

III. BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Ineffective communication is brought about by the existence of noise in any of the elements of the communication process: the sender, the encoding, the message, the medium, the decoding, the receiver and the feedback. Complete clarity of meaning and understanding does not occur if noise exists in these elements in any way (Lunenburg, 2010; Shaw, 2011). Noise, in any form, constitutes barriers to effective communication. Eisenberg (2010) and Lunenburg (2010) identify four types of barriers: process barriers, physical barriers, semantic barriers and psychosocial barriers.

A. *Process Barriers*

Barriers related to and resulting from any step in the communication process are referred to as process barriers. They can be sender, encoding, medium, decoding, receiver or feedback related barriers. A sender who can encode an understandable message but cannot utter or write it, a sender who cannot encode a meaningful message at all, or a receiver who cannot decode a message and give it meaning create process barriers. Similarly, a channel or medium that is not appropriate for a given message is a process barrier.

B. *Physical Barriers*

Physical barriers result from distractions in the physical environment where the communication is taking place. They may include things like: telephone calls, drop-in visitors, distances between people, walls, the radio, television etc. These distractions interfere with communication effectiveness.

C. *Semantic Barriers*

These have to do with the words used in a communication event, how they are used and the meaning attached to them. The words used may: mean different things to different people; have different meanings in different contexts; be new to the recipients who may not know their meaning or they may not make sense at all to the recipients. This causes communication barriers because if people do not recognize and understand the words, they cannot understand the message.

D. *Psychosocial Barriers*

Psychosocial barriers are psychological or social in nature. Psychological barriers have to do with mental and emotional factors such as filtering (people often see and hear what they are emotionally tuned to see and hear) and psychological distance (people often resent attitudes that undermine or belittle them, something which separates them from the communicator, blocking opportunities for effectiveness). Social barriers, on the other hand, emanate from social factors such as people's backgrounds, perceptions, values, biases, needs and expectations. Senders and receivers can encode and decode messages only in the context of their fields of experience.

IV. ACQUIRED LANGUAGE DISORDERS

Language is related to thought and the ability to think about the future is dependent on language (Lyons, 1981). Therefore, language supports abstract thought. Acquired language disorders arise when something goes wrong with the brain, of individuals with proper language functions, resulting in language problems (O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001; Ondo, 2014). There are three main types of acquired language disorders: aphasia, alexia and agraphia (O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001).

A. *Aphasia*

Aphasia is an impairment of language function caused by damage to the brain. It usually emanates from injury to the brain or through a stroke. Aphasia entails difficulties in producing and/or understanding linguistic forms (Yule, 1985) and involves a mixture of deficits to do with speaking, listening, reading and writing. However, there are some forms which are much more specific in which particular skills are lost and others remain intact. The type and amount of aphasic disturbances that a person exhibits depends on how much the brain is damaged and where it is damaged. There are two main types of specific aphasia discerned from the area of the brain that is damaged (O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001).

1. Broca's Aphasia

Broca's aphasia is caused by damage to Broca's area of the brain, an area that manages production of grammatical utterances. Broca's aphasia leads to a variety of language problems. First, there is slow, halting and largely reduced amount of speech production. Second, we have great difficulty in accurately producing the phonemes needed in saying

a word. This results in phonemic errors in which the subject substitutes sounds that are difficult to articulate with sounds that are easy to articulate thereby destroying the shape and meaning of the word. Third, long periods of silence are experienced in the production of an utterance due to hesitations. The utterances that result lack normal sentence intonation which contributes a lot to the interpretation and understanding of the utterance. Fourth, a number of words normally found in the utterance are omitted. These words are mostly function words. Omitted also are inflectional markers such as those marking tense, person and number. These omissions distort the utterance making it difficult to comprehend and understand. Lastly, subjects with Broca's aphasia interpret utterances according to the knowledge of the world and not syntactic structure. In this way they do not interpret correctly and/or understand sentences that are syntactically correct but go contrary to real world knowledge. They also find it hard to construct or distinguish grammatical sentences from ungrammatical ones. Therefore, Broca's aphasia, also known as non-fluent aphasia, is not simply a production deficit. It also affects syntactic competence. It is therefore a deficit that exhibits difficulties both in producing utterances and understanding and distinguishing the grammaticality and ungrammaticality of utterances.

In very severe cases Broca's aphasia is characterised by complete failure to speak (Akmajian, Dermers, Farmer, & Harnish, 2010; O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001). Broca's aphasics understand and make sense of what is spoken to them. People with this disorder are aware of it. Since they know what they are trying to say but cannot get it out, they, in most cases, get very frustrated when trying to speak (Akmajian, Dermers, Farmer, & Harnish, 2010; O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001; Ondondo, 2014).

2. Wernicke's Aphasia

Wernicke's aphasia results from damage to Wernicke's area of the brain. This is the area responsible for construction of meaning. Wernicke's aphasia is also known as fluent aphasia because subjects with this disorder have no difficulty producing speech. Their speech generally sounds very good, has no long pauses and sentence intonation is normal. There is no simplification of phonemes and no words are omitted. Function words and inflectional markers are used appropriately and word order is usually syntactically correct. However, they have great difficulty selecting, organising and monitoring their language production. Wernicke's aphasics have major difficulties producing understandable utterances and understanding what is said to them. Their utterances, though spontaneous, consist of structures that are not related to each other and that are irrelevant to the question or context. Phonemes, words and structures used are selected randomly resulting in speech that has the correct structure and intonation but with very few real words of the language in question, and which are meaningless in most of the cases.

Therefore, Wernicke's aphasia is primarily a comprehension deficit. Given that comprehension is the pillar for language ability (O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001), when it breaks down the ability for language also does. In this way, subjects with Wernicke's aphasia cannot express themselves since they cannot understand what they have just said. They also cannot use that understanding to plan what to say next. They cannot have coherent flow of thought because they have lost contact with themselves and the rest of the world. Usually such subjects are unaware of their disorder. As such, Wernicke's aphasia is the basis for meaningless utterances (O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001; Ondondo, 2014).

Normal language function entails proper language use which is an amalgam of content and form. The two types of aphasia described in the foregoing discussion show abnormal language function. In the case of Broca's aphasia, form is compromised but content of language remains relatively intact. On the contrary, there is rapid flow of form in Wernicke's aphasia but there is very little or no content.

B. Acquired Alexia

Acquired alexia is an impairment of reading ability resulting from brain damage. It is acquired in the sense that subjects with this kind of disorder possessed normal reading ability prior to brain damage. Acquired alexia is related to aphasia. Most Broca's aphasics cannot read aloud and if they do it is very slow, with a lot of difficulty and it is disjointed. However, their silent reading is very good (Kahmi & Catts, 1989; O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001). Wernicke's aphasics, on the other hand, do not comprehend or make sense of what they read or listen to, though they recognise the letters and the sounds (Akmajian, Dermers, Farmer, & Harnish, 2010; O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001).

C. Acquired Agraphia

This is an impairment of writing ability caused by damage to the brain. It is also related to aphasia. It is acquired because subjects with this disorder had normal writing ability before brain damage. Broca's aphasics find it difficult to write. They write very little, very slowly and with a lot of difficulty. Whatever they write is normally ungrammatical and with many gaps. They know what they want to write but they are unable to put it down on paper. However, they can understand what is written to them (Kahmi & Catts, 1989; O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001). The writing of Wernicke's aphasics is very good but incomprehensible. It does not make sense. They also do not comprehend and make sense of what they write or what is written to them (Akmajian, Dermers, Farmer, & Harnish, 2010; O'Grady, Archibalds, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2001).

The acquired disorders discussed in the preceding sections have consequences on language competence. They affect the knowledge that underlie language functioning. The disturbances they cause are intertwined. The deficits seen in speaking and listening are also reflected in writing and reading and vice versa.

V. HOW ACQUIRED LANGUAGE DISORDERS AFFECT COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

The three most important acquired language disorders, discussed in the preceding sections, are aphasia, alexia and agraphia. The latter two are related to the former and have to do with the impairment of reading and writing respectively. Their characteristics are linked to and determined by the two different types of aphasia - Broca's and Wernicke's aphasia.

A. Broca's Aphasia

Broca's aphasics have problems with speaking, writing and reading aloud, as discussed in the foregoing section. However, they understand well what is said to them, what is written down and what they read silently. This implies that Broca's aphasics cannot encode and produce a message (whether spoken or written) that can be easily understood by the recipient. In this way Broca's aphasia is a process barrier to effective communication. It entails sender, encoding and message barriers. It is also a semantic barrier because what Broca's aphasics encode and produce cannot be easily understood; it is ungrammatical. Though Broca's aphasics can understand the message, there by not posing any barriers as receivers and decoders of the message, they are a feedback barrier (a process barrier as well) given that they cannot encode and produce any understandable feedback to the sender.

B. Wernicke's Aphasia

Wernicke's aphasics produce rapid, fluent and grammatical speech. Their writing and reading is good and spontaneous. However, their speech and writing is meaningless (has no semantic content), while their reading comprehension is very poor. This implies that, Wernicke's aphasics cannot decode or encode meaningful messages whether written or spoken. Therefore, Wernicke's aphasia is both a process and semantic barrier to effective communication. As a process barrier it entails sender, encoding, message, receiver, decoding and feedback barriers.

VI. IMPROVING COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

In order to help improve communication effectiveness in communication events involving people with acquired language disorders, participants in a communication event need to have some background information about each other. They need to know if any of the participants has a language disorder and which one it is. As mentioned in section 4.1.1, Broca's aphasics are aware of their disorder, while Wernicke's aphasics are not, as stated in section 4.1.2. Being aware of the language disorder that some participants may have will help the participants put mechanisms in place to tackle some of the barriers that may occur in the communication process, thereby improving effectiveness. Participants will endeavour to choose the most effective approach for delivering the message. They will need to use alternative and augmentative communication systems as well as be sensitive to the total setting/context in which they communicate.

Another way of improving communication effectiveness when communicating with people that have acquired language disorders requires individual participants in the communication event to be sensitive to the disorder that the other person has. Participants should then learn to adopt and use approaches that help the person be at ease with the disorder. They should make an effort to help the person feel free to communicate despite the disorder, hence providing a permissive environment for the communication hence effectiveness. Participants should not point out the disorder to others in a demeaning way but should show understanding, patience and acceptance. They should also try to get down to the physical level of the person as per their disorder in order to get and pass on the message intended. Important also is using communication techniques that help the person overcome his/her communication problems.

The third intervention advocates for the use of recommended communication strategies, specific to each language disorder, to assist the person handle the problem. There are manuals with well documented strategies relevant to how to deal with all language disorders. They show strategies on how to help and support people with specific language disorders (Catts, 1991; Health and Welfare Canada, 1982; McCarney, Wunderlich, & Bauer, 1993; Ondondo, 2014; Rosner, 1993; Students Support Services, 2000; Travis, 1971).

VII. CONCLUSION

Acquired language disorders affect speech, language and literacy which are important and relevant for communication. Any problems with these aspects hinder effective communication as this endangers the different elements of the communication process. Therefore, acquired language disorders affect effective communication. This has psychosocial impacts on the lives of the affected individuals. Loss of effective communication may lead to: social isolation, loss of social role in the family and community, loss of ability to pursue work; loss of income and increased dependency on others. This does not affect the individuals involved alone but also their families and communities. When roles within the family change as well as economic circumstances every person involved is strained in some way. There is, therefore, great need for awareness and understanding of any language disorder present in a communication event by the participants. There is also need for timely help and support for individuals with language disorders in a communication event in order to help alleviate the long term effects of the disorder on effective communication and the family and community as a whole.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The information presented in this paper is based on library research. There is need for empirical research on the same. More research can also be directed at analysing how developmental language disorders and speech disorders affect effective communication.

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Emily Ayieta Ondondo, PhD, studied Linguistics at the University of Newcastle, New South Wales, Australia. She is LECTURER of Linguistics at Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and technology (JOUST), Kenya. She was formerly LECTURE of Linguistics, Pwani University, Kenya, Kigali Institute of Education, Rwanda, VISITING LECTURER, National University of Rwanda and CASUAL LECTURER, University of Newcastle, Australia. She has authored *Effects of Communication Impairments on Knowledge Acquisition*, *Us-China Foreign Language* 24(10): 805-813, New York: David Publishing Company, 2014. *Kisa Part-of-Speech Classes: A Morphological Perspective*, Germany: Lambert Academic Publishing, 2013. *Lexical Cohesiveness in Kisa: Textuality and Text Organisation*, Germany: Lambert Academic Publishing, 2013. She is interested in research in Bantu and African Linguistics: Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Lexicography and Lexical Computing. Dr. Ondondo is a registered and active member of of Australian Linguistic Society and the Linguistic Society of America.

Research within the Field of Applied Linguistics: Points to Consider

Suhair Al Alami

Al Ghurair University, Dubai, UAE

Abstract—Aiming to ensure quality research, the current paper seeks to offer an overview of research within the field of applied linguistics. The paper begins with a brief overview of research within the field of applied linguistics. It then proceeds to highlight a number of essential points relating to research design types, research ethics, and data collection methods. Last but not least, the conclusion sums up the major points pinpointed throughout the paper, making some recommendations for applied linguist researchers to consider.

Index Terms—applied linguistics, EFL, ESL, research

I. INTRODUCTION

What is it that makes a good applied linguist researcher? What does research within the field of applied linguistics require? Aiming to ensure quality research, the current paper seeks to offer an overview of research within the field of applied linguistics, pinpointing some essential issues for applied linguist researchers to consider. The paper begins with a brief discussion highlighting what applied linguistics covers. The paper then discusses a number of research-related issues such as research design types, research ethics and data collection methods, all within the field of applied linguistics.

II. RESEARCH WITHIN THE FIELD OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS: AIM AND SCOPE

It would be helpful to commence the discussion by explaining what applied linguistics is. Both Davies and Elder (2007) believe that applied linguistics deals with sorting out social problems involving language. The main issues/problems applied linguistics usually deals with are how to: teach languages more effectively, enhance the training of translators and interpreters, diagnose speech pathologies more efficiently, evaluate a bilingual programme, set a valid language test, help discuss the language used in a text, decide on the literacy levels of a population study, as well as compare and contrast the acquisition of different languages.

Grabe (2002, p. 10) defines applied linguistics as a 'practice-driven discipline that addresses language-based problems in real-world contexts.' Grabe states that to many critics, applied linguistics is not a discipline. According to Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2002), applied linguistics is using what we know about language, how it is learned, and how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world. Applied linguistics covers eighteen topic areas as a minimum. These are: language and its acquisition, language and culture, language and cognition, language and the brain, language and media, language and assessment, language and interaction, language and ideology, language and listening, language and instruction, language and reading, language and policy, language and writing, language and speaking, language and society, language and research methodology, language and technology, and language and translation/interpretation. Out of these areas, the dominant area has been second/foreign language acquisition and teaching.

That the term applied linguistics has been shed light on, how can we define research within the field of applied linguistics, based on what we already know? Grant (2010) explains that research in applied linguistics is a process of arriving at answers to questions situated in current understanding, employing a methodologically rigorous way. Research is not about truth but about explanation and utility, that is to say, there is no absolute truth. We do not need to trust the creditability of all previous studies within our areas of specialisation and concern. Instead, we need to gather sufficient data and check it out. Anything we claim to be true should be falsifiable. Research is inspired by enquiry; a question/a number of questions about which the researcher is curious and eager to find logical answers. Research questions, therefore, need to be measurable, answerable, well-formulated, investigative, and appropriate to the field of enquiry as well as to today's requirements and aspirations. Five main characteristics of research within applied linguistics are: empirical, logical, reductive, planned and imaginative. Empirical refers to investigating research issues and checking out data accuracy. Logical refers to carrying out research and drawing inferences in such a logical manner which will ensure research creditability. Reductive refers to reducing the data we gather to include manageable pieces which a researcher needs for achieving main aims. Planned refers to having a clear plan which can show the way and thus guide the researcher throughout the whole process. Lastly, imaginative refers to powers of imagination which will broaden the researcher's vision and enrich his/her intuition.

The approaches to defining research in applied linguistics, according to Brown (2007), vary in systematic means: definitions that list the topics of research, definitions that list the types of research, definitions that enumerate the steps taken throughout the process of research, and definitions that cover the aim of research. Accordingly, it would be challenging to come up with one single definition which will cover the aforementioned areas. As far as major types of research in applied linguistics are concerned, Brown believes that they fall into two categories out of which others are derived: secondary and primary. Both library research and literature reviews are subsumed under the heading of secondary research. Primary research, on the other hand, is divided into three sub-categories, out of which other sub-types are also derived: survey, qualitative, and statistical. Survey research includes both interviews and questionnaires. Qualitative research includes both traditions and techniques. And statistical research includes descriptive, quasi-experimental, experimental, and exploratory.

What is it that makes a good applied linguist researcher? Dornyei (2007) argues that becoming a good applied linguist researcher does not necessarily require decades. While working experience and academic experience undoubtedly help, they are not the main prerequisites to being a successful researcher. Dornyei goes on to emphasise that there are four fundamental features which will help achieve excellence: genuine curiosity, common sense, good ideas, and a combination of discipline; reliability, and social responsibility. Serious research will inevitably require some hard work and the only way to maintain creativity is to be driven by our passion for the topic. A high level of common sense helps to keep a researcher's feet firmly on the ground. No amount of sophisticated research design or complex technique can be a substitute for creative thinking that is grounded in reality. Finally, a good researcher needs to be disciplined and responsible, which is normally related to the systematic nature of research.

According to McDonough and McDonough (2005), research in language teaching-branch of applied linguistics- is systematic, uses experimental methods, and involves a hypothesis which has to be tested. Research in language teaching can be divided into two types: basic and applied. Basic research often has no immediate practical utility, whereas applied research requires some kind of applicability. As seen by the two researchers, what makes good language teaching research can be summed up in four features: interest, originality, specificity, and dissemination of both research questions and findings. When designing a research project, researchers have to address the questions of method choice, research main focus, research topics, timeline, time allotment, participating individuals, scope, review of previous studies in the field, and outcome. As far as research design and research methodology are concerned, the criteria of objectivity, validity, and reliability should be met.

In Nunan's view (2005), research in the field of applied linguistics is mainly concerned with enquiry. Research has two components: process and product. The process is about an area of enquiry and how it is pursued, and the product is the knowledge generated from the process and the initial area to be presented. The process component involves: defining a problem, stating an objective, formulating a hypothesis, collecting data, classification, analysis, and interpretation. Research requires undertaking structured investigation, in order to result in a greater understanding of the chosen area. To conduct a research project efficiently, Nunan (2005, pp. 226-227) argues, a researcher needs to keep in mind a set of questions to be used as a guide whilst conducting his/her research. These are:

- Question: Is the research question worth investigating as well as feasible? Does the research question imply a strong causal relationship between two or more variables? What are the constructs underlying the question, and how are these to be operationalised?
- Design: Does the question suggest an experimental or non-experimental design?
- Method: What methods are available for investigating the question? Which of these methods are feasible? Is it possible to use more than one data gathering method? What threats are there to the internal and external reliability of the study?
- Analysis: Does the study entail statistical or interpretive analysis, or both? Is it necessary to quantify qualitative data, and if so, what means suggest themselves?
- Presentation: How can the research be presented?
- Results: What are the outcomes of the research? Does the investigation answer the main question the research addresses? Does the research answer other questions? Are the results consistent with the findings of similar studies?

Pica (2005) believes that second language acquisition research, branch of applied linguistics, enriches as well as expands insight into the process of language learning compared to the study of children acquiring their mother tongue. A common theme throughout second language acquisition research has been the need for longitudinal data. Such data, in Pica's view, make an impressive effect within the field of applied linguistics. The contribution classroom practice makes to second language acquisition research necessitates cooperation and coordination between the two main parties concerned: second language acquisition practitioners and second language acquisition researchers. This cooperation and coordination will be expected to yield in better outcomes. Last but not least, both Hatch and Farhady (1982) emphasise that the three key words in research definition are: questions, systematic approach, and answers. As far as research questions are concerned, both curiosity and interest are amongst the most prominent factors in formulating research questions. Going through previous research will be reflected positively on researchers, in the sense that they will have a better understanding of the topic.

Taken in sum, applied linguistics is mainly concerned with the purposeful applications of researchers' proposed solutions to existing problems within the field of language application studies. Research within the field of applied

linguistics is not done for its own sake, but to generate knowledge and to further our understanding. Anything we claim to be true should be the outcome we gain following detailed exploration, investigation, experimentation, and examination. Absolute truth is a relative issue constantly influenced by factors such as time, culture, context, setting, and so on. Research cannot be about arriving at absolute truth, but about seeking answers to questions and issues of concern scientifically. To answer research questions scientifically necessitates the ability to observe purposefully, analyse thoroughly, and respond carefully whilst taking account of previous studies as a guide prior to, throughout, and following the conduct of a research project.

III. DESIGN TYPES

This part of the paper presents main design types of research as seen by a number of specialists within the field of applied linguistics. To begin with, Copland, Garton, and Richards (2010) argue that the choice between qualitative and quantitative research is more than a choice of research design; it represents a fundamental difference in ways of seeing the world. The researcher's world view accounts for the kind of research question as well as for the way he/she will be conducting the research. What qualitative research is good for, in brief, is discovering something about the world with the ultimate aim of basing our finding on evidence. A qualitative research is good for the kind of investigations and explorations that many applied linguists are interested in carrying out. A qualitative research gives us a philosophical base, a rationale, and a set of techniques for examining a phenomenon about which we already know something.

Grant (2010) differentiates between two main types of research in applied linguistics: experimental and descriptive. Experimental research refers to conducting an experiment which requires investigating the areas concerned within the assigned field. This type of research involves devoting a considerable amount of time and effort to ensure credibility. Descriptive research, by contrast, requires understanding and describing a research topic without having to respond with a field action. Grant goes on to explain differences between some further aspects of research: perception and reality. Perception refers to how people interpret phenomena and findings which in reality may not be accurate. Reality normally refers to what is real in terms of phenomena, findings and so on. Another research aspect contrast which Grant discusses is concerned with process and product. Process is related to how something is performed while product is related to the outcome of (a) certain action(s). Further, Grant differentiates between qualitative and quantitative research. Quantitative research is connected with counting, for instance, grades on language tests. Qualitative research, on the other hand, is related to comparing and contrasting different qualities, for example, the processes of learning new EFL/ESL vocabulary. Grant proceeds to recommend that researchers should not adopt one particular type and neglect others for no justifiable reasons.

Dealing with the different research types in the field of applied linguistics, Brown (2007) presents two major paradigms along with the resulting data types. The two main paradigms are: pure and mixed. The pure paradigm is comprised of exploratory interpretive and analytical-nomological. The exploratory interpretive type requires a non-experimental design and results in qualitative data, while the analytical nomological type requires an experimental or quasi-experimental design and results in quantitative data. The mixed paradigm, on the other hand, includes six types: experimental-qualitative-interpretive, experimental-qualitative-statistical, exploratory-qualitative-statistical, exploratory-quantitative-statistical, exploratory-quantitative-interpretive, and experimental-quantitative-interpretive. The experimental-qualitative-interpretive type requires an experimental or quasi-experimental design and results in qualitative data. The experimental-qualitative-statistical type also requires an experimental or quasi-experimental design and results in qualitative data. The exploratory-qualitative-statistical type requires, in contrast, a non-experimental design and results in qualitative data. The exploratory-quantitative-statistical type also requires a non-experimental design but results in quantitative data. The exploratory-quantitative-interpretive type requires a non-experimental design and results in quantitative data, as well. Lastly, the experimental-quantitative-interpretive type requires an experimental or quasi-experimental design and results in quantitative data.

Dornyei (2007), on the other hand, mentions two types of research: library and empirical. A library research, also called secondary or conceptual, necessitates examining what other researchers have said about a particular issue, and is considered an essential form of enquiry because it would be a waste of time to ignore other researchers' findings and recommendations. Empirical research, also called primary, requires conducting one's own data-based investigation, involving the collection of some sort of data and drawing conclusions based on the gathered data. In applied linguistics, we can find three main types of primary data: quantitative data which is most commonly expressed in numbers, qualitative data which usually involves recorded spoken data that is transcribed to textual form as well as written notes and documents of various types, and language data which involves language samples of various length, elicited from the respondent primarily for the purpose of language analysis.

Commenting on experimental research, Dornyei (2007) believes that the increased use of structural equation modelling makes it possible to make quasi-casual claims about outcomes based on non-experimental, correlation research. Experimental studies in applied linguistics research have also been called intervention research. In applied linguistics, there was a steady stream of intervention studies in the 1960s as part of the methods comparison studies in classroom research, but over the subsequent decades, experiments have become less popular for at least two reasons: many of the topics applied linguists are concerned with are not directly related to treatment or intervention, that is, they do not easily lend themselves to manipulation, and experimental research is rather narrow in scope as only one; few or a

few variables can be altered at a time. Typical applied linguistic venues such as language classrooms are complex environments whereby many factors play a role simultaneously. An experimental design concerning one or two variables may be inadequate to address multivariate patterns and issues. While these limitations are valid, in many situations experimental studies would be feasible and superior to the less-intensive or survey studies that are conducted. A welcome recent trend in this direction has been the emergence of longitudinal investigations of second/foreign language instructional effectiveness.

In Nunan's view (2005, p. 4), the two main types of research in the field of applied linguistics are: qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research is concerned with understanding human behaviour from the actor's own frame of reference. It can be described as being subjective, discovery-oriented, inductive, valid, and process-oriented. Quantitative research, by contrast, seeks facts without regard to the subjective states of the individuals. It can be described as being objective, verification-oriented, hypothetical-deductive, reliable, and outcome-oriented. Mention of Nunan should not be made without mention of Duff (2002) and Freeman and Long (1994), who also differentiate between quantitative and qualitative types of research within the field of applied linguistics. Duff (2002) explains that quantitative research includes a variety of designs, approaches, and tools such as surveys and correlations. Quantitative research is more scientific, robust, theoretical, and generalisable. Qualitative research, on the other hand, encompasses a broad, expanding assortment of approaches including amongst others, narrative research, life history, content analysis, and so on. Duff goes on to explain that while qualitative research has gained a major foothold in applied linguistics for years, quantitative approaches are still looked at as mainstream. According to Freeman and Long (1994), both quantitative and qualitative research types have a role to play in enhancing our understanding of second language acquisition. What second language acquisition research seeks to ensure is how language teaching can be promoted to enhance learners' language acquisition. To obtain sufficient data for second language acquisition researchers to benefit from, we need to ensure the design of a research methodology which has the ideal combination of attributes to address research questions.

Last but not least, both Hatch and Farhady (1982, pp. 18-30) think that research in applied linguistics can fall into one of these five major designs: pre-experimental design, true experimental design, quasi-experimental design, ex post facto design, and factorial design. A pre-experimental design is not really considered a model experiment because it does not account for extraneous variables which may have influenced the results. A true experimental design has three characteristics: a control group is present, the students are randomly selected and assigned to the groups, and a pre-test is administered to capture the initial differences between the groups. A quasi-experimental design is a practical compromise between true experimentation and the nature of human language behaviour which a researcher wishes to investigate. An ex post facto design is often used when the researcher does not have control over the selection and manipulation of the independent variable. The researcher in such a case looks at the degree of relationship between the two variables rather than at a cause-and-effect relationship. A factorial design is the addition of more variables to the other designs. There are a number of independent variables and the variables may have one or many.

To conclude, a research design type is highly determined by one's research questions. Some research designs can be simple but some can be complicated. If we narrow down our topic so that it is specific, we may be blessed with a fairly simple design. However, for most researches within the field of applied linguistics, especially those conducted in classroom settings, the design may be complex due to settings' circumstances and impositions. In claiming good design, researchers need to justify the choice of the specific research methods logically. An applied linguist researcher also needs to choose a design that allows him/her to share findings as being relevant to other practitioners and other similar settings. In classroom studies, we need to be sensitive to the problems of external and internal validity. A careful choice of research type and design will, therefore, help us avoid many problems and misinterpretations.

IV. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Speaking of research basic requirements, this part pinpoints research ethics within the field of applied linguistics. According to a number of specialists, an essential factor for researchers to consider is that of research ethics. Lowe (2010), for example, explains that research ethics were first developed around medicine. Later on, different disciplines have introduced their own codes. Relating the discussion to social sciences and humanities, specialists use principles to guide good research practice. These principles can be divided into three areas: respect, justice, and beneficence. Respect entails protecting individual's autonomy as well as ensuring confidentiality, justice ensures participants' safety under all circumstances, and beneficence necessitates maximising good outcomes for all research participants. Different research methods raise different ethical questions. Interview studies, for example, may invade the privacy of participants while action research studies often raise more ethical dilemmas than other forms of studies do. Conducting research can lead to taking increased risks. Even studies which seem safe may not be what they seem. Research ethics should always be considered whether during the research design, the research process, or the publishing. In other words, ethical conduct legitimates the entire process. Different disciplines and methodologies face different dilemmas. When it comes to applied linguistics research, harm is not likely to exist throughout the conduct process. Logically speaking, it is always essential to ensure the safety of both the researcher as well as the participants throughout the entire process.

Brown (2007) emphasises that, with subjects' ethical considerations in mind, it would be important to avoid subjects' abuse, whatever kind of abuse it is. In addition, rewarding subjects for their participation would be essential. As far as

analysing responsibilities is concerned, it would be necessary to ensure reporting on the gathered data transparently. Moreover, selecting an appropriate research method would always be crucial. In addition, it would be essential to choose the most appropriate interaction of standards in terms of the purpose of the research project concerned. Research within applied linguistics concerns people's lives in the real world, and therefore, it certainly involves ethical issues. Such issues are more noticeable in qualitative than in quantitative approaches because qualitative research often deals with human private issues; it is concerned with people's views and usually discusses sensitive or critical issues. We cannot deny that ethical issues can often be a hindrance to our investigation. Yet, as human beings, we never accept that research matters more than privacy does. A key ethical dilemma to address, for example, is how seriously we should take the various ethical issues in applied linguistics contexts.

Certain research practices, especially qualitative ones, include elements that muddy the ethical waters. Some examples of such sensitive aspects of research are: the amount of shared information; that is to say, how much information should be shared with the participants about the research so as to avoid causing any response bias or even non-participation. Secondly: relationships, qualitative studies may result in an intimate relationship between researchers and participants, with the former seeking to establish empathy to gain access to the participants' lives. Thirdly: data collection methods, certain methods may remove the participants from their normal activities. Fourthly: anonymity, although ideally participants should remain anonymous, researchers often need to identify the respondents to be able to match their performances on different tasks. Fifthly: handling the collected data, some data collection methods may be a threat to anonymity such as audio recordings and video-taping. Sixthly: ownership of the data, who owns the collected data and who has complete control in releasing information are amongst the very basic questions to address and consider. Seventhly: sensitive information, participants may reveal some sensitive information which is not concerned with the main aim of the study. Eighthly: testing, the misuse of test scores leads to misinterpretations and problems (Brown, 2007).

Similarly, Dornyei (2007) argues that social research concerns people's lives in the social world and therefore, it inevitably involves ethical issues. Such issues are more acute in qualitative than in quantitative approaches for qualitative research often intrudes more into the human private sphere; it is concerned with people's opinions and often targets sensitive intimate matters. Researchers cannot deny that ethical issues are often a hindrance to investigation. As human beings though, we cannot deny that there is more to life than research. Some of the key ethical dilemmas and issues Dornei discusses are: relationships between the researchers and participants, data collection methods, anonymity, handling the collected data, ownership of the data, sensitive information, and informed consent.

It seems difficult to conduct much research without running into ethical arguments (see Burns, 2000; Cohen, et al., 2000; and Glesne, 1999). Many participants, for example, may feel obliged to volunteer for different reasons. Therefore, sorting out all ethical-related problems should be kept in mind at the very outset of implementing research. Seen from Burn's point of view (2000, p. 18), informed consent is the most fundamental ethical principle; participants must understand the nature and purpose of the research and must consent to participate without coercion. Cohen, et al. (2000), and Glesne (1999) also think that informed consent can contribute to the empowering of research participants. Through informed consent, study participants are made aware that participation is voluntary and that they may freely choose to stop participation at any point in the study. To avoid ethical problems, Burns (2000) and Glesne (1999) -amongst other researchers- stress the necessity of codes of conduct. Such codes will ensure that: risks to participants are minimised, the rights and welfare of participants are protected, participation is voluntary, and the subject has the right to know the purpose, nature and duration of the study.

To summarise, research integrity is amongst the most essential aspects for researchers to consider. Ethical problems can relate to both the subject matter as well as the conduct of the research. Ethical problems can result from conflicting values, and may involve both professional and personal elements. This necessitates emphasising a number of issues. Participants, for example, have the right to be informed about the aims of the study, the tasks they are expected to perform, and the potential consequences of participating in the study. Participants' privacy as well as anonymity should also be stressed, for it is a basic ethical principle that the participants' right to privacy be respected and that participants have the right to withdraw from the study. In addition, the right to confidentiality should always be respected. However, we need to make sure that we avoid promising a higher degree of confidentiality than what we can achieve. Referring to participants as numbers rather than names may ensure result confidentiality. Another essential point to consider is the participants' protection from harm, whether mental or physical, that may come to the participants as a result of participating in the research. Not only must we prevent our investigation from causing any harm, but we should also try to ensure that the participants benefit from our research in some way. In some cases, presenting participants with a *warm thank you* letter upon research project completion may be sufficient.

V. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

According to a number of researchers, some of the effective data collection methods which can be employed within the field of applied linguistics are: case studies, classroom observations, diary studies, sample studies using introspection, questionnaires, tests, and interviews (see for example Nunan, 2005; Burns, 2000; and Cohen et al., 2000). Commenting on qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, both Weir and Roberts (1994) think that qualitative methods are often guided by a search for patterns rather than by hypotheses. They can be described as being

descriptive, exploratory, and discovery oriented in terms of purpose. They seek to describe events, attitudes and sets of behaviour in both detail and depth. On the other hand, quantitative methods depend on asking for fixed responses. Quantified data inform us of the frequency with which certain responses are ascribed to the study sample, allowing us to determine whether or not these frequencies are reflected in sub-samples within the data set.

Due to their popularity within the field of applied linguistics research, this part of the current paper is excluded to discussing the two data collection methods of questionnaires and interviews. How can we define questionnaires as a study tool within the field of applied linguistics research? Bloomer (2010) believes that questionnaires are a very popular means of gathering research data. Questionnaires vary in terms of their purpose. Some questionnaires, for instance, are intended to find out about some behavioural aspects on the part of study population. Others are intended to test attitudes. Questionnaires may include a mixture of open and closed questions, or may be exclusive to one of these two formats. Open questions require that informants write a sentence/a number of sentences in response to a given question such as indicating personal opinions. Closed questions, by contrast, require that informants give a very specific answer in response to a given question. Speaking in general terms, closed questions are of an objective type or require a very specific answer such as writing gender type. In Bloomer's view, open questions provide masses of data. Closed questions such as multiple choice questions limit the possible responses, but ought to be written very carefully to make sure that one answer to the given question is only possible. Whatever questioning type is employed, questionnaires should be clear and simple. To ensure effective results through utilising questionnaires, three points should be emphasised: conducting a pilot study prior to the distribution of the questionnaire to avoid pitfalls, providing some covering information for informants to know what the researcher is investigating and why, and addressing ethical issues in such a way that informants' rights are stressed.

According to Copland, Garton and Richards (2010), a questionnaire is an instrument designed to gather information by means of analysing responses to a number of questions. Questionnaires can be used to gather objective and subjective data as well as quantitative and qualitative data. According to the three researchers, a questionnaire is the process of eliciting responses to a set of questions, whether spoken or written. In preparing a questionnaire, the researcher needs to identify his/her aim, generate ideas, select appropriate sample, pilot the questionnaire, distribute the questionnaire to the study sample, analyse informants' responses, and draw conclusions in the light of data analysis. McDonough and McDonough (2005) also believe that questionnaires can serve many research purposes, for example, clarity and precision of data as well as practicality in terms of where to use a questionnaire and how to gather data. Questionnaires can be used in all sizes and shapes. What to include in a questionnaire depends on the kind of information needed, and the kind of analysis proposed. Generally speaking, a questionnaire questions can be: factuality/yes/no, ranked indicating informants' order of preferences, open-ended requiring some written responses such as conveying one's opinion, and scaled asking for degrees of agreement with certain issues.

Seen from Nunan's point of view (2005), using questionnaires would enable researchers to collect data in field settings, and the data themselves are more amenable to qualification than discursive data such as participant observers' journals and free-form field notes. As far as questionnaire items are concerned, Nunan (2005) classifies them into two categories; namely, open-ended items and closed-ended items. An open item is one in which subjects can decide what to say as well as how to say it. A closed item, on the other hand, is one in which the range of possible responses is determined by the researcher. Questionnaires can consist entirely of open questions, entirely of closed questions, or a mixture of open and closed questions. Burns (2000) describes questionnaire items, classifying them into three rather than two categories. These are: open-ended items, closed items, and scale items. Open-ended items provide a frame of reference for respondents' answers, coupled with a minimum of restraint on their expression. Closed items usually allow respondents to choose from two or more fixed alternatives. Scale items are sets of verbal items to which respondents respond by indicating degrees of agreement or disagreement. To avoid pitfalls in questionnaire writing, Cohen, et al. (2000) recommend avoiding leading questions, complex questions, irritating questions or instructions, and questions that use negatives and double negatives. In addition, for a questionnaire to *function* effectively, it has to be valid and reliable. To ensure valid and reliable results, piloting the questionnaire would be of great importance. A pilot has several advantages such as increasing the reliability, validity, and practicality of the questionnaire. A central issue to be considered prior to the official distribution of the questionnaire then is that of involving a representative sample for piloting purposes.

Relating the discussion to interviews as a data collection method, they have always been one of the most common ways of collecting data in the social studies (Garton and Richards, 2010). There are two main types of interviews: directive and non-directive (also known as structured and unstructured). In a structured interview, the interviewer follows a specific agenda as well as controls the flow of the interview along with single details. In an unstructured interview, however, the interviewer does not exclude the interview conduct and details to a number of set issues and questions; instead, interviewees are allowed freedom to discuss related issues and concerns. In almost all cases though, the interview will be based on a specific agenda which has been designed to discuss particular topics, and the interviewer often has a number of set questions prepared in advance. Although structured interviews may not be structured as they seem, the very fact that the interviewer decides the agenda indicates that chances to investigate emerging issues and points may not be possible. The two researchers proceed to explain that the most effective interview approach might be that of the semi-structured interview in which the interviewer has a number of questions to

guide the discussion towards a certain topic, yet also leaves the interviewees adequate space to convey what may be appropriate to them (Schiffrin, 1994).

What are some of the practical considerations to be borne in mind whilst conducting interviews? Garton (2010) argues that timing is an essential factor to consider; it is important that the timing of interview conduct is relevant and convenient to both parties: interviewer and interviewees. Duration is another factor to consider; the time available and the concentration span of the two parties involved should be taken into consideration. A third factor to add is that of the setting: place of interview conduct. Privacy, comfort as well as physical surrounding are amongst the main points to consider in relation to setting. Preparation is also an essential factor contributing to the effective conduct of interviews. In order to make the most of the interview, interviewers have to spend sufficient time in preparing the ground and anticipating any issues/problems that may arise. Further, confidentiality is an important ethical factor to be considered throughout the whole process. There has to be a way of ensuring anonymity. Another fundamental consideration is that of interview-interviewee relationship. The relationship between the two parties involved need not be complicated. An interviewer certainly needs to establish and maintain a relationship of trust and respect (Silverman, 2001).

To sum up, this part of the paper deals with data collection methods which can be employed within the field of applied linguistics, discussing both questionnaires and interviews. As stated earlier, a questionnaire is a common means of collecting data. There are different purposes for utilising questionnaires as a study tool in the field of applied linguistics. If set and conducted properly, a questionnaire can be a powerful method of data collection. To ensure questionnaire effectiveness, a researcher has to bear in mind several issues, amongst the most prominent of which are: purpose, length, item type, sequencing, instructions, politeness, validity, reliability, practicality, distribution procedures, and data analysis. Interviews, on the other hand, require both data collection and data generation. Interviews can also be seen as jointly constructed events involving both interviewers and interviewees. Depending on a researcher's aim as well as study design, an interview has to be constructed, considering all essential factors to ensure appropriate data collection and data generation.

VI. CONCLUSION

The current paper begins with a brief overview of applied linguistics and research within the field of applied linguistics. The paper then presents a number of research-related points for researchers to consider. Commenting briefly on the issues raised throughout the current paper, the author would like to state that applied linguistics seeks, amongst other purposes, to initiate practical, applicable, and credible solutions to problematic issues within the related areas. Research within the field of applied linguistics is seeking answers to questions and issues of concern. The answers cannot be seen as absolute truth, but as relatively true answers, the credibility of which should be investigated and examined in terms of different settings, situations, cultures, and so on. One of the best ways to begin doing something is to fully understand what that thing is. If we want to conduct a research project, therefore, we have to identify what we are going to investigate, why, how, where, when, and for how long. In addition, we need to anticipate the problems we are likely to encounter whilst conducting our research and be prepared to respond, as appropriate.

Research is not excluded to researchers as it involves people. When we involve people, a whole range of considerations arise: how we will involve study subjects, how we will protect study subjects, and how we will report on findings. A good researcher, therefore, has to have a sense of social responsibility, that is, accountability to the field and more broadly, to the world. Regulations concerning research ethics should be adopted. This necessitates ensuring a number of points, for instance, participants should be informed of the possible risks and potential consequences of participating in the study, the extent to which study results will be held confidential, and the right to withdraw from the study at any point. It is the researcher's profound belief though that at the heart of research ethics lies the moral character of the researcher. Applied linguist researchers should not falsify or misrepresent evidence, findings or conclusions to prove what they would love to see; neither should they make use of their professional roles for fraudulent purposes. Therefore, it is essential to avoid each and every factor that is likely to cause an ethical problem or violate the essence of research ethics throughout the whole process. Research is a highly dignified mission and task, which researchers should enjoy the blessing of whilst being *ethically pure*.

Speaking of research design types, we need first to consider our research aims, questions, variables, population as well as sample before adopting a research design. If we do not, then we may endanger the whole research by selecting a design which might not suit the purpose. We need to consider the rationale for the selection of a particular research design. Each and every research design, as is the case with everything else in life, has its positive as well as drawback points. Highlighting both sides in the light of research priorities and requirements would be enlightening. Once we have identified the groups, we need to consider the most appropriate research design that will allow us to feel confident in discussing findings and generalising them beyond our limited study.

To end with, research has to start somewhere; all researchers have to begin with a problem or an issue. If the research is to be practicable, it should have a precise focus. The table below reveals the steps which the author believes; an applied linguist researcher should go through.

RESEARCH WITHIN THE FIELD OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS-ESSENTIAL STEPS

Step	Action
One	Identifying research problem/concern
Two	Formulating research questions
Three	Going through the pertinent literature; analyzing and evaluating
Four	Proposing appropriate treatment
Five	Selecting a research design
Six	Stating study hypotheses in the light of research questions, treatment, and design
Seven	Conducting the study
Eight	Collecting research data by means of appropriate methods
Nine	Analyzing data by means of relevant statistical tests
Ten	Arriving at study findings
Eleven	Making recommendations
Twelve	Suggesting related area(s) of concern for further research

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Suhair Al Alami holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from Aston University, UK, and another PhD in Linguistics from Ain Shams University, Egypt. Currently, Dr. Al Alami works at Al Ghurair University in Dubai. Dr Al Alami has received awards for both her teaching and research from Al Ghurair University, and has presented papers at a large number of conferences. She has also contributed a wide range of papers to various journals, and serves as a coeditor of *Perspectives*, and a member of the board of reviewers at two journals: *Arab World English Journal*, and *US-China Foreign Language Journal*.

History Comes Full Circle

Katsuhiko Ohashi

College of Asia Pacific Studies, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Oita, Japan

Abstract—In the sense that it deals with issues appertaining to the crucial function served by the history of language in its developmental processes, the argument advanced in this paper is a projection from the author's older theory of synchro-diachronic concomitance (Ohashi, 2013) and securely grafted onto it. At the same time, it is designed as a ground work of the enterprise to be embarked on in an attempt to bring into light the hitherto undefined growth pattern of language, that is to say, the tendency for human language to revert to a historically antecedent model for the purpose of remaking itself in its older image. First, the reader is introduced to 'atavistic development' as the key term denoting such a tendency, and then is given a clearer picture of the delimitation and specificity of that key concept by dint of the literature review where the proposed thesis is compared to similar theories of many years' standing. Now the stage is set for example studies, the paper will proceed to look into a selected number of hard facts that are likely to manifestly endorse and clearly articulate our idea of linguistic atavism, albeit that the range of such examples will be confined to syntactic and morphological ones mustered from the history of English. It is the paper's ambition that the ray of light shed by this research will penetrate revealingly into part of the darkness in which language change has been shrouded.

Index Terms—atavistic development, uniformitarian principle, drift, exaptation, language change

I. INTRODUCTION

Just as the earth's crusts lying in sight are creations of successively layered geological periods, so a language as it now exists is a work authored by its long-lived history. To see that this is so, it suffices to reflect on any syntagma you construct for purposes of communication, say, "I recently googled my 7th grade teacher and found his current e-mail address" (New Oxford American Dictionary, s.v. 'google'). A moment's examination will bring to your notice how much that Modern English sentence owes to legacies inherited from past history beneath its completely modernized pronunciation and spelling: Apart from the finite verb 'googled', the nominal form of which came into being as a trademark in the 1990s, and the adjectival noun 'e-mail' which was clipped from 'electronic mail' in the 1980s, all the words comprising that syntagmatic concatenation are identifiable as carryovers from Old English, Middle English or Early Modern English, while grammatically the paratactic construction of the sentence goes right back to Old English and the SV order of the two coordinate clauses stretches back to the early part of the Middle English period. So inextricably are *history* and *now* interwoven in what your mouth utters that you may well feel disposed to liken your utterance to pre-modern English beads pierced together with a modern string. Whoever wishes to grasp language in any true historical linguistic sense of the term needs to recognize what is illustrated here as a measure of the extent to which the fabric of a living language (e.g. Modern English) is superposed on that of its forebears (e.g. Old English, Middle English) in order thereby to elucidate a fundamental truth about language, which is that the current state of linguistic affairs is built up out of an interplay of two forces in alliance, viz. *history* and *now*.

Such in brief is the thinking behind the contention expounded in Ohashi (2013) within the conceptual framework of the synchro-diachronic concomitance theory. To be sure, all this is little more than a truism outfitted in technical disguise. Nonetheless, renewing such an understanding of language leads us to find a semblance of life longer than a lifetime as it awakens us to the realization that language-users, without exception, are living a history by revivifying the heritage passed down from the previous generations every single time they speak or write.

This investigation is another of the author's efforts to view language in light of the unbroken correspondence between *history* and *now*, redoubled with the intention of opening up a new approach to the study of language change by focusing attention on a certain hitherto overlooked kind of change, which we will call 'atavistic development', or 'linguistic atavism' as a terminological substitute, to denote the tendency for a language to revert to its historically antecedent model. Despite its far-reaching consequence on language change that is abundantly observable, the development so termed and defined has singularly escaped being done justice to. It is none other than the change of such a kind that is to be brought into discussion in what follows.

II. REVIEW OF PAST DISCUSSIONS

For atavistic development to be writ large as a truly new approach to describing language change, its shape must be sharply delineated, so it may be demarcated from its precursors that were ushered in at different points in the progress of modern linguistics and have illuminated the developments of a similar kind ever since. The uniformitarian principle, among others, merits special mention because its contention appears to be of a piece with the tenet of atavistic development.

William Whitney, who “first made it [the uniformitarian principle] the cornerstone of linguistic methodology and theory” (Christy, 1983, p. 110), states:

There is no way of investigating the first hidden steps of any continuous historical process, except by carefully studying the later recorded steps, and cautiously applying the analogies thence deduced. (Whitney, 1884, p. 253)

The more thorough we are in our study of the living and recent forms of human language, the more rigorous in applying the deductions thence drawn to the forms current in ante-historic periods, (...) so much the more sound and trustworthy will be the conclusions at which we shall arrive. (Ibid., p. 287)

While Whitney’s preoccupation with “any continuous historical process” capable of surviving through time comes as no surprise because the study of linguistic change was the mainstay of nineteenth-century linguistics, one point to note here is his reiteration of the importance of “the later recorded” languages as holding the key to our understanding of the “ante-historic” languages. This correspondence between history as the explicans and prehistory as the explicandum is so crucial to Whitney’s interpretation of uniformitarianism that it is not inapposite to render his insistence into a short metaphorical saying “[T]he present is the key to the past” (Deutscher, 2005, p. 9), or better *The known is the key to the unknown*. Supposedly, the crux of uniformitarian linguistics as defined by Whitney resides in the positivist use of the attested to approach the unattested.

In the nineteenth century in which the uniformitarian principle was borrowed from geology to linguistics, a host of contemporary linguists were involved in the process of its introduction into their own science. Among them all, the neogrammarians were second only to William Whitney in being vociferous and influential as advocates of the principle. (See Christy, 1983, p. 83; Labov, 1994, p. 22) In the following quote where Karl Brugmann as a neogrammarian and uniformitarian stresses the significance of “the historical period of language development” for the purpose of explaining “prehistoric phenomena of language”, we can see how Whitney’s (1884) point finds an echo:

In explaining prehistoric phenomena of language we must assume no other factors than those which we are able to observe and estimate in the historical period of language development. The factors that produced changes in human speech five thousand or ten thousand years ago cannot have been essentially different from those which are now operating to transform living languages. (Brugmann, 1897, pp. 1-2, quoted in Christy, 1983, p. 82)

Over the following sixty years or so during which synchronic linguistics was in the vanguard of modern linguistics, the uniformitarianism remained as good as a dormant name. It is soon after sociolinguistics came to the fore and breathed life into classical historical linguistics in the 1960s that interest in the principle was rekindled by William Labov, who “declared the uniformitarian principle the basis of the study of sound change in progress.” (Christy, 1983, p. 111) But when he made that declaration, Labov proclaimed a departure from the previously existing path of the principle.

In his oft-quoted definition of uniformitarianism, Labov depicts it as “the claim that the same mechanisms which operated to produce the large-scale changes of the past may be observed operating in the current changes taking place around us”. (1972, p. 161) The first thing that catches the reader’s eye is the substitution by “the past” for Whitney’s “ante-historic periods” and Brugmann’s “prehistoric [periods]”. Twenty-two years later, the first chapter of Labov’s *Principles of Linguistic Change: Internal Factors* (1994) is still headed ‘The use of the present to explain the past’ without any intimation that his studies may be rocked to and fro between prehistoric and historic ages. In all probability, Labov deliberately reduced the correspondence between prehistory and history to the narrower correspondence between past and present within the history of a language, with a view to making the old principle serviceable to the needs of the newly revived academic interest in language change. When Deutscher writes “[T]he present is the key to the past” (2005, p. 9), “the past”, referring to prehistory (see the context in which the sentence finds itself), is part of the metaphorical expedient. But when Labov rewords prehistory in favour of “the past”, referring to former stages of the history of a language, he does so precisely because he feels the need to. In consequence, Labov’s version of uniformitarianism has radically shrunk in the breadth of time with which it is purported to deal.

There is more to it than that. Not just did Labov narrow the time span covered by the principle, but he shifted emphasis from ‘past’ pole to ‘present’ pole of the binarism. Despite the fact that *Principles of Linguistic Change: Internal Factors* begins with the pronouncement “The uniformitarian principle is the necessary working assumption for all the investigations to follow” (Labov, 1994, p. 23), the author is primarily concerned with the changes now in progress throughout the pages of the book, so much so indeed that much of the time he is describing current changes. So is it with *Sociolinguistic Patterns* (Labov, 1972). It looks as if Labov is using the past to know better about the present instead of using the present to explain the past. This reversal of explicans and explicandum brings into sharp relief the fundamental difference lying between the first William’s uniformitarianism and the second William’s uniformitarianism.

If William Whitney is remembered as the founding father of uniformitarianism as a linguistic principle, William Labov may go down in posterity as a reformist who gave an extra lease of life to uniformitarianism by making it amenable to sociolinguistics, dialectology and historical linguistics of his day. True enough, the full savour of the prototypical principle of uniformity is lost; but that disservice is more than made up for by the service Labov has done modern linguistic studies by expanding the availability of the principle drastically. The only misgiving is about an unwelcome entanglement of the two co-existing interpretations and ensuing confusions because the historically older definition of the principle as “inferring the past by observation of the present while invoking no unknown causes” (Christy, 1983, p. 87) remains the authentic interpretation of uniformitarianism to this day. Is the uniformitarian principle about the present as the teacher to the past or about the past as the teacher to the present? Which holds the key to understanding which? Likely,

the fastest way out of this embarrassing tangle is to rename Labov's view of uniformitarianism 'atavistic development', that is to say, the tendency for history to come full circle linguistically.

A certain amount of account must be taken of 'drift' in the current context in view of its potential intermingling with atavistic development. Quoting from Edward Sapir (1921, p. 134), who introduced 'drift' as a linguistic term, P. H. Matthews (1997, s.v. 'drift') interprets the term as a collectivity of "symptoms of larger tendencies at work in the language", whereas R. L. Trask (2000, s.v. 'drift') synopsisizes it as a reference to "the tendency of a language to keep changing in the same direction over many generations" by abridging Sapir's (1921, Chap. VII) own definition of drift which can be cobbled together as "larger tendencies" of a language or language family "to change of its own accord unceasingly and gradually in a certain direction over centuries, possibly millennia". As it appears, there is a world of difference between drift and atavistic development: (i) the former is postulated as a larger tendency of change, but the magnitude of a change is not a definitional requirement for the latter to meet, (ii) the former is presumed to be a steadily developing change, yet the latter is posited as an intermittent change, (iii) the former is assumed to continue operating for centuries or even millennia, which is no part of the assumption of the latter concept, and (iv) most crucially, the drift, as the name suggests, is a deviation from the starting point of a given language or language family whereas atavistic development is conceptualized as the revival of the older history of a language or language family as the impetus for its later development. After such cross-examinations, we are left with the general impression that no two concepts could be more sharply contrastive than drift and atavistic development. But is it really so?

Appropriating Sapir's (1921, pp. 134-136) own inventory of examples, let us pause at this juncture to consider the loss of case endings as an instance of drift. Sapir's wide-angle lens captures the spread of more than five millennia from the proto-Indo-European period down to the Middle English period and identifies the reduction of pronominal case system from the seven Indo-European cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative, locative, instrumental)¹ to the four old Germanic cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative) and then to the three Middle English cases (nominative, genitive, objective) as a striking example of drift. Certainly, nothing prevents us from agreeing with his observation, but what if we switch to a zoom lens and restrict attention to the progress of Indo-European languages from Graeco-Roman antiquity to old Germanic times? What comes into sight is the repetition of case syncretism as testified by the waning of the vocative case in classical Greek and Latin due to its absorption into the nominative, the merger of dative and ablative in the plural in Latin, the integration of nominative and accusative in neuters in old Germanic languages, to cite but a few examples. Coming much nearer to our time and glancing over the progress of the English language from Middle English to Modern English at close range, we can see a similar process of case syncretism being repeated: The dative and accusative cases of pronouns get syncretized as the objective case (e.g. dative 'him' + accusative 'hine' >objective 'him') in Middle English, and then the nominative 'ye' and the objective 'you' are syncretized as 'you' in Early Modern English (e.g. How do ye? >How do you do?), while the syncretism of the nominative interrogative 'who' and the objective interrogative 'whom' is currently taking place in Modern English (e.g. Whom did you talk to? >Who did you talk to?).

The above-instanced example tempts us to gather that the recurrences of linguistic atavism (i.e. case syncretism) have added up to the drift of case forms (i.e. the loss of case endings) and that the atavistic developments seen as such from one angle are found to be built into what can be viewed as the drift from another angle. Who knows if comparable repetitions of an atavistically-motivated linguistic renewal are not encapsulated within other examples of drift, but then, as noted by Sapir (1991, p. 127) himself, "for a long time it [the drift] may exist as a mere tendency"? Herein lies the reason why we should not give short shrift to Sapir's idea when gazing into issues pertaining to linguistic atavism.

Before closing the current section, a brief mention could be made of 'exaptation', a term coined by biologists S. J. Gould and E. Vrba in 1982 (see Lass, 1997, p. 316) to denote the adaptation of a certain structure for a different purpose from its original one that fortuitously obtains during evolutionary stages. (See Martin and Hine eds., 1985, s.v. 'exaptation'; Allaby, 1994, s.v. 'exaptation') Celebrated biological examples include the adaptation for flight of feathers that used to be thermoregulatory devices for protobirds (Allaby, 1994, s.v. 'exaptation'; Lass, 1997, p. 316; Toyota, 2009, p. 89) and the reuse by vertebrates of their respiratory and digestive organs for voice production (Lass, 1997, p. 316). Applying this biological concept to historical linguistics (for its experiments, see Lass, 1997; Toyota, 2009) on the premise that linguistic exaptation is a modified recycling of a historically older linguistic form or structure is expected to further explicate the concept of what atavistic development is.

In keeping with the intent of this diachronic study, its emphasis will be laid on the proposition, exposition, and development of the thesis termed atavistic development. To that end, a selected number of examples of linguistic atavism as attested in some syntactic and morphological changes of English will be looked into in what follows.

III. ATAVISTIC DEVELOPMENT

A. *Plural Inflection of Adjectives*

The comeback that the long-lost plural inflection of adjectives appears to be staging arouses interest as it can be interpreted as a throwback to the good old days. It is part of our linguistic common sense that a Modern English noun phrase should be composed of a singular adjectival followed by either a singular noun or a plural noun. Due to this grammatical straitjacket, Modern English speakers feel obligated to say 'two dark rooms' (not *two darks rooms), 'a

¹ Sapir (1921) does not count the vocative as a fully-fledged case.

three-volume novel' (not *a three-volumes novel), 'a five-year-old boy' (not *a five-years-old boy), and so forth. While this rule remains in full force and still governs the construction of a noun phrase, a keen observer of Present-day English cannot fail to notice a growing trend towards the kind of phrasal construction consisting of a plural adjectival followed by a noun. Examples could be supplied endlessly: 'a goods lorry' (1911 as cited in the Oxford English Dictionary [OED]), 'a customs-official' (1923 as cited in the OED), 'the Contagious Diseases Act' (as cited in Jespersen, 1924, p. 208), 'the savings bank' (1929 as cited in the OED), 'Australian Rules football' (1933 as cited in the OED), 'communications technology' (1941 as cited in the OED), 'sales representatives' (1949 as cited in the OED), 'materials control' (1980 as cited in the OED), 'a Humanities subject' (as cited in COLLINS COBUILD English Language Dictionary, 1987), and whatnot. This combinatorial acrobatics that pairs a plural adjectival noun with a noun has been gaining a foothold as an innovative grammatical process of late years to the potential detriment of the canonized construction of a noun phrase of which the adjectival modifier should stay singular.

Arguably it is nothing like an interpretative absurdity to impute this deviation from the mainstream of English grammar to an atavistic development and hazard a guess that this particular area of Modern English grammar is reverting to the bygone days when the occurrence of a plural adjective wherever the call for it was felt was a full part of the grammatical system of English. Just as in Latin the modifying part of the noun phrase inflects in sync with its modified accompaniment in such a way that a singular noun agrees with a singular adjective and a plural noun with a plural adjective (e.g. *puella pulchra* 'girl beautiful' > *puellae pulchrae* 'girls beautifuls', *vir bonus* 'man good' > *virī boni* 'men goods'), so too in Old English the adjectival part of the noun phrase inflected according as its nominal companion was pluralized (e.g. *se gōda mann* 'the good man' > *þā gōdan menn* 'the goods men', *sēo ealde bōc* 'the old book' > *þa ealdan bēc* 'the olds books'). Centuries after the dismantling of adjective inflection from the system of English, demonstrative adjectives (e.g. this tree > these trees, that person > those people) and *man* and *woman* as adjectival nouns (e.g. a manservant [*also*, man-servant, man servant] > two menservants [*also*, men-servants, men servants], a woman teacher > three women teachers) still retain plural inflection.

Of particular significance for our current purposes is the inflection of *man* and *woman* as adjectival nouns that has sustained productivity tenaciously to this day, contributing such pairs of singularized and pluralized noun phrases to English as 'a man-dancer > men-dancers', 'a man-child > men-children', 'a man-midwife > men-midwives', 'a man-cook > men-cook', 'a woman doctor > women doctors', 'a woman-angler > women-anglers', 'a woman-driver > women-drivers', 'a woman priest > women priests', 'a woman officer > women officers'. From the way the afore-cited new generation of phrasal construction with a plural adjectival such as 'communications technologies' and 'materials development' is remarkably reminiscent of this older generation, it is irresistibly tempting to undertake a view that the atavistic recycling of the historical grammar is spurring the revitalization of plural adjectivals in Present-day English. But then, the new generation ('communications technologies') can be traced back to the older generation ('women teachers'), and the older generation in its turn harks back to the Old English grammar (*þa ealdan bēc* 'the olds books'). To say the least, linguistic atavism is nothing like an overinterpretation of what is taking place in Present-day English inasmuch as the noun phrase with a pluralized adjectival noun ('communications technologies') can be observed to stay wedded to the morphology of *þa ealdan bēc* 'the olds books' and suchlike noun phrases of Old English.

B. Do-periphrasis

Turning from morphology to syntax, it hardly needs to be reassured that SV (e.g. 'Ar ður igrap his sweord riht and he smat ænne Sexise cniht.' -*Brut*) entered into currency as a canonical word order of an English declarative in the twelfth century but that an interrogative sentence with a full verb continued to take VS order (e.g., 'Hatz þou, gome, no governour ne god on to call...?' -*Patience*) till the interrogative with expletive *do* (e.g. 'Fader, why do ye wepe?'² -*The Canterbury Tales*) began to take over from the VS interrogative in the last part of the Middle English period (Fischer, 1992, p. 278; Fischer and Wurff, 2008, p. 186). As for the cause for the sharp rise of *do*-periphrasis in interrogatives in late Middle English, Cr ĕpin (1972, p. 78) ascribes it to the fact that the availability of expletive *do* spared English speakers the trouble of inverting "the normal SV order", and Fischer and Wurff (2008, pp. 155-6) concur that "the increasing fixity of word order as SVO" is accountable for the percolation of *do*-periphrasis from declaratives to interrogatives.

What is interesting to note here is not so much the late Middle English development of *do*-periphrasis in interrogatives *per se* as what to Cr ĕpin's eye appears the recurrence of a similar development upwards of three centuries later. Accounting for the spread of 'Have you got + O?' question (e.g. "Have you got a match?") in Modern British English as an informal substitute for 'Have you + O?' question (e.g. "Have you a match?"), Cr ĕpin (1972, p. 78) opines that where late Middle English speakers used *do* as a grammatical device in order to retain the normal SV order Modern English speakers followed suit by using *have* as a grammatical device for the same purpose, thereby suggesting the 'Have (expletive) you (S) got (V)...?' question is a modern reincarnation of the late Middle English 'Do (expletive) + SV?' interrogative and a recycled bit of history. Is this not an arresting case in point of the atavistic development in the sense in which the term is used in this writing?

C. Classical Sense of *ónoma/nōmen*

² Quoted from Geoffrey Chaucer, *The Canterbury Tales* VII. According to Fischer (1992, p. 278), this is the first attested example of a question containing expletive *do*.

One thing that comes to a typical learner of Classical Greek or Latin as something of a surprise is the fact that neither of these languages draws an explicit distinction between the two word classes now called nouns and adjectives in English. A *prima facie* account of its reason is this: As demonstrated by the similarity of the inflections of their ‘adjectives’ to those of their ‘nouns’, the two classes of words were perceived to be much the same by people in antiquity, whence the Greek term *ónoma* (‘name’) and the Latin term *nōmen* (‘name’) covering the noun and the adjective as one integrated class. If you asked what justified their unification of the two word classes, Graeco-Roman grammarians might well reason: “What is called the noun in your terminology is the name of a thing, and what you call the adjective is the name of a quality. What’s the difference?”

It is said to be the Latin grammarians in medieval Europe³ who referred to what is now termed the noun as the ‘noun substantive’ (*nōmen substantivum*) and what is now the adjective as the ‘noun adjective’ (*nōmen adjectivum*), thereby dissociating one from the other yet still categorizing them as subdivisions of the superordinate *nōmen*. Speakers being lazy across time and space, what happened then is that ‘noun substantive’ was first shortened to ‘substantive’ and then to ‘noun’, while ‘noun adjective’ was shorthanded as ‘adjective’. We have reason on our side in surmising that just as Europeans began to think of ‘minute’ and ‘second’ as two recognizably separate time concepts only after the original ‘first minute’ (Latin, *minuta prima*) and ‘second minute’ (Latin, *minuta secunda*) were reduced respectively to ‘minute’ and ‘second’, likewise it is not until they formed the habit of saying the ‘substantive’ (later, ‘noun’) and the ‘adjective’ in their vernaculars that Europeans developed a full sense of distinction between nouns and adjectives.

The noun is the name of a thing, and the adjective is the name of a quality. What’s the difference? Far from being an endemic Graeco-Roman logic, this abnegation of the post-medieval differentiation between nouns and adjectives has been passed down to speakers of later generations of European languages in effect. Otherwise, French speakers would not have substantivized such adjectives as *anglais* (‘English >the English language’), *mignon* (‘pretty >cutie’), *sublime* (‘sublime >sublimity’), *ronde* (‘round >a dance in which the dancers move in a circle’), *intellectuel* (‘possessing a highly developed intellect >a person possessing a highly developed intellect’), *singulier* (‘singular >a singular number’), etc., and German speakers would doubtless not have nominalized such adjectives as *gut* (‘good’) >*Güte* (‘goodness’), *arm* (‘poor’) >*Arme* (‘a poor person’), *jung* (‘young’) >*Junge* (‘a boy’), *krank* (‘sick’) >*Kranke* (‘a patient’), *bekannt* (‘well-known’) >*Bekannte* (‘an acquaintance’), *deutsch* (‘German’) >*Deutsch* (‘the German language’), etc. By the same token, without the same hereditary conception sedimented in the inner recesses of their collective mind, speakers of English might not have nominalized such adjectives as ‘black’, ‘Christian’, ‘savage’, ‘relative’, ‘individual’, ‘august’ (venerable >the eighth month of the year), and the like, nor might such adjectival nouns as ‘surprise’ (as in ‘a surprise ending’), ‘fun’ (as in ‘a fun game’), ‘mystery’ (as in ‘a mystery pianoman’), etc. have gained currency in contemporary English so exponentially. It takes no more than a moment for these hard facts to bring us to realize that subserving behind those conversions is a vestige of classical sense of *ónoma/nōmen* as genetically inherited by Europeans in later ages and be convinced that not only does that traditional sense still subsist as a communally shared perception but it has been and still is profitably exploited as a linguistic device for the purpose of remaking their languages.

In that it has contributed a good many newly lexicalized, idiomaticized and grammaticalized forms as illustrated above, this legacy inherited from classical antiquity has been diachronically productive vigorously as a linguistic device and still does not desist from serving a procreative function. What we have here is a truly striking example in which a synchronically lost taxonomy of word classes (i.e. *ónoma, nōmen*) is still found impacting on modern languages as a cause for the proliferation of atavistically-generated words and phrases. Instead of being bewildered by this long-lasting recycling of linguistic classicism, we have to be pleasantly astounded by language’s tenacious reluctance to break with the past and be open-eyed at the same time to the profound significance of atavistically-ignited productivity and its wide implications for studies of language change.

D. Restoration of Inflection

That the traditional edifice of inflections that Sanskrit, Greek or Latin had boasted was attenuated over time is one of the most often told stories about the general development of Indo-European languages, while how periphrasis took over from inflection as an alternative grammatical process is an umbilical part of the same story. Taken together, the two parts complete the full account of this drift of Indo-European languages of major importance.

In the history of English, the watershed was from the late Old English to early Middle English periods. Old English was powerfully equipped with inflection as a means of marking different grammatical functions of the same lexical unit: the present and past tense forms of verbs were distinguished inflectionally (‘binde >band’), the comparisons of an adjective were achieved by inflections (‘eald >ięldra >ięld(e)st’), a singular noun was pluralized inflectionally (‘stān >stānas’), the case distinctions of a pronoun were drawn by inflections (‘hwā >hwone >hwæs >hwæm >hwȳ’). Being a maximally inflectional and minimally periphrastic language, Old English was incapable of creating such periphrastic tense forms as ‘shall go’, ‘have come’, ‘be reading’, such periphrastic comparisons of adjectives as ‘more curious’, ‘most intelligent’, or such analytic substitutes for inflectional genitives as ‘the name of the river’, ‘the maid of the chamber’. After the cataclysmic erosion of the inflection system that the history of English witnessed as it was transitioning from the Old English to Middle English periods, English could no longer turn to inflections for marking different grammatical

³ Robins (1990, p. 95) names Peter Helias and Thomas of Erfurt as the first medieval grammarians to divide *nōmen* into *nōmen substantivum* and *nōmen adjectivum*.

categories. Thenceforward, it was inevitably led to take a new course of development as a periphrastic language, and that way the road was paved for the advent of *do*-periphrasis, auxiliary periphrasis, prepositional periphrasis, and other resources to be tapped to form analytic expressions with assistive words, all of which fortuitously proved equal to the demands of the new ages and societies. Consequent on all this, however, English as it is spoken today is no longer typologized as an inflectional language *par excellence*. When Barber (1993, p. 274) makes a reference to the growing recent trend towards periphrastic comparisons (e.g. ‘more keen, most simple’) by observing “*More* and *most* are spreading at the expense of the endings *-er* and *-est*”, his remark sounds emblematic of the degree to which periphrasis is a defining feature of the English of our time.

While Barber’s (1993, p. 274) pronounced reaffirmation that the long-term historical trend in English, that is, the ‘drift’ in Sapir’s terminology, is from a synthetic system to an analytic system leaves little room for doubt, it must be borne in mind that Modern English is not entirely destitute of expressions showing a countervailing tendency. One of such countercurrents is the development of ‘boundary loss’ (Brinton and Traugott, 2005, p. 7 et passim) as exemplified by such coalesced exponents as (be going to >) *be gonna*, (ought to >) *oughta* or *oughter*, (have to >) *hafta*, (‘ve got to >) *‘ve gotta*’ and (have got to >) *gotta*. To press home the significance of what is occurring specifically to these five, it must be noted that as distinct from plain phonetic spellings like *sorta*, *kinda*, *whodunnit*, *dunno*, *gimme*, *hussy* and the like functors are spelled phonetically as regards these five exponents.

The way ‘be going to’ has lost a boundary and formed a new auxiliary phrase for futurity reminds us of the process through which the future tense form of Spanish evolved (e.g. infinitive *hablar* ‘speak’ + *hás* [finite of *haber* ‘have’] > *Tú hablarás* ‘You will speak’) or the process in which the simple future tense form of French was obtained (e.g. infinitive *chanter* ‘sing’ + *ai* [finite of *avoir* ‘have’] > *Je chanterai* ‘I will sing’), and from there, it is but a step to the supposed origin of the weak past tense inflection of English verbs (e.g. *walk* + *did* > *walked*). If the theory advocated by Whitney (1884, p. 61), Izui (1979, p. 22) and Lehmann (1989, p. 3) among others to the effect that the English past tense morpheme *-d* derives from the Germanic equivalent to ‘did’ is in accord with the truth at all, what we have here are illustrations profoundly typical of the kind of grammaticalization that synchronized with the formation of a new inflection, viz. the future tense inflection in Spanish, the simple future tense inflection in French, or the weak past tense inflection in English. To such a theoretical context we can put down the grammaticalization of *be gonna* and conceive of it as an atavistic relapse into the pre-Middle English golden age of inflection. For from a theoretical point of view, what has taken place when Modern English speakers began to say *be gonna* by virtue of boundary loss⁴ is not far removed from that which happened in the remote past when *walk* + *did*, for instance, coalesced into *walked* due to boundary loss, thus introducing weak verbs to English.

Analogous to this is the currency of *oughta* (or *oughter*), *hafta*, *‘ve gotta* and *gotta* in present-day colloquial English. Unlike the *-a* of *be gonna* which serves as a tense-marking inflectional morpheme, the phoneme /ə/ appended to each of these grammaticalized coalescences is fulfilling a role as a modality-marker. All the same, they are joining forces with *be gonna* to change the face of Modern English grammar by resuscitating the grammatical process long since defunct called inflection, such that every time Present-day English speakers say /hæftə/, if not write *hafta*, to denote a sense of obligation, unawares they are using English procreatively enough to atavistically restore the dim past when ‘walk + did’ were getting coalesced into ‘walked’, ‘trēow (‘true’) + liċe (‘body, shape’) were getting desegmented as ‘truly’, ‘frēond (‘friend’) + scipe (‘shape’) were getting fused into ‘friendship’, etc. Let us contend insistently therefore that the scarcity of examples does not detract from the seriousness of what is happening to this part of the grammar of contemporary English.

Such is the force of atavism as a hidden cause inciting language change that it has gone a long way quite without our knowledge of it towards providing unbroken links between the past and the present of the English language. This nugget of realization suffices to deepen our conviction that Modern English is not an island any more than Old English or Middle English is, but that all developmental stages of English are intimately interconnected with later progeny constantly feeding off their foregoing progenitors.

E. Exaptation

The reuse for affective purposes of the historical singular/plural opposition in the second-person pronouns of English (*þū* and *gē* in Old English, *thou* and *ye* in Middle English in the nominative) widely prevalent from the thirteenth to seventeenth centuries and the grammaticalization of the ‘be + present participle’ structure⁵ as progressive aspect in Modern English are given as examples of exaptation by Lass (1997, pp. 317-319), while Toyota (2009, pp. 90-91) argues that the development of periphrastic passive from the perfective aspectual construction in Indo-European languages is an example in point of exaptation.

As is usual with a newly coined or borrowed term, *exaptation* is yet to make its way into dictionaries of linguistics. To all intents and purposes, though, it should be defined as the reuse for a different function of the older form or structure that leads to the invention of a new grammatical category. (See Lass, 1997, p. 320; Toyota, 2009, p. 90) Otherwise, we would be hard put to tell exaptation from similar developments such as functional shift (e.g. Middle English, ‘He is a very fole’ > Modern English, ‘She is very kind’), grammaticalization (e.g. Middle English, ‘How do ye?’ > Modern English,

⁴ The earliest *gonna* cited by the OED is dated 1913. But Guy Deutscher (2005, p. 151) reports that the poet Alexander Douglas wrote: “Now Willie lad, I’m ganna gie You twa or three directions” as early as 1806.

⁵ According to Lass (1997, p. 319), this structure existed as early as Old English days, yet it “was used sometimes with a clearly progressive sense, most often not”.

‘How do you do?’), lexicalization (e.g. Early Modern English, ‘H’as broke my head’ >Modern English, ‘I am flat broke’), etc.

Even after defining exaptation as strictly as above, its examples are expected to be gathered plentifully: to name but three quick illustrations, the functional shift of the demonstrative *that* to the relative *that* in late Old English is one of the most readily available examples because that specific conversion cleared the way for the emergence of a new grammatical category called relatives, the development of the absolute genitive case (e.g. ‘a friend of mine’, ‘It is thine’) from the genitive case (e.g. ‘mine eyes’, ‘thine uncle’) of personal pronouns in late Middle English qualifies for inclusion likewise, and the derivation of *his*-genitive⁶ (e.g. ‘since Christ his birth’ [=since Christ’s birth], ‘King Edward the Fourth his death’ [=the death of King Edward the Fourth]) from the genitive *his* in the fourteenth century can also pass muster for the same reason.

The three additional examples to follow are likely to give us a better idea how exaptation can be looked upon as an ironical twist of the atavistically-driven repetition of history and how it is a creative force operating behind language change. The first example takes us back to the early part of the Middle English period when bare infinitive was increasingly superseded by *to*-infinitive due largely to the decay of the inflectional endings of the infinitive. To fill the gap created by the loss of inflectional endings, the directional preposition *to* began to serve as a new infinitive marker. This is already an exaptation of prepositional *to* as periphrastic infinitive marker *to*. What is more, the same process of exaptation was repeated in the same period as another preposition of direction *for* was invoked as an additional infinitive marker for disambiguation’s sake (e.g. ‘It grieves me for to go’. -1400, ‘This is a fouler theft than for to breke a chirche’.-1534)⁷. Within the Middle English period, therefore, two prepositions were exapted in rapid succession as periphrastic infinitive markers, which had been a largely unknown grammatical category in Old English. (See Jespersen, 1954, pp. 150-157; Fischer, 1992, p. 317)

Not to change the subject, the preposition *for* was further exapted in the next stages of the history of English. Taking “It is good for a man not to touch a woman” (The Authorised Version of the Bible, Cor. 7.1) as a representative example, Jespersen (1954, pp. 308-309) writes: “A good many sentences of this type are doubled-barrelled and present the possibility of ‘metanalysis’ by which ‘It is good for a man | not to touch a woman’ may come to be apprehended ‘It is good | for a man not to touch a woman’. (...) What at first was a prepositional complement of the adjective thus becomes virtually the subject of the infinitive”. As if not to be content with just pointing out one occurrence of what we call a linguistic exaptation, for what occurs here is the adaptation of prepositional *for* as a sense-subject marker, the Danish linguist goes so far as to suggest that this double-barrelledness of the construction is the very reason for “the enormous extension of the use of *for* before the subject of an infinitive” (Jespersen, 1954, p. 308) in modern age. If Jespersen’s is a plausible analysis of the rise of the sense-subject marker *for* at all, we can review that without the model ‘preposition *for* followed by NP’ the target ‘marker *for* followed by sense-subject’ might not have woven into the system of Modern English, and likewise, without the model ‘preposition *to* followed by infinitive’ the target ‘marker *to* followed by infinitive’ would not have crept into English to be stored in its syntactic repository. All this is something worth spelling out as it admirably suits the thematized concern of this writing.

IV. CONCLUSION

It is eminently clear that the examples of language change probed in the preceding sections are not a magpie collection of disconnected one-off occurrences but different manifestations of the same regular growth pattern. It is prudent enough to draw a conclusion from there that instead of being at the mercy of history’s vagaries those changes have been set in motion by something programmed within the developmental history of language. The name we give to this “something programmed” is atavism. The way the above-scrutinized examples compel attention to heredity as a motive for language change is so revealing that it is hard not to entertain the idea of atavistic development, while at the same time we are struck afresh by the remarkable infrequency with which the idea *atavism* has found its way into the literature of linguistics despite the fact that gravitation towards the atavistic rejuvenation of history as a driving force for the remaking, readjustment, enrichment and empowerment of language seems an inescapable observation for any right-minded linguistic historian to make.

Before bringing the argument to a close, a few words may be in order about our next task as inseparable from the one with which we are through. The term ‘productivity’ is defined from a synchronic point of view as the degree to which a linguistic process can be freely called in to create new instances of the same type, and is conceived of as a gradient idea dividing up into ‘full productivity’ (e.g. ‘-s’ for pluralizing a singular noun), ‘limited productivity’ (e.g. ‘-ician’ as in beautician, mortician, esthetician), and ‘lost productivity’ (e.g. ‘-th’ as in filth, mirth, sloth). (See Crystal, 1994; Bussmann, 1996; Matthews, 1997; Dubois et al., 2007) If this is all that being productive amounts to, we will have to either dismiss out of hand most of the examples of atavistically recovered linguistic processes explored above as no longer productive in full vigor (i.e. ‘limited productivity’) or reject them outright as unproductive (i.e. ‘lost productivity’) and hence our enterprise will lose its bite. And what a loss it is that the kind of productivity so inherent in the life of any language and so central to understanding how language grows should miss recognition!

⁶ The heyday of *his*-genitive is the Early Modern English period. In the nineteenth century, it began to decline. (See Nakao, 1979, pp. 155-156)

⁷ Both these sentences are quoted second-hand from Lightfoot (1979, p. 187).

To keep our grand design from foundering, perhaps we need to make bold to unlearn and disconfirm the synchronic definition of productivity and redefine it from a diachronic perspective, or else invent a new term capable of embracing the kind of productivity that was once revived to press a given language to move forward but has known better days, for the very reason that evidence of the extent to which the restoration of lost productivity and the loss of restored productivity alternate in the course of the progress of language is exactly what the current enquiry into the long-lived vitality of history has brought into light.

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Katsuhiko Ohashi teaches an array of fields and subfields of linguistic studies including structural linguistics, historical linguistics, sociolinguistics, and philosophy of language at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Japan. After serving as APU's professor for fourteen years and chairman of the Institute of Language and Culture Studies affiliated with the university for three years, Ohashi is currently a specially appointed professor of linguistics at the same institution of higher learning.

Problem-based Learning Materials Design for a Medical English Course

Lan Yu

School of Foreign Languages, Institution of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, 30000, Thailand

Sirinthorn Seepho

School of Foreign Languages, Institution of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, 30000, Thailand

Abstract—This paper aims to apply Problem-based Learning (PBL) approach to integrate medical English materials design. As a language teacher, the researchers documented how to design PBL medical English materials and prompted these materials to facilitate students with their speaking ability in group discussion. The material design process consisted of two stages: analyzing the context; and designing the PBL materials. In addition, the explorations of the difficulties the researcher encountered in designing were described in details, and the solutions of these difficulties were stated elaborately. The researcher's journal was the instrument used in the design; it documented the nature of the design of PBL materials, which provided data of the materials design preparation, proceeding and completion. The information from researcher's journal was analyzed by content analysis, which revealed that the complicated process of the materials design required the researcher's collective knowledge and experience, in mastering its complexity. Furthermore, the language teachers need to supply comprehensive knowledge and relative background of the medical content, to gain aids from the content-teacher as the designer to work together, and then the production process could be fulfilled. Finally, suggestions for further research were also proposed.

Index Terms—Problem-based Learning (PBL), PBL materials design, difficulties and solutions, content analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

English teachers in the universities should help students to develop their English proficiency within the period of university study. However, it remains a serious problem, which challenges the teachers at all times as to implement what teaching materials to satisfy the students' needs in English learning and to enable the students to acquire English in English for Foreign Learners (EFL) context. Although the majority of English teachers hold the view that the materials with learner-centered and task-based learning focusing on communication will be of most benefit for students, the prevailing materials of teaching medical English course is still dominated by a teacher-centered approach and with mechanic patterns of medical vocabulary learning (Zhang, 2002). At present some teachers who teach English for Special Purposes (ESP) lack the necessary content knowledge in specialized areas, so it is hard for them to use the appropriate materials in class teaching (Zhao, 2008).

ESP teaching, of which the medical English course is a compulsory course for medical students in their university learning. Medical English has developed quickly over the past few years (Zhang & Wang, 2006). This course provides students with sufficient medical vocabulary to help them to develop the communication skills necessary for conversing with English-speaking doctors and patients, and to acquire important academic information for their future careers. However, the students have almost no time and no chance to practice speaking in class, because of the teaching materials lacking the speaking practice and exercises. One striking challenge of this issue is that what materials in medical course can be used to emphasizes the development of communicative competence and gives priority to the learning of spoken English in medical English course. To solve this problem, the present study endeavors to apply a PBL approach to integrate the design of materials in medical English course. Since PBL has been developed and implemented in an increasing number of many subject-matter domains, rather than just in medical teaching (Barrows, 1992). Kanet and Barut (2003) believe that PBL can be applied in other subject-matter domains, such as language teaching. It is new for the researcher and related practitioners to design such materials, the difficulties are unavoidable to be encountered, and how the researcher solves these difficulties and problems, this study tries to answer the research question as: "What are the difficulties encountered by an EFL teacher who designs PBL materials for medical English courses?"

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. PBL as the Condition for Second Language Acquisition

The origin of PBL can be traced back to John Dewey in 1919. Dewey believed that students should have experiential, hands-on, direct learning. It is generally accepted that students learn best by doing and thinking through problems. According to Barrows (1992), the educational goal of PBL is the development of students' thinking or reasoning skills (problem-solving, meta-cognition, and critical-thinking). PBL helps students to be independent and self-directed learners.

Research on second language acquisition has long recognized that language is best learnt through natural, contextualized use, that is, when it is utilized to perform authentic tasks. Students are given the opportunity to learn the target language by using it, rather than being presented with predetermined language structures and then practicing them (e.g., Alan & Stoller, 2005; Garner & Borg, 2005; Rodgers, 2006). Second language acquisition is the process by which people learn a new language other than their native language(s) inside or outside the classroom. Meanwhile, language learners must be involved in purposeful interaction. The PBL could be integrated in such learning context to supply a setting for students' language learning.

a. Main Characteristics of PBL

The application of PBL and materials design should follow some characteristics of PBL, first is the problem in the PBL approach. The problem is crucial to its implementation. Problems should be adapted to the knowledge level of the students. They should engage students' interests, motivate them to search for more knowledge independently, and allow them to relate the new concepts being introduced to previous knowledge (Suh, 2004). Firstly, problem should be ill-structured, be ambiguous, incomplete, confusing or conflicting, and additional information will be needed. There is usually a prescribed way to proceed in solving the problem (Wee, 2004). The second is group work in PBL, it is assumed to be a cooperative learning experience and it has positive effects on learning (Willis & Jones, 2002). Group work helps to distribute the cognitive load among the members of a group and allows the group as a whole to tackle problems that necessitate access to knowledge beyond that possessed by any individual group member (Salomon & Perkins, 1998). It encourages individuals to coordinate different points of view, to enhance reasoning and improve high order thinking skills, all of which can promote shared knowledge construction (Goldman & Hasselbring, 1997).

B. Integration of Language and Content

This PBL medical English materials design should integrate the English language and medical content. According to Swain (1996), a successful integration of language and content in a classroom should explicitly integrate language goals and content goals and provide opportunities for both language development and content learning. It is believed that language proficiency and content knowledge should be developed simultaneously. The focus of the second language classroom should be on meaningful input, such as academic content. The modification of the target language facilitates language acquisition and makes academic content accessible to second language learners. Integrated language and content teaching offers a means by which students can continue their academic or cognitive development, while they are also developing their language proficiency.

C. Teaching Materials Design

A language course design is composed of several parts, including the objectives, the teaching materials and methods, the instruments and criteria of assessment and evaluation, and the methods of data collection and analysis. Graves (2000) provides a framework for the processes of course development in her book, which is illustrated in Figure 2.1:

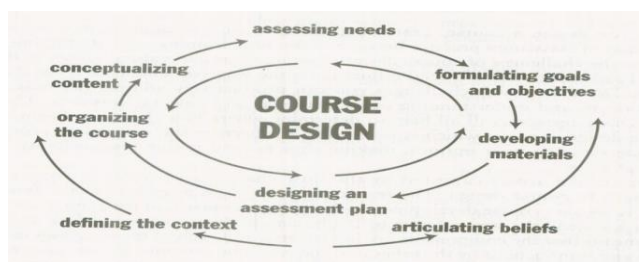


Figure 2.1 A Framework of Course Design Processes (Graves, 2000, p. 3)

PBL materials design in the present study, the researcher begins with formulating goals and objectives, then moves onto the development of materials, and ends with organizing the course. With regard to PBL material design, the essence is that it should incorporate real-world problems, so it should supply authentic problems and related materials. Cunningsworth (1995) suggests that teachers on ESP course can produce their own materials based on certain specialized texts. Because ESP has real target language usage, it requires a diversity of resources for its information. A variety of resources, such as the internet, newspapers, and magazines can be used for obtaining ESP teaching materials.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

For this study, the research design was a qualitative one.

In general, the researcher documented stages of the design of PBL materials as an EFL teacher and a PBL teaching material designer. EFL teachers quite often encountered some problems in designing ESP teaching materials because of their unfamiliarity with the contents. It was crucial to document every challenge that she encountered and the experiences that she had during the process of designing. The researcher designed the teaching materials based on PBL problems, followed the framework of course design processes made by Graves (2000), and observed the two PBL materials design principles of Merchant (1995): (i) designing from scratch and converting existing “case problems” into PBL lessons; and (ii) guiding or consulting practitioners in designing. The researcher reviewed the course syllabus first and determined the medical problems with a medium amount of medical content with the help of a content teacher, then the related reading and listening materials concerning the problems.

In details, the design of PBL materials included two main stages: 1) analyzing the context; 2) designing PBL materials. The researcher’s journal was the major source of data to answer this research question. The two stages of designing PBL medical English materials were described. The researcher’s reflections extracted from the journal were kept to illustrate the discussion, which enriched the facts concerning the difficulties during the PBL materials designing. Further, the reflections of the difficulties and solutions which the researcher encountered through the whole process were reported.

The following Figure 3.1 indicated the two stages of the design procedure. Each stage consisted of some steps to display the complexity of flows as below.

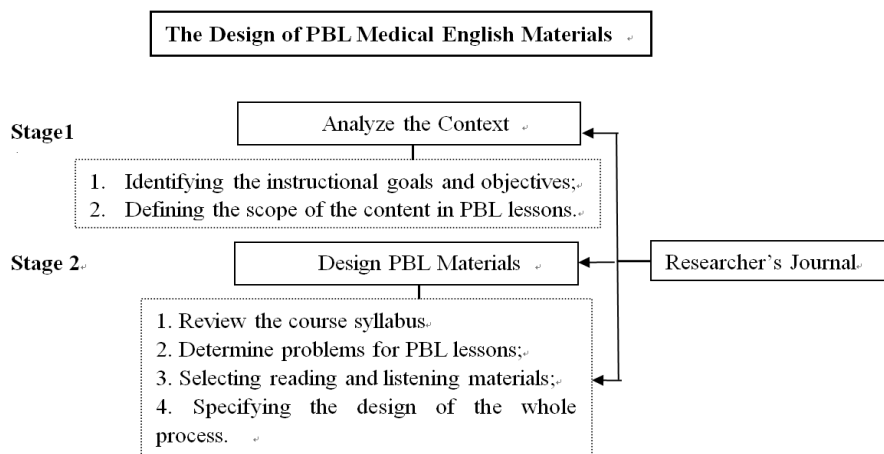


Figure 3.1 Design PBL Medical English Materials

IV. DESIGN PROCEDURE

Stage 1: Analyzing the Context

To analyze the context of the PBL lessons, many factors needed to be considered, for instance, the information about ultimate goal of instruction, course objectives, and students’ pre-requisite background.

1. Identifying the Instructional Goals and Objectives

The medical English course at the university was offered for the third-year medical students in the third academic year. The objectives and goals of PBL medical English lessons were described as follows.

Course descriptions:

An emphasis on medical vocabulary usage for specific professional speaking context, and a range of types of reading and listening as required for various professions.

Course objectives:

- To be able to use the medical vocabulary and expressions to elicit and depend on the information, and convey instructions for specific discussions and class-activities, verbally.
- To understand information in texts, the reading and listening materials and demonstrating the understanding by using this information to complete specific professional reports and discussions.
- To determine the self-directed learning and cooperative learning ideas, promote critical thinking disposition, and apply professional skills for self-improvement.

These learning objectives and goals gave a sense of direction for the design materials. The reflections from researcher’s journal were:

“There were no difficulties for me to determine the objectives of this PBL medical English course because the current learning goals of medical English course were available and clearly stated, I should adopt them to shape the scope of content of the course. The goals also guided me in selecting materials in the design stage...” (Researcher’s journal No.1)

Meanwhile, the researcher took considerations of the third-year medical students of their English level and medical background knowledge level, which could be gathered through their English tests' marks and information from medical teacher.

2. Defining the Scope of the Content in PBL Lessons

Based on the objectives of the course, the contents could be divided into two parts: medicine and English. After analyzing the objectives of the course, the researcher considered the next stage of scoping down the topics and contents of the PBL lessons. The students' existing background knowledge in medicine, their existing language ability, and the goals of the course were concerned.

In order to achieve the goals of the course, the first difficulty was that the regular teaching plan of medical English had to be adjusted. This was the main one the researcher needed to take into consideration. In addition, the approval from the Dean was required in order to implement PBL lessons in such class. Besides, the second difficulty was that several factors concerning students, teachers and contextual variables should be taken into consideration. The key factors included a. students: the students' language proficiency and medical knowledge; b. teacher: the medical knowledge; c. problems (medical cases): the sufficient quality of the PBL problems; d. the supplementary materials: the listening and reading texts which can affect the nature, process and the characteristics of PBL approach. Among all factors, to design the materials at the right level of both students' existing knowledge in medicine and English was to be dealt with by the researcher who was an English teacher. So she needed to get suggestions from the professional content teacher (a medical expert).

"I must talk to a content teacher and a real doctor, to get the suggestions about the scope of the PBL lessons before its development, for I could not determine the students' medical background, which is a main difficulty for me...it is urgent for me to talk with them and get more background information of the students' medical information level." (Researcher's journal No.2)

In addition, since the materials were important to be used to assist the students in the PBL learning process. Therefore, the third difficulty was that too many sources of information needed to be reviewed. It could be textbooks, workbooks, audio-videos, photocopied handouts or anything that contain the target language. Also, another difficulty accompanied with the third one was the researcher needed assistance from the medical teacher, because of lacking the medical knowledge to select the content from these sources. In order to deal with this difficulty in the content's scope, it was essential to consult with the content teacher and the clinical doctor. Further, the fourth difficulty was related to how to encompass the incorporation of the language and content learning. The researcher consulted with other the senior medical teaching teacher and got the suggestions to deal with it.

Stage 2: Designing PBL Materials

After the objective of the medical English course was determined and the scope of the content of PBL lessons was defined, the next was to design the PBL materials. In the designing process, four main steps were included as the existing course syllabus should be considered; the problems should be determined; and the listening and reading materials should be conceptualized; finally the activities and design should be specified.

1. Reviewing the Course Syllabus

For the medical English lessons were given two hours a week with a total of 36 hours (18 weeks) in one semester. The present PBL medical English materials, with the consideration of medical English course objectives, it aims to help the students to acquire vocabulary and terminology in medical English. Further, the materials highlight the reading and listening comprehension, which facilitated students' speaking input. The materials were designed to train the medical students to gain input from PBL reading and listening passages to discuss in groups effectively.

"In relation to medical English course syllabus, some parts can be used in the present PBL lessons as three parts of (1) medical English reading ability, (2) English listening and speaking for medical purpose, (3) medical vocabulary. For the writing part, PBL lessons can include but the writing is not the focus in PBL lessons. Because the research question aimed to investigate the speaking ability changes in PBL lessons ... in this stage, I have too many factors to be taken into consideration, which is my difficulty in designing course syllabus. I asked this question to my advisor, she is an expert of materials design. She suggested me to use this teaching syllabus if it was suitable to the practical teaching and the research. It was important to me that my research should focus the nature of the students' speaking changes in group discussion with PBL lessons, and I can use the existing course syllabus." (Researcher's journal No. 3)

2. Determining Problems for PBL Lessons

An effective problem is essential for PBL course; problem was a framework for discussions that allowed students to recall what they had already known, to quickly identify the shortage of their knowledge, and to formulate questions to exchange the ideas in group. The researcher had three main difficulties in problem determination: (1) time allocation for problems; (2) problems selection and (3) lacking of medical content knowledge.

The problem determination in PBL medical English materials design should be limited within the course schedule and with the consideration of the characteristics of problem. Therefore, the first difficulty for the researcher was how to match the course schedule and these characteristics. The course requirement of the medical English course was one semester, 18 weeks with two hours for one week. Regarding the principle from Merchant (1995), he considered that one PBL required 6 to 21 hours of inside and / or outside class hours. So a total of 36 hours for the whole PBL lessons could

be feasible for both the students and teacher with three problems. Therefore 10 hours were allocated for the completion of solving each problem.

For the second difficulty, the problem from the other sources except the current medical English textbook would be irrelevant and inconvenient for their medical English learning. So it was beneficial for the students to learn PBL lessons with developing the extra problems based on their textbook, it also easier for the researcher to arrange the medical English class teaching and learning. The researcher consulted to the medical teacher, with the regarding of students' present medical subjects, and the factors of resourceful for collocation and useful for communication within group discussion. The medical teacher decided that the three units from the textbook could be used as the basic input of the three problems.

For the third one, owing to have little knowledge on medical content, the researcher had a considerable delay of the problem design. Although the researcher spend a great amount of time on reviewing the content from the sources, and had to search related information of the target problems through the internet, learned about the issues of the problems from medical teacher, all could assist the researcher to continue the designing. However, all the content of the problem should be confirmed by the medical teacher, which directly led to delay of the design. As the statements from researcher's journal as below:

"...although I had read a lot about PBL principles and materials design, I never have any experience in determining PBL problem. So I had to elicit and change the language taken from established PBL programs and tried to clarify the concepts of these problems based on the same topic of the selected units from the textbook. The purpose was to make the three problems as a focus for language learning, which was designed to foster the students' particular skills, for example, vocabulary learning, speaking ability in group discussion, self-learning that were identified as objectives of PBL lessons. The problems should match the logistic realities of the medical case, as a language teacher, I definitely needed help from medical teacher so that the medical content was not beyond the students' existing medical knowledge, which was a considerate delay of the problem design." (Researcher's journal No.4)

3. Selecting Reading and Listening Materials

When deciding on reading and listening materials related to the specific problems, the researcher selected of input must be based upon the students' existing medical knowledge and their language level in order to define what kind of language that would be most suitable for the students.

The first difficulty was found that the ready-made materials videos, audios and internet based materials would not be easy. The researcher had to put more effort and time in finding and considering available materials carefully and work closely with the medical teacher. Secondly, the difficulty was that the materials should be concerned how to select appropriate vocabulary and to decide different content to match them. Finally, the medical teacher highlighted the medical terminology that should be used in discussion in each unit, and the researcher looked through the internet and provided the phonetic symbols and Chinese definition of these terminologies and other general vocabulary. In addition, for the listening materials, to provide transcriptions of each listening passages was another difficult point the researcher encountered. The researcher solved the problem through getting help from a native speaker with teaching college English experience. However, the native speaker had no confidence for the vocabulary accuracy for the shortage of the medical background. So the researcher contacted the clinical doctor to double-check the selected terminology and contents. The researcher wrote in the journal as follows:

"...I was so frustrated when I had a talk with Kim. She was not sure about the accuracy of many medical terms used in the audio and video scripts. I understood that she had no medical knowledge background. It was necessary to get help from the medial doctor who worked in hospital. At the same time, accuracy was the urgent issue I should deal with in the listening materials, every terminology and expressions should be definitely correct." (Researcher's journal No.5)

4. Specifying the Design of the Whole PBL Process

Materials used should be able to link and relate to the students background knowledge as well as their language ability, and the language and content focused are drawn from the input could fulfill any tasks given to them. The four steps of the whole PBL lessons should be specified as follows: (1) introducing the problems; (2) activating relevant background knowledge; (3) searching for more information and (4) discussing in group.

The problem introduction was important in PBL materials design. The researcher followed the medical teacher's suggestion to select the unit topics, which related to real life, authentic reading and listening materials that reflected the target topics. This would help students who were weak in English language to at least comprehend the text in reading and listening materials because it was linked to their background knowledge. All the materials should be produced upon medical students' relevant background knowledge. The facilitating materials of the conceptualization of content were equaled to the completion materials by providing feedback, raising questions, suggesting possible resources and commenting on the various components of the problems as they proceed. The more searched information supplied by the researcher should be having equally level of the text exercises and the students' existing language ability. About the fourth one, the researcher was aware that the teaching aim was not to teach the content of medicine, but how to use the medical vocabulary so that they would be able to communicate in PBL group discussion. It was hoped that the selected PBL problems and materials could assist students to connect the language and medical content from different aspects, so that they could speak out in discussion with the amount of language input.

In stage 2, the researcher had to focus on matching of the needs of students as the comprehensive input as closely as possible. It was crucial that paying attention to content accuracy, and appropriateness (vocabulary appropriateness, proper length sentences, and sentence complexity), coverage comprehensiveness under the permission of the medical teacher and medical doctor, on the other hand, the language level appropriateness, progress group discussion records, and journal quality testing relied on a professional ESP materials designer and teacher should be noteworthy.

V. CONCLUSION

The design of PBL materials for medical English course provided a deeper understanding of the process of content materials design, which consists of defining the context, designing the PBL materials and some sub-steps. The design should attend the integration with language and content and urge students acquire the target language ability when they are solving the problems with content and complete the activities with the language. From the qualitative data, the researcher learned that this time-consuming process of design of PBL medical English materials for medical students is complex. It contains several steps that require the researcher's collective experiences, knowledge and skills. All of which include: the knowledge of English language teaching and learning, content knowledge of other academic disciplines, knowledge of the PBL approach, understanding available communication with content-teacher, and then integrating all to use. In the designing process, it is highly recommended to work closely with the content teacher.

To complete the design, teacher-designer should have adequate time to have a whole layout of carrying out this tough task with full efforts and concentration. Moreover, the materials designer needs to have an in-depth understanding of the nature of the target course, and be able to adopt and adapt the other materials to own teaching materials design.

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Lan Yu is currently a doctoral candidate at the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. She is an Associate professor of School of Foreign Languages at Guizhou Medical University, China. Her research interests include in EFL teaching methodology, ESP teaching and learning.

Sirinthorn Seepho is currently a lecturer of English at the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. She received her PhD in Foreign Language Education from the University of Pittsburgh, USA. Her academic areas of interest lie mainly in EFL teaching methodology, content-based instruction, qualitative research and teacher education.

'*adi* as a Discourse Marker in Spoken Iraqi Arabic

Abdulkhaliq Alazzawie

Department of Foreign Languages, University of Nizwa, Nizwa, Sultanate of Oman

Abstract—The linguistic element '*adi* is extensively employed in the variety of Arabic spoken in Iraq to aid in communication and facilitate the cohesion and flow of conversation. '*adi* which roughly means *no worries, okay, how dare you?, yeah I hear you, or I've gone through the same thing myself*, displays properties typically displayed by discourse markers. For example, it occurs phrase-initially or phrase-finally, it is a grammatically optional lexical item, it is multi-functional and it is an essential feature of spontaneous oral discourse ... oral - rather than formal written - discourse among Iraqi speakers of Arabic. The aim of this paper is to investigate the use of '*adi*, its distribution and its varied context-dependent meanings and functions. The description and investigation are based largely on speech samples which the author recorded. These recordings were then transcribed and analyzed in order to identify the functions associated with '*adi* from a discourse analytical perspective.

Index Terms—discourse marker, context, multi-functionality, utterance, contextual clues

I. METHODOLOGY

The investigation of discourse marker (DM) '*adi* in the present paper draws from a corpus of approximately 9 hours of informal conversations and interviews with native speakers of this variety of Arabic. Pairs of speakers conversed with each other. The author recorded their conversations and also conducted interviews with 6 other native speakers. All of these recordings were then transcribed and analyzed. The corpus was compiled and then searched for examples of '*adi* displaying tokens, its distribution and function. Each occurrence was analyzed and identified. The linguistic and pragmatic features were examined and situated within a wider discourse context.

The focus of the paper is comparing the Arabic segment/speech unit '*adi* to English DMs to see if it falls within the parameters of DMs and to see if it possesses the necessary characteristics to be considered a DM. This makes it necessary to discuss equivalents or something quite similar of DMs occurring in English speech patterns such as *so, well, yeah, right* and *oh*.

'*adi* can also combine with other items producing the phrases *ee 'adi* "yeah, no problem", *ee la 'adi* "oh, yeah, no problem" and *la ee 'adi* "no problem, oh, yeah". Through analysis of naturally occurring conversations, the use of these forms was also investigated.

II. PROPERTIES OF DISCOURSE MARKERS

Jucker and Ziv (1998) state that there is no standard definition of the term discourse marker (DM), but there are certain characteristics that a lexical item or phrase possesses in order to be recognized as such. The following are some of the characteristics that have been suggested to date:

DMs are lexical items or phrases in speech (*right, I mean, you know, I think, well, the thing is*) or in writing (however, to sum up, etc). Other examples given by Schiffrin (1986) include *oh, now, then, so, and, but* and *or*.

DMS are optional. The grammar of an utterance is not affected if they are absent; the sentence structure will still be intact. In other words, DMs are syntactically independent; however, their removal may affect the ease of comprehension (Aijmer 2002, Eslami and Eslami-Rakkeh 2007). A good example of this would be the DM *however* which may be used to contribute to the meaning of a conversation by suggesting the direction in which the speaker is taking the conversation:

"The government is planning on spending billions on their upcoming space program, which may benefit mankind in some way some day. However, their priority should be here at home given our current economic situation."

Here *however* introduces an opposing point of view and it is often used in speeches, or debates (arguments for or against something), or arguments to introduce contrast – an opposing point of view to be considered - not overlooked.

A DM may have more than one function, depending on the context within which it occurs. One DM may have a variety of context-dependent functions. Fung and Carter (2007) refer to them or to this phenomenon as multifunctional DMs and they give the example of *so*, which can act to both launch (begin) and sum up or conclude a topic. Examples of both functions (to launch or sum up a topic) follow in (1) and (2) respectively:

(1) Examples of So Launching a Topic:

- a. So, Judy, are you coming to my party next Friday?
- b. So, what's up?

- c. So, where do we go from here?
- d. So, what now?
- e. So, what are you going to do?

However, if it is used to summarize a topic, *so*, in this context, might be represented in the following examples:

(2) Examples of So Concluding/Summing up a Topic

- a. So, now we have come to the end of this story and what a story!
- b. So, while we end tonight on a sour note, the weather will be sunny tomorrow!
- c. So, to conclude this argument . . . , or
- d. So, to sum up, Darwin believed and promoted the idea of evolution, but was the price he paid worth it?
- e. So, I would argue that if water becomes so scarce in the future, we will all have to drink milk or juice.
- f. So, here we are back at square one.¹

DMs may belong to different grammatical classes, proposed by Aijmer (2002), Carter and McCarthy (2006) and Fung and Carter (2007). In other words, DMs come from different word classes of adverbials and adjuncts such as *unfortunately, like, because, then, or, okay, as a matter of fact and basically*. They gave the examples of prepositional phrases *by the way*, response tokens² *right*, and interjections *oh*.

The following is an example of a speech *with by the way* between mother (M) and son (S):

(3) M: By the way, Uncle John is home from the hospital.

S: Oh, thanks mom. I'll give him a call.

Here is an example of a speech with a response *right*. A young student (A) phones his friend and classmate (B) and says:

(4) A: Hey, how come you're not in any of my classes this semester?

The called party replies:

B: I didn't sign up for the course until January because my parents want to take me to Europe to meet their parents.

Then the caller replies back:

A: Right (or Oh, right...). I forgot. You were born here and have never gone over

Below is an example of an interjection with *oh* in a conversation between mother and daughter:

(5) M: Ok, I'm going to the mall now. See you later. Bye.

D: Oh wait! I want to come too?

"Oh yes, well and then" can also be sequenced; below is an example of this sequencing. A daughter phones her mother:

(6) D: Hi mom. It's me.

M: Hi dear. Have you finished your supper?

D: Yes and how about you?

M: Yes and I'm on the computer now.

D: Oh yes, Well then, I won't keep you.

The daughter said Oh yes? (She was surprised that her mom was working on the computer at that time because her favourite show's on TV, for example, and she's missing it.)

Swan (2005, p. xviii) defines a 'discourse marker' as 'a word or expression which shows the connection between what is being said and the wider context'. He provides three examples of DMs: *on the other hand, frankly, and as a matter of fact*.³

DMs typically occur at the beginning of utterances, a characteristic which Schiffrin (1987) has used as a condition for classifying items as DMs. (Schiffrin, 1986) provides representative examples commonly used in the English language such as *now, you know, so, well, like, basically, I mean, because, actually, okay, and, or and oh*. It stands to reason that a lot of DMs can occur at the end if they can occur at the beginning of an utterance. Here are some examples:

(7)

a. By the way, I just heard what you said about me and that's not true.

b. I just heard what you said about me, by the way, and that's not true.

¹ The last example, "So, here we are again back at square one." is kind of ambiguous in the sense it could be used to both launch and conclude a topic. An argument or point of view has been introduced and some premise failed or wasn't right or didn't work out, so now they have to start again. Further points or further discussion could ensue and be brought up. When *so* is used with "let's try this again", it would seem to be the start of a new angle, a new try or perspective. It means let's give it another go, maybe try a different approach or maybe try something differently (if you're talking about track and field... run faster, jump higher. Try a different angle or perhaps different running shoes). But if *so* is coupled with "here we are back at square one", it indicates for example the hypothesis or reasoning was flawed. Something has not turned out and further research or attempts at doing something need to be done.

² Also known as response signals which indicate that a piece of information has been registered by the recipient (Gardner, 2001 cited in Moore, 2007, p 22). They provide information about the direction the conversation is taking.

³ As a *matter of fact* is usually meant in a contrastive sense. It usually means to set someone straight on something. For example, Cindy says to her friend:

Cindy: I hate Spanish. What's the sense of learning Spanish?

Friend: Well, your parents are Spanish, so it only makes sense that they'd want you to learn their native language. And, as a matter of fact, Spanish might become the next lingua franca given the number of its native speakers.

- c. I just heard what you said about me and that's not true, by the way.
- (8)
- a. Unfortunately, I have no more tickets left for that date.
- b. I have no more tickets left for that date, unfortunately.
- (9)
- a. However, I still have some tickets available for the concert on Sunday.
- b. I still have some tickets available, however, for the concert on Sunday.
- c. I still have some tickets available for the concert on Sunday, however.

III. CONTEXT, MEANING AND FUNCTION OF *ʔADI*

Now, *ʔadi*'s distribution, its varied context-dependent meanings and functions will be exemplified and examined. Examples of DMs in conversational English of equivalence and correlation with *ʔadi* will also be provided. *ʔadi* may serve to perform the following functions:

1. Offer of Material Support and Sympathy

Examples of both of these functions or sub-functions follow:

(1)

A: *Beti sigeer ma yisaʔ ʔaʔlti lo ʔindi mablag ʔabeeʔ hatha w ʔashtari bet ʔawsaʔ*

My house is too small for my family. If I had more money, I'd sell it and buy a bigger one.

B: *ʔadi ʔani ʔsaaʔdak*

Don't worry, I'll help you.

Speaker B is empathizing with speaker A at the same time he is offering financial support. It would be like saying "Gee, that's too bad. Don't worry... I'll help you (meaning he will actually give or lend the person money)."⁴ This is the intended actual meaning of a typical or usual response in natural casual spoken Iraqi Arabic conversation and used in this way in this context. Then, in English it would be like saying: "Gee, that's too bad. Don't worry. I'll lend you some money. Gee, that's too bad. I can help you out with that. Don't worry."

Speaker B's answer can, however, be an example of an habitual response towards someone who is expressing regret, or who is feeling bad, anxious or depressed about something with the intent of conveying sympathy only. Contextual and/or conversational clues (tone of voice, intonation, emphasis) would reveal the intended message of the speaker. Or, perhaps such clues would reveal the attitude and character of the speaker (what the speaker is feeling or thinking).

2. Consolation, Mitigation and Encouragement

Speaker B's response could have been like the following:

(2a)

ʔadi inshallah balmustakbal tigdar ani ham beti sigeer

No problem⁵, hopefully you'll be able to do that in the future. Mine is too small too.

In this case, *ʔadi* serves as an offer of moral support, sympathy and empathy. Its message can be expanded as "Don't worry. Things will work out in the long run. Everything will turn out fine. Everyone's okay and it's not forever. Everybody's healthy and happy and that's all that counts. You'll get a bigger house one day". The following are more examples of what you might hear in typical spoken English which correspond to *ʔadi* in the present context: "If that's your only problem, consider yourself lucky." Or, "You call that a problem? If I could be so lucky! which obviously is not too sympathetic. So, a speaker's response can be relative, or should I say a speaker's perspective is often reflected

⁴ This use of *ʔadi* could be interpreted as a type of "divergence" (Holmes, 2013, p 246) or "negative politeness" (Ibid, 285) so that the two participants in the conversation are not at the same level. It is like saying "wow my house is great and I have no problems at all but too bad for you." So, it can have the opposite effect instead of trying to make someone feel better and lessen their feelings of sadness, instead of trying to unburden them of their emotional and mental dilemma.

It is helping to make the person with the feelings of regret or the yearnings for something better feel better about their situation. So, yes *ʔadi* does serve to offer them support. But more emotional or mental than material; not like "I'll give you enough money to buy a nice big house tomorrow." Who's got that kind of dough? Who's willing/able to do that? No one I know. Rarely would an acquaintance actually give someone money who's expressing such a wish. It's one thing if it were a kid asking for a rubber ball or a son wanting a bike and his dad to help him out but someone expressing enough money to buy a bigger house! Of course, it's possible. But, is it probable? One would doubt the validity of the claim to help. Who gives that kind of money away to an acquaintance? Nobody I've ever know, that's for sure. For such an offer to be believable, the speaker should have made it more clear by adding another sentence such as "Don't worry, I'll help you. I can lend you some money. You would have to pay me back, but I won't charge you any interest. Or, "Don't worry. I'll lend you some money. You'll have to pay me back, but I won't charge you any interest."

⁵ In this context "no problem" might not be the best translation of the DM *ʔadi* because you would never say "no problem" when someone told you about a problem of this nature where someone is distressed about their living situation. That would be making light of someone's problem or feelings or issue. Something dismissive like that would only be more hurtful because when you are feeling hurt or sad, you want what you say to be heard, listened to, acknowledged and validated. A more proper choice in this instance would be "Oh, I get you", or "oh, boy, don't I know" or "oh yeah, I hear you" or even "Ah, I'm sorry" or "Oh, I'm sorry" or "I'm sorry to hear that". So you are basically saying I've listened and I understand you're upset and I empathize or sympathize with you. And then follow it with at least one or more sentences in an attempt to make the person feel better and/or give them hope for a brighter outcome in the future.

"No problem" might be said in instances where the "problem" isn't that great and can be easily and quickly solved as in:

"Gee, I don't know how I'm going to get there tomorrow. My car broke down and it's not going to be fixed until Wednesday". Then, a friend might reply "Oh, no problem, I'll pick you up tomorrow."

in their responses which in turn are based on their life experiences. This person might consider the other one to be lucky in comparison to him.

So, *ʔadi* is meant to cheer up the person and lessen their bad, anxious and regretful feelings by offering them moral support and empathy. Putting that all together, *ʔadi*, used in this context, is an habitual, typical automatic response meant to offer moral support and empathy towards someone who has expressed feelings of regret, anxious, or even depressed about something.

Here is another example of *ʔadi* serving to console, mitigate and encourage. A student (Speaker B), who has failed his Math course, feels terrible:

(2b)

A: ʔashufak mahmoum yaʔakhi shinu alqusa

You look sad, my friend; what happened?

B: wallahi risabit bmadit arriyathiat

Well, I failed my Math.

A: ʔadi yaʔakhi tʔeeda assana almuqbila

Don't worry, my friend, you can take it over.

ʔadi here echoes the frequently in use English phrase "it's not the end of the world". It also parallels "Oh, that's a bummer", or, "Bummer! That's too bad, but you know you can rewrite it again next year. So, don't feel too bad. A lot worse things could happen. Don't worry. Just study hard and ace it next year. You know what? For now, just forget about it. It's not the do all and the end all. An English speaker often might say "Yeah, I hear you. I feel the same way. Or Yeah, I hear you." Or "I know exactly what you mean and what you're going through". And "Don't worry. It's not the end of the world. You can take it again next year." The following are more parallel examples of what you might hear in typical spoken English discourse where the psychological burden is totally wiped out: "To hell with it! Let's go out and celebrate!"

ʔadi used in this way helps to cheer a person up and lessen/ease the feelings that are bringing them down. So Speaker B cheers up Speaker A by minimizing or deflecting from his bad feelings while, simultaneously, offering sympathy and a brighter prospect in the future.

Speaker A's reply is prefixed by *ʔadi* which basically means "Don't worry, I'm sorry to hear the bad news". It can also be translated as "Yeah, I know what you mean. Or, that's too bad. I wish I could do something to help you. Or I'm sorry to hear that. I wish I could do something to help you."

Perhaps, the core meaning of *ʔadi* would best be reflected and exemplified by the expression "Don't sweat it" as in (2c) In English, this expression is more oriented towards the young generation and that is also more colloquial. Let us say one male teenager is talking to his friend about his chances of getting on the football team he tried out for.

(2c)

Speaker 1: Gee, I wonder if I'm going to make it on to the football team.

Speaker 2: What! You sure are.

Speaker 1: You think so?

Speaker 2: Don't sweat it (You've got this one.) Oh, for sure you've got this one. I've never seen anyone play like you. You are one of the best, so don't sweat it.

So, to recap, this function of the DM *ʔadi* consists of three sub-functions:

- Consolation as in "Wow. That's too bad. Don't worry. Oh, I'm sorry about that."
- Encouragement as in "It's not the end of the world you know. It could be a lot worse. You can improve the situation by doing X, Y and Z. So, things will get better. You'll do better next time. You can rewrite the exam next semester or year." *ʔadi* gives encouragement and hope for a brighter outcome, hope for future success and for brighter prospects.
- Mitigation. What's this? Lessening the load or wiping it out altogether. In English it would be like saying: "Forget about it. You can rewrite the test next year. The extra course will just make you better in math than if you had just scraped by this year." Of course, some do try to minimize like "Math, schmath. Don't you hate it? Oh well, better luck next year. I'll be writing the exam tomorrow, so don't be surprised if I join you."⁶

3. Acceptance of a Proposal

An example of *ʔadi* in this role is the following:

(3a)

A: Shinu raʔyak nzour bet Abu Ali

What do you think about going to Abu Ali's house?

B: ʔadi

Yeah, why not?

⁶ Of course there is a group of other English expressions that express all what *ʔadi* serves to convey - No problem, not to worry, no worries (especially Australians with this one), not a problem, bummer; or BU.....mer (sounds like buh-mer dragged out more). Ones of encouragement like "You've got this one. Ones that try to wipe it out as if it were totally insignificant: "Forget about it. Who cares?" Big deal. No big deal. No biggie (meaning no big deal). It's not that big of a deal. It's no big deal. It's really not that big of a deal.

In English "why not" might be coupled with the sentence "Yeah, let's (yeah, let's go). The closest translation or equivalents are statements like: "fine with me, I have no problem with that. Sure, I'm game. Sure, why not? What else is there to do?", and "We're not doing anything else, so yes let's (go)." Here *ʔadi* is a typical, standard, normal, habitual response.

There are always different levels of expressions or different textures of meaning conveyed by the DM *ʔadi*. Let us say two male friends are talking about visiting a third male friend they see fairly often: What do you think about going to visit Abu Ali? You might get a response like one of the following:

(3b)

Sure, I'd like that.

Yeah, okay.

Okay, when were you thinking of going?

But let us say there is one girl who is the sister of the boy her friend has a crush on and she asks her smitten friend: What do you think about visiting my brother, Abu Ali? Then you might get a response like: REALLY!!! You're not kidding? Yes.. let's go.... NOW. I can't wait! Oh my god. I'm so excited. I can't believe I'm doing this!

Or maybe one sister says to her other sister: Hey, do you want to go visit Abu Ali? (an old neighbour they haven't seen in years.) The sister replies: Yeah, that would be great to see him again. Let's do it. When do you want to go?

4. Disapproval, Reprimand and Indignation

An example of *ʔadi* serving this role of voicing indignation, criticizing and reprimanding follows. Speaker A is scolding speaker B:

(4)

A: *ʔadi* takhith sayyarti bidun *ʔilmi* wbidun ithni w*ʔadi* tsiwwi biha hadith w *ʔadi* tutrukha bashari⁶ w ma tikhbirni

How dare you take my car without my knowledge, without my permission (without asking me!) and without having a driver's license! How dare you cause an accident! And how dare you abandon it on the road without telling me anything!

B: ee *ʔadi* dialla rouh

So there! There you go!

The English equivalent expression "how dare you!" is more an exclamation not a question. In English "how dare you!" is used when a person is angry and, though it is written like a question, it is said in a declaration of anger and thus the exclamation at the end instead of a question mark. The spirit behind the meaning of *ʔadi* is closely echoed in English in the following statements: "How could you do such a thing! What the hell were you thinking! Are you crazy or what! I'm so mad at you. How could you! What (the hell) were you thinking! Have you lost your mind!"

Speaker B, that is the person being reprimanded, replies in a defiant tone ee *ʔadi* "so there!". The meaning of this Arabic DM in this context can be explained by discussing an equivalent form in English. There is this English expression "So there!". It is the soul of ee *ʔadi*'s meaning. It is used usually in a situation where, for example, there are two people arguing about something and the person who has the last word often makes verbal victory statement followed by "So there!", usually said decisively and angrily. It is probably used mostly by immature people like disputing siblings or kids in a schoolyard or when they are playing together.

So let us say classmates on the school ground are arguing.

(4b)

Kid nbr 1 says: My dad will beat your dad up.

Kid nbr 2 replies: No, my dad will beat yours up.

Kid nbr 1 counters: No, my dad will. He's bigger than your dad.

Kid nbr 2 replies: Well, my dad has a black belt in karate. So there!

The final "So there!" is said angrily and decisively as if to say "See, I showed you, didn't I?" who's who/who's boss/who has the final word. That final statement, "so there!" usually "settles" the argument with the real verbal blow occurring in the preceding sentence/s. (i.e., Well, my dad is unusually strong. And he has a black belt in karate. So there!)

Maturity level of the participants in this conversation has something to do with how the argument played out and the types of things said and the diction used. For example, two professional business men would not be arguing tit for tat like this and say something like "So there" when trying to prove a point. That would definitely be out of place and would be too juvenile and unprofessional.

5. Politeness and Courtesy

Following is an example:

(5)

A: *ʔashkurak ʔala hal musaaʔada wallahi ma ʔaʔruf kef arudlak hatha aljameel*

Thank you for your help; I really don't know how to return this favour.

B: *ʔadi (yamʔawwad ʔadi) ihna ʔikhwa.*

No worry, we are like brothers.⁷

⁷ In English, you might hear "You're like a brother/sister to me". Or, "you're like family." Or, "I'm closer to you than I am to my own family."

To bring out the meaning of *ʕadi* in this context, a more natural way of expressing this conversation is required. Corresponding examples of utterances which might be heard in typical spoken English are: "Thank you for helping me. I don't know how I'll ever repay you." Or, "Thanks so much for your help. How will I ever repay you?" Or, "Thank you for your help. Boy do I owe you! How can I make it up to you?"

The polite and courteous reply is strengthened further by combining *ʕadi* with another DM *yamʕawwad* and followed again by *ʕadi*. This combination acts together to express a higher level of politeness. English examples which most closely align to the Arabic meaning are: "You don't owe me a thing. After all, what are friends for? Oh, forget it. You're such a good friend. That's the least I can do. Oh stop! Will you? I take care of family and you're... you're like family to me (not typical... only in a certain context.) Or, "You're like a brother/sister to me." You've helped me too you know. So forget about it. One good deed deserves another. Oh, that was nothing at all. Don't even think about it. You've done enough for me already. You don't owe me anything, so forget about it! That was nothing... nothing at all. You don't have to do anything. I was glad to help you. So, don't worry."

In English it is not meant as an extra level of politeness more so as putting the person at ease in terms of relieving their feelings of indebtedness. However, the Arabic version and this English example both display going an extra step to make the person feel better and perhaps also serves to save face.

6. Mild Criticism and Sarcasm

The following is an example:

(6)

ʕadi tiji lalmthihan bidoun qalam w raqa wʕadi tiji mitʕakhir

It is okay to come to the exam without pen and paper and it is okay to come in late.

The criticism and sarcasm can be expressed in the following rhetorical manner which conveys the spirit behind the meaning of *ʕadi*: Is it okay to come to an exam without a pen and paper? And maybe you should be late too while you're at it. Or, "Yeah, it's OK to come to an exam without a pen and paper! And why not be late too while you're at it?" Or, "Yeah, it's ok to come to an exam without a pen and paper and why not be late too? Yeah, show up late why don't you?" The DM *ʕadi* in this context can also be rendered as "sure" as in: "Sure it's okay to come to an exam without a pen and paper and be late too while you're at it. Sure, why don't you! Or "Sure it's OK to come to an exam without a And why don't you come in late too?" said in a sarcastic tone of voice.

Again there are different levels and textures of meaning depending on the speakers involved, or the context, and as we mentioned before, sometimes the intended meaning. Is a particular linguistic unit in the utterance stressed? Is the meaning elevated? Is the talker calm? Angry? Happy? Disappointed? Frantic? Panicking? What is their role? teacher/student, boss/employee? What is their relationship? Parent/child, older sibling/baby of the family What is the level of formality? Senior staff/junior staff, trainer/trainee Is formality required or a part of the situation?⁸ As Brown & Yule (1986) point out, such background information, setting and relationships among speakers and hearers are obviously relevant for understanding the communicative event. There are often different layers of meaning and this is certainly the case when someone is being sarcastic.

7. Requesting and Granting Permission

A student asks her Teacher: Is it okay to leave class early?

(7)

A: ʕadi ʔatlaʕ alyawm mubakkir min almuhathara

Is okay for me to leave class early?

B: ʕadi

It is okay.

Of course the teacher would say something like "Yes, that's fine. All right. Yes, that'll be fine"; Yes, you may, Yes, you have my permission (i.e., a bit more formal and old school i.e., a student asking their teacher). Or, "Yes, you may do that". Or, if a less formal teacher/class: "Yes, that's OK." But, you'd never expect a teacher to sound over zealous or too lax and lenient like "Of course John, you needn't bother to ask"; then so many kids would be cutting class it wouldn't be funny. Imagine if a teacher actually said: "Of course, there's no need to ask." Then for sure... kids would start taking advantage of the situation.

8. Indifference and Obliviousness

The following dialogue between two speakers exemplifies this use of use of *ʕadi*:

(8)

A: ʔaljeeran sawthum ʕaali jiddan

The neighbors are very loud

B: ʕadi daʕiman hum hakatha

We got used to it; they are always like that.

⁸ Or is the speaker eager or anxious? So, let's say a mother has been waiting to hear from her daughter who's in the hospital giving birth. After giving birth, the daughter phones her mom. Mom, it's over and I survived" and the mom might reply: Oh.... Congratulations. I'm so glad. "So, is it a boy or a girl?"

The spirit behind the meaning of *ʕadi* in this context in Arabic might be best understood by the following group of utterances in conversational English: "Oh...we're used to it. They're always like that. Or, "Oh, we're used to that raucous. They're always carrying on like that.

Oh, we're used to that by now. We've tried to get them to pipe down, but they're so inconsiderate. They'll never change."

Following are three English examples where the DMs *yeah*, *well* and *oh* serve functions similar to *ʕadi*:

(8a) Example of *yeah*:

A: Is that neighbour blasting his music again?

B: Yeah, nothing new. And the funny thing is... I hardly notice it now becuz I'm so used to it.

A: maybe you're getting deaf! (Then, they both laugh)

(8b) Example of *yeah* and *well*:

A: Wow, that baby sure cries an awful lot.

B: Yeah, well, you get used to it.... Hardly bothers me now.

(8c) Example of *oh*:

A: Your neighbour's dog barks non-stop.

B: Oh, we don't even hear it anymore really; we're so used to it.

9. A Hedging Device of Softening Criticism and Face-saving

Face saving is trying to put the person at ease, rid them of anxiety and make them feel better. The DM *ʕadi* acts in this manner as in the following conversational exchange:

(9a)

A: tiʔakharit ʕalaya w tiʔakharit ʔaani ʕal dawam

You're late and now I'm going to be late for work.

B: ʔaasif jiddan ma liget almifateeh

I'm very sorry, I couldn't find my key.

A: ʕadi bass la tsaweeha kul yom

Okay, but don't do it every day.

The essence of the meaning is: "It's OK this time, but don't do it again." Or, "It's okay, but make sure you have your keys and everything ready the night before." Or, "It's okay, but don't do it everyday. So, next time, be prepared!" And "That's all right; just don't do it again."

This function and meaning of *ʕadi* can be illustrated using the English DMs "Oh", "well" and the common expression "no worries". Daughter (D) says to her mother (M):

(9b)

D: Mom, I accidentally ran over your flowers with the lawnmower.

M: Oh, don't worry. They'll grow back.

D: What if they don't?

M: Well, I can always plant more.

10. Resignation and Submission or Surrender to Something Beyond One's Control

ʕadi may also signal a sense of resignation:

(10)

A: hay shlon ʕaysheen bhal althrouf alqasiya wa alʔawthaʕ altaʕbana – tafjeerat w mashaakil a jaysh w mudahamat

How can you live under such terrible conditions?... the explosions, all these problems, the army, and the raids?

B: ʕadi tiʕawwadna ʕaleha

What can I do! What other options are there?⁹

In this instance, *ʕadi* expresses a sense of helplessness, and the sentiments expressed here are echoed in English by "What can we do? It's not like we have a choice." It expresses this sense of surrender that there's nothing they can do to change the situation.... there are no alternatives... they are forced to live like that and just deal with it the best they can. *ʕadi* signals this sense of resignation.

11. Divergence in Opinion and counter proposal

The following dialogue between two speakers (A and B) demonstrates the use of *ʕadi*:

as divergence in opinion:

(11)

A: shinu raʔayak bilsafar lbaghdad

How about going to Bagdad this weekend?

B: ʔaljaw har lesh ma nʔajla liyom ʔakhar

No (or No way.), the weather's too hot. Why don't we go some other time when it's not so hot? (or Why don't we put it off for another day?)

ʕadi ʕidna tabreed bassayara

⁹ The literal meaning is "We're accustomed to this." But, the heart of the meaning is "What can I do! What other options are there!" because there's no getting accustomed to that kind of situation.

Oh come on. What's the problem? The car's got air-conditioning.

12. Assurance and Facilitation

The following dialogue between two speakers (A and B) demonstrates the use of *ʕadi* to signal assurance and facilitation:

(12)

A: ʔassuwar alli ʔarsalitha balskype kul alʔirsal fishal w ma wislan

All the photos you sent through Skype didn't come through. I didn't get any of them.

B: ʕadi ʔarsilhin marra ʔukhra

Don't worry. I'll send them again.

13. Confirmation Seeker

The following is an example:

(13a)

A: mihtaj roha lkarkouk lshira? Qanafat bass ʕindi dawam w ma ʔagdar ʔrouh

I need to make a trip to Kerkouk to buy a sofa set but I can't because I'm working.

B: yamʕawwad la tihtam aani ʔrouh ʔashtareehin ʔilak

Oh, well I can do that for you.¹⁰

A: sahih trouh ʕadi ma ysabiblak muthayaqa

Really! Or, Oh, really? You'd do that? (Or You would do that for me?) I hate to impose on you.

B: ee la ʕadi jiddan la la ʕadi

Oh, it's nothing.... nothing at all. Oh, it's no problem whatsoever. Or, yeah not at all

Note that speaker B used *ee la ʕadi* which is a cluster of three DMs. Its core meaning would best be echoed by the English phrases "yeah, no problem whatsoever. Yup, It's no trouble whatsoever. It'll be a cinch. Don't even think about it."

Some interlocutors use it so frequently as a fixed and lexicalized discourse marker. It seems to cover various aspects of the interaction expressing agreement and acknowledgment. At the same time the expression indicates divergence from presuppositions and assumptions:

Neighbour/friend (A) says he'll go pick up the sofa set for his friend (B):

B: You'd do that for me? I hate to impose on you. Are you sure that wouldn't be a problem?

A: Yes, I'm sure. Or, Yes, no that wouldn't be a problem. (Yes, I'm sure. No, that wouldn't be a problem.) Yes, no... no that wouldn't be a problem.

"No" is a restatement as if to stress that it really isn't a problem...that it's no bother at all. This is a reassurance and a confirmation to put the person at ease... to assure them it's OK.

The casual and spontaneous usage of the complex DM of Arabic *ʔee la ʕadi* can also be exemplified by the English complex DM "Yeah, no, okay". Typical examples of this expression are:

(13b)

A: Are you sure you don't want to play baseball on Saturday? Are you sure you want to miss the tournament?

B: Yeah, no... maybe not.

A: Do you want some ice cream? (spoken to someone who's on a diet and is really desperate to lose weight)?

B: Yes, no, okay.... Maybe just a little.

People are answering without a lot of thought.... They are spontaneous answers in informal situations. And it could be the other way around:

(13c)

A: Are you sure you want to miss the tournament?

B: No, yeah... maybe not.

Or no, yeah, no well, maybe not.

Or:

A: Do you want some ice cream?

B: No, yes, no.... oh, maybe a little wouldn't hurt.

It should also be noted here that *ʕadi* is not unique to the variety of Arabic spoken in Iraq. Kanakri and Al-Harshsheh (2013) identified nine functions of this DM in spoken Jordanian Arabic such as consolation, permission, rebuke, contempt and courtesy. In Jordanian Arabic as well, *ʕadi* "serves various functions in different contexts and situations" (Ibid p. 62).

The aim of the preceding discussion has been to investigate the linguistic element *ʕadi* to determine if it falls within the parameters of being a discourse marker. To this end, its distribution, its varied context-dependent meanings (no worries, ok, how dare you!, etc.) and functions have been examined. Some instances in which *ʕadi* correlates with English DMs or expressions have been given, together with a discussion of shared properties, functions, meaning and distribution.

¹⁰ Or, "Oh, don't worry. I'll pick it up for you."

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on interactional exchanges from 10 different speakers in different situations which represent real language usage, both the distribution and function of the token *ʔadi* were investigated.

ʔadi conforms to many of the generalizations about discourse markers. It occurs only in oral discourse; it is a short element of language; it appears in utterance-initial position; it is optional as its omission does not alter the grammaticality or the referential meaning of the utterance although it might make the utterance less acceptable pragmatically, and it is of an ambiguous lexical specification which makes it difficult to classify into a particular syntactic category.

It has also been shown that *ʔadi* performs the discourse and pragmatic roles and functions of text cohesion and attitude signaling. Examples of this Arabic DM, its complex clustered version *ee la ʔadi* and the corresponding English equivalents *oh, yeah, well* were investigated. They reveal how the DMs indicate the attitude, belief and opinion of the speaker at different layers and angles of discourse. They also reveal the direction in which the conversation is heading. The investigation shows that the functions are varied, as is characteristic of discourse markers. It is such structural descriptions, roles, and functions which support its classification as a DM.

A more thorough investigation is required in terms of equivalence and correspondence between *ʔadi* and English DMs to explore their characteristics, distribution, meanings, functions and roles. Such an investigation will undoubtedly have significant implications and consequence for language education and translation. Clearly DMs present a problem. They are interesting to study and analyze but very challenging to teach because of their abstract nature and variedness in terms meaning which is impacted and determined by context.

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Abdulkhaliq Alazzawie, holds a Ph.D. degree in Linguistics from Simon Fraser University, Canada, in 1991, an M.A. in Linguistics from University of Ottawa in 1985.

He is currently an Assistant Professor at The University of Nizwa, Oman. He has recently published two research papers entitled: "*Yamawwad: A Discourse and Pragmatic Marker in Iraqi Arabic*" and "*The Discourse Marker wa in Standard Arabic- A Syntactic and Semantic Analysis*". His research interests include English/Arabic Syntax within the Principles and Parameters Theory, Adjunction and Discourse Analysis.

Dr. Alazzawie has worked in the Department of Linguistics, Simon Fraser University where he taught English Syntax, English Morphology and Introduction to Linguistics. He has also taught Linguistics and translation courses at ITTIHAD University in RAK, UAE.

A Postcolonial Reading of George Orwell's *Shooting an Elephant* With Special Reference to Edward Said's Orientalism and Binary of the Self and the Other

Ahmad Ghaforian

Education and Training Organization, Mashad, Razavi Khorasan Province, Iran

Ahmad Gholi

English Department, Gonbad Kavous University, Golestan, Iran

Abstract—Edward Said in his groundbreaking work *Orientalism*, which later becomes a bible for Postcolonialists, elucidates how the Western scholars, writers, scientists, philologists, administrators among others take it for granted the binary distinction between the West and its Other. He underscores the special place of the Orient in the Western canon. The arbitrary and fabricated line between the Self (Occident) and the Other(Orient) in which the former is privileged and grasps the upper hand to define, reconstruct andre-present the latter, comes at the center of Postcolonialism. Orwell as a Western writer with firsthand experience -he was born in India and served as a cog in British imperial machine for five years-never managed to disconnect wholeheartedly with his deep imperial roots. One of Orwell's major concerns during his life was the issue of imperialism and colonialism which is reflected in many works such as *Burmese Days*, *Shooting an Elephant*, *Marrakech*, and *Hanging*. One characteristic which is shared among these works is the author's conflicting feelings within them about the Orient and Orientals from European's lens. In this study, the relationship between the representer or Westerners and the represented or Easterners is expounded in *Shooting an Elephant* according to Said's Orientalism.

Index Terms—Postcolonialism, Edward Said, Orientalism, Orwell, the Self and the Other, *Shooting an Elephant*

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *Postcolonialism, Orientalism and the Self and the Other*

A stable and monolithic definition of Postcolonialism is almost impossible, because 'Postcolonialism' is a heterogeneous and diffuse field, embracing a wide range of practices and discursive formations and cultural strategies. This difficulty is partly due "to the inter-disciplinary nature of postcolonial studies" (Loomba, 1998, p.xii). Even the rubric, itself is ambivalent and contentious. Postcolonialism, as Wisker points out, is the "Recuperation of history from point of view of the ignored, silenced, Other... people whose lives have been erased, ignored and hidden from history" (2007, p.54). It aims at, as Fanon magnificently points out, "rescuing history from the colonizer's custody" (qtd.in Innes, 2007, p 8).

Postcolonialism deals with both Colonizers' literature to see how via literature in particular the novel genre, they have justified their colonial rule and also the colonized's literature to "write back" to dominant hegemony.

Postcolonialism attempts to refute colonial images and rewrite literature by decentralizing European values and culture in particular the binary of the self and the rest, i.e. 'other'. It is, in the words of Ashcroft, 'discourse of the colonized', but to write back to center. Western literary canon is replete with colonial images of the other. Master/slave dialectic which is asserted by Hegel signifies the superiority of the Occident. Every positive thing is attributed to the Westerners and every negative characteristic is attributed to the Easterners. It is not surprising that the Orient is 'not quite as human as us.

The contemporary postcolonial writings are produced by the people such as Achebe, Thoingo, Lamming, Soyinka and Rushdie who belong to the ex-colonized countries. They try to build on an edifice out of the ruins of colonialism and as Abrams (2005) says, reject "master-narrative of Western Imperialism" by "counter-narrative" (p. 245). They endeavor to "disestablish Eurocentric norms of literary and artistic values, and to expand the literary canon to include colonial and postcolonial writers" (Ibid).

Postcolonial Studies is revisionary in the sense that it undertakes to re-write history from the view of those hidden, suppressed, forgotten and 'other'. Wisker (2007) calls postcolonial literature as a 'reaction to, and a response against, the oppressions and constructions of colonization and imperialism (p. 172). It endeavors to shake off and undo binary oppositions which are constructed by Europeans. The colonizers drew an imaginary line border and divide universe into

two unequal halves: one is privileged, the other unprivileged. Postcolonial literature aims at erasing this line between them.

The study of relationships is at the very heart of Postcolonialism: Relations of reality and its representation, the colonizer and the colonized, centrality and marginality, Metropolitan and its colonial satellites and in sum the relation of the Self and the Other.

Said wrote his legendary work *Orientalism*, which initiated postcolonial theory and criticism. *Orientalism* is a fundamental concept of Postcolonial Studies which was popularized by Said's work of the same name. *Orientalism* as a style of thought based upon an ontological and epistemological distinction made between 'the Orient' and (most of the time) 'the Occident' (Said, 1978, p.1). It is a Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient (Ibid, 3). Via Orientalizing the Orient, many characteristic features are ascribed to the Orient: "a web of racism, cultural stereotypes, political imperialism, dehumanizing ideology" (p. 27). The Orient and Orientals, as Said spotlights it, becomes a "bin" and all clichés such as fulsome flattery, intrigue, cunning, lethargy, suspicion, lack of clarity and directness, lechery, beastliness and inferiority are damped in it and as Loomba (1998) mentions "laziness, aggression, violence, greed, sexual promiscuity, bestiality, primitiveness, innocence and irrationality are attributed to them" [Orientals] (p. 107).

The role of Orientalism as a system of exclusion and a "structure of lies and myths" (Ibid.) was to make these hard-and-fast distinctions more visible and to promote the irreducibility between the West and the East.

Dogmatic and stereotyped views and long-held beliefs about the Orient and Orientals persist and allowed the Self to treat the Orient as an exotic place, eccentric entity, as their own province; and Orientals as "not quite as human as 'we' are" (Said, 1978. p. 108).

In *Orientalism*, Said gives three definitions for Orientalism, though they are interdependent: In its designation as an academic discipline it engages "anyone who teaches, writes about, or does researches on Orient...an Orientalist, and what he or she does is Orientalism" (Said, p.2). In this sense, historians, anthropologists, philologists, sociologists have approached the Orient "as a topic of learning, discovery and practice" (Ashcroft, 1995, p. 64). It investigates how administrators, artists and writers among other, have depicted the Orient in their accounts, paintings, travelogues, literary pieces, etc. It also records the long history of clash between the Occident and the Orient. As a style of thought, Orientalism is "based on ontological and epistemological distinction made between the Orient" and (most of the time) the Occident" (Said, 1978, p.2). Many novelists, poets, philosophers, among other, have considered the dichotomy of the Occident and Orient as self-evident and started their work by the presupposition that they are not quite like us.

As a corporate institution, it is for "dealing with the Orient, dealing with it by making statements about it, authorizing views of it, describing it, by teaching it, settling it, ruling over it... for dominating, restructuring and having authority over the orient" (p P3). By this definition Orientalism can be designated as a discourse which is described by Foucault. As Ashcroft and Ahluwalia (1999) states first and second definitions are the "textual creation" of the Orient while the third definition indicates how Orientalism has been deployed by Westerners to "execute domination" (p.69).

Edward Said rereads Jane Austin, Shakespeare, Rudyard Kipling, Emily Bronte, and Charles Dickens and numerous other writers in order to demonstrate the colonial images in their work and binary of the self and the other and how colonial images give logicity, credibility and legality to their supremacy, domination and authority and how through knowledge of the East, Orientalism becomes synonymous with European domination of the Orient (p. 197). The Orient is deemed as an object of the study, passive, silent and inferior that should be ruled by their white masters. This passive, fixed, deviant, enigmatic, monstrous, recalcitrant Other is a construction, artifact, and forged entity which is a backdrop to Orientalism.

Western conception and treatment of the other follow master-slave relationship in which Europeans are privileged and become racially and civilizationally superior and can define, construct, present and re- present the Orient. Leela Gandhi (1998) refers to Hegel's elaboration of master-slave relationship:

The master and slave are, initially, locked in a compulsive struggle – unto- death. This goes on until the weak-willed slave, preferring life to liberty, accepts his subjection to the victorious master. When these two antagonists finally face each other after battle, only the master is recognizable. The slave, on the other hand, is now a dependent thing whose existence is shaped by, and as, conquering other (pp.16-17).

In his famous essay *The Economy of Manichean Allegory*, Abdul JanMohamed (1995) explored elaborately the Self and the Other. He notes that the Other is presumed as the Self's shadow (p.24), and this "epistemic violence" constructs the "colonial subjects" as the Other.

The present essay is based on the Self and the Other as reflected by postcolonial critics and particularly by Said in which the Self is European, the Occident, the West, us, the dominant, white, superior, the ruler, the creator and the Other, nevertheless, is dominated, the colored, non-European, the Orient, them, the ruled, and passive fabricated.

B. *A Man of Contradictions: George Orwell's Duplicity*

Duplicity is a characteristic which is common among some Western writers who wrote about the Orient. The conflicting feelings, such as to sympathize with the natives, to pity for their wretchedness, to eulogize their periphery customs and lifestyle, while under other circumstances to hate them and treat them as less humane which must be ruled by their Western masters for the reason that they are racially, civilizationally, culturally, and genetically inferior, is unsettling.

Orwell who was born in India and served five years in Indian imperial Police, and experienced the feeling of being a Sahib, one who should behave as Pukka Sahib Code mandates him, even if her demands would be insulting, kicking, and torturing the natives, cannot be exempted. He came face to face to the realities of the master-slave relationship. He witnessed kicking, flogging, torturing, hanging of many natives by Anglo- Indians and he himself.

Orwell like other expatriates experienced a double life: he was suffering for his role as a cog in British despotism which demands authority over subjects and on the other hand, he was chosen to continue his imperial roots; though the real intention of joining Imperial police is uncertain. Even his resignation from Police is not clear.

Ian Slater notes one should not blame a nineteen year boy for joining British Imperial police (p.24), however; for Orwell as a policeman there was no middle ground; he served 5 years in Burma and took steps according to British Raj codes. The following episodes in his life in Burma indicate that he never sympathized with the natives sincerely: Aung Maung Htin, a Burmese scholar, one time vice chancellor of Rangoon University and the only Burmese to write about Blair's career recounted an incident in November 1924 between the English policeman Eric Blair and a group of university students, including Aung. At a railway station, the students were fooling around with the result that one of them bumped into Blair, knocking him down some stairs. Furious, Blair raised his baton to strike the boy on the head but changed his mind and struck him on his back. (the similarity of this event and that of *Burmese Days* when Ellis blinds a boy with cane is very revealing and signifies how fact/fiction are in the same sphere in Orwell's works.

These events and other similar ones designate that despite the fact that Orwell was torn between his job in Burma and rejection of it, he continued his post for five years and moreover, he knew his position as British agent well, and believed in this motto that "A sahib has got to act like a sahib" (Orwell, 1936, p.3).

John Gross calls Orwell 'a son of British Raj', for the reason that his roots are connected to the East: his paternal grandfather was a priest in Australia and India, his maternal grandfather was a teak merchant in Burma and his father was a sub-deputy agent in the opium department of the Indian civil service.

His experience in Burma was his first failure to disconnect him from his roots. In spite of the fact that he resigned from his 'unsuitable profession', he was not succeeded in rejecting imperialism thoroughly. Orwell himself asserts: "I'm not able, and I do not want, completely to abandon the world-view that I acquired in childhood" (Orwell, 1946, p.4).

Orwell explicitly determines not to reject the milieu that shaped him, i.e. Edwardian Age that "saw one quarter of the world colored in the red of British Empire". Accordingly his rebellion against Empire was not full-heartedly enterprise, because, as Anthony Powell mentions, "like most people in rebellion, he was more than half in love with what he was rebelling against" (1934, p.2). Orwell identifies with the Shooter of the elephant, when he honestly states that "I was struck between my hatred of the empire I served and my rage against the evil-spirited little beasts who tried to make my job impossible" (ibid.).

In *Lion and Unicorn*, he airs his hatred of imperialism but on the other hand, he defends British Empire against other foreign invaders such as Japan, Italy and he strongly holds that British Empire in India cannot and must not be substituted by other countries; if so, a real catastrophe happens both for British and Indian people. Any disintegration in part of British Empire results in bad economic conditions for the Britons and consequently many Indians starve to death. He calls Britons "hypocritical toward their empire", because the Empire is a money-maker enterprise which flourishes war-ridden economy of England, and the British yearns for the better economy" (Ibid). This paradox still remains unsolved for Orwell himself, because he himself a British citizen wishes for a better life while this better life is unattainable unless British Empire remains an Empire.

Malcolm Muggeridge, Orwell's conservative friend, thought he detected ambivalence toward rather than a total rejection of British imperialism. Muggeridge went on to compare Orwell to Rudyard Kipling, the two sharing the same inner conflict, with Kipling coming down on one side and Orwell on the other (qtd. in Quinn, 2009, p.12). [Orwell's outlook toward Kipling is attention-seizing: 'I worshipped Kipling at 13, loathed him at 17, enjoyed him at 20, despised him at 25, and now [1936] again rather admire him'].

Some critics assert that for mature Orwell these contradictions are unraveled but as mentioned before, later works such as *Lion and Unicorn* (1941) are evidence for this fact that Orwell remained rather ambivalent toward British Empire. This ambivalence is a common characteristic of colonial writers such as Kipling and Forster that Orwell's name should be added to the list.

Peter Stansky and William Abrahams highlight Orwell's five-year service in Indian Imperial Police and how young Orwell overplayed his role as "imperialism personified". This service gave him a "sardonic pleasure" and "transformed him into 'Kiplingesque Empire builder'. For him "these theories of no punishment and no beating are very well at public schools but they did not work with the Burmese" (1972, p.192). He handled "simultaneously to resent and sympathize with the oppressed – and even the oppressor" (201). For him the Burmese were like inanimate objects.

Alex Zwerdling (1974) refers to Orwell's autobiographical sketches and concludes that "he had not always been on the side of the victim" (p.134). By joining Indian imperial police, he accepted the legitimacy of imperialism.

Valerie Meyers (1991) *Burmese Days* and *Shooting an Elephant* accentuates this theme that "in order to rule the barbarians, you have to become one" (p.58).

Critics Graham Holderness et al (1998) draw attention to Orwell's "ambivalent situation" and his participation in master-slave relationship. This ambivalence emanates from Orwell as a Western "representer" who is torn between an "anti-imperial invective while remaining on the other hand within the boundaries of his colonial master position" (p.4).

Ian Slater (1985) touches on the issue of conformity and how "the stereotype imperialist" rationalizes oppression of the natives by a "firm conviction that he is superior in all respects" (P.30).

II. DISCUSSION

A. *A Plot Summary and Commentary on Shooting an Elephant*

As a sub-divisional police officer in Burma, the narrator is hated and insulted by the Burmese. Though they do not have the guts to raise a riot, Orwell is an easy target for them. The Narrator is torn between his hatred of empire, her dirty work, and hatred of natives, those "evil-spirited little beasts" (Orwell, 1936, p.1). He is in a dilemma; with one part of his mind, he considers British Empire as an evil thing, destined to rule forever, with another part, he thinks that "the greatest joy in the world would be to drive a bayonet into a Buddhist priest's guts" (p.36).

He goes further and maintains that this dualism is common among Anglo-Indians. All these thoughts, even the idea of chucking his job, passes through his mind and he does not speak out against it, because he considers the Raj as an "unbreakable tyranny" (p.1). As the narrator himself confesses, an incident occurs which gives him insight into the nature of imperialism.

A tame elephant has gone amok, damaging property and killing a man. The narrator is summoned to the scene by local police station. He takes his rifle and advances to the quarter. The Burmese population, having no weapons and helpless, are waiting for him. He begins to question the natives about where the elephant had gone, but their answers deviate, the narrator comments that this is "the case in the East" (p.2). The more you ask, the more you confuse.

At length, he arrives at the area, where the elephant's fury is subsided and now calmly eating grass. At this instant the elephant is no longer a danger to anyone. Behind the narrator, a huge crowd of natives gathered, eager to see what will happen next. The narrator admits that he had "no intention of shooting elephant" (ibid.). Moreover, he was a working elephant, a piece of property. More than two thousands yellow faces have blocked the road and expected him to behave as a Sahib, and to kill the elephant. At this point, the narrator decides to kill him.

The narrator is a puppet, both in the hands of British Empire and two thousand people who press him to do what he does not want. He understands "the hollowness, the futility of the white man's domination in the East" (p. 3). He becomes conventionalized figure of a sahib and sacrifices his own freedom. He is no longer himself, but he is totally trapped in the Raj that demands him to impress the natives, to act like a sahib and to appear resolute not like a fool and not to be laughed at. He pulls the trigger and fires five times, but it takes the elephant half an hour to die. The crowd rushes and stripes the body "almost to the bones".

In the aftermath, a Europeans opinion is divided, as whether it was necessary to shoot him. The younger men said it was a damn shame to shoot an elephant for killing a coolie, because an elephant was worth more than any damn Coringhee coolie.

However, the narrator was glad for the death of coolie, because it provided a pretext for shooting the elephant. Orwell was the only person who knew that he killed the elephant to avoiding being labeled as a fool.

B. *An Overview*

1. **Fact or Fiction**

Stephen L. Keck (2005) maintains that the critics consider *Burmese Days* and *Shooting an Elephant* as the chief sources of Orwell's life (p.33). Orwell's biographers and critics were interested in the merge of fact and fiction in these two works.

Some critics cast doubts on the factual basis of the essay, however others emphasize that incident is based on a real event in Orwell's life. For them, Orwell is personified in the Shooter.

George Stuart, an engineer when Orwell was in Burma, saw Orwell rifle in hand in the search of the rogue elephant and killed him. He was punished and transferred to remote outpost (Quinn, 2009, p.307).

A number of critics, however, state that it is irrelevant to know if the essay is based on Orwell's real life or not. As Orwell himself expresses, one cannot assess a novelist except to know about 'his early development' and background information (Orwell, 1946, p.2). Orwell spent five years in Burma and doubtlessly all his works which are set in Burma based on his experiences as an Imperial Police Officer. Moreover, Orwell postulates that "n all novels about the East the scenery is the real subject-matter" (Orwell, 1958, p.141).

Road to Wigan Pier contains a flashback to Burma, five-year service in Indian Imperial Police, when young Orwell was committing double oppression by his vicious prejudice; and believing in the White men as up and the Burman as down. He recollects how at the moments of rage, he bullied, snubbed and hit the subordinates, the old peasants, servants and coolies. He was "conscious of an immense weight of guilt that he had got to expiate" (p.137).

The following extract from Road to Wigan Pier, as an example, demonstrate show *Hanging*, *Burmese Days* and *Shooting an Elephant*- all with Burma as their setting- are originated from his years in Burma:

The wretched prisoners squatting in the reeking cages of the lock-ups, the grey cowed faces of the long-term convicts, the scarred buttocks of the men who had been flogged with bamboos, the women and children howling when their men

folk were led away under arrest—things like these are beyond bearing when you are in any way directly responsible for them. I watched a man hanged once; it seemed to me worse than a thousand murders (p.178).

The last sentence explicitly indicates that the narrator in *Hanging* is Orwell himself, who witnessed the capital punishment. The comparison between the following sentence from *Shooting an Elephant* with the abovementioned quotation casts light on the fact: “The wretched prisoners huddling in the stinking cages of the lock-ups, the grey, cowed faces of the long-term convicts, the scarred buttocks of the men who had been bogged with bamboos--all these oppressed me with an intolerable sense of guilt” (Orwell, 1936, p.1). One could say that Orwell is personified in his works as it would be very difficult to distinguish the narrator from Orwell himself.

2. The Elephant

Elephant is an ancient symbol of India, signifying strength, power and purity. The elephant in the story first of all is not a wild one, but a tame and working one who went mad, broke the chain and ravaged the bazaar. Nevertheless, it is a valuable property like “a costly piece of machinery” (p.2). When the police officer asked about elephant’s behavior, all said that if he let him alone, he will do no harm. When he shot him, he imagined to it be ‘thousands of years old’. Death ritual lasts half an hour.

Critics’ reaction to the short story varies. Forster considers the “slow death of the elephant as an allegory of imperialism” (Meyers, 1975, p.24); the death of the elephant symbolizes the death of the empire. Edward Quinn (2009) maintains that the elephant represents “traditional Burmese culture” (p.307), an impediment to British Empire. The narrator is the agent of the British Empire and his institution demands him to destroy Burma both economically and culturally. The great beast’s dying ritual signifies the resistance of the settled country against outsiders. The shooter fires off five bullets into the beast but he cannot finish it off. The empire with the shooter represents is not omnipotent (Ibid).

Another way of interpreting the elephant is that of an intellectual, who broke the chain and escaped from his mahout, suggesting the outbreak of intellectual revolution. He, like Kafka’s *Hunger Artist* scarifies himself to wake up the common people to the seriousness of the situation. However, the people’s reaction to the Elephant’s riot is that of indifference and lack of sympathy to it. All of them, at the outset, do not care for him and at the end, regardless of early troubles, are onlookers not participants. The fact that the natives do not know where the giant beast has gone indicates that they do not care for it which itself displays alienation and ostracization of the intellectual, again like *Hunger Artist*.

The artist behind the bars of cage is dying and people come and go and enjoy the scene. Here the elephant is dying and a ‘collective curiosity’ gathered them in death rituals. The elephant cannot convert this collective curiosity to collective consciousness.

3. A Face-Saving Act

In this tiny incident, the narrator is in a quandary to succumb to collective pressures which expects a white man to “act like a sahib” (Orwell, 1936, p. 3) his own freedom and individuality. However, in the long run, it is the narrator-participant’s individuality which is paralyzed.

The shooter, as Quinn (2009) maintains, is “a prisoner of his image” (p.307), an image upon which the whole expertise of the white men in the East rely: “not to be laughed at” (Orwell, 1936, p.3).

In the beginning, the shooter did not intend to kill the beast, “I did not in the least want to shoot him” (ibid.), but when two thousands yellow faces behind pressed him forward, he suddenly decided to shoot. He cannot resist the eager immense crowd for killing the beast. He compares himself to “a puppet push to and fro by natives” (ibid.)

Refusing to kill the elephant will be interpreted by the natives as ‘a sign of weakness’ which will endanger the sahibs’ control over them (Quinn, p. 9).

The narrator’s act of face-saving is suppression of the individuality not because of the personal motives, but for the reason that he is the representative of the British Empire and any flaw in his individuality would undermine the system he serves.

C. *The Self and the Other in Shooting an Elephant According to Said’s Orientalism*

In this short story, Orwell once more appears as a writer who reveals the imperialistic intention of England and condemns its activity and calling the British Empire an evil thing and the British colonizers as the oppressors. When he pushed to kill the elephant against his own will, he grasped “the hollowness, the futility of the white man’s dominion in the East” (Orwell, 1936, p.3). He sees the imperialism as a double curse, landing on both the oppressors and the oppressed (Quinn, 2009, 354). Here, as Stansky and Abrahams (1972) maintain, “victim is elephant, and Blair victimizer, who himself feels victimized by Burmans, all of them together the victims of imperialism (p. 201).

However, the narrator suffers from duplicity, torn between resentment and sympathy, but this position is highly questionable; he sympathizes with “the oppressed, the underdog, the victim and resents the oppressor, the top dog, the victimizer; but how might one simultaneously resent and sympathize with the oppressed – and even the oppressor” (Stansky & Abrahams, 201).

The narrator himself states:

With one part of my mind I thought of the British Raj as an unbreakable tyranny, as something clamped down, in saecula saeculorum, upon the will of prostrate peoples; with another part I thought that the greatest joy in the world would be to drive a bayonet into a Buddhist priest’s guts (Orwell, 1936, p.1).

He calls himself “all for the Burmese and all against their oppressors”, however, strangely enough, he calls the Buddhists as “the evil-spirited little beasts” (ibid.). He goes further and assumes these kinds of feelings as normal.

Another duplicity is revealed when he is glad about the coolie’s death. He describes the coolie’s death as follows and sympathizes with him:

He was lying on his belly with arms crucified and head sharply twisted to one side. His face was coated with mud, the eyes wide open, the teeth bared and grinning with an expression of unendurable agony. (Never tell me, by the way, that the dead look peaceful. Most of the corpses I have seen looked devilish.) The friction of the great beast's foot had stripped the skin from his back as neatly as one skins a rabbit (p.2).

Nevertheless, at the end he is happy that the coolie is killed since his death was a good proof for the dangerousness of the elephant and gave him an excuse to free himself from punishment.

European reactions to coolie’s death display their sense of superiority and racism. They felt sorry for the elephant not for the coolie, “because an elephant was worth more than any damn Coringhee coolie” (p. 4).

Another tangible doubled perspective is traceable when the narrator prefers the British Empire to other empires. “I did not even know that the British Empire is dying, still less did I know that it is a great deal better than the younger empires that are going to supplant it.”

This preference of British Empire to Japanese, Italian or Russian empires is reflected in other Orwell’s works which was earlier mentioned. The narrator’s depiction of the natives is not an appealing one; he uses the pejorative word coolie—though in Orwell’s times using this offensive term for the subjects was common—four times for referring to the Burmans. The narrator is guilty of essentialism and sweeping generalizations: “We began questioning the people as to where the elephant had gone and, as usual, failed to get any definite information. That is invariably the case in the East” (p.2).

The phrase as usual indicates that this lack of clarity and straightforwardness is customary and innate in the Easterners. The adverb invariably reinforces this idea. This labeling is not restricted to this example. The stereotypes of “the Orientals as inveterate liars” (Said, 1978, p. 39) are confirmed when Orwell says that the information about the elephant’s place was a pack of lies. As a result, Easterners are not liable and reliable. One should behave them and listen to them with discretion.

III. CONCLUSION

Edward Said’s Orientalism triggered Postcolonial Studies, and this renowned work is the foundation stone for Postcolonial studies and all subsequent works are indebted to it.

Orientalism is a new kind of studying colonialism. It states that the representation of the Orient in European literary canon has contributed to the creation of a binary opposition between Europe and its other. Although the geographical line between West and East is an imaginary and artificial one, the acceptance of this binarism considering the former as privileged and the latter as unprivileged is taken for granted by the Western scholars.

In addition, the concept of the Self as superior which constructs, maintains and dominates the Other is established and a set of clichés and stereotypes are attributed to the Orientals: the Self is superior, rational, civilized, active, participant, but the other is inferior, barbaric, uncivilized, passive, not-participant, childlike, superstitious, unable to rule.

Furthermore, the common characteristic which is shared by European writers is that they appear contradictory and paradoxical in their views from time to time, as a result, the survey and analysis of their works need subtle inquiry. For instance, the Nigerian novelist and the author of *Things Fall Apart* Chinua Achebe considers Joseph Conrad as a racist, though many disagree with him.

As a police in Colonial Burma, Orwell was responsible for bullying, kicking, torturing and hanging prostrated Burmans and a double oppression on the Burmese.

Orwell suffers from duplicity in his works, a doubled perspective which is apparent from *Burmese Days* to *Shooting an Elephant* and *Lion and Unicorn*, etc. He simultaneously criticizes, resents and sympathizes with both the colonizers and the colonized.

In addition, as a western writer who writes about the Orient and Orientals, he did not manage to embrace a dispatched view, freed from binarism and stereotypes in dealing with them, *Shooting an Elephant* lies in this binarism. The depiction of the Orient and Orientals by sweeping generalization, labeling, essentialism and co modification are tangible in these works as explored in this essay.

In *Shooting an Elephant*, the narrator again takes a double position, condemning the imperialism as an evil thing and the Burmans as gutless, evil-spirited little beasts. British Empire is unbearable tyranny but he prefers it to other empires.

Besides, the dividing line between Europeans and non-Europeans is accentuated, the young Europeans are sad that a valuable elephant is killed because of a worthless coolie. Even the narrator is happy that the coolie is killed because his death gave him a mask to hide his real intention.

In *Shooting an Elephant*, the narrator calls himself “all for the Burmese and all against their oppressors, the British” (Orwell, 1936, p.1) but after a short interval, this pointed against is now turned to “the evil-spirited little beast” (ibid.) that is the natives or/and Buddhists who make his job difficult.

The narrator sympathizes with the Burmans who are treated as animals but he should not forget that he is a sahib and “A sahib has got to act like a sahib” (p.3). He sees the ‘dirty work of empire’ from close quarter and knows that imperialism was an ‘evil thing’, but he does his job as a duteous policeman.

Consequently, Orwell’s short story(or essay) *Shooting an Elephant* has been explored and it is shown how the natives and non-natives are depicted in these works and to some extent stereotypes and fixed clichés about Asians are represented according to Said’s Orientalism. In other words, as Said (1978) himself alleged, Europeans, in a land which does not belong to them, assumed themselves as the Self, the “familiar” and “us”, having the right to rule the natives; and the Burmans or Asians as the Other, the strange, with lack of clarity, truthfulness, unreliability and them who should be ruled.

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Ahmad Ghaforian was born in Mashhad, north east of Iran in 1980 and got his B.A degree in English Literature from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad in 2007 which is among the highest ranking universities in Iran and in 2010 has got M.A degree in English Literature from Lorestan University in Iran. He translated a book of Canadian Educator "Development of Literacy in Children" into Persian, and his main interest lies in Postcolonial Literature, Mysticism in Literature and Children's Literature. His scholarly essay includes "Edward Said' Orientalism and the Study of the Self and the Other in George Orwell' Burmese Days" which has been published by the journal of Studies in Literature and Language (Vol. 2, No. 1, 2011, pp. 103-113).



Ahmad Gholi was born in Kalaleh, Iran in 1984. He received his M.A. degree in English literature from Lorestan University, Iran in 2007. He is currently a lecturer in the Gonbad Kavous University, Golestan, Iran. His research interests include Persian Literature, Travel writing and English literature.

A Phase-based Approach to Possessor-subject Possessee-object Sentence in Chinese

Haojie Li

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Possessor-subject possessee-object sentence is a particular construction with unique features in Chinese. Many studies have been carried out regarding its derivation and the status of the different nouns in the construction, i. e., the possessor, the possessee and the whole possessive phrase. It remains controversial whether Chinese Topic is base-generated or derived through movement. Based on the Phase Theory of Minimalism, this paper re-examines some Chinese possessor Topic Constructions. It is proposed that before the possessor movement the possessor and the possessee are base-generated in the same DP. When this DP is not in the edge position of a Phase, that is, not in Spec-CP or Spec-v*P, the possessor can move to the Topic position. Namely, the possessor is moved to its final landing site (i. e. Spec-TopicP) from inside the possessive phrase, and the reason for its movement lies in the need for the checking of Topic feature. Otherwise, owing to the violation of the Specifier Condition, the derived construction will be ill-formed. As to T's EPP feature, we propose that it is checked and eliminated via long-distance agreement by the in-situ possessor phrase. This new perspective provides evidence for the hypothesis that Chinese Topic is derived through movement.

Index Terms—possessor-subject possessee-object sentence, topic, phase, move, Specifier Condition

I. INTRODUCTION

Possessor-subject possessee-object sentence is a particular construction with unique features in Chinese, which is one of the hot topics in language research. This special sentence was noticed, discussed and researched centering on its properties and characteristics in around the nineteen fifties in Chinese grammar field (see Xu, 1956). In the light of Guo (1990), possessor-subject possessee-object sentence refers to sentences in (1).

- (1) a. Wangmian si-le fuqin.
Wangmian die father
Wangmian's father died.
- b. gongchang dao-le yi-mian qiang.
factory collapse a wall
A wall of the factory collapsed.
- c. Zhangsan lan-le yi-kuang li.
Zhangsan rot away one basket of pears
One basket of pears of Zhangsan rotted away.
- d. najia gongsi chen-guo yi-tiao chuan.
that company sink a ship
That company sank a ship.

This kind of sentence has a relatively stable relationship of “possessor-possessee”. It seems that the subject is “possessor” and the object is “possessee”. At the same time, predicate verb of the sentence is an unaccusative verb¹, which has no direct semantic relationship with the subject. However, there are some problems if possessor and possessee are analyzed into subject and object. First of all, Object cannot be followed after unaccusative verbs, as a result, it is not appropriate to construe possessee as the object. Secondly, from the perspective of meanings, the relationship between possessor and the verb is not the subject-verb relationship, and the relationship between possessee and the verb is not the verb-object relationship.

Based on a Phase-based approach, this paper is to propose an analysis of possessor-subject possessee-object sentence in Chinese under the framework of MP. The paper consists of four chapters. After the introduction in Chapter 1, the second chapter is about the literature review: previous research findings by researchers home and abroad as well as their deficiencies. Analysis and discussions are implemented in the third chapter. The final chapter serves as the conclusion of the paper.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies have been carried out regarding possessor-subject possessee-object sentence derivation and the status

¹ Unaccusative verb mainly refers to non-causative verb that expresses meanings of changes of state, such as “appearance”, “disappearance”, “existence” and so on. For the detailed analysis, see Yang (1999); Wen (2002).

of the different nouns in the construction, i. e., the possessor, the possessee and the whole possessive phrase. These studies, however, still have some shortcomings in various aspects.

The inquiry into possessor-subject possessee-object sentence mainly relates to two issues: the source of possessor noun and the Case of possessee noun. In the literature, there are mainly four analyses. The first analysis maintains that possessor noun is moved from the possessive phrase to the position of subject (Xu, 1999, 2001; Han, 2000). The second one argues that possessor noun is not the argument of unaccusative verb, rather it is the external argument of the light verb “*v*”, it is moved to the position of subject in the course of syntax derivation (Zhu, 2005). The third one assumes possessor noun is a dangling topic, which is base-generated in the position of surface structure. It has simply a semantically licensing relation with the following predicate constituent (P&Han, 2005). The fourth one is Generalized Control Rule put forth by Huang (1984, 2009) The detailed reviews are as follows.

A. Hypothesis of Raising

Xu (1999, 2001) and Han (2000) researched in the structures of (1) under the framework of Government and Binding Theory. They maintain that possessor noun is moved out of the possessive structure to the position of subject in the course of syntax derivation. As a result, (1 a-b) has the form in D-structure, as illustrated in (2 a-b):

- (2) a. [VP *si-le* Wangmian *de* fuqin]
 [VP *die* Wangmian's father]
 b. [VP *dao-le* gongchang *de* yi-mian qiang]
 [VP *collapse* factory's a wall]

According to Burzio's Generalization (Berzio, 1986): (i) A verb which lacks an external argument fails to assign accusative Case. (ii) a verb which fails to assign accusative Case fails to theta-mark an external argument. The sole argument that unaccusative verb can take is the deep object, which cannot be assigned the accusative Case. Xu (1999, 2001) and Han (2000) proposed two choices in order to meet the need of Case theory. One choice is to raise the whole possessive phrase to the position of subject so as to get nominative Case. The other choice is to raise possessor itself to the position of subject to get nominative Case, while possessee remains in situ and gets its Case in another way. For example:

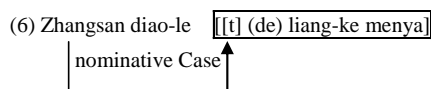
- (3) Zhangsan *diao-le* liang-ke *menya*.
 Zhangsan *lose* two front tooth
 Zhangsan has lost two front teeth.
 The D-structure of (3) is (4).

- (4) [*e* *diao-le* [Zhangsan *de* liang-ke *menya*]]
 [*e* *lose* [Zhangsan's two front teeth]]

In (4), “*diao*” (*lose*) is an accusative verb that cannot assign neither external theta roles nor case to the internal argument. So the complement “Zhangsan *de* liang-ke *menya*” (Zhangsan's two front teeth) have to move elsewhere in order not to violate Case Filter. There are two ways as illustrated in (5).

- (5) a. [Zhangsan *de* liang-ke *menya*]_i *diao-le* t_i.
 [Zhangsan's two front teeth]_i *lose* t_i
 b. [Zhangsan]_i *diao-le* [t_i liang-ke *menya*]
 [Zhangsan]_i *lose* [t_i two front teeth]

In (5a), the whole possessive phrase is raised to the position of subject so as to get nominative Case. In (5b), only possessor “Zhangsan” raises to the position of subject, possessee “liang-ke *menya*” (two front teeth) remains in situ. Xu (1999, 2001) thought (5a) was a common movement in human language that was no need to explain. As for (5b), it was a unique movement in Chinese and should be explained further. He put forward the hypothesis of Possessor Raising Movement with regard to (5b). He claims that though the unaccusative verb cannot assign accusative Case to the whole complement, it assigns inherent partitive Case to the possessee NP. Han (2000) agrees to the hypothesis of Possessor Raising Movement, but argues against inherent partitive Case to the possessee NP and put forth a Case transmission proposal, that is, the possessor NP transmits the Case it is assigned at the subject position back to the whole complement possessee NP through the chain resulting from the raising operation, as illustrated in (6).



In terms of his analysis, “Zhangsan” has genitive Case in D-structure, it moves to the position of subject in order to make the whole possessive phrase get Case. Possessor NP “Zhangsan” first leaves its genitive Case in situ, and then raises to the position of subject to get nominative Case, next it transmits nominative Case through chain to the whole possessive phrase “trace *e* (de) + possessee NP”.

However Han's Case transmission hypothesis still has some problems. For one thing, in the framework of MP, movement is a self-serving, i.e., one constituent simply moves for the sake of itself (Chomsky 1995, 201, 261). Now that possessor NP has got the Case in its original place, there is no reason for it to move to meet the need of other constituent. Apart from that, the purpose of movement operation is to check some kind of feature in the target position,

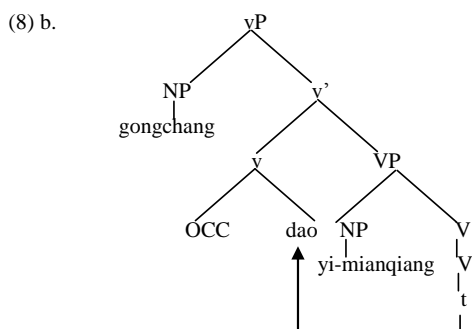
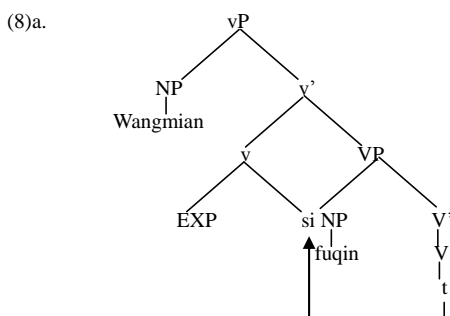
and this operation cannot make the moved constituent get some feature, and then transmits to the third party. For another, in MP, lexicon is born with formal features that are carried by different constituents, including Case feature. There is feature match or mismatch between different constituents and it is impossible to transmit features between them.

B. Hypothesis of External Argument of *v*

Zhu (2005) argues that possessor NP is the external argument of light verb “*v*”, which is put forth by Huang (1997). “*v*” is EXPERIENCE (EXP) when possessor NP has the property of [+animate], while it is OCCUR (OCC) when possessor NP has the property of [-animate]. In line with his analysis, (1 a-b) has D-structure as shown in (7 a-b).

- (7) a. [*v*P Wangmian EXP[VP fuqin. si-le]]
 [*v*P Wangmian EXP[VP father. die]]
 b. [*v*P gongchang OCC[VP yi-mian qiang dao-le]]
 [*v*P factory OCC[VP a wall collapse]]

The derivation of (1 a-b) is illustrated in (8 a-b).



Zhu (2005) assumes that light verb “*v*” is a two-place light verb, which selects possessor NP “*wangmian*” and “*gongchang*” as the subject of the sentence and assigns them the theta role of experiencer. At the same time, light verb “*v*” selects VP “*fuqin si-le*” and “*yi-mian qiang dao le*” as the complement. However in his analysis, Zhu does not mention the Case of possessee NP. In (8a-b), there is no verb-object relation between “*fuqin*” and EXP, “*yi-mian qiang*” and OCC, so “*fuqin*” and “*yi-mian qiang*” cannot get accusative Case, which is compulsory due to Case Filter: each noun should have a Case.

C. Hypothesis of Base-generated

Pan&Han (2005, 2008) put forth that possessor NP is not a subject but a “dangling topic” construction. There will be a semantic gap because the semantics of predicate does not saturate, so the subject position of TP is an empty constituent “*e*”, as illustrated in (9). This semantic gap amounts to a variable, which can license the topic that is located in the beginning of the sentence.

- (9) a. [TopicP wangmian[TP *e* si-le fuqin]]
 [TopicP wangmian[TP *e* die father]]
 b. [TopicP gongchang [TP *e* dao-le yi-mian qiang]]
 [TopicP factory [TP *e* collapse a wall]]

Pan&Han (2005, 2008) holds that there is no syntactic dependency between constituents of predicate TP and possessor NP, which acts as a topic. They license each other by relying on semantic relations. Possessee NP can get the structural features, including nominative Case in the empty subject of predicate TP, which is the default position for possessee NP.

With regard to the reason of possessee NP getting the Case after the verb, Pan&Han (2005, 2008) argue that the unaccusative verbs in Chinese have the ability to assign nominative Case backward, so possessee NP is assigned

nominative Case, which is different from English language. There is a fatal problem in their analysis in this way: we can simply infer that feature checking in some structure (unaccusative construction) of some language (Chinese) is not limited to the relation of Spec-head, because unaccusative verb and possessee NP is not the relation of Spec-head in structure, while in other languages, nominative Case is assigned by functional words depending on Spec-head relation, which is common in the framework of MP. This kind of analysis does not accord to the spirit of “economy” in MP, in the meantime, it violates the spirit of pursuit of universality of contemporary syntax theory.

D. Generalized Control Rule

Now that possessor NP is moved from possessive phrase, it will be restricted by some syntactic rules. Huang (1984, 2009) put forward Generalized Control Rule to construe the movement of possessor NP.

(10) Generalized Control Rule

The empty pronominal co-refers to the closest noun. (Huang, 1984)

Sentence (15) can be explained by (14).

- (11) Zhangsan_i, [[e_i baba] hen you qian]
 Zhangsan_i, [[e_i father] very better off]
 Zhangsan’s father is better off.

When “Zhangsan” moves out of possessive phrase, it leaves a trace, which co-refers to the closest noun “Zhangsan” and the whole sentence is grammatical.

But Generalized Control Rule cannot explain the ungrammaticality of the topic sentence (12), which also contains a possessor NP and a possessee NP.

- (12) *²Zhangsan nvpengyou a, [[e_i baba] sha-le henduo ren].
 * Zhangsan girlfriend father kill many people
 * Zhangsan’s girlfriend, father killed many people.

In (12), possessor NP “Zhangsan nv pengyou” also moves from possessive phrase and leaves a trace, however, the trace does not co-refer to the closest noun “Zhangsan nv pengyou” and the whole sentence is ungrammatical.

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

Up to now, focuses on Chinese possessor-subject possessee-object sentence mainly relate to two points: a) Is possessor NP a subject or a topic? b) Is it base-generated or generated by movement? We intend to study the two questions from the perspective of phase derivation in MP. We argue that Chinese possessor-subject possessee-object sentence is generated by movement and possessor NP is a topic and then we will discuss the derivation of it.

A. Possessor NP Is a Topic

Chinese is a topic-prominent language. There are controversies of topic judgment. We are going to employ Cao’s (2005) view and regard possessor NP is a topic. Cao (2005) put forth criteria of judgment of Chinese topics.

- (13) a. Topic always occupies the initial position of S of the first clause in the topic chain.
 b. Topic can be separated from other parts of a sentence by adding pause particles, such as “a, ya, ne, mo, ba”.
 c. Topic is always definite.
 d. Topic is a discourse notion, it can often extend its semantic governing domain to more than one clause.
 e. Topic controls all pronominalization or coreferential NP deletion in the topic chain.
 f. Topic, unless it is a subject in the meantime, does not participate in true reflexivization, equi-NP deletion and imperativization.

From those criteria, we can judge that sentences in (1) are possessor topic sentences. We take sentence (1a) for example to construe, sentence (1a) is repeated in (14).

- (14) Wangmian si-le fuqin.
 Wangmian die father
 Wangmian’s father died.

In (14), “wangmian”, which is definite, occupies occupies the initial position of the sentence. It separates from possessee NP “fuqin” and it can be separated from other parts of the sentence by adding pause particles, as illustrated in (15).

- (15) Wangmian a, si-le fuqin.
 Wangmian a, die father
 Wangmian’s father died.

From mentioned above, we may reasonably conclude that possessor NP “wangmian” is the topic of the sentence.

B. Possessor NP Is Moved from Possessive Phrase as a Topic

We maintain that possessor NP is moved from possessive phrase to the topic position of the sentence. Our view is mainly on the basis of two reasons. First of all, Movement hypothesis can explain why possessor NP and possessee NP have strict semantic selection relation straightforwardly. Second, studies of other languages also attest that possessor NP

² * signifies that the sentence is ungrammatical.

raising is not the sole phenomenon in Chinese. It also exists in some other languages. Example (16) is taken from Szabolcsi (1994) and Chung (1991) respectively.

- (16) a. Ki-neki_i ismer-t é-tek [DP t_i a vend ég- é ø-t] (Hungarian)
 who know guest
 Whose guest did you know?
- b. Hayi_i un-yuland [DP munika-na t_i] (Chamarro)
 who break doll
 Whose doll did you break?

In (16), “Ki-neki” (who) in Hungarian and “Hayi” (who) in Chamarro belongs to possessor NP and moves out of possessive phrase, the whole sentences are grammatical.

C. A Phase-based Approach to Possessor-subject Possessee-object Sentence

From mentioned above, we have made clear that possessor NP is a topic, which is moved out of possessive phrase. Then we will discuss the derivation of possessor-subject possessee-object sentence in the framework of Split CP Hypothesis and phase derivation.

Rizzi (1997) put forth Split CP Hypothesis, which points out CP can be split into a series of projections: ForceP>TopicP>FocusP>TopicP>FinP>TP. (Radford, 2004, 327) On the basis of that, we maintain that Chinese possessor-subject possessee-object sentence has the projection like this: TopicP >TP >vP > VP.

The phase theory has an inspiration to explain possessor-subject possessee-object sentence. We mention Generalized Control Rule cannot explain the ungrammaticality of the topic sentence (12), which also contains a possessor NP and a possessee NP. So possessor NP sometimes acts as a Topic and sometimes it does not, it is an issue that deserve to study. We will repeat (12) in (17a) to compare it with possessor-subject possessee-object sentence (17b) and render reasonable explanations of them.

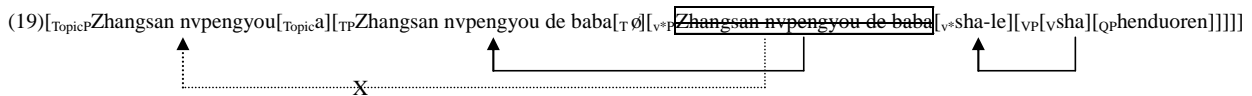
- (17) a. *Zhangsan nvpengyou a, [[e_i baba] sha-le henduo ren].
 * Zhangsan girlfriend father kill many people
 * Zhangsan’s girlfriend, father killed many people.
- b. Wangmian si-le [e_i fuqin].
 Wangmian die father
 Wangmian’s father died.

We observe that in (17), one of the differences is the different predicates: in (17a), the predicate is a transitive verb “sha-le” (kill) in (17a), while the predicate is an unaccusative verb “si-le” (die) in (17b). From the perspective of phase theory, vP that contains an accusative verb is not a phase³, but vP that contains a transitive verb constitutes a phase. Chomsky’s (2008, 148) put forth movement condition and Radford (2009, 410) names Chomsky’s (2008, 148) movement condition as “Specifier Condition”, which illustrated in (18).

- (18) Specifier Condition: No subextraction is possible out of a constituent which is a specifier of a phase head.

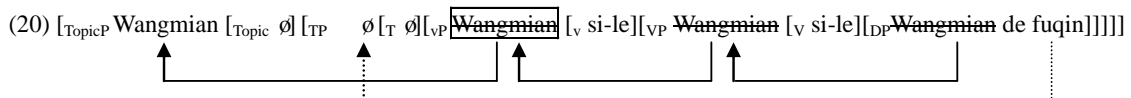
In the light of Specifier Condition, we can analyze the ungrammaticality of (17a) and grammaticality of (17b).

In (17a), the verb has transitivity and form a v*P phase, which express the complete proposition. The possessive phrase “Zhangsan nvpengyou de baba” is base generated at the edge of the phase-Spec-v*P, as illustrated in (19).



Topic and T can be probes to detect their goals at the same time. T attracts the copy of “Zhangsan nvpengyou de baba”, which bears [Case] feature, to Spec-TP. In the meanwhile, Topic is about to attract “Zhangsan nvpengyou” that has [Topic] feature to Spec-TopicP. Since the possessor NP “Zhangsan nvpengyou” occupies spec-v*P in (19) and hence is the specifier of the phase head v*, the Specifier Condition (18) prevents the possessor NP from being subextracted out of it. As a result, (17a) is ungrammatical.

As for (17b), which is illustrated in (20), the light verb “v” attracts possessor NP “wangmian” to the position of Spec-vP because “v” has the edge feature. Topic and T can be probes to detect. The goal of Topic is “Wangmian” and the goal of T is “fuqin”. In terms of “intervention condition”: probe and its goal cannot establish agreement⁴ relation if there is some other element that needs to be checked, T cannot establish agreement relation with its goal “fuqin”, which bears [Case] feature because.



³ According to Chomsky (2001) vP that takes an external argument is a phase. An unaccusative verb cannot take an external argument, so is not a phase.
⁴ Agreement feature is also called Φ features, which refers to person, number and gender.

“Wangmian” is located between them. As a result, Topic’s probe should precede T’s probe, and “Wangmian” that bears [Topic] feature is moved to the position of Spec-Topic, the uninterpretable feature of Topic in Spec-Topic is eliminated. And then, T probes “fuqin” as its goal to eliminate its EPP feature through long-distance agreement (the part of dotted line in (20)). The EPP feature in Chinese is the weak feature and may not allow the lexical elements to fill in, so “fuqin” can remain in situ. All uninterpretable features have been eliminated thus far. The extraction of “Wangmian” from Spec-vP does not violate Specifier Condition because vP does not constitute a phase, so (17b) is grammatical. There are a number of copies of “Wangmian” in the course of derivation. “Wangmian” that is located in the position of Spec-TopicP is spelt out because of the requirement of economy in PF level. “de” that acts as an affix is dropped because “Wangmian” is moved to Spec-TopicP and it has no target to attach.

IV. CONCLUSION

Possessor-subject possessee-object sentence is a particular construction with unique features in Chinese. Many studies have been carried out regarding its derivation and the status of the different nouns in the construction, i. e., the possessor, the possessee and the whole possessive phrase. It remains controversial whether Chinese Topic is base-generated or derived through movement. This paper employs phase theory and the Specifier Condition to construe the derivation of Chinese possessor-subject possessee-object sentence. We maintain that possessor NP is a topic, which is moved out of the possessive phrase. Possessor NP and possessee NP is in the same DP before the movement of possessor NP to the position of Topic. Possessor NP can be moved to the position of Topic when it is not at the edge of a phase, i.e. it can be moved when it is not in the position of Spec-v* and Spec-C, otherwise the movement of it will be illegal because of the constraint of Specifier Condition. This paper can explain why possessor NP sometimes may act as a Topic and sometimes it may not in a better way. When possessor NP is not in the edge position of a Phase, that is, not in Spec-CP or Spec-v*P, the possessor can move to the Topic position. Namely, the possessor is moved to its final landing site (i. e. Spec-TopicP) from inside the possessive phrase, and the reason for its movement lies in the need for the checking of Topic feature. Otherwise, owing to the violation of the Specifier Condition, the derived construction will be ill-formed. As to T’s EPP feature, we propose that it is checked and eliminated via long-distance agreement by the in-situ possessor phrase. This paper provides evidence for movement of Chinese possessor-subject possessee-object sentence from the perspective of phase theory in MP.

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Haojie Li was born in Laizhou, Shandong, China in 1974. He received his M.A. degree in Sichuan International Studies University, China in 2005.

He is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China. His research interests include syntax and theoretical linguistics. He has published a number of studies in his areas of expertise, which have appeared in scholarly publications in China.

Collaborative Strategic Reading and Critical Reading Ability of Intermediate Iranian Learners

Fatemeh Khonamri
University of Mazandaran, Iran

Maedeh Karimabadi
Ayatollah Amoli Science and Research University, Iran

Abstract—The purpose of this study was to determine how collaborative strategic reading may increase critical reading of EFL students at the intermediate level. Forty students majoring in English language literature at the University of Mazandaran participated in this study. In the experimental group, the students were taught collaborative strategic reading. The students in the control group were taught in the traditional way. The instruction of both groups lasted for 10 sessions and every session continued for 90 minutes. A pre test and post test were given to both groups before and after the treatment. A self designed questionnaire and interview were also administered to the experimental group only in order to examine the attitude of students toward CSR. A two-tailed independent sample t-test was applied to analyze the pre test and post test results of the experimental and control group to check if there was any significant difference between the students' performance regarding their critical reading ability. The result indicated that students in the experimental group with CSR instruction outperformed the students in the control group. Therefore, the finding in this study indicated that CSR instruction improved students' critical reading. The results of the self designed questionnaire and interview revealed that students had a positive attitude toward CSR.

Index Terms—collaborative strategic reading, critical reading, critical thinking, traditional reading instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is the most important academic language skill for second language students which can lead to their professional, social, and personal development. This skill, though, is a complex and dynamic phenomenon and is often considered as an important source of language input which involves a special interaction between the reader, the author and text (Berardo, 2006). To successfully read, comprehend and respond to the reading, therefore, the reader needs to be equipped with certain skills and ability types. Reading, itself, occurs at three different levels which are interconnected. In other words, the readers usually start to read the lines first to grasp the message put forth by the writer, then they should be able to read between the lines to get the implied message not directly given in the passage, and at a higher level, they should read beyond the lines. This last type of reading which involves some higher order thinking as Bloom (1956) states is what is often called critical reading. Critical reading is defined as the ability to evaluate the credibility of a piece of writing. All writers have a purpose in writing, and usually, a writer will choose to support his or her purpose on the basis of their own knowledge and conceptualization of the topic. Wallace (2003) and Sweet (1993) define critical readers as active readers who question, confirm, and judge what they read throughout the reading process. In other words, to read critically, one must actively recognize and analyze the evidence given by the author. The reader should also be able to recognize the author's purpose, to understand tone and persuasive elements and to recognize bias. It is important to note that this is not going to be an easy task since not all of these goals actually refer to something found on the page; in other words, learners are required to make inferences from evidence within the text.

Decker (1993) points out that today most of the professional organizations and professional literature support the development of critical thinking in the classroom and ask teachers to guide their students in developing this higher-level thinking skill. However, Wallace (2003) asserts that despite the significance of critical reading in different areas of education, it is not taken as seriously as it should be. He recommended that schools must deal with controversial issues and that they should make it a goal to teach and develop learners' critical reading skills. As far as university education is concerned, Crismore (2000) indicates that many students come to universities underprepared for tackling the requirements of such an atmosphere and many of these students are not familiar with the opportunities or experiences that require critical thinking and critical reading.

Reading critically, thus, plays an important role in students' success in college and the courses they undertake. To read critically, language learners should be given the chance to go through the text and focus on the author's assumptions, viewpoints, purposes, and ideology (Khabiri and Pakzad, 2012). For reading effectively, the readers require to read with critical eyes which means that the reader should try to evaluate and read the text to find out what it says, and how and why it says it. Therefore, improving students' critical thinking seems to be one of the key issues in enhancing foreign language reading. College for students is a place for expanding knowledge, and thinking critically is

one of the main factors that can lead to success at collage levels. The ability to read critically is wildly regarded as one of the main generic skills that should be gained through university education. But unfortunately, not enough attention has been given to training strategies that can enhance critical thinking in students. So usually students show poor reasoning and problem skills.

During the past few years, a large number of strategy instructions have been recognized in reading studies. Among various reading' strategy approaches, Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) rendered by Klingner and Vaughn (1998) has been widely used in different research studies. Many studies on CSR (Klingner, 1998; Standish, 2005; Fan, 2010; Ziyaemehr, 2012; Novita, 2012; Karabuga, 2012) have shown that CSR has an effective impact on reading comprehension of EFL and ESL students .CSR provides the opportunity for readers to apply most of the strategies needed for the reading skill. Through the collaborative approach emphasized with CSR, student learning is supported by both teachers and peers (Vaghaun et al, 2011).

To date, most of the studies on CSR have examined the effect of this approach on reading comprehension, but there are some studies which have tried to examine the effect of CSR on other areas of language learning; for example, Standish (2005) examined how CSR in combination with direct instruction in persuasion, affected her six-grader' persuasive writing. Or in another study by Lee (2003), he tried to consider the effect of CSR on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. Due to the importance of critical reading and thinking, and the paucity of research in this particular skill, this study tried to shed light on the impact of CSR on the development of critical reading. This approach was selected since it was hypothesized that its positive effect on literal reading (or reading the lines) could also be transferred to a higher type of reading (reading beyond the lines). Since Iranian students are among those learners who come to the university with no or very little critical reading ability, it is highly important to examine whether this gap can be filled with a collaborative approach which involves interaction with other individuals.

Regarding the above mentioned need of Iranian students as EFL learners with little knowledge of critical reading, there is a need for empirically-based interventions that can (a) promote learners' engagement in today's classrooms and (b) facilitate critical reading by developing strategic behavior of students in EFL reading (c) and increase learner's interest toward reading.

Additionally, this study has also tried to examine the attitudes of students toward CSR. This was done since group activities are not so easily accepted by Iranian language learners due to their unfamiliarity with such activity types. In other words, the traditional educational system that is dominant in schools emphasizes the teacher-fronted classrooms with little or no room for learner involvement and therefore the traditional memorization and regurgitation of teacher fed knowledge is more prevalent. This study, therefore, was guided by the following research questions:

Research Questions

1. Does collaborative strategic reading help improve the critical reading ability of the learners?
2. What are the attitudes of students toward CSR as a means which can help improve their critical reading?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Design of Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the effect of collaborative strategic reading (CSR) instruction on EFL students' critical reading and reading attitude. The current study used a quasi experimental design in order to explore the effect of CSR on EFL students' critical reading and their attitude both quantitatively and qualitatively. For quantitative analysis, the test of critical reading and the attitude questionnaire were administrated to investigate whether there were any significant differences in students' performance after the instruction was over. For qualitative analysis, a semi-structured interview was conducted with students to learn about their perception of CSR instruction as well as their attitude toward this activity. The results were analyzed through SPSS and content analysis techniques.

B. Participants

Forty students participated in this study. In the experimental group, there were 20 students majoring in English literature in Mazandaran University. The other 20 students who majored in English translation were selected from Parsa University as the control group. The experimental group received Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) instruction while the control group had the traditional teacher-directed instruction. The proficiency level of both groups was determined via proficiency TOFL test at the beginning of the term. In the experimental group students were divided into several subgroups, every group having 4 or 5 members and every member had a special role which changed in the next class time. In the control group, though, students had a teacher-directed instruction. In both groups students took part in reading classes twice a week and every session lasted for 90 minutes. This study was conducted in their reading class (reading II) which met twice a week for a whole semester.

C. Instruments

The instruments in this study included: (1) English proficiency TOFL test to all the participants, (2) critical reading test as pre test and post test, (3) a questionnaire of student's attitude toward CSR and critical reading, (4) six critical

reading texts in the experimental group (5) an interview on student's perception toward CSR instruction. They were implemented before the study, during and after the study.

D. The Materials

The materials covered in the experimental group were selected according to the level of the students and the readability formula was applied to ensure that the texts were appropriate for this level. Six texts taken from different sources were given to the learners. The topics of the texts varied and they were selected based on the general ideas they developed. In fact, 15 topics were piloted with a group of students with the similar characteristics for ensuring that the ideas are not alien to the students and six of those topics were covered in the time slot of the class.

E. Procedure

Collaborative strategic reading is a comprehension strategy approach which is proposed by Kellingner and Vaughn (1996). CSR is a combination of two instructional approaches of reciprocal teaching and cooperative learning. It is based on Vygotsky' (1978) theories of learning and social constructivism (Rumerlhart & Ortony, 1977, cited in Standish, 2005).

Klingner and Vaughn (1999) define CSR as a practice in which "students of mixed reading and achievement levels work in small, cooperative groups to assist one another in applying four reading strategies to facilitate their comprehension of content area text" (p, 29 as cited in Karabuga, 2012). Vaghun et al (2010) interpret CSR as a multi dimension strategy that addresses both content learning through teacher and student led conversation as well as strategic enhancement. The strategies included in CSR practice are: (a) preview (before reading), (b) click and clunk (during reading), (c) get the gist (during reading), and (d) wrap-up (after reading).Klingner & Vahun (1998) detailed every stage in the following order:

Preview is used only before reading. The goals of previewing are, a) introducing the text to students, b) activating their background knowledge, and c) helping them to make prediction about the text. Preview tries to motivate students and engage them in active reading. The questions used in this stage include: a. brainstorming: What do we already know about the topic? b. Predicting: What do we think we will learn about the topic when we read the passage?

Click and clunk is used during reading with the purpose of teaching students how to monitor what they are reading, and to identify the information that they know more about, and information that causes students to experience difficulties in understanding. **click** refers to when the reader comprehends the word and text and clunk refers to comprehension breakdown or when the reader doesn't know the words. It is designed for readers to pay attention to their understanding or their failure .Some questions in these stage are: a. Were there any parts that were hard to understand (clunks)? b. How can we fix the clunks? Use fix-up strategies.

Get the gist is used during reading with the purpose to teach readers how to identify the main idea of passage. The goal of getting the gist is to teach students to reproduce in their own words the most important point of the text. Some questions in this stage are: a. what is the most important person, place, or thing? b. What is the most important idea about the person, place, or thing?

Wrap up is an after reading strategy with the purpose of providing an opportunity for students to review what they read by formulating questions. The benefits of this stage are to improve students' understanding, knowledge and memory. The questions in this stage are: a. Ask questions: What questions would show we understand the most important information? What are the answers to those questions? By summarizing and generating questions they check their understanding of the text.

In this study, the procedure for practicing CSR instruction was implemented as follows:

(a) a critical reading pre test was given to all participant, (b) CSR instruction was explained and implemented by the teacher (c) a critical reading post test was conducted at the end of the program, (d) a questionnaire of students attitude toward CSR and critical reading was administered in the experimental group (e) students were interviewed regarding their perception of CSR in the experimental group.

The teacher implemented CSR instruction with the experimental group for 10 sessions and every session lasted for 90 minutes and after the 10th sessions the teacher gave the critical reading post test to both experimental and control group. Additionally an attitude questionnaire and interview was conducted at the end of the program to discover students' perception of and their willingness toward the activity.

F. Implementation of CSR in the Experimental Group

As mentioned above, before starting the treatment, teacher explained both the collaborative strategic reading and critical reading strategies to the students in 2 sessions. After assigning the roles by the teacher, they started the CSR activity. First the teacher started the *preview* strategy, the first stage in CSR, by asking some questions about the topic to brainstorm and make them ready for the activity. The purpose of preview stage was to activate prior knowledge and promote prediction about what they read. So, students talked to the whole class about their ideas and their experience on the topic. After that students did silent reading by themselves. Then the leader of the group read the text aloud to the members. After reading the text by the leader they had a time to discuss and reflect on the text collaboratively. This part was related to the second strategy in CSR, *Click and Clunk* which is a fix up strategy for locating the complicated words or sentences. This stage had a crucial role in trying to activate critical thinking in students. During this time clunk

expert recognized any complexity in the text and shared them with their group members first and received feedback from them and then later on they shared them with the whole class. The teacher provided feedback whenever necessary but left most of the discussion to the students and only intervened when they needed correction. During the CSR, the teacher also acted as the facilitator and checked the groups one by one and provided guidance when needed. In the third stage, the gist expert briefed the group with the main idea he/she had found and the most critical information the text was communicating. The other members listened and made modifications if necessary. This stage was the most important part that obligated them to read critically since the gist expert first verbalized the main idea and the most important message in the text to the whole class and then the other students in the other groups gave their ideas and lastly tried to criticize the author's view points. The encourager's role, as explained before was to encourage every member's participation. They were also asked to take note of the most important points discussed in the group and write a report of that day's activity for the teacher. The teacher got the role of the time keeper and was in control of everything that happened in the group activities. After finishing the passage, the teacher asked some questions and asked the groups to briefly wrap up their discussion and thus completed the last stage of CSR, the *Wrap Up*.

G. Control Group

In the control group the class had a teacher-centered instruction and kept to the traditional teaching technique. Thus, naturally, there was no group activity done by the students. First the teacher introduced the topic and he explained it further to activate students' prior knowledge. Then one of the students read the passage and the teacher corrected their mispronunciations and finally, the teacher asked the meaning of the new vocabularies, and gave their synonyms and antonyms and also asked them if they had any problem in comprehension. In the control group there was no opportunity to discuss anything with someone else. And there was just teacher- student interaction.

III. DATA COLLECTION AND DATA ANALYSIS

The data in this study was collected and analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. In order to answer research question one in the current study about the students performance in critical reading before and after the implementations of CSR instruction, participants in the experimental and control group were given critical reading pre test and post test. The results of critical reading pre-test and post-test were analyzed by statistical SPSS software (version 20). According to pre test and post, independent- sample t-test was run to analyze whether there were any significant differences between experimental and control group. The probability level of significance for t-test was set at .05 ($P=.05$).

In order to answer research question two, data collected from both questionnaire and interview were used to somehow triangulate and create more reliable results. They complemented each other and both of them intended to investigate students' attitude toward CSR and critical reading. Ten 5- Likert-scale questions were included in the questionnaire (see appendix A). Some questions were related to students' attitude toward CSR and some questions were related to students' attitude toward critical reading as linked to CSR activity. And the semi-structured interview included four main questions which were designed to complete the questionnaire purpose as well as elicit some extra information which could not be possibly given through the questionnaire analysis (see appendix B). In attitude questionnaire, the frequency of each item was analyzed separately. Additionally the frequency of which alternatives were selected by students was analyzed and the percentage of each item was calculated respectively. At last the content of the interview with the experimental group, which was transcribed before, was analyzed.

IV. RESULT

Before beginning the study, it was necessary to compare the critical reading performance of the students in the experimental and control group to make sure that they are not much different. Independent- sample t- test was conducted to determine if there were any significant differences between the two groups in pretest. The result was shown that in table 1 and 2.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS SHOWING THE MEAN OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS IN THE PRETEST

Group	M	Mean	SD	Std error mean
Control group	20	2.5	1.19208	.26656
Experimental group	20	2.6	.94032	.21026

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST COMPARING THE PRE-TEST MEAN OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
LEVENE' TEST FOR EQUALITY OF VARIANCE T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS

	F	Sig	T	df	Sig(2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std error difference
Equal variance assumed	.257	.615	-.295	38	.770	-.10000	.33950
Equal variance not assumed			-.295	36.045	.770	-.10000	.33950

Table 1 and 2 showed the statistical result of two tailed independent -sample t-test of the two groups. The mean score of experimental group was 2.6 with standard division .94032; and the mean score of control group was 2.5 with standard division 1.192. The gained t value was -.295 and p value was .770 $>.05$, therefore there was no significant

difference between the two group ($p=770$). The result showed that the two groups had similar critical reading performance.

To examine the effectiveness of CSR instruction on critical reading, the participants in the control group and experimental group were given critical reading post tests. The result was also analyzed by a two tailed independent-samples t-test to compare if the students in the experimental group performed better than the students in the control group after receiving different reading strategies instructions. After the intervention of CSR instruction, a critical reading post test was administrated to the students in both groups. The statistical results are shown in table 3 and 4.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS SHOWING THE MEAN OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS IN THE POSTTEST

Group	N	Mean	SD	Std error mean
Control group' Posttest	20	2.8	1.28145	.28654
Experimental group' Post test	20	3.55	.88704	.19835

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST COMPARING THE POSTTEST MEAN OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
LEVENE'TEST FOR EQUALITY OF VARIANCET-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS

	F	Sig	T	df	Sig(2-taoid)	Mean difference	Std error difference
Equal variance assumed	1.132	.294	-2.152	38	.038	-.75000	.34849
Equal variance not assumed			-2.152	33.808	.039	-.75000	.34849

*P, .038<.05

In table 4, with the analysis of the two-tailed independent –sample t-test, the mean score of the experimental group was 3.55 with the standard division 0.887, and the mean score of the control group was 2.88, whit standard division 1.281. The t value was -2.151 and the p value according to equal variances was .038 < .05. It was revealed that there was a significant difference between the post test of the experimental group and control group.

In summary, the result and discussion are addressed as fallows. Before the experiment, there was no significant difference between the experimental group and control group in terms of their critical reading (see table 2). However after the intervention of CSR instruction, the result of critical reading post test showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control group (see table 4).

V. DISCUSSION

The results of the analysis of the students' pre-test and pos-test scores derived from both the experimental and control groups indicate that CSR is found to be an effective strategy to help students improve their ability in critical reading. Findings of previous studies have confirmed that CSR approach had a positive effect on the reading comprehension in the experimental groups. In the study by Kelingner (2004) CSR was examined in 5 schools by 5 teachers in experimental group and also 5 other schools were used as the control group. In total 309 students participated in this study. The results of students and teachers measurement showed that students in CSR classrooms showed greater improvement in reading comprehension than students in classrooms where CSR was not implemented. And also the results show that the students in the class with a teacher who was more experienced than others, showed greater gains on the CSR.

Fan (2009) conducted a study on 110 students from two intact classes who had low-intermediate to intermediate level of English; the findings indicated that CSR had a positive effect on the Taiwanese university learners' reading comprehension particularly in relation to the comprehension questions on getting the main idea and finding the supporting details. According to results in Novita (2012), she claimed that CSR was a way to help second language learners engage with difficult text and use the key reading strategies to improve comprehension.

In another study done in Iran by Ziyaeemehr (2012), on forty ESP learners, the result confirmed the effective role of CSR. Students in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control group in reading comprehension. Thus the results of the present study are in line with previous research in terms of the positive benefits of CSR, yet the strength of this approach was sought in a novel aspect of reading. Due to the paucity of research on the effect of CSR on enhancing the critical reading ability of the learners, the results of the present study seem promising and a new contribution to the field.

The study was also concerned to discover the students' attitude toward this approach; an attitude questionnaire as well as a semi-structured interview was also conducted to reveal how students themselves felt about CSR as a new activity in a reading class. According to Brown (2007) positive attitude increased motivation, input and finally successful attainment of proficiency. Group work activities usually reduce anxiety inside the classes and enable learners to develop positive attitudes towards reading. The result of questionnaire indicated that students in total had a positive attitude toward their reading course during this term. Students believed that their engagement in group work activity enabled them to grasp the author' purpose better. According to the findings, the purpose of the text was clearer for the learners during group work activity and they believed that this class guided them to pay more careful attention to the details. In general, CSR as a new technique attracted students' attention and was evaluated as an interesting activity type.

The results of questionnaire are consistent with some previous studies on CSR. In a study by Huang (2004), who tried to find the effect of inquiry-based pedagogy via CSR instruction on the 42 students in Taiwan, the results indicated that students in the experimental group reported much more positive attitude toward learning English after the instruction. They found CSR as an effective approach for improving their autonomy and social skills. Or in another study, Liang (2002) tried to investigate the effect of cooperative learning on the on EFL junior high school learners' language learning and their motivation toward learning English as a foreign language. Findings in the experimental group on the motivational questionnaires indicated that, cooperative learning helped to enhance students' motivation toward learning English.

The findings related to the interview revealed that students generally perceived CSR as helpful and different from their other classes in a positive way. Many of the students also perceived that their critical reading improved as a result of CSR and expressed their desire to continue with CSR.

An analysis of student interviews also provided an important insight into what attributes of CSR were perceived as helpful or as not helpful by students. Students identified "click and clunk" and "get the gist" as two important stages that were helpful in drawing their attention to details. Jean Piaget and Vygotsky in Richard and Rodger (2001) emphasize the important role of social interaction in learning and they believe that cooperative learning is an integral part of creating deeper understanding. Parallel to this suggestion, the present study indicated that students found CSR as a facilitating tool for criticizing, discussing and finding the clunks which led to better understanding. One of the positive features of CSR mentioned by the students was that it enabled the group members' to share their knowledge with each other and generally speaking, they found CSR as an efficient and applicable approach.

The results of the interview are consistent with some previous studies on CSR. Fan (2010) considered the learners perception toward CSR in group discussion, and the result of the study showed that students gave positive feedback to CSR. In another study by Hsu (2010) on the 60 third grader of an elementary school in Taiwan, the effect of CSR on the reading comprehension and learning interest was investigated. In the qualitative aspect of her study, an interview on students' perception of CSR instruction was conducted and the results of interview indicated that students expressed a positive attitude toward CSR.

VI. IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study have some pedagogical implications for teaching and materials designing. There are many studies which have examined the implementation of reading strategies in EFL educational setting (Lee, 2003; Fan, 2009; Karabuğaa, 2012; Ebrahimi, 2012;). Empirical evidence indicates that strategy instruction in research-based comprehension strategies would help students enhance their comprehension difficulties. Cooperatives Learning is a valuable tool for developing critical thinking, because it creates a warm classroom environment in which the learners experience "psychological safety, intellectual freedom, and respect for one another as persons of worth" (Klimovienė, Urbonienė, Barzdžiukienė, 2006). Liang (2002) also claimed that, "A possible strategy to address the problems of low English proficiency and low motivation in EFL teaching would be the implementation of cooperative learning because cooperative learning methods hold great promises for accelerating students' attainment of academic learning, motivation to learn, and the development of the knowledge and abilities necessary for thriving in an ever-changing world" (p.153)

Consequently, it seems useful for the students' learning that the teachers integrate reading strategies like CSR by Klingner (1998) in students' reading classes and create an opportunity for the students to become familiar with and apply some of these strategies in their own reading as well. Another implication is about the attitudes of the students towards reading in a foreign language. Many studies support that negative and positive attitudes strongly affect the success of language learning (Brantmeier, 2006; Çelik, 2010; Ives, 2010; Clark & De Zoysa, 2011). According to Seitz (2010), motivated readers have a positive attitude about themselves as a reader and conversely, struggling readers assume they are responsible for their reading difficulties. CSR can enable students to learn a collection of definite reading strategies through group activity, and assist the students in improving their critical reading, which in turn leads to development of positive attitudes towards reading in a foreign language.

APPENDIX A. READING ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Class: _____ name: _____ Date: _____
 Dear students:

1. I understand the main idea of the text better in collaboration with others.	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
2. I can get better author purpose during group work activity.	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
3. Reading classes are interesting to me during collaborative strategic reading.	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
4. I feel fine during collaborative strategic reading	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
5. I understand what is expected of me when I am reading during CSR class.	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
6. I try to criticize the author's idea during reading process in CSR classes	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I like to go beyond sentence when I am reading the text.	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
8. I can acquire how to examine and draw conclusion about elements in CSR classes	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
9. During reading I am evaluating the details of the text all the time.	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I try to find the relationship between the text and my background experience.	Strongly agree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>	Agree <input type="checkbox"/>	No Comment <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX B. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What do think about CSR in comparison to your ordinary reading classes?
2. What are the positive points of CSR?
3. What are the negative points of CSR?
4. How did CSR help you in improving your critical reading?

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Fatameh Khonamri is an assistant professor of TEFL at the University of Mazandaran in Babolsar, where she teaches courses in Advanced Writing, Curriculum Development, and Language Testing at the postgraduate level. She has published articles in a number of academic journals like Profile Journal, Journal of Modern Thoughts, Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods, and Theory and Practice in Language Studies. Her areas of research interests are language assessment, extensive reading research, Metacognition and reflective teaching.

Maedeh Karimabadi is an MA graduate of TEFL and her research area is strategic reading and reading achievement.

A Case Study on the Acquisition of the Chinese Ditransitive Constructions*

Xu Yang

School of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—This research investigates a Chinese child's acquisition process for the Chinese ditransitive constructions employing the natural observation method. It explores the controversial issue whether the acquisition of early abstract constructions is based on usage-based or rule-governed. The findings propose that the acquisition of early abstract constructions should be the interactive outcomes both the rule-governed and the usage-based. The former can be called internal factors and the latter can be called external factors. These two factors prompt for the acquisition of early abstract constructions.

Index Terms—ditransitive constructions, acquisition, usage-based model, governed-rule

I. INTRODUCTION

Close attention has been paid to children language acquisition pervading in these fields over the past decades, such as linguistics, psychology and cognitive science. One of core disputes has been addressed to the early abstract syntactic acquisition. The controversy topic focuses on whether the acquisition of children's early abstract syntax is usage-based or rule-governed. Although the research into children's syntax acquisition starts late in China, many researchers have made greater contribution to it. A lot of studies focus on the acquisition of subject-predicate structure, the acquisition of negative structure, passive construction acquisition and *ba* construction acquisition. However, few studies have been received about the development of children's early ditransitive constructions. Therefore, the primary aim of this research is to examine the overall development tendency towards the children's early ditransitive constructions. A detailed investigation is particularly made on how a Chinese boy acquires the ditransitive constructions and how to use them in the spontaneous situation. Adopting these naturalistic data and spontaneous utterances, this research attempts to present some powerful arguments to explore the controversial issue about whether the acquisition of children's early abstract syntax is usage-based or rule-governed.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

A. Construction Grammar

Numerous linguists have come to realize some deficiencies of the research from the transformational-generative linguistics. They have intended to build a new theory to make up these deficiencies on the basis of the embodied philosophy. Therefore, the advent of cognitive linguistics is matter of course. Construction grammar makes cognitive linguistics become full-fledged. It is debated that there are three basic principles involving in construction grammar, namely the independent existence of constructions as symbolic unit, the uniform representation of grammatical structures and the taxonomic organization of constructions in a grammar (Croft and Cruse, 2004). Therefore, construction grammar regards the constructions as the basic unit. Constructions are stored with pairings of form and function, including morphemes, words, idioms, partially lexically filled and fully abstract phrasal patterns (Goldberg, 2003). From Goldberg point of view, construction itself expresses certain meaning. It is independently of the lexical items in the sentence. Hence, different constructions manifest different meanings. Some constructionists stress that any linguistic pattern may be regarded as certain construction provided that all or some aspects of its form or function are not fully coming from its component parts or from other previous constructions existing in grammar. Others debate that even though linguistic patterns are completely calculated, they can also be stored on condition that there is sufficient frequency occurring. Therefore, constructions show an extensive range in a language, containing morphemes, words, idioms and a variety of sentence patterns. These can be called constructions because they contain pairings of meaning and form, which cannot be predicted from anything else. Namely, constructions represent a continuum from concrete to abstract.

B. The Usage-based Model

This model has been advocated by Langacker (1991), Bybee (1985, 1995), Bybee & Hopper (2001), Goldberg (1995) and Croft (2001). Linguistic representations of grammar are closely related and are ultimately extracted from concrete usage event. The type frequency and token frequency are two principal concepts in the usage-based models. Speakers or

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hearers can map what they hear words, phrases or constructions to the identical existing representations.

Entrenchment is another important concept in the usage-based models. If a schematic construction is high in type frequency, it will be easily entrenched in speakers' minds. If one instance of the constructions is frequently used, the instance will be deeply entrenched in speakers' minds. On the contrary, the abstract constructions are not easily-entrenched. Entrenchment can be said to be the result of high frequency no matter whether it is token or type.

Differing from the generative models, the usage-based model focuses on how linguistic knowledge is stored in the speakers' mind and proposes that regular behavior of linguistic items is captured by schematic constructions and their instances. The generative model holds the dual processing model, claiming that only irregular items are stored in the lexicon while the whole regular behavior is assumed to be generated, (Pinker, 1999). In Bybee's opinion (1995), these generative models do not reach an agreement with frequency effects. And the storage in the lexicon should be evenly divided pervading irregular lexical items, which can prevent irregular items that are infrequent from becoming regular.

However, it is a fact that irregular items of the infrequency have a tendency to become regular in psycholinguistic experiments and child language (Cruse & Croft, 2004). Psycholinguistic experiments which were observed the word production tasks have shown that regular word forms in high frequency are produced faster than those in low frequency. This idea provides some evidences and characteristics for the usage-based model. This model, to begin with, emphasizes that speaker's linguistic system is basically derived from the events of utterance because a close relationship exists between linguistic structures and instances of language use. Secondly, linguistic comprehension and production should be integral to the linguistic system. Linguistic ability of one speaker is constructed by regularities in the mental processing of language. Therefore, it is unnecessary to make a clear distinction between competence and performance. In most cases, they are dependent because performance itself is part of a speaker's competence. That is to say, linguistic representations are emergent. Thirdly, this model holds that linguistic system interacts with non-linguistic cognitive systems. Learners or speakers tend to be sensitive to linguistic patterns derived from use or experience. Finally, this model proposes the importance of context, which helps to interact between semantic and pragmatic in the linguistic system (Barlow & Kemmer, 2000).

Tomasello (2000) advocated the usage-based theory of child language acquisition and his observation and experiments have supported the imitative learning and the symbolic integration. And his research claims that acquisition of all linguistic knowledge, no matter how abstract it might become, should derive from the imitative learning and the symbolic integration of specific utterances on specific circumstances of use. His Verb Island Hypothesis is from his daughter's early grammar development. This hypothesis contains a two-stage theory how the grammatical knowledge of children develops. In Tomasello's opinions, the construction knowledge is fully dependent on based-items during the process of the early stage of language acquisition, namely, associated with specific verbs. It is at a later stage that children have the ability to form the knowledge of abstract constructions and integrated the item-based schemas with the interconnected verbal systems. However, it is possible that children do not equip with the ability of abstract construction knowledge at the verb island stage. They just employ the insular verbs to express specific arguments that cannot be transferred to other verbs. Taking the verb *hit* for example, it presents two arguments: one is called a preverbal argument, expressing one person doing the hitting. Therefore, children at this stage do not equip with the ability to generalize the predicate and cannot construct the knowledge of general semantic roles.

Based on the Verb Island Hypothesis, item-based constructions present us more linguistic phenomenon and experience. The development of item-based constructions mostly includes the imitative learning and the symbolic integration processes. To begin with, children can naturally learn utterances by the way they imitate the utterance models of adult production. This process of imitation is the most obvious for children to acquire the two-word combinations. Children are able to imitate or learn two-word schemas which are produced in the adult utterances. And they finally operate and acquire these utterances by the use of the substitution of the nominals. Besides, children are also able to construct numerous constructions from what they previously heard utterances or sentences by the ways of some mental operations. This kind of mental operations are referred to symbolic integration and the processes of symbolic integration come down to the combination of structure, that is to say, if children intend to express new meaning in the process of communication, what they can do is to integrate creatively the existing constructions that they heard previously to some extent (Tomasello, 2000). Although this process is rather complicated in the multi-word sentences, children still equip with the ability to construct more abstract constructions to integrate or infer the adult's specific communicative intention in adopting different verbs.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. *Research Subject and Scopes*

This research investigates a Chinese-speaking boy, named Qi qi, who is author's son of this paper. His parents both work in the senior high school. His mother teaches Chinese and his father teaches English. The child's utterances of ditransitive constructions were longitudinally observed under the state of willingness, twice a week by his parents, lasting for one year. The age of the subject starts from 30 months to 42 months. A lot of research shows at this age that it is crucial stage for children to master basic grammar and acquire the abstract syntactic constructions. By the time of 36 months, children have already mastered the system of grammar rules from mother tongue. The research scopes include

NP1+V 给 *give*+NP2+NP3, NP1+V+NP3+给 *give*+NP2 and NP1 +给 *give*+NP2+V+NP3.

B. Research Questions.

Research questions include: (1) What features can be found when the child are acquiring the structures of the Chinese DC? (2) How can these features be explained in the framework of usage-based model? (3) Based on these features, can we draw a clear conclusion whether it is usage-based or based-rule for the child to acquire the abstract syntactic constructions?

C. Data Collection and Processing

This research adopts the naturalistic research method, whose prominent advantage is that a researcher can watch certain subject in the natural situation. We make use of a voice recorder to record the child's utterances interacting with his parents. All utterances take place in a home setting and they have been input computer according to the formats of CHILDIES. And they have been transcribed into text files followed the requirements of the CHAT (MacWhinney, 2000). After all the utterances have been coded, we use CLAN for the statistical analysis. This can guarantee the sufficiency and balance of collected utterance samples. The subject produced 10801 utterances in total. Imitative utterances are excluded to make sure that the child was not repeating or imitating the adult models. Utterances that are excluded belong to the same structure with what was produced immediately after parental utterances. By the end of our recordings, the child has totally uttered 48 ditransitive sentences, of which 20 sentences are imitative. That is to say, the subject only uttered 28 ditransitive sentences, which are not imitative. In order to study and analyze easily, we use the table form to display the 28 Chinese ditransitive constructions.

TABLE 1
THE DC OF NP1+V(GE)+NP2+NP3 IN THE CHILD SPEECH

age	NO	Context of speech	Utterances from the child	Used verb
2;6	1	The child saw a plastic plane holding in his father's left hand and said to his father.	给我飞机 (gei wo fei ji) Give me the plane	给(gei) give
2;6	2	The child cried because his father took his plane away.	拿我飞机来 (na wo feiji lai) Bring me the plane back	拿 (na) bring
2;8	3	When his mom went out to buy something to eat, the child said to his mom.	给我再见 (gei wo zaijian) Say goodbye to me.	给(gei) give
2;11	4	The child finished eating one walnut and his father gave him one more.	爸爸又给我 (baba you gei wo) Dady gave me one more.	给(gei) give
3;2	5	The child came back from the kindergarten and said to his mom.	老师给我大苹果 (laoshi gei wo dapingguo) My teacher gave me a big apple.	给(gei) give
3.4	6	The child was building a house by building blocks and need a triangle building blocks.	拿我三角形 (na wo sanjiaoxing) Give me a triangle of building block	拿 (na) give

TABLE 2
THE DC SENTENCES OF NP1+给(GE)+NP2+V+NP3 IN THE CHILD SPEECH

Age	NO	Context of speech	Utterances from the child	Used verb
2;7	7	The child was thirty and said to his Mon.	请给我喝点水(gei wo he dian shui)Please give me a cup of water to drink.	喝 (he) drink
2;7	8	Mom was sweeping the floor and the child wanted to do.	我给你扫扫地 (wo gei ni saosao di) I helped you sweep the floor	扫 (sao) sweep
2;9	9	The child was having a candy and his father looked at him, smiling. And he said to father.	我给你吃糖(wo gei ni chi tang)I gave you a candy to eat	吃 (chi) eat
2;11	10	Dady was not feeling well and the child pretended to be a doctor.	我给爸爸打针(wo gei baba da zhen) I took an injection for you	打 (da) take
3;1	11	Mom was washing clothes and the child wanted to do	我帮你洗衣服 (wo bang ni xi yifu) I helped you wash clothes .	洗 (xi) wash
3;2	12	The child was telling his cousin who bought these books	我爸爸给我买的书 (wo baba gei wo mai de shu) My dad bought books for me	买 (mai) buy
3;2	13	Mom went out to buy something to eat and the child said to mom.	回来你给我带香蕉(huilai ni gei wo dai xiangjiao) You bought some bananas for me when you came back.	买 (mai) buy
3;4	14	While having dinner, the chopsticks fell to the floor. The child said to dad.	给我拿双筷子 (gei wo na shuang kuaizi) Please bring a pair of chopsticks for me	拿 (na) bring
3;5	15	The child wanted to watch the programme Wisdom Tree on the CCTV28, he asked mom to help adjust the TV channels	你给我调智慧树 (ni gei wo diao zhihuishu) You helped me to adjust Wisdom Tree	调 (diao) adjust
3;5	16	The child asked his dad to tell stories for him,	爸爸给我讲故事 (Dad gei wo jiang gushi) Dad told stories for me	讲 (jiang) tell
3;6	17	Mom asked the child who helped him build the house by building blocks	爸爸帮我建房子 (Baba bang wo jiang fangzi) Dad helped me build the house.	建 (jian) build

TABLE 3
THE OBJECT ELLIPSIS OF THE DC IN THE CHILD SPEECH

Age	No	Context of speech	Utterances from the child	Used verb
2;7	18	Mom told the child should share with others while eating biscuits	给小朋友们吃 (gei xiao pengyou chi_) Gave my companions to eat biscuits.	吃 (chi) eat
2;7	19	The child wanted to drink milk and asked his dad to open it.	请帮我打开 (qing bang wo da kai) Please helped me open the milk.	打开(da kai) open
2;9	20	The child noticed his mom taking a box of cake in her hand	给我吃(gei wo chi) Gave me to eat cake	吃 (chi) eat
2;11	21	Mom said her back hurt	那我给你拍拍 (na wo gei ni paipai) Then I patted your back	拍 (pai) pat
3;0	22	The child asked dad who bought books for him	谁给我买的? (shui gei wo mai de?) Who bought me books?	买 (mai) buy
3;1	23	The child was telling who bought the toy train for him.	阿姨给我买的?(ayi gei wo mai de?) My aunt bought me the toy train	买 (mai) buy
3;3	24	The child asked his mom to put on his coat while he was going out.	妈妈给我穿上(mama gei wo chuan shang). Mom helped me put on my coat	穿 (chuan) put on
3;4	25	The child could not find his toy car and asked dad for help	爸爸给我找(baba gei wo zhao). Dad, please help me look for my toy car	找 (zhao) look for
3;4	26	The child could not reach the books on the bookshelf and asked dad for help.	爸爸给我拿 (baba gei wo na). Dad, please bring me the books.	拿 (na) bring
3;5	27	Mom asked the child who bought the fish for him	爸爸给我买的 (baba gei wo mai de). My dad bought me the fish.	买(mai) buy
3;6	28	The child wanted dad to look at the drawings on the board	让爸爸看看(rang baba kankan).Let dad look at the drawing	看 (kan) look at

Seeing from the Table1, Table2 and Table3, the subject spontaneously produced the 28 ditransitive sentences in total. The Chinese ditransitive constructions have already appeared when the child is almost at two and half years old. The first ditransitive construction is presented by the verb 给 *give*, which agrees with Zhou(1997). In the construction of NP1+V+NP2+NP3, there are totally six ditransitive sentences to be counted, of which 4 ditransitive sentences are presented the verb 给 *give*. This shows that the construction of 给 *give* is frequently used in the daily life. Therefore, the construction NP1+给 *give* +NP2+NP3 should be regarded as the initial category of the Chinese ditransitive constructions. The other two sentences are presented the verb “拿”, but they are much differences in term of the pragmatic aspect. Although many a subjects of sentences in the data are omitted in the process of communication, it can be inferred and interpreted from the utterances of context.

In the construction of NP1+给 *give* +NP2+V+NP3, as shown in the Table 2, the child uttered 11ditransitive constructions without any imitation. At the beginning of the recording, the first word 喝 *drink* appeared when the child is round two years seven months. These verbs are used in the concrete situation, for example, 扫 *sweep*; 吃 *eat*; 打 *take*; 洗 *wash*; 买 *buy*; 拿 *bring*; 讲 *tell*. The verb which is the most frequently used is 买 *buy*. The majority of objects of sentences are omitted during the process of communication. According to the table 3, there are 11 utterances omitting the objects.

Zhou (1997) argued that these structures sharing with both the direct object and the indirect object were called the saturated double object construction and those omitting the direct object or the indirect object should be considered as the unsaturated double object constructions In an unsaturated double construction, the syntactic components show a close relationship to the verb, but they do not all occur at the same time. and no occurring components might be replenished by the object or person present. There are 11unsaturated sentences in the data and all the direct objects that do not occur can be recovered by the person or object present. For example, in the 28 utterance from the Table 3, the omitted object the drawing can be reduced from the context.

These verbs occurring in the ditransitive constructions are relatively small number. The similar research results were also proved by Zhou (1997), showing that children can not only employ the ditransitive constructions, but construct more complex structures under the guidance of the ditransitive constructions. However, much restriction is set on the syntactic and semantic properties of the ditransitive constructions, the amount of verbs occurring in this construction is also rather limited.

According to the collected data, there are also several ditransitive verbs occurring in the child utterances, except for the verb 给 *give*. For example, 拿 *bring*; 打 *take*; 买 *buy*; 讲 *tell*; 建造 *build*; 拍 *pat*; 穿 *put on*; 找 *look for*; 看 *look at* and so on. These verbs show the features of dispersive development. This developmental trend demonstrates that the typical features have a great effect upon the development of the early verbal acquisition. Seeing from the acquisition sequence of these different ditransitive verbs, we can conclude that the child should follow the cognitive principle of prototype to the cognitive principle non-prototype before three and a half years old.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The preliminary statistical data shows that the child uttered 40 ditransitive constructions (N1VN2N3), of which 15

ditransitive constructions belong to this construction (N1+给 *gei*+N2+N3). The first case of ditransitive constructions produced by the child is the construction 给我飞机 *give me the plane*, which is at his two and six months. This kind of construction might be considered to be the initial structure of ditransitive constructions. However, the process in which the child acquire the structure of N1+给 *gei*+N2+N3 will not be accomplished one moment, on the contrary, it undergoes a long time.

The child's simple utterances may follow the process of syntactic operation. In Tomasello's opinion, children's early sentences could be imitatively learnt from adult input models or they might be constructed by combining whole constructions that have previously been mastered. This skill is called symbolic integration (Tomasello, 1992). Later, he termed it as structural combining (2000). Tomasello identifies four kinds of symbolic integration operations in T's data (1992): substitution, expansion, addition or coordination. Seen from the two arguments N1N2 are occurring at the same time in the same structure, the acquisition sequence of the child should manifest like this "patient subject sentence (N3 给 *give* N2)→double object sentence (给 *give*N2N3) → case marker sentence(把 *ba*+N3 给 *give*+N2). The acquisition sequence does not simply follow the process "给 *give* —给 *give*N2—给 *give*N3—给 *give*N2N3". The position of N3 occurs in the head of sentence firstly. Afterward, it appears after predicate verbs. In our data, this structure is relatively popular, for example, 书给我 *give me the book*, which occurs at his two and eight months and 糖给爸爸 *give dad the candy*, which occurs at his two and nine months. This kind of construction can be elaborated from the perspectives of child cognitive psychology. And this can satisfy the pragmatic and communicative needs.

Therefore, during the process of the daily communication, people tend to focus on the persons or objects present which are moving, and can express what they are paying attention to, which follow the principle of figure-background from cognitive linguistics. All these show that the deep semantic syntactic structure needs to be prompted by the use of language.

A. Discussion and Reevaluation from the Usage-based Approach

Tomasello (1992, 2000) made the following statements about the usage-based approach to the early grammatical development. He claims that children's early grammatical knowledge is based on the comprehension and production of specific utterances in the specific use; He emphasizes that the early syntactic development is conservative, when children learn the argument structure of certain verb, their acquisition is independent of the knowledge of other verbs. In other words, the acquisition of children's early grammar shows the features of vertical variations, which follows the changes from rather simple antecedents to more complex decedents under the guidance of the same verb. So the process should not be horizontal, from one verb to another. According to the usage-based approach, the acquisition of children's early abstract constructions is mainly derived from the imitation from adult models or the processes of symbolic integration.

In order to verify the usage-based approach, the models of the parental input have already been analyzed in the last section. The results of parental models demonstrate that only 36% of the ditransitive constructions might be imitated from parental utterances. For the rest 64%, the parental model does not contribute fully. Our data shows that there are 5 ditransitive constructions produced by the child creatively, which are not found in the parental models. Obviously our data are not fully in favor of the usage-based approach, because the acquisition of the child's ditransitive constructions are incompletely derived from the imitation of learning or the simple symbolic integration of previously used structures.

However, another explanation will be made it possible that Chinese-speaking children might reach the stage at which they share with the abstract grammatical knowledge. Maybe the ability of their abstract grammar is much earlier than English-speaking children. Tomasello (2000) holds that children at around three and half years or older should possess much verb-general syntactic knowledge. This age range may be not appropriate for the Chinese-speaking children, for Chinese differs greatly from English. The production of the child's ditransitive construction might indicate that he may enter an advanced stage when he has equipped with the abstract and verb-general syntactic knowledge. And he even has the ability to generalize across verbs. Therefore, a comparative study between the Chinese-speaking children and the English-speaking children should be attempted, which is necessary and important for the ditransitive constructions of cross-linguistics.

It deserves to be mentioned that at least 64% of ditransitive constructions will be argued in the data of spontaneous utterance. Tomasello (1992) gave the appraisal in T's multi-word utterances and cannot prove any syntactic development involving verbs, which becomes the arguing focus. This demonstrates that these convincing data in Tomasello (1992) cannot support fully the usage-based approach. If specially paying attention to the development of verb argument structure, the percentage of single change from antecedent schemas to the new schemas of the same verbs would be much lower than his result.

B. The Syntactic Acquisition Is Usage-based or Rule-governed

The innateness hypothesis and the constructivism propose two kinds of different views about the early syntactic development. And they are the most important theories of syntactic development in the field at present. The first one includes all of those approaches that posit an innate universal grammar—dictating some kind of dual process model in which words, fixed expression, and quirky constructions are all acquired by "normal" learning processes, whereas acquisition of the more regular aspects of language is somehow guided by the innate universal grammar. The second

paradigm includes all those approaches that posit only a single of cognitive, social-cognitive, and learning processes to account for the acquisition of all types of linguistic items and structures, from simple to complex, from concrete to abstract. However, these two kinds of approaches cannot make an all-round interpretation for the children's syntactic development.

On the one hand, the data comparison between the spontaneous constructions and the parental input models indicates that the types of argument structure exist in the great differences in the child's production utterances and external input utterances. These differences reflect eminently that the instance frequency from argument structure of the external input is just one of factors affected the early syntactic acquisition. Meanwhile, the early syntactic acquisition is not purely imitative, but more creative. The statement has been supported by de Villiers (1985). He verifies that children can not only focus on the argument structure of certain verb from the external input but also show a lot of similarities between the argument structures from the children's production and mother tongue. However, the cause of this kind of similarity is not immediately imitative. This creativity amply demonstrates that the child can apply certain syntactic rule to a new item. From this perspective, the acquisition of the child's early abstract constructions is based on rules.

On the other hand, the observational data from the child show that the acquisition of the ditransitive constructions goes through the following process. Firstly, the child acquire gradually some so-called argument-structure constructions from the daily life, including objects people act on, objects changing state or location, people experiencing psychological states, objects or people being in a state, and things being acted upon (Goldberg, 1995). Secondly, due to these actions or objects occur frequently, the whole process represents children's generalizations across many item-based constructions, which contributes to the children's abstraction about the meaning and form of the ditransitive constructions. In the end, the ditransitive constructions are constructed in the child's mind. Therefore, the ways they construct show the combination of the form and meaning. From the perspective of the activities of the child's input utterances, the process is shown the correspondence relations between the form and the meaning of the constructions. Seen from the point of the child's production utterances, the process displays the correspondence relations between the meaning and the form of the constructions.

V. CONCLUSION

A reasonable explanation is made for the children to construct the abstract construction. The acquisition of the child's ditransitive constructions should not fully be the parameter setting of initial state, but based on plenty of stimuli from the input of adult utterances. Supposed that a baby is born with universal grammar or abstract syntactic category, why can he or she not express spontaneously until he or she is received so many abstract syntax input from the adult utterances? If the setting parameter exists, it only means that the child's cognitive ability has developed into the stage at which the cognitive schema can be constructed. During the stage, the parameter will not work until the child receives a large number of stimuli from the input of abstract constructions. If the development of the child's cognitive ability is regarded as the internal factor which affects the construction acquisition, the input and stimuli from the adult utterances can be considered to be the external factor. Although the two factors function differently, they can coordinate and promote one another. That is to say, the integral factors from the internal and the external contribute to the acquisition of the child's ditransitive construction.

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Xu Yang was born in Guizhou. He received his MA degree at School of Foreign Languages, Yunnan Normal University. He is currently studying for a doctor's degree at School of International Studies, Southwest University. His research interests include cognitive linguistics and foreign languages teaching.

The Effect of Classroom Anxiety on EFL Learner's Oral Narratives Fluency: The Case of Intermediate Level Students

Omid Sanaei

Department of English Language, University of Guilan, University Campus 2, Rasht, Iran

Amir Mahdavi Zafarghandi

Department of English Language, University of Guilan, University Campus 2, Rasht, Iran

Masoud Khalili Sabet

Department of English Language, University of Guilan, University Campus 2, Rasht, Iran

Abstract—This study is an attempt to investigate the effect of classroom anxiety on EFL Learner's oral narrative fluency. The objective of the study is first to specifically ascertain the extent to which Iranian EFL Learners assign their Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) to the oral narrative fluency. Secondly, based on the viewpoints of the EFL professors of Guilan University, some practical strategies have been suggested to alleviate anxiety in speaking of EFL learners. The last samples were 11 students comprising 5 males and 6 females studying English Literature at Guilan University. Purposive Sampling (Quota Sampling) is conducted in order to choose the last participants of the study. The researchers has also exploited five- point Likert-Scale questionnaire namely Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which has been translated from English into Persian version by them. The present study follows mixed-method approach in which the data were collected and analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. After data analysis, the quantitative findings reveal that low average of anxiety among students can be correlated to the main speech fluency indicators positively. Qualitative results suggest that more fluent participants will be able to produce more accurate sentences, unless classroom anxiety acts as an obstacle on the way of being more accurate.

Index Terms—Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), Classroom Anxiety (CA), narrative, fluency

I. INTRODUCTION

Second or foreign language learners have a great amount of interest in perception of their ability while they are speaking. However, this attention which non-native speakers receive from their audience may be as a main part of their success. Thus, EFL learners will pursue to pay more attention to speaking rather than other skills and to a great extent, speaking activities, whether or not, will be interconnected to affection. Thus, it is apparent affective variables overshadow oral performance of the EFL learners. One of these affective variables is known as Language Anxiety. It is worthy of mention Worde (1998) argues that “more than half of foreign language learners experience some kind of it in their language classroom” (Mahmoodzadeh, 2012, p. 466). When students are talking about some of speaking tasks such as oral narration, classroom anxiety appears and it may perform as an obstacle in the way of speaking; Thus the EFL Learners can't be more fluent as well as possible, if classroom anxiety exists in a high scale, because it may act as a breakdown factor for an acceptable amount of speech fluency. It will be more obvious when native and non-native speakers are compared to each other in many previous studies (e.g. Riggensbach 1991; Ejzenberg 2000; Simensen 2010).

With due attention to all above said, with the beginning of communicative language teaching, English education in Iran as the same as other countries has been changed toward focusing and paying more attention to improving communicative ability. We can see this especially in non-governmental sectors and educational institutions and they are supposed to moving toward working on communicative ability. Due to this respect, anxiety as an affective variable will be a great obstacle on the way of EFL learners, and this phenomenon is also true in the case of Iranian Learners. Thus, that is why the majority of EFL learners, both in Iran and in many other countries, are suffering from a communicative language classroom.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

One of the important affective variables which attracted most attention to itself is anxiety. Horwitz et al. (1986) started a revolution in Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) and provided its measurement in class through establishing Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). In attempting to elucidate language anxiety, Horwitz, Horwitz

and Cope (1986) expounded foreign language anxiety as “a distinctive complex of self-perception, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning, arising from the uniqueness of the language-learning process” (p. 128). According to Brown (2000), “anxiety is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension and worry” (p. 151).

According to Pappamihiel (2002), anxiety can be interwoven with “threats to self-efficacy and appraisals of situations as threatening” (p. 331). More specifically, Kumaravadivelu (2006) believes “anxiety refers to emotional state of apprehension, tension, nervousness, and worry mediated by the arousal of the automatic nervous system” (p. 33).

B. Types of Anxiety

In this study, the researchers aim to address types of anxiety through obvious definitions and try to make clear distinctions among them. In order to differentiate between state and trait anxiety, Spielberger (1983) found that state anxiety is an immediate, transitory emotional experience with instant cognitive effects, and *trait* anxiety is a stable predisposition to become anxious in a wide range of situations (MacIntyre, 1995, p. 93).

Pappamihiel (2002) provided another definition which refers to state and trait anxiety which indicates “state anxiety is a type of anxiety, which occurs because learners are exposed to particular conditions or situations, meanwhile, trait anxiety is a person’s tendency to feel anxious regardless of the situations they are exposed to” (Riasati, 2011, p. 908).

In educational research, anxiety is usually divided into trait or state. Woodrow (2006) believes “Trait anxiety is a relatively stable personality trait. A person who is the trait anxious is likely to feel anxious in a variety of situations. State anxiety, on the other hand, is a temporary condition experienced at the particular moment” (p. 309-10). Also Woodrow (2006) argues that “a third type of anxiety is situational anxiety that is situation specific and this reflects a trait that recurs in specific situations” (ibid).

Additionally, Mesri (2012) argues that anxiety is generally can be classified into three types. “Trait anxiety, a more permanent disposition to be anxious, is viewed as an aspect of personality. State anxiety is an apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to definite situation. Lastly, situation-specific anxiety is related to apprehension aroused at specific situations and events” (p. 148).

C. Conceptual Foundations: Components of Foreign Language Anxiety

Components of foreign language anxiety have been significantly paid attention. Horwitz et al. (1986) concluded that the components of foreign language anxiety could be attributed to three performance anxieties: (1) Communication Apprehension, (2) Fear of negative evaluation, (3) Test anxiety. Furthermore, the integration of these factors leads to the creation of anxiety in language learners. In the meantime, due to consideration of foreign language anxiety components, Horwitz (1986) established the foreign language anxiety scale (FLCAS) to measure communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. As a result of the aforementioned study, it was suggested that language anxiety be distinct from other types of anxiety. In other words, foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) came into existence as a self-report measure which assesses “the degree of anxiety, as evidenced by negative performance expectancies and social comparison, psycho-physiological symptoms, and avoidance behaviors” (ibid, p. 559). Communication apprehension (CA) has been defined as an “individual level of fear or anxiety associated with real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (McCroskey, 1977, p. 78). Horwitz et al. (1986) defined communication apprehension (CA) as “a type of shyness characterized by fear of anxiety about communicating with people” (p.127). For example, the item “I tremble when I know that I’m going to be called on in the language class” is directly related to communication apprehension. With due attention to fear of negative evaluation, Horwitz et al. (1986) believed defined fear of negative evaluation was triggered by the teacher as a fluent speaker and the classmates. Fear of negative evaluation, for example, ‘I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance’. “Test anxiety refers to a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure (Horwitz et al., p. 127). Students who feel test anxious often put unrealistic demands on themselves. And test anxiety, for example, ‘I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.’”

D. Speech Fluency

Fluency can be considered as one of the main components of mastery over a language. Work on fluency has started with formal research linked development in demonstration programs since the mid-1960s. Considering the importance of speech fluency, a body of research can be seen allocated to this concept. Brumfit (1984) believes that fluency should be regarded as “natural language use”, whether or not it results in native-speaker-like language comprehension or production (p. 56).

Moreover, Lennon (2000) defines fluency as “the rapid, smooth, accurate, and efficient translation of thoughts or communicative intention under the temporal constraints of on-line processing” (p. 26). Also as established by Lennon (2000), the fluency term can be divided into narrow and broad sense. Broad sense refers to all round and global oral proficiency that is a fluent speaker has a high command of the foreign or second language; Narrow sense in which fluency can be considered as overall L2 competency. Moreover, Fulcher (2003) argues that although fluency in the broad sense is probably the most generic way to refer to overall L2 competency, the term is problematic because it is nonetheless vague (Prefontaine, 2010, p. 135).

With due attention to narrow sense of fluency, Segalowitz (2010) in '*Cognitive base of second language fluency*', introduced three aspects of fluency as cognitive fluency, utterance fluency, and perceived fluency and made distinction among them as below:

- 1) Cognitive fluency: referring to "ability of the L2 speakers to smoothly translate thoughts to L2 speech" (De Jong 2013).
- 2) Utterance fluency: refers to "oral features of utterances that reflect the operation of underlying cognitive processes" (Segalowitz, 2010, p. 48).
- 3) Perceived fluency: refers to "inferences listeners make about speaker's cognitive fluency based on their perception of utterance fluency" (ibid).

E. *Speech Fluency Measurement*

Measures of fluency have been considered by a group of researchers concerned with longitudinal aspects of fluency measurement (Lennon 1990; Freed 1995; Towell 1996). Another group of researchers distinguished fluent speakers from non-fluent ones (Riggenbach 1991; Ejzenberg 2000; Simensen 2010). In the most of the studies two main points are prominent. First, number of the participants is restricted as much as possible, and the reason refers to difficulty of the task with no doubt. Second, in many studies there are no statistical and computerized analyses in estimation of pauses, except limited recently published studies (e.g. De Jong 2009; 2013; Prefontaine 2010), in which using computer technology (e.g. PRAAT software) is observable.

Most of previous studies (e.g. Lennon 1990; Riggenbach 1991; Towell et al. 1996, Kormos and D'enes 2004, De Jong 2013) believe that some of the indicators of fluency play a great role in determination of fluency measurement such as:

- 1) Speech rate: that is, the number of syllables articulated per minute; Kormos and D'enes (2004) argue that "the total number of syllables produced in a given speech sample was divided by the amount of total time required to produce the speech sample expressed in seconds. This figure was then multiplied by sixty to give a figure expressed in syllable per minute" (p. 154).
- 2) Mean length of runs: that is, average number of syllables produced in utterances above the pause of 0.25 seconds (e.g. Lennon 1990; Riggenbach 1991; Towell et al. 1996).
- 3) Phonation time Ratio: "that is, the percentage of time spent speaking as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech sample" (Towell et al. 1996). Also phonation time ratio can be defined as "phonation time divided by total time" (De Jong 2013).
- 4) Articulation Rate: "In calculating the articulation rate the total number of syllables produced in a given speech sample was divided by the amount of the time taken to produce them in seconds" (Kormos & D'enes, 2004, p.151).

As can be seen above, the researchers also estimated another factor of speech fluency namely articulation rate, though some researchers believe it cannot be considered as an effective factor for estimating fluency. In the meantime, Chambers (1997) states that "becoming fluent therefore is not about speaking faster (articulation rate), but about pausing less at appropriate junctures in an utterance" (Prefontaine, 2010, p. 137). In addition to above-mentioned indicators of fluency measurement, there are other indicators in this domain such as filled and unfilled pauses. Due to this respect, Kormos and D'enes (2004) believe that "research findings are equivocal concerning the frequency of filled and unfilled pauses as well as disfluencies such as repetitions, restarts and repairs" (p. 148).

F. *Speech Accuracy*

In recent years, the EFL research has drawn its attention to the concept of accuracy as one of the key concepts of language output. Gätz (2013) believes that "if we look at the perceptive fluency, however, accuracy is one of the key-variables to be included, as evidently nobody would perceive a speaker as fluent if they were not perceived as reasonably accurate as well" (p. 46). Gätz (2013) also maintains that "a high level of fluency, in the sense of an overall oral proficiency, is very likely correlate with a high level of accuracy" (p. 47).

Riggenbach (1991) asserts that if EFL Learners are able to communicate in a very native-like way considering other fluency indicators, they wouldn't be appertained to highly fluent by a native speaker, if they commit many errors in their output.

With regard to all above mentioned, within the previous studies, it can be concluded that not only there exists a relationship between speech fluency and speech accuracy, but also speech accuracy is negatively interconnected to the errors at the lexical and syntactic level and to the incorrect use of items and constructions. Therefore, it can be measured by "proportion of error-free clauses relative to the total number of clauses" (Kormos & D'enes, 2004, p.153).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Questions*

This study seeks to find the answers to the following research questions:

1. Does classroom anxiety affect the learners' oral narrative fluency?
 - a) Does classroom anxiety affect the learners' fluency factors (i.e. speech rate, articulation rate, phonation time ratio and mean length of runs)?

2. Which strategies can be used by the teachers to alleviate classroom anxiety during student's oral performance?

To answer the second question, the researchers distributed a self-made questionnaire to some of experienced professors of Guilan University where they suggested some strategies to reduce foreign language learners' anxiety in the classroom (Appendix B).

B. Participants

The early population sample of the present study, in order to determination of the level of proficiency, and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), included forty three Iranian EFL Learners studying English Literature at Guilan University. The subjects were selected from first-year students within two different classes of laboratory course in English, including twenty males and twenty three females. The age of the learners ranged from eighteen to twenty two with the mean of twenty years.

Having considered the learners' level of speaking proficiency through a placement test written by Colchester English Study Centre, and also with respect to Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), the researchers examined the last 11 participants by ACTFL oral proficiency interview (OPI) in order to ensure that they were placed at intermediate level. So by doing this, the researchers understood these 11 participants were placed at the same level in speaking (i.e. intermediate level). Therefore, the last participants were specified through quota sampling. In addition, the last participants involved in the current study comprised eleven Iranian EFL Learners whom they were excluded from early forty three population sample, including five males and six females, and they were supposed to do a narrative task with regard to fluency analysis of their speech. It should be noted that last samples were selected based on the proportion of a quarter number of males and females learners with consideration of the number of not very anxious and slightly anxious students.

C. Instruments

Instruments of this study are namely FLCAS questionnaire, ACTFL speaking proficiency guidelines, picture stories for narrative tasks and qualitative self-made questionnaire.

The most popular instrument for measuring FL anxiety is Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The scale is innovated by Horwitz et al. (1986), and it comprises 33 questions accompany with specific questions about communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety as the fundamental components of foreign language anxiety. The FLCAS can be considered as a quantitative questionnaire, because it consists of a five-point Likert-scales' questionnaire ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. In the current study, in order to make certain that the participants had no difficulties in understanding the concepts of available items; the developed self-reporting questionnaire was prepared. Thus, the basic form of FLCAS consisting thirty three items in English was translated from English version into Persian. In order to validate the Persian version of the questionnaire, three English Language teachers translated the original questionnaire into Persian simultaneously; then, in order to consolidate a final version, a selective approach was selected among three available translated questionnaires. Consequently, the edited and translated version was represented. At the end, an expert of translation was asked to validate the final translated version. Hence, he verified that there was enough accordance between English and Persian version (See Appendix A).

ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) proficiency guidelines for speaking assessment encompass five major levels of proficiency as Distinguished, Superior, Advanced, Intermediate and Novice. The elucidation of each major level is representative of specific range of abilities. The major levels Advanced, Intermediate, and Novice are divided into High, Mid, and Low sublevels. Generally, the provided guidelines ACTFL can be used to evaluate speech that is Interpersonal (interactive, two way communication) or Presentational (one way, non-interactive), however, the second one (Presentational speech) has been investigated in the current study.

Additionally, this study employed some of the picture stories extracted from one of the most well-known story books namely ¹'Vater und Sohn'. The pictures of each story are ranging from three to nine; moreover, images are so easy, obvious and comprehensible for description. The reason for such a claim was that the pictures of the stories were firstly given to three students as a pilot where they were able to understand them easily.

Finally, the qualitative self-made questionnaire used in the present study was unstructured and open-ended. It was comprised a general question for Guilan University Professors where they were asked "*which strategies do you prefer as a professor to alleviate classroom anxiety during students' oral performance?*"

D. Procedures

The researchers selected the first population sample of 43 male and female students for giving both placement tests (in order to determine the students' level of proficiency) and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale namely FLCAS (in order to estimate the participants' level of anxiety). It should be noted that, before giving the placement test, the researchers did it as a pilot test to 3 individuals for determining its validity and estimation total time of the exam. The researchers' initial findings of the placement test revealed that the participants' level of proficiency (as the first population sample of this study) ranging from Elementary to Advanced. Also, the first evidence of FLCAS scores indicated that anxiety level of participants was ranging from Not Very Anxious to Slightly Anxious. An un-expectable

¹ The Persian Translated versions of the books 'Vater und Sohn band 1, 2 & 3' were written by Jahanshahi, (1982) in Iran.

thing was that the researchers didn't access to Fairly Anxious students, so they were forced to select all of the last participants from Not Very Anxious and Slightly Anxious students. Then the last 11 participants were selected and assessed based on ACTFL speaking guidelines through oral proficiency interview (OPI) which was investigated as more important reason for the final sampling because it helped the researchers to obtain more precise evaluation of the last participants, and placement test wasn't adequate tool to estimate proficiency level solitarily. Thus ACTFL was done as oral proficiency interview by asking the last 11 participants specific questions. Therefore, the participants started to speak and their sounds were recorded. Thus, with respect to their utterances, ACTFL standard criteria, and the level base characteristics, the researchers found that the last sample were matched with intermediate level characteristics which proposed by ACTFL.

After the final sampling, materials collected for this research involved voice-recorded speech samples that were one to three minutes long on average. The researchers had already prepared some picture stories without the main text from the book 'Vater und Sohn'. Before the participants began to speak, the researches gave them an opportunity about two minutes to take a look at to the pictures for preparation. Finally, the recorded voices were analyzed for fluency measurement; then the samples were converted from spoken form into written form in order to investigating the grammatical accuracy of participants' utterances through available texts.

IV. RESULTS

To answer the research questions, first the statistical technique should be specified. The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (K-S) revealed that the test distribution (Mean anxiety of the participants and the obtained fluency factors) is normal. Thus, the Parametric Statistical Technique can be used to analyze the data. To answer the first research question, the data were collected and analyzed quantitatively using SPSS.

To estimate the first research question, the researchers should refer the minor research question. The minor research question is directly related to the relationship between classroom anxiety and the learners' fluency factors such as speech rate, articulation rate, phonation time ratio and mean length of runs. For answering to the first minor research question, it is necessary to estimate the relationship between classroom anxiety as an independent variable and the four components of speech fluency as dependent variable separately through Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. It should be noted that this research has utilized the Pairwise Correlation between classroom anxiety (i.e. Independent Variable) and components of speech fluency (i.e. speech rate, articulation rate, phonation - time ratio & mean length of runs) associated with the last 11 participants of the study. More particularly, the mean anxiety of the last participants is ($M = 2.73$) that is less than 3 as mean of the FLCAS score. Generally, it seems that the participants almost experience less amount of classroom anxiety during their oral performance.

To interpret the Pearson Correlation Coefficient the 'eyeball' method is adopted. Salkind (2006) explained "there are two ways to interpret these general indicators of relationships. The first method is the 'eyeball' method, in which correlations of a certain value are associated with a certain nominal degree of relationship" (p. 196). Then he described the eyeball method as below:

TABLE 1.
CORRELATION OF A CERTAIN VALUE ARE ASSOCIATED WITH A CERTAIN NOMINAL DEGREE OF RELATIONSHIP

Correlation Between	Are said to be
.8 and 1.0	Very strong
.6 and .8	Strong
.4 and .6	Moderate
.2 and .4	Weak
.0 and .2	Very weak

Therefore, the Correlations' Coefficient Tables are ready to display as bellow:

TABLE 2.
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN ANXIETY AVERAGE AND SPEECH RATE CORRELATIONS

		Anxiety Average	Speech Rate
Anxiety Average	Pearson Correlation	1	.519
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.051
	N	11	11
Speech Rate	Pearson Correlation	.519	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.051	
	N	11	11

According to Table 2, it can be observed that (r) between two variables is ($r = 0.519$) with the level of significance ($p = 0.051$). With respect to the Pearson Correlation between classroom anxiety and speech rate ($r = 0.519$), and the related significant level ($p = 0.051$), it can be perceived that to some extent, there is positive correlation between the classroom anxiety average (i.e. low average of anxiety) and the speech rate, whereas $p > 0.05$ indicates that there non-significant interrelation between these two factors. With respect to the obtained p value which is close to 0.05, it can be perceived

that the less amount of anxiety has a trend to be correlated with the speech rate in the same direction, i.e., positive direction.

To interpret the Pearson Correlation Coefficient through the ‘eyeball’ method, it can be concluded that the obtained correlation between classroom anxiety and speech rate ($r = 0.519$) is located between correlations 0.4 and 0.6 (Table 1). In a nutshell, as can be seen in Table 1, there exists moderate degree of correlation between the learners’ low level of anxiety and speech rate as one of the indicators of speech fluency.

TABLE 3.
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN ANXIETY AVERAGE AND ARTICULATION RATE CORRELATIONS

		Anxiety Average	Articulation Rate
Anxiety Average	Pearson Correlation	1	.016
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.481
	N	11	11
Articulation Rate	Pearson Correlation	.016	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.481	
	N	11	11

As can be seen in Table 3, it appears that that (r) between two variables is ($r = 0.016$) with the level of significance ($p = 0.481$). With respect to the Pearson Correlation between classroom anxiety and articulation rate ($r = 0.016$), and related significant level ($p = 0.481$) the findings suggests that there exists no significant correlation between the classroom anxiety average (i.e. low average of anxiety) and articulation rate.

TABLE 4.
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN ANXIETY AVERAGE AND PHONATION TIME RATIO CORRELATIONS

		Anxiety Average	Phonation Time Ratio
Anxiety Average	Pearson Correlation	1	.706**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.008
	N	11	11
Phonation Time Ratio	Pearson Correlation	.706**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.008	
	N	11	11

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

With due attention to Table 4, it is seen that (r) between two variables is ($r = 0.706$) with the level of significance ($p = 0.008$). Considering the Pearson Correlation between classroom anxiety and phonation - time ratio ($r = 0.706$), and the related significant level ($p = 0.008$), which is ($p < 0.01$), the findings reveal that there is positive correlation between the classroom anxiety average (i.e. low average of anxiety) and the phonation - time ratio. It means that the less anxiety, the more phonation – time ratio will be produced.

To interpret the Pearson Correlation Coefficient through the ‘eyeball’ method, it can be concluded that the obtained correlation between classroom anxiety and phonation – time ratio ($r = 0.706$) is located between correlations 0.6 and 0.8 (Table 1). In the meantime, as can be seen in Table 1, there exists strong degree of correlation between the learners’ low level of anxiety and phonation – time ratio as one of the main indicators of speech fluency. Therefore, there is strong positive correlation between the two aforementioned variables.

TABLE 5.
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN ANXIETY AVERAGE AND MEAN LENGTH OF RUNS CORRELATIONS

		Anxiety Average	Mean Length of Runs
Anxiety Average	Pearson Correlation	1	.717**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.007
	N	11	11
Mean Length of Runs	Pearson Correlation	.717**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.007	
	N	11	11

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

According to Table 5, it is obvious that (r) between two variables is ($r = 0.717$), with the level of significance ($p = 0.007$). Considering the Pearson Correlation between classroom anxiety and phonation - time ratio ($r = 0.717$), and the related significant level ($p = 0.007$), which is ($p < 0.01$), the findings indicate that there is positive correlation between the classroom anxiety average (i.e. low average of anxiety) and the mean length of runs. It means that the less anxiety, the more mean length of runs will be produced by the learners.

To interpret the Pearson Correlation Coefficient through the ‘eyeball’ method, it can be concluded that the achieved correlation between classroom anxiety and mean length of runs ($r = 0.717$), is located between correlations 0.6 and 0.8 (Table 1). Meanwhile, as can be seen in Table 1, there exists strong degree of correlation between the learners’ low level of anxiety and mean length of runs as one of the main indicators of speech fluency. Therefore, there is strong positive correlation between the two aforementioned variables. Focusing on the effects of Classroom Anxiety (CA) on the learners’ fluency factors, the present study has shown, to a great extent, low amount of anxiety could be correlated to aforementioned factors.

Considering the last major research question, the researchers endeavored to collect the data from the qualitative self-made questionnaire. The obtained results of the self-made qualitative questionnaire from Guilan University professors’ opinions were taken into account as some guidelines for reducing classroom anxiety which occurs in EFL learners, especially in the case of high anxious ones. The results reveal that there seem to be partly consensus among these professors over the issue of using some strategies in order to alleviate classroom anxiety during students’ oral performance. These joint opinions among the instructors can be listed as below:

1) Postpone error correction to after the lecture is over. Thus, it is better not to correct students when they are giving a lecture. If correction is done gently when the presentation is over, the students will feel more confident to present their lectures.

2) Asking the class to keep quiet while the presentation in progress, if the students make some noises while a student is presenting.

3) Informing the class, before the presentation, of the topic and the presenter’s treatment of it. Also, the task should be made clear by the course instructor and the way the performance is to be carried out is to be fully disclosed.

These teachers are consensus of postponing error correction, supplying a quiet and confident situation for students in order to reduce their tension, and making the task clear for students.

As it is obvious, indirect findings of the research are those, which are concerned with other findings of the research; although inferential findings are important, they are not directly related to the research questions. In this context, an important issue which can be affected by speech fluency will be considered, and it refers to speech accuracy. In the meantime, the results of speech accuracy relative to the last participants are interpreted qualitatively. Therefore, more attention has been paid to the obtained results of speech accuracy relative to the both speech fluency and classroom anxiety of the learners. The following table is illustrative:

TABLE 6.
SPEECH FLUENCY FACTORS, SPEECH ACCURACY AND ANXIETY SCORES OF THE LAST PARTICIPANTS

The Last Participants	Speech Fluency Factors				Accuracy Percent	Anxiety Score
	Speech Rate	Articulation Rate	Phonation Time Ratio	Mean Length of Runs		
↓ Speech Rate						
Participant 11	154.80	218.40	0.71	5.99	88%	3.18
Participant 4	147	198	0.74	5.60	92%	2.75
Participant 8	134.40	198	0.67	4.56	78%	3.39
Participant 2	128.40	152.40	0.84	6.61	75%	3.57
Participant 9	122.40	186	0.66	4.17	77%	2.51
Participant 7	118.80	166.20	0.71	5.21	70%	2.39
Participant 5	118.80	165	0.72	4.56	83%	2.57
Participant 10	116.40	193.80	0.60	3.41	85%	2.24
Participant 6	101.40	166.20	0.61	3.02	76%	2.12
Participant 3	99.60	177.60	0.56	3.17	77%	2.36
Participant 1	98.40	136.80	0.71	4.02	70%	3.03

As can be observed in table 6, all of the participants are ranked in descending order relative to speech rate. As it will be explained in discussion, speech rate and mean length of runs are known as more suitable indicators of speech fluency than the other two factors i.e. articulation rate or phonation time ratio. Table 6 divides the participants into three categories: 1) the first four students that seem to be more fluent than the others, 2) the second four students whom they are less fluent than the first group, and 3) the last three students that neither strong signs of fluency, nor strong signs of accuracy can be observed in them. The table and figures indicates that participants number 11 & 4, who achieved the highest scores in speech rate (154.80 & 147, respectively) and mean length of runs (5.99 & 5.60, respectively) as the two main indicators of fluency; also, these two participants were more accurate in language production (88% & 92%, respectively) than the others. The participant number 8 wasn’t in a condition similar to the first two counterparts; as it is seen, he attained the third grade in speech rate among the last 11 participants of the table, whereas the results for mean length of runs (4.56) and speech accuracy percent (78%) weren’t expected in value compared to most fluent and accurate participants (i.e. Participants 11 & 4); it may be because he was the first presenter, and he was really mixed up as he had told during the performance. It is noticeable that with respect to the anxiety score, he would be considered as slightly anxious student. Although participants 8 & 2 can be considered at the top four participants of the table in the speech rate ranking and also the participant number 2 attained the fourth grade in speech rate (128.4) with the best mean length of runs among all the last participants’ sample (6.61), both of them failed to gain high accuracy percent, and this

happened because they were slightly anxious (3.39 & 3.57, respectively). Thus, it can be concluded that the more fluent learners will be able to produce more accurate sentences, unless anxiety act as an obstacle in the way of being accurate.

The results of analysis for the second four students suggest that there were not found noticeable amount of differences in fluency factors among these four participants (i.e. participants 9, 7, 5 & 10). The participants 9 & 7 were less accurate (77%, 70%, respectively) compared to participants 5 & 10, despite the fact that all of them were considered as not very anxious student. There are some reasons for this discrepancy. Firstly, participants 7 & 9 didn't pay more attention to the sentence structure and time sequence of their utterances which they have produced, so this was the reason of being less accurate. Secondly, on one hand, participants 5 & 10 correct themselves by using repairs or restarts, just when errors found by them. So, incorrect clauses which they produced turned into correct clauses (by using repairs & restarts). Naturally, these clauses were not taken into account as ungrammatical structures. On the other hand, with regard to their anxiety scores (2.57 & 2.24, respectively), participants 5 & 10 were categorized as not very anxious students. So we can conclude that the low amount of classroom anxiety may reinforce speech accuracy. Considering the table 6, the results of accuracy analysis for the last three participants (i.e. participants 6, 3, & 1) indicates that they weren't fluent at all, because there were no sign of fluency on their oral narrative performances. Accordingly, accuracy of speech production in these three participants was not placed in a high degree as well as some other colleagues. Therefore, there were neither fluent nor accurate.

V. DISCUSSION

The quantitative direct findings of this study indicate that there exist some variables which can be counted as strong and reliable predictors of fluency scores, especially for non-native speaker judges such as phonation time ratio and mean length of runs. The Pairwise Pearson Correlation Coefficient between classroom anxiety and each of the aforementioned indicators of fluency that has been done separately indicates that these two variables, as mentioned above, can be considered as the more strong indicators, whereas the other factor, i.e., articulation rate, cannot be considered as a good predictor. Considering speech rate, the correlation is non-significant. In table 1, the researchers explained the degree of relationship between two variables through the 'eyeball' method. Regarding this, table 2 shows there is a moderate positive correlation between the low degree of classroom anxiety and speech rate. As can be seen in this table, the correlation between the anxiety score and speech rate is non-significant, but it can be assumed that there is a trend for correlation of these two variables. Conclusively, if a more population sample were assessed, a more powerful degree of correlation between anxiety score and speech rate might be perceived. About Table 3, it can be claimed that there is no significant relationship between classroom anxiety in average, and articulation rate, as some previous studies claimed it too. Chambers (1997) states that "becoming fluent therefore is not about speaking faster (articulation rate), but about pausing less at appropriate junctures in an utterance" (Prefontaine, 2010, p. 137). Also considering Tables 4 & 5, the results reveal that there are strong positive correlations between low average amount of classroom anxiety in value and phonation time ratio in table 4, and strong positive correlations between low classroom anxiety average and mean length of runs in table 5. Thus, it can be claimed that above mentioned fluency factors can be correlated positively with the mean of anxiety for the last 11 participants ($M = 2.73$) that is lower than the mean anxiety for FLCAS ($M = 3$) in value. Kormos and Denes (2004) believed that the mean length of runs and speech rate were also found to be good indicators for speech fluency. "Phonation time ratio and mean length of pauses were also related to fluency scores, but this relationship was weaker than in the case of the mean length of runs and speech rate" (ibid, p. 161).

The findings also indicate that the relationship between fluency factors and mean anxiety average (anxiety average score: total scores obtained from 33 FLCAS items, which is divided by 33 as total number of items) for the last 11 participants ($M = 2.73$, $M < 3$) were estimated through Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The mean anxiety for the last participants ($M = 2.73$) indicates that, this figure ($M < 3$) shows the average of FLCAS score, and it means that the last participants of the study are *totally* considered as not very anxious students, because the obtained mean score of classroom anxiety is less than three as a normal average. From another perspective, by individual consideration of participants, the present study suggests that the classroom anxiety cannot be counted as a deterrent variable all the times. Sometimes less amount of it may causes quickness in speaking, as it happened in the more anxious participants, among the last samples of the present study. As can be deliberated in Table 6, three participants (11, 8 & 2), who have acquired anxiety score more than 3 (slightly anxious students), they are ranked at the top of the table in terms of the most important predictors for speech fluency (speech rate & mean length of the runs). Thus, they could acquire acceptable fluency scores rather than the others; only participant number 4 was ranked at the second place among the not very anxious learners in Table 6, exactly as the researchers encountered some exclusion during the research. With respect to all foregoing, the study can claim that the low amount of foreign language anxiety can be correlated to the most important fluency predictors.

Concerning the learner's speech accuracy, with little attention to Table 6, indirect findings of the study indicate that the more fluent participants will be able to produce more accurate utterances (Participants 11 & 4), unless classroom anxiety acts as an obstacle in the way of being accurate (Participants 8 & 2). In contrast, the students who feel less anxious, they will be able to produce more accurate speech (Participants 5 & 10). Also, there is a third group of students

(Participants 9 & 7), who they don't pay attention to either the sentence structures or time sequence of their utterances which they have produced, so this can be one of the reasons for being less accurate.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study investigated "The Effect of Classroom Anxiety on EFL Learner's Oral Narratives Fluency: The Case of Intermediate Level Students. The mixed-method research was employed in this study. In the quantitative section of the study, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was measured. Also in the research we analyzed speech samples collected from 11 Iranian L2 learners including 5 male and 6 female students; thus, we calculated fluency factors by annually. Additionally, the relationship between the mean average of classroom anxiety with fluency factors for the last participants are measured through Pairwise Pearson Correlation Coefficient in both males and females relative to their specific level of anxiety, and related numeric data analyzed statistically. The results of the correlational study revealed that the mean amount of anxiety score among the last participant samples ($M = 2.73$) is less than the mean average of anxiety ($M < 3$), and the low value of anxiety can be correlated positively with the most important predictors of speech fluency. In the quantitative part of the research, existed amount of speech accuracy for the last participants represented by percentage. Thus, the qualitative results revealed that the more fluent participants will be able to produce more accurate utterances, unless classroom anxiety acts as an obstacle in the way of being accurate. In contrast, the students who feel less anxious, they will be able to produce more accurate speech. Finally, self-made questionnaire, including a fundamental question about available strategies of reducing anxiety (especially in relation to high anxious students) was given to some experienced professors of Guilan University as a voting sheet in order to collect their opinions.

APPENDIX A. PERSIAN VERSION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS) QUESTIONNAIRE

نام و نام خانوادگی:					برگه سنجش میزان هیجان کلاسی زبان بیگانه برای پاسخ به هر سوال یکی از قسمت‌های زیر را انتخاب کنید	
(1) کاملاً مخالفم	(2) مخالفم	(3) نظری ندارم	(4) موافقم	(5) کاملاً موافقم	جملات	ردیف
					زمانی که در کلاس زبان انگلیسی صحبت می‌کنم، هرگز به خود اعتماد به نفس کامل ندارم.	1
					من درباره‌ی اشتباه کردن در کلاس زبان نگران نیستم.	2
					زمانی که در کلاس زبان بخوانم صدایم بلند می‌شود، به خود می‌لرزم.	3
					وقتی نمی‌فهمم معلم به زبان انگلیسی چه می‌گوید، می‌ترسم.	4
					شرکت در کلاسهای متعدد زبان، مرا ناراحت نمی‌کند.	5
					اغلب متوجه می‌شوم که در طی کلاس‌های زبان به موارد بی‌ارتباط با موضوع درس فکر می‌کنم.	6
					مدام فکر می‌کنم که بقیه‌ی دانش‌آموزان در کلاس زبان از من بهتر هستند.	7
					هنگام امتحان زبان در کلاس احساس راحتی می‌کنم.	8
					وقتی باید بدون آمادگی در کلاس زبان صحبت کنم دچار ترس می‌شوم.	9
					راجع به عواقب مردودی در کلاس زبان انگلیسی نگران می‌شوم.	10
					اینکه بعضی از افراد در کلاس زبان دچار ناتوانی می‌شوند برای من قابل درک نیست.	11
					در کلاس زبان، از اینکه چیزهایی که می‌دانم را فراموش کنم، بسیار عصبی می‌شوم.	12
					از اینکه برای پاسخ به سوالات در کلاس زبان داوطلب شوم خجالت می‌کنم.	13
					از اینکه با انگلیسی زبانان به انگلیسی صحبت کنم عصبی نمی‌شوم.	14
					وقتی آنچه را که معلم تصحیح می‌کند متوجه نمی‌شوم اشفته می‌شوم.	15
					حتی اگر برای کلاس زبان خوب آماده شده باشم درباره‌ی آن احساس دلواپسی می‌کنم.	16
					اغلب احساس می‌کنم که دوست دارم به کلاس زبان نروم.	17
					وقتی در کلاس زبان صحبت می‌کنم، اعتماد به نفس دارم.	18
					از این می‌ترسم که معلم زبان آماده‌ی تصحیح هر یک اشتباهاتم است.	19
					زمانیکه قرار است نام من در کلاس خوانده شود، تپش قلب خود را احساس می‌کنم.	20
					هر چقدر برای ازمون درس بخوانم، به همان اندازه گیج می‌شوم.	21
					نیاز به آمادگی زیادی را جهت حضور در کلاس زبان احساس نمی‌کنم.	22
					همیشه احساس می‌کنم که دانش‌آموزان دیگر زبان خارجی را بهتر از من صحبت می‌کنند.	23
					هنگام صحبت کردن به زبان انگلیسی در مقابل سایر دانشجویان احساس کمروبی می‌کنم.	24
					کلاس زبان انچنان سریع به پیش می‌رود که درباره‌ی عقب ماندن نگران می‌شوم.	25
					در کلاسهای زبان نسبت به سایر کلاسها، تنش بیشتری را احساس می‌کنم.	26

(1) کاملاً مخالفم	(2) مخالفم	(3) نظری ندارم	(4) موافقم	(5) کاملاً موافقم	جملات	ردیف
					هنگامی که در کلاس زبان، به انگلیسی صحبت می کنم هیجان عصبی و گیج می شوم.	27
					در راه رفتن به سمت کلاس زبان احساس آرامش و اطمینان می کنم.	28
					وقتی هر کلمه ای را که معلم زبان می گوید نمی فهمم ، عصبی می شوم.	29
					تعداد و شمار قواعد لازم جهت یادگیری و صحبت کردن به زبان انگلیسی مرا دستپاچه می کند.	30
					از اینکه سایر دانشجویان هنگام تکلم به زبان انگلیسی به من بخندند می ترسم.	31
					احتمالاً در گفتگو به انگلیسی در کنار انگلیسی زبانها احساس راحتی می کنم.	32
					زمانی که معلم زبان سوالاتی را می پرسد که از قبل آماده نکرده ام، عصبی میشوم.	33

APPENDIX B. QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SHEET

Interviewer:	Interviewee:
Date:	Instructional Experiences:
Interview No:	Field of Study:

1) Which strategies do you prefer as a professor to alleviate classroom anxiety during student's oral performance?

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Omid Sanaei was born in the city of Kermanshah, Iran on 5th of May 1985. In 2009 he graduated from Azad University of Tonekabon, Mazandaran, Iran and got B.A. Degree in “English Translation”. He holds on M.A. in TEFL at University of Guilan, Iran. The title of his M.A. thesis is “The Effect of Classroom Anxiety on EFL Learner’s Oral Narratives Fluency: The Case of Intermediate Level Students”. He is particularly interested in doing research within the domain of psychology of Second Language Acquisition, and personality traits such as affective factors.



Amir Mahdavi Zafarghandi is an associate professor at University of Guilan. He did his PhD on SLA at Essex University, U.K. He has long been offering undergraduate and postgraduate courses in the field of English Language Teaching, during which time he has supervised and advised over 20 M.A. dissertations, presented his papers in national and international conferences, and published numerous research reports in professional journals.



Masoud Khalili Sabet, PH.D in applied linguistics (University of Isfahan, 2006), is currently assistant professor and the Faculty's vice dean in charge of research affairs as well as a member of English Department presenting EFL courses at the University of Guilan. His major teaching and research interests as well as (inter) national conference paper themes include L1 & L2 syntax acquisition, L2 reading and writing strategies, ESP and testing English as L2.

A Comparative Study of Evidentiality in Abstracts of English and Chinese Research Articles

Linxiu Yang

Foreign Languages School, Shanxi University, Taiyuan, Shanxi, China

Yu Tian

Foreign Languages School, Shanxi University, Taiyuan, Shanxi, China

Abstract—This paper is a comparative study of evidentiality in abstracts of English and Chinese research articles. This study chooses 50 English linguistics abstracts and 50 Chinese linguistics abstracts. This paper first describes the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentiality both in English and Chinese linguistics abstracts. Then, it specifically compares the use of reporting evidentials and inferring evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts. The findings are: the frequency of evidential use in English abstracts is higher than that in Chinese abstracts; the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentiality in English abstracts are much more various and complex than those in Chinese abstracts. Besides, the analysis and comparison of the use of reporting and inferring evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts shows that the objectivity of English abstracts is higher than that of Chinese abstracts, and accordingly, the Chinese writers may bear higher responsibility for the information than English writers do. This study may be beneficial to the learning and teaching of academic writing in China, and on the other hand, it will enrich the study of evidentiality in academic discourses.

Index Terms—evidentiality, lexicogrammatical realizations, abstracts of English and Chinese research articles

I. INTRODUCTION

Evidentiality is a pervasive linguistic phenomenon in almost all languages in the world and there have been many studies concerning it from various angles. This paper studies evidentiality in abstracts of English and Chinese research articles (RAs in the following). It describes the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentiality both in English and Chinese linguistics abstracts in great detail and tries to find the similarities and differences between the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentiality in English and Chinese abstracts.

II. RELATIVE STUDIES ON EVIDENTIALITY AND RESEARCH ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

A. *Relative Studies on Evidentiality*

American Anthropologist Boas in 1911 first found that a kind of grammatical realization in American Indian can be used to express the information source and the degree of commitment (Boas, 1911). Since then the linguists have paid more attention to this kind of phenomenon and they called it evidentiality and the lexicogrammatical realizations are called evidentials. The initial stage of evidential researches focused on describing the grammaticalised evidential systems of the highly inflectional languages. The milestone of the development of evidential studies is the publishing of *Evidentiality: The linguistic coding of epistemology* (Chafe & Nichols, 1986). From then on, scholars have studied evidentiality from different perspectives.

Chafe (1986) defines evidentiality in the broad sense. According to Chafe (1986), evidentiality not only refers to the information sources, but also the speaker's attitude toward the information. In his study, he indicates that there are differences in the evidential use between the academic writings and conversations.

Aikhenvald & Dixon (2003) and Aikhenvald (2004) are the representatives of defining evidentiality in the narrow sense. In their opinion, evidentiality is only used to indicate the information source. In their studies, they make more efforts on evidentiality in different languages, especially in some lesser known languages, but they only pay attention to the grammatical evidentials without giving attention to the lexical ones. Aikhenvald (2003, 2004) examines over 500 languages and finds that not all languages have evidentiality as a grammatical category. Willet (1988) compares the grammatical evidentials in thirty-eight languages.

In China, evidentiality has also been approached by scholars from different perspectives. The first type is the introduction of evidentiality, and the representative is Hu (1994, 1995). The second type is the use of evidentiality to analyze certain discourses, such as Yang (2009), Wang (2009) and Cui (2014). Yang (2009) studies the evidentiality in applied linguistics and proposes her classification of evidentiality based on the characteristics of RAs. Cui (2014) makes

a comparative study of the use of verbal evidentials in English and Chinese RAs, whose findings show that there are significant differences in the use of verbal evidentials between English and Chinese RAs. He just pays attention to the verbal evidentials and ignores other kinds of evidentials, such as noun evidentials, adjunct evidentials and so on. The third is the study of evidentiality in Chinese, such as Zhu (2006) and Ma (2011). Zhu (2006) pays much attention to the evidentiality in Chinese and illustrates the unique expressions of the semantics of Chinese evidentials, but he just gives the general description of Chinese evidentials without studying it in certain type of discourse. Ma (2011) classifies the types of evidentials in spoken mandarin Chinese and develops a hierarchy for the evidentiality in terms of degree of reliability.

In the previous studies above, we can see that although achievements have been made, more work still need to be done in the studies of evidentiality. First, studies of Chinese evidentials are few and there are almost no studies of the description of lexicogrammatical realizations of Chinese evidentials in great detail. Second, there are few studies about the comparative study of evidentiality in English and Chinese evidentials. It is right here that this study finds its research space.

B. *Relative Studies on Research Article Abstracts*

Research article abstracts are the important parts of RAs, and they are the concentration of the RAs and the writers' ideas. The studies of abstracts have attracted the attention of scholars, for example, Graetz (1985), Swales (1990), and Bhatia (1993). Swales (1990) indicates that the "Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion" (IMRD) macro-structure is also suited to the abstracts. Ju (2004) compares the macro-structure of English and Chinese abstracts based on the IMRD framework. Other scholars, for example, Ge (2005) studies not only the macro-structure, but also the linguistic features of abstracts. She makes a cross-disciplinary study of the abstracts of electronic engineering, finance and surgery RAs based on the IMRD framework. Zeng (2005) and Teng (2008) study the hedges and modifiers respectively in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs. Huang (2012) studies evidentiality in abstracts of English RAs and shows that writers consciously use evidentiality to express their ideas and findings in their abstracts writing.

The previous studies of abstracts include the macro-structure and lexicogrammatical features of abstracts and the studies also touch upon the cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary studies of abstracts, but few efforts have been made to a systematic study to evidentiality in abstracts. Therefore, the evidential angle is a potential and new way to understand the abstracts deeply. In addition, there are not any comparative studies of evidentiality in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs.

In sum, studies of Chinese evidentials are few and there are almost no studies of the description of lexicogrammatical realizations of Chinese evidentials in detail. Studies of evidentiality in abstracts are few and no comparative study of evidentiality in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs. Therefore, this paper compares the use of evidentiality in English and Chinese abstracts to explore the influence of cultural factors on the writers' choice of evidentiality in their abstracts writing. In addition, this paper will describe the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentiality in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs in detail, which will enrich the study of evidentiality in academic discourses.

III. METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

This research establishes two corpora: abstracts of English and Chinese linguistics RAs. Each corpus consists of 50 abstracts of RAs. The total word number of abstracts of English and Chinese RAs is 8036 and 8912 respectively. The English linguistics RAs are randomly chosen from the Internet (www.Elsevier.com). The chosen journals of this study are: *Journal of Pragmatics*, *Lingua*, *Language & Communication*, *Cognition*, *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* and so on. The word number of abstracts in English linguistic RAs is similar. The Chinese linguistic RAs are randomly selected from the authoritative journals of Chinese linguistics. The journals, such as, *Contemporary Linguistics*, *Journal of Foreign language teaching*, *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* are selected.

The data-coding of this research is by doing sampling manually at the first stage to identify all the potential lexicogrammatical realizations of the different evidential types. Then, different markers are adopted to tag the lexicogrammatical realizations of the different evidentiality in the text documents. Besides, the software Antconc 3.2.4 is adopted to count and show all the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentials and the concordance patterns of evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts. Finally, Microsoft Office Excel is used to draw the figures accordingly.

This study adopts quantitative method. By showing the results of data analysis of different evidential types, the author draws a picture of the lexicogrammatical realizations and the distribution of evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts. By showing the similarities and differences between the use of evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts, its aim is to explore the influence of cultural factors on the writers' choice of evidentials in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs.

IV. HOW IS EVIDENTIALITY LINGUISTICALLY MANIFESTED IN ABSTRACTS OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE RAs

As we have indicated, evidentiality can be defined in the broad sense and in the narrow sense. This paper takes the view of evidentiality in the broad sense, that is, evidentiality, is not only used to refer to the source of information, but also refer to the speaker's attitude toward the information. In this paper, we accept the classification of Yang (2009) and

classify evidentials into four types: inferring evidentials, reporting evidentials, sensory evidentials and belief evidentials. Then how evidentiality is linguistically manifested in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs?

A. *Lexicogrammatical Realizations of Evidentiality in Abstracts of English RAs*

As we have illustrated, this paper classifies evidentials into four types: inferring evidentials, reporting evidentials, sensory evidentials and belief evidentials. The following part will describe the lexicogrammatical realizations of the four evidential types in English abstracts one by one.

1. **Inferring evidentials**

Inferring evidentials are classified into two types: inference and assumption. According to Yang (2009), inference involves an inferential process based on visible evidences, while assumption indicates an inferential process based on logic reasoning, sheer assumption or general knowledge (Yang, 2009). Based on the corpus, inferring evidentials in abstracts of English RAs are realized mainly by modal verbs, modal adjectives and relational process.

Modal verbs are the most typical realizations of inferring evidentials, for example, *shall, should, can, may, will, would, could etc.* The different modal verbs can indicate different degrees of modal values and different degrees of commitment to the factual status of the information (Yang, 2009). For example:

(1) Consequently, theories of ‘language’, including both pragmatics and linguistics, **must** be ‘liberated’ from the reference- or semantics-centric perspectives; instead, they **should** start from ‘the bottom up’, from the deictic center of sociocultural interaction, i.e., ‘discourse’.

(2) This paper argues that closer attention to social factors, and especially to power relations, **may** enrich the theoretical study of language.

Different modal verbs are used in the above examples. The three modal verbs have different modal values, for instance, *must* has higher value than *should* in (1), and *should* has higher value than *may* in (2). The three modal verbs indicate the writer’s different degrees of commitment to the factual status of the proposition he present. The writer in (1) bears higher responsibility for the information than the writer does in (2).

Modal adjectives are usually used with *it* structure. In the corpus of English abstracts, the only one form is *it’s possible that*. It will be illustrated in the following example.

(3) On the other hand, **it is possible that** the assertive mode is subsumed under the evidential system in some languages or under the speech acts system in others.

In the above example, the author uses *it is possible that* to modify the proposition “the assertive mode is subsumed...”. With the use of modal adjectives, the writers express their opinions toward the proposition in an objective way, which matches the objectivity of RAs.

The relational process can also be used to realize the inferring evidentials, such as, *seem to*, and *it (would) seem that* etc. For example:

(4) **It would seem that** Caffarel’s suggestion supplies an alternative way of looking at the interpersonal metafunction rather than a structure which distinguishes between English and French.

In sum, inferring evidentials can be realized by three types of lexicogrammatical realizations based on the corpus of English abstracts. The writers use different inferring evidentials to indicate his different degrees of certainty to the information, and at the same time, different inferring evidentials can also show the writers’ intrusion into the propositions subjectively or objectively, and either in an explicit or in an implicit way.

2. **Reporting evidential**

Reporting evidentials include self-reporting evidentials and other-reporting evidentials. Self-reporting evidentials indicate that information is acquired from or related to the writer’s own researches, while other-reporting evidentials indicate that information sources are others’ researches, arguments and experiments etc. Reporting evidentials can be realized by several types of lexicogrammatical forms.

First, (author + date) form can be used to realize reporting evidentials. This kind of form occurs frequently in the corpus of English abstracts. For example:

(5) In essence, by not giving direct answers, the examples underscore the creative and powerful crafting of political discourse by skilled speakers to assuage the appearance of culpability in actions or inactions which could prove politically damaging while providing “appropriate” responses (Berlin, 2007; Harris, 1991; Janney, 2002) within the context of an investigative hearing.

In the above example, the author uses (Berlin, 2007; Harris, 1991; Janney, 2002) to indicate that the information is acquired from Berlin, Harris and Janney. In this way, the writers cite the opinions, findings and arguments of the authoritative to strengthen the persuasion of their opinions and findings. This is a typical realization that is adopted by writers in English abstracts.

Second, verbal forms can also be used to realize reporting evidentials. Based on the corpus of English abstracts, several examples will be illustrated in the following.

(6) This paper **argues that** closer attention to social factors, and especially to power relations, may enrich the theoretical study of language. It takes its departure from Searle’s work in the philosophy of language and on the foundations of social reality.

(7) While everyone **agrees that** slurs are offensive, there is disagreement about the linguistic mechanism responsible for this offensiveness.

(8) On the basis of the analysis **it can also be concluded that**, in the absence of pragmatic information, use or interpretation predicted by grammar can often be evaluated as only typical or even underspecified, and, if the context is more specific, it can determine the utterance meaning to a greater degree.

(9) Furthermore, the three types of interpretations offered to the participants: ORIGINATING IN, RECIPE FROM and REMINDS OF, **were shown** to form an implicational hierarchy, which could explain the “asymmetric” preferences attributed to them by the participants in the experiments.

In the above examples, we can see that three kinds of verbal forms are used by the writers: *verb+ that* structure in (6) and (7), *it is verbed that* structure in (8) and *be verbed* structure in (9). The above examples show that the information sources can be human, nonhuman, or even concealed, either specific or unspecific, for example, in (6) and (8) the information source is nonhuman and specific, while the information in (7) is acquired from the unspecific human and in (9) the information source is concealed by the writer.

Third, nouns can also be used to realize reporting evidentials. Based on the data, the nouns used in the English abstracts are *claim*, *view*, *conclusion*, and *proposal*. For example:

(10) These definitions include reference to the speech act participants, a point which supports **the view that** what-d’you-call-it words can be considered deictic.

Based on the corpus, the nouns are usually used together with *that* structure, as in the above example *the view that*.

Fourth, adjuncts are forms which can also be used to realize reporting evidentials. The adjuncts in the English abstracts are *according to X*, *in X’s approach*. Example will be showed in the following.

(11) **According to Caffarel** the interpersonal analysis of the French clause is in terms of a Negotiator and a Remainder, where the obligatory components of the Negotiator are the Finite, the Subject, and the Predicator.

As we have discussed, reporting evidentials are divided into self-reporting evidentials and other-reporting evidentials. Adjunct forms of reporting evidentials are usually adopted to realize other-reporting evidentials. In the above example, with the use of adjunct forms, the writer indicates the information source without showing the evaluation of the information and the information source. The adjunct forms of reporting evidentials are objective which matches the objective nature of RAs.

3. Sensory evidential

Sensory evidentials indicate that the information is acquired from the writer’s first-hand experience. The information sources are various sensory channels. Sensory evidential occurs only once in English abstracts, just as Chafe (1986) has found very low frequencies of sensory evidentials in his studies of evidentiality in spoken and academic English. The case is illustrated in the following example.

(12) Second, **we will see that** their evidential meaning can be reconstructed step by step by taking into account such a dialogical value as well as the lexical meaning of the verb they are compounded with.

In (12), sensory evidential is realized by *personal pronoun plus see*. The writer uses *we will see* to show that the information is from the writer’s sensory channel. Sensory evidentials are relatively subjective which is opposite to the objective nature of RAs. This may be the reason why the frequency of sensory evidentials is very low in English abstracts.

4. Belief evidential

Belief evidentials indicate that information comes from the writer’s opinion, either in a subjective or in an objective way. In the 50 passages of English abstracts, the belief evidentials are: *we argue that*, *I/ shall/will argue that*, *it is/ will be argued that*. The verbal form of *argue* is adopted by the writers to demonstrate the writers’ opinions without the use of other mental-state verbal forms. Some examples will be listed in the following.

(13) In this paper **I argue that**, far from discarding the insights of Grice, Austin and others, a discursive approach to interpersonal pragmatics IV should embrace those aspects of non-discursive pragmatics that provide us with a ‘tool-kit’ and a vocabulary for examining talk-ininteraction.

(14) As to (ii), **it will be argued that**, in a first stage, *se faire* has been increasingly used in contexts that display subjective perspectivation of the change of state.

In (13), the writer shows his opinion towards the proposition in a subjective way, while in (14) the writer expresses his opinion in an objective way. The objective way of expressing the writers’ opinion is much more persuasive and easier to be accepted by the readers.

The above has shown the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentiality in abstracts of English RAs. The following section will show the lexicogrammatical realizations of the four types of evidentials in abstracts of Chinese RAs.

B. Lexicogrammatical Realizations of Evidentiality in Abstracts of Chinese RAs

1. Inferring evidential

As we have discussed, inferring evidentials indicate that information is based on what has been observed or known. Based on the corpus, inferring evidentials in the Chinese abstracts can be realized by modal verbs, modal adjuncts, but no modal adjectives and relational process occurs in Chinese abstracts.

Modal verbs are the most frequently used realizations of inferring evidentials in Chinese abstracts, such as 应/应该/应当 (ying /ying gai /ying dang, should), 可/可以 (ke/ke yi, can), 必须 (bi xu, must) and so on. For example:

(15) 作者认为,社会语言学应逐步建立完善的理论范式,其内部应当建立可同其他相关学科参比的学科评判标准,提高学术声望度。

zuo zhe ren wei she hui yu yan xue ying zhu bu jian li wan shan de li lun fan shi qi nei bu ying dang jian li ke tong qi ta xiang guan xue ke can bi de xue ke ping pan biao zhun ti gao xue shu sheng wang du

(16) 乔氏理论在总体上是失败的,但是它^{可以}启发人们进一步思考更接近语言实际的理论,也有助于了解其他当代语言学流派产生的背景。

qiao shi li lun zai zong ti shang shi shi bai de dan shi ta ke yi qi fa ren men jin yi bu si kao geng jie jin yu yan shi ji de li lun ye you zhu yu liao jie qi ta dang dai yu yan xue liu pai chan sheng de bei jing

In the above examples, the writers use different modal verbs to illustrate different degrees of modal values, for example, 应/应当(ying/ying dang, should) in (15) has higher value than 可以(ke yi, can) in (16), and meanwhile the writer in (15) bears higher responsibility than the writer in (16) does.

Modal adjuncts in Chinese abstracts can also be used to realize inferring evidentials. In Chinese abstracts, only one form is adopted, that is 尝试性地(chang shi xing de, tentatively), the case will be illustrated in the following.

(17) 本文对“认知语言学”的定义进行了考证和评析, 尝试性地勾画出认知语言学的基本理论框架。

ben wen dui ren zhi yu yan xue de ding yi jin xing le kao zheng he ping xi chang shi xing de gou hua chu ren zhi yu yan xue de ji ben li lun kuang jia

In the above example, with the use of 尝试性地(chang shi xing de, tentatively), the writer expresses their uncertainty toward the proposition. In this way, the writer spares the spaces for the discussion about the information.

2. Reporting evidential

As we have discussed above, reporting evidentials can be classified into self-reporting evidentials and other-reporting evidentials. Reporting evidentials in Chinese abstracts can also be realized by verbal forms, (author + date) form, and adjuncts. Noun patterns don't appear in Chinese abstracts.

Verbal forms are the most frequently used realizations of reporting evidentials based on Chinese corpus. The typical verbs are: 提出(ti chu, propose), 强调(qiang diao, emphasize), 说明(shuo ming, show), 认为(ren wei, think) and so on. Some examples will be illustrated in the following.

(18) 本文在分析、讨论这些模式的基础上, 提出要重新认识语言学能的结构, 创新语言学能测试。

ben wen zai fen xi tao lun zhe xie mo shi de ji chu shang ti chu yao chong xin ren shi yu yan xue neng de jie gou chuang xin yu yan xue neng ce shi

(19) 作者认为,社会语言学应逐步建立完善的理论范式,其内部应当建立可同其他相关学科参比的学科评判标准,提高学术声望度。

zuo zhe ren wei she hui yu yan xue ying zhu bu jian li wan shan de li lun fan shi qi nei bu ying dang jian li ke tong qi ta xiang guan xue ke can bi de xue ke ping pan biao zhun ti gao xue shu sheng wang du

In the above examples, the writers use verbal forms to show that the information sources are either from their own opinions or extra sources. The writers offer the specific information sources and emphasize the information sources rather than the information itself. The information sources can also be human or nonhuman, specific or unspecific. Concealed information source doesn't occur in Chinese abstracts. For example, 本文(ben wen, this paper) in (18) is nonhuman, and 作者(zuo zhe, the author) in (19) is human and specific.

(Author+ date) form can also be used to realize reporting evidentials. Only one case of this form occurs in Chinese abstracts. It will be shown in the following.

(20) 潘文国和谭慧敏的新著《对比语言学:历史与哲学思考》给了我们一个理性的认识:一个学科理论体系的建立依靠两项基础工程,那就是学科理论史和范畴系统的研究。

pan wen guo he tan hui min de xin zhu dui bi yu yan xue li shi yu zhe xue si kao gei le wo men yi ge li xing de ren shi yi ge xue ke li lun ti xi de jian li yi kao liang xiang ji chu gong cheng na jiu shi xue ke li lun shi he fan chou xi tong de yan jiu

It is not the typical (author+ date) form in (20), it is realized by authors+ writing. The writer uses the form to indicate that the information is acquired from the new writing of *Pan Wenguo and Tan Huimin*. In this way, the author strengthens the persuasion of his information by mentioning the writing of *Pan Wenguo and Tan Huimin*.

Reporting evidentials can also be realized by adjuncts in Chinese abstracts. The typically used adjuncts in Chinese abstracts are: 以... 为参照点(yi ... wei can zhao dian, in terms of...), 根据(gen ju, according to). Only these two forms occur in Chinese abstracts. For example:

(21) 本文以索绪尔的普通语言学理论为参照点, 围绕语言、符号与社会的关系, 对近一个世纪的当代语言学的发展进行了梳理。

ben wen yi suo xu er de pu tong yu yan xue li lun wei can zhao dian wei rao yu yan fu hao yu she hui de guan xi dui jin yi ge shi ji de dang dai yu yan xue de fa zhan jin xing le shu li

In the above example, the writer uses adjuncts to indicate that the information is acquired from extra sources rather than the writers' own studies and arguments. Just like reporting adjuncts in English abstracts, adjunct reporting evidentials in Chinese abstracts are usually adopted in other-reporting evidentials. In the above example, the writer

adopts Saussure's general linguistic theory in (21). In this way, the writer just introduces the information sources without any evaluation of the information sources and the information itself.

3. Sensory evidential

Based on the data, we find that no sensory evidential occurs in Chinese abstracts. As we have illustrated, the sensory evidentials indicate that the information is acquired from the writer's sensory channels. This kind of evidence is relatively subjective and sometimes its reliability is questioned. This may be the reason that Chinese writers consciously avoid the use of this kind of evidence.

4. Belief evidential

Belief evidentials indicate information that is acquired from the writer's own opinion. There is only one case of belief evidential in Chinese linguistic abstracts. The case will be discussed again in the following.

(22) 因此,我们认为教育语言学比应用语言学更能准确表述本学科的学科属性。

yin ci wo men ren wei jiao yu yan xue bi ying yong yu yan xue geng neng zhun que biao shu ben xue ke de xue ke shu xing

In (22), the writer adopts the form 我们认为 (*wo men ren wei*, we think) to indicate that the proposition is from his or her own opinion. Belief evidential in Chinese linguistic abstracts is realized by personal pronoun 我们 (*wo men*, we) plus mental-state verb 认为 (*ren wei*, think). The information source is the writer and it is he or she that should be responsible for the truth of the proposition. Therefore, belief evidentials are subjective, which is opposite to the objectivity of research articles. It may be the main reason that the writers of both English and Chinese abstracts adopt a few belief evidentials in their writing.

In the above section, the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentials in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs are illustrated. There are similarities and differences between the lexicogrammatical realizations of the Chinese and English abstracts, which will be illustrated in the section 5.1.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Distribution and Frequency of Evidentials in Abstracts of English and Chinese RAs

TABLE 1
THE DISTRIBUTION OF FOUR TYPES OF EVIDENTIALS IN ABSTRACTS OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE RAs

Abstracts	Inferring evidentials		Reporting evidentials		Sensory evidentials		Belief evidentials		Total	
	Raw data	Frequency per 1,000 words	Raw data	Frequency per 1,000 words	Raw data	Frequency per 1,000 words	Raw data	Frequency per 1,000 words	Raw data	Frequency per 1,000 words
English abstracts	61	7.59	84	10.45	1	0.12	13	1.62	159	19.79
Chinese abstracts	48	5.39	28	3.14	0	0	1	0.11	77	8.64

Table 1 shows the distribution of four types of evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts. From the table, we can see that the frequency of evidentials in English abstracts is higher than that in Chinese abstracts (the frequency is 19.79 and 8.64 respectively), which indicates that writers of English abstracts have higher awareness of using evidentials than Chinese writers do. The table also shows that both in English and Chinese abstracts, inferring evidentials and reporting evidentials are the two most frequently used evidentials. Reporting evidentials are the most frequently used evidentials in English abstracts (the frequency is 10.45) while inferring evidentials are the most frequently used in Chinese abstracts (the frequency is 5.39). Sensory evidential occurs only once in English abstracts and none in Chinese abstracts. Although the frequency of belief evidentials is low in English abstracts (1.62), it is much higher than that in Chinese abstracts (0.11).

TABLE 2
LEXICOGRAMMATICAL REALIZATIONS OF EVIDENTIALITY IN ABSTRACTS OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE RAS

Abstracts	Evidential types	Evidentials	Raw data	Frequency per 1,000 words		
English abstracts	Sensory	We will see that	1	0.12		
	Inferring	Modal verbs	can	23	2.86	
			may	10	1.24	
			will	6	0.75	
			must	6	0.75	
	might		5	0.62		
	should		4	0.50		
	could		2	0.25		
	shall	1	0.12			
	Relational process	It(would) seems that	2	0.25		
		seem to	1	0.12		
	Adjectives	It is possible that	1	0.12		
	Reporting	Verbs	show	15	1.87	
			demonstrate	6	0.75	
			suggest	6	0.75	
			argue	5	0.62	
			find	4	0.50	
claim			3	0.37		
indicate			3	0.37		
note			2	0.25		
conclude			2	0.25		
hypothesize			2	0.25		
propose	1		0.12			
agree	1		0.12			
discuss	1		0.12			
Author + date	24	2.99				
Nouns	claim	2	0.25			
	view	2	0.25			
	conclusion	1	0.12			
	propose	1	0.12			
Adjuncts	In x's opinion	1	0.12			
	according to	1	0.12			
Belief	I (will/ shall) argue that	5	0.62			
	It (will be) is argued that	5	0.62			
	We argue that	3	0.37			
Sensory	-	-	-			
Chinese abstracts	Inferring	Modal verbs	可以/可(can)	21	2.36	
			应该/应/应当(should)	12	1.35	
			将(will)	4	0.45	
			会(will)	3	0.34	
			能(can)	2	0.22	
			可能(may)	2	0.22	
			必须(must)	1	0.11	
			理应(should)	1	0.11	
			Modal adjuncts	尝试性地(tentatively)	2	0.22
	Reporting	Verbs	认为(think)	7	0.79	
			提出(propose)	3	0.34	
			说明(show)	2	0.22	
			指出(indicate)	2	0.22	
			揭示(reveal)	2	0.22	
			表明(show)	2	0.22	
			主张(maintain)	1	0.11	
强调(emphasize)			1	0.11		
凸现(show)			1	0.11		
发现(find)			1	0.11		
显示(show)			1	0.11		
证明(demonstrate)	1	0.11				
Adjuncts	根据(according to)	2	0.22			
	以...为参照点(in terms of)	1	0.11			
Belief	我们认为(We think that)	1	0.11			

Table 2 shows the distribution of lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentials both in English and Chinese abstracts. In Table 2, we can see that the lexicogrammatical realizations of evidentiality in English abstracts are much more various than those in Chinese abstracts. In inferring evidentials, modal verbs are the most frequently used forms both in

English and Chinese abstracts. Relational process and adjectives are also used to realize inferring evidentials in English abstracts, while modal adjuncts occur in Chinese abstracts. In English abstracts, verbs are the typical way to realize reporting evidentials. Then follow (author + date) form, nouns and adjuncts. In Chinese abstracts, verbs are also the most frequently used realizations of reporting evidentials, but we can see that the (author + date) form in Chinese abstracts occurs only once and the frequency is 0.11, while in English abstracts the frequency is as high as 3.11. As we have indicated, no sensory evidential is adopted in Chinese abstracts. And in English abstracts, the sensory evidential occurs only once. Belief evidentials in English abstracts are realized by either *I/ we plus argue that* subjectively or *It (will be) is argued that* objectively. From the table, we can see that the writer intends to keep a balance between subjectivity and objectivity. In Chinese abstracts, the belief evidential occurs only once. As we have discussed, the belief evidentials are subjective, and with the use of belief evidentials, the writer himself will bear much responsibility for the information. This may indicate that Chinese writers try to avoid or decrease the use of belief evidentials in order to be objective.

In the above, the distribution and frequency of four types of evidentials has been examined and discussed. As we have indicated, inferring evidentials and reporting evidentials are the two most frequently used evidentials both in English and Chinese abstracts. Therefore, the following two sections will show the similarities and differences between the use of these two types of evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts.

B. Reporting Evidentials in Abstracts of English and Chinese RAs

This section will compare reporting evidentials in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs from three perspectives: the verbal form, the (author+ date) form, and the information sources.

1. Verbal forms in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs

As we have indicated, verbs are the most frequently used realizations of reporting evidentials both in English and Chinese abstracts. According to Francis et al. (1996), the verbs can be classified into three types: *Argue* verbs, *Think* verbs, *Show* and *Find* verbs. As their names indicate, information of the *Argue* verbs is acquired from writing and other forms of communication, the information of *Think* verbs is acquired from thinking, and *Show and Find* verbs is acquired from visual channel. The three types of groups also indicate different reliability and commitment of the information. For instance, *Show* and *Find* verbs are always factive, therefore, they tend to have much more reliability than the other two types of verbs.

In Table 2, no *Think* verb occurs in English abstracts. The most frequently used verb is *show*, and then follow *demonstrate*, *suggest* and *argue*. The verbs *show* and *demonstrate* all belong to *Show* and *Find* group, which indicates that the writers pay more attention to the factual status of the propositions.

In Chinese abstracts, the verb 认为 (ren wei, think) is the most frequently used verb. 认为(ren wei, think) belongs to *Think* group. As we have discussed, the three types of verbs indicate different degrees of certainty and reliability of the information. Among the three groups, *Think* group bear the lowest certainty and reliability of the information. And accordingly, by using this kind of verbs, the Chinese writers bear higher responsibility for the truth of the information they present than the writers of English abstracts do.

In sum, verbs are the most frequently used forms both in English and Chinese abstracts. The writers of English and Chinese abstracts tend to use different types of verbal groups. In English abstracts, no *Think* group is adopted, while in Chinese abstracts the verb 认为 (ren wei, think) is the most frequently used verbal form. The writers of English abstracts tend to put much more value on the factual status of the propositions than Chinese writers do.

2. (Author + date) forms in abstracts of English and Chinese RAs

As we have shown, the frequency of (author + date) form in English abstracts is much higher than that in Chinese abstracts (3.11, 0.11 respectively). This kind of realization of reporting evidentials is relatively objective, which is identical to the objective nature of RAs. In this way, the writer cites other scholars' arguments to strengthen the persuasion of his argument and research. In English abstracts, the use of (author+ date) form is frequent, while in Chinese abstracts, it occurs only once. Examples will be illustrated in the following.

(23) In this paper, I explore the relationship between Relevance Theory and Jaszczolt's Default Semantics, framing this debate within the picture of massive modularity tempered by the idea of brain plasticity (Perkins, 2007).

In (23), the information is acquired from the extra source rather than the writer himself or herself. The writer adopts (author + date) form to indicate the information source without any subjective evaluation of the information. In this way, it is the cited author rather than the writer that is responsible for the truth of the information. In the above example, it is Perkins that bears the responsibility for the information rather than the writer. This form of realization is objective for without involving too much subjectivity. (Author + date) form is the second frequently chosen realization of reporting evidentials in English abstracts, while it occurs only once in Chinese abstracts. This indicates that the writers of English abstracts put more value on the objectivity of the abstracts of RAs than Chinese writers do.

3. Information sources of reporting evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts

As we have illustrated, the reporting evidentials can be classified into self-reporting evidentials and other-reporting evidentials. In English abstracts, self-reporting and other-reporting evidentials occupy 58% and 42% respectively of the total reporting evidentials, while in Chinese abstracts percentage of self-reporting evidentials is much higher than other-reporting evidentials(71% and 29% respectively). This indicates that, in English abstracts, the writer tries to keep

a balance between self-reporting evidentials and other-reporting evidentials, while in Chinese abstracts the writer pays more attention to the research and finding of the writer himself or herself.

TABLE 3
INFORMATION SOURCES OF REPORTING EVIDENTIALS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE LINGUISTIC ABSTRACTS

Abstracts	Information sources		Other-reporting		Self-reporting		Total	
English abstracts	Human	specific	27	77.1%	11	22.4%	38	45.2%
		unspecific	2	5.7%	0	0%	2	2.4%
	Non-human		3	8.6%	28	57.1%	31	36.9%
	Concealed		3	8.6%	10	20.5%	13	15.5%
Total			35	100%	49	100%	84	100%
Chinese abstracts	Human	specific	1	12.5%	1	5%	2	7.1%
		unspecific	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Non-human		7	87.5%	19	95%	26	92.9%
	Concealed		0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Total			8	100%	20	100%	28	100%

As we have indicated, information sources can be human, non-human or concealed, specific or unspecific. Table 3 shows the information sources of reporting evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts. In English linguistic abstracts, human sources are the main sources of reporting evidentials, occupying 47.6%, and then follow non-human information sources and concealed sources. In human sources, the specific human sources are dominated. In other-reporting evidentials, specific human sources are the most frequently used information sources (77.1%). This means that the writers tend to put emphasis on the cited researchers instead of the information itself. In this way, the writer can show his respect for the previous researchers and also make his study connect with the previous studies. And, on the other hand, citing the authoritative researchers can strengthen the persuasion and reliability of his findings and arguments. In self-reporting evidentials, the non-human information sources are dominated, occupying 57.1% of the total self-reporting evidentials. This shows that in presenting his own study, the writers adopt *this study*, *this paper*, *the figure*, *the table* and so on to speak for themselves instead of *Is* and *wes*. In this way, the writers improve the reliability of the information and increase the objectivity of the RAs. The use of specific human sources in other-reporting evidentials and non-human sources in self-reporting evidentials all aim to improve the persuasion and reliability of the information. In this way, the writers of the English abstracts increase the objectivity of the information, which is identical to the objectivity of RAs.

The situation is different in Chinese abstracts. Different from the information sources of reporting evidentials in English abstracts, in Chinese linguistic abstracts, the non-human information sources are the most frequently used sources (92.9%) and the human information sources only occupies 7.1% of the total reporting evidentials. The information sources of reporting evidentials in Chinese abstracts are much simpler than those in English abstracts. In Chinese linguistic abstracts, information sources only include specific human and non-human sources. Neither unspecific human nor concealed information sources occurs in Chinese linguistic abstracts. In other-reporting evidentials, non-human information sources are the main information sources and the writers adopt *other linguistic theory*, *arguments of other schools*, *writings* and so on to strengthen the persuasion of his research and argument. The specific human sources occupy only 12.5% of the total other-reporting evidentials. In self-reporting evidentials just like English linguistic abstracts, the non-human information sources are absolutely dominated (95%).

The comparison of information sources of reporting evidentials between English and Chinese abstracts shows that the information sources of reporting evidentials in English abstracts are much more various and complex than that in Chinese abstracts. The writers of English linguistic abstracts try to choose different information sources of self-reporting and other-reporting evidentials to improve the persuasion and reliability of the information and match the objectivity of the RAs, while Chinese writers choose either specific human sources or non-human sources as information sources. The Chinese writer gives more value on his own researches and studies. Accordingly, the subjectivity of Chinese abstracts is higher than that of English abstracts. And the Chinese writers will bear much more responsibility for the information they present than writers of English abstracts do.

C. Modal Verbs in Abstracts English and Chinese Research Articles

As we have illustrated, modal verbs are the most typical realizations of inferring evidentials both in English and Chinese abstracts. Modal verbs in English abstracts occupy 93.4% of the total inferring evidentials and in Chinese abstracts modal verbs occupy 96%. Different modal verbs have different degrees of modal value and indicate different degrees of certainty of the writers toward the information. Value of modal verbs can be classified into low value, median value and high value. For example, *might* indicates low value, *should* median and *must* high value. This section will discuss modal verbs of inferring evidentials in English and Chinese abstracts.

From Table 2, in English abstracts, the most frequently used modal verb is *can*, and then follow *may*, *will*, *must* and *might*. *Can*, *may*, and *might* are all modal verbs with low value, and *will* median value and *must* high value. Table 4 shows the occurrence of modal verbs with different modal value in English and Chinese abstracts. As table 4 indicates, in English abstracts, the use of low value modal verbs is dominated (the percentage is 70.2%), with the use of modal verbs with high value and median value. The two most frequently used modal verbs in English linguistic abstracts are

can and *may*, which shows that low value of modal verbs are frequently chosen to express low degrees of certainty of the writer towards the proposition. In this way, the writer tries not to be assertive and to negotiate with the readers. On the other hand, we can see that high value modal verbs occupy 10.5% of the total modal verbs. With the use of high value modal verbs, the author can emphasize the strength of his commitment to the information. Writers should show his certainty of the information. Only in this way, the reader may accept his argument and research. The frequent use of modal verbs with low value and less frequent use of high value modal verbs all serve to improve the objectivity and persuasion of the abstracts.

TABLE 4
OCCURRENCES OF MODAL VERBS WITH DIFFERENT MODAL VALUE IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE ABSTRACTS

Abstracts	High value		Median value		Low value		Total	
English abstracts	6	10.5%	11	19.3%	40	70.2%	57	100%
Chinese abstracts	1	2.2%	20	43.5%	25	54.3%	46	100%

In table 2, we can see that in Chinese linguistic abstracts 可以/可 (ke yi/ ke, can) and 应该/应/应当 (ying gai/ying/ying dang, should) are the two most frequently used modal verbs, with the low frequency of other modal verbs. As we have indicated, 可以/可 (ke yi/ke, can) is the modal verb with low value and 应该/应/应当 (ying gai/ying/ying dang, should) with median value. This indicates that Chinese writers not only pay attention to the low value modal verbs but also put value on the median value modal verbs. As table 4 shows, in Chinese linguistic abstracts, the writers almost keep a balance between the use of modal verbs with low value and median value (the percentage is 54.3% and 43.5% respectively). And on the other hand, Chinese writers, opposite to writers of English abstracts, try to avoid the use of high value modal verbs. In Chinese abstracts, high value modal verb occurs only once.

In sum, the frequency of modal verbs in English abstracts is higher than that in Chinese abstracts. Modal verbs with low value dominate English abstracts, while in Chinese abstracts the use of modal verbs with low value and median value is almost in balance.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper studies evidentiality in abstracts of English and Chinese linguistics RAs. Both English writers and Chinese writers adopt four types of evidentials consciously to indicate information sources and their commitment to the information they present. The findings are: the frequency of evidentiality in English linguistics abstracts is higher than that in Chinese linguistics abstracts, which indicates that the awareness of the use of evidentiality of writers of English abstracts is higher than that of Chinese writers; Inferring evidentials and reporting evidentials are the two most frequently used evidentials both in English and Chinese abstracts, while reporting evidentials are most frequently used in English abstracts and inferring evidentials are most frequently used in Chinese abstracts; Low frequency of sensory evidentials are adopted both in English and Chinese abstracts. Besides, the analysis of reporting evidentials and inferring evidentials indicates that English abstracts are more objective than Chinese abstracts, and accordingly, the Chinese writers may bear higher responsibility for the information sources and the validity of the information they present.

This study may be helpful to enrich the study of evidentiality in academic discourses, and on the other hand, it may be beneficial to the learning and teaching of academic writing in China.

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Linxiu Yang is currently an associate professor at the Foreign Languages School of Shanxi University, China. She obtained her PhD in July 2009 in Xiamen University. Her current research interests include functional linguistics and discourse analysis. She has published over 10 academic articles in the areas of discourse studies, functional linguistics and foreign language teaching and learning in *Journal of Pragmatics and Discourse Studies*.

Yu Tian is currently a postgraduate of Shanxi University, China. Her research interests are Functional Linguistics, and discourse analysis. She is currently interested in evidentiality in English and Chinese academic discourses.

Language Learning Context, Learning Style and Iranian EFL Students' Essay Writing Performance: A Critical Thinking Perspective in a Web. 2.0 Environment

Saeid Malek Mohammadi

Department of English Language, Shahreza Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shahreza, Iran

Mohammad Reza Talebinejad

Department of English Language, Shahreza Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shahreza, Iran

Abstract—This study attempted to identify and check how language learning context, and learning style in a web 2.0 environment could affect Iranian EFL students' essay writing performance from a critical thinking perspective. To this end, 90 male and female EFL learners at the upper intermediate level of language proficiency from Payamnoor University selected and were divided into two equal group; first the experimental which received web based teaching method through Wiki space on the internet and second the control group with traditional method of writing in class. The selected material for both group was *Researching Second Language Classroom* by Sandra Lee M.C. Kay, published in 2008. Both groups received the material during 10 sessions of 120 minutes. The data collected through pretest/ posttest assessment and analyzed t-test procedure by using statistic package of social science (SPSS) demonstrated that experimental group had a better performance in writing than the control group. Confirming the benefits of using web2.0 in writing, the research findings are helpful to improving the writing ability of Iranian English learners.

Index Terms—learning style, language learning context, essay writing performance, critical thinking, Web assisted language learning, Web 2.0 environment

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past two decades there was a growing interest in using internet base application for educational purposes such as foreign language learning so caused the invention of web and then promotion to web2.0 nowadays. Using web2.0, language user could learn and take part in classes individually or by peers' groups without any time and place limitation beside a very low internet cost. Students writing practices could be shared on the widest networks in order to communicate with critical point of view and thinking. Pedagogical, technical, social, and managerial dimensions of moderator or teacher in an online environment for learning which have a very important role in learning promotion in web assisted language learning (WALL), were identified by Berge (1995). Although the teacher attendance is a serious affair in web2.0 learning context but there are few web related language learning research available especially in Iran. The way students see, listen, react, reflect, and logically think, analyze, visualize, and give reason is the students learning style; found by Felder and Silverman (1988), were divided in four general categories: active-reflective, visual-verbal, sequential global, and sensory-intuitive which are very crucial to be seen to achieve a deep language learning. Searching a lot for critical thinking papers, there is no precious design of reading and analysis about critical thinking in essay writing. It could be one of the reasons Iranian EFL students are not able to write an appropriate and acceptable essay in English. Therefore, this study faced some questions, hypothesis and is going to find a suitable way to solve these troublesome parts of English language for both students and teachers.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As Kevin & Joseph (2007), identified online environment has several undeniable features in learning process and Wiki space is one of many web 2.0 components that can be used to enhance the learning process by allowing learners to post inputs, create, add, remove, edit the content and give comments in essay writing easily and quickly, they also showed that a web communication and collaboration tool can be used to engage students with others within a collaborative environment which is not limited to students. Irfan N. Umar, Mohan Rathakrishnan (2012) mentioned that active students learn by trying things out and enjoy working in groups but reflective students learns by thinking things through, prefer working alone or with a single familiar partner, visual learners prefer learning using materials such as pictures, diagrams and flow charts while others prefer learning using written and spoken explanation, sequential students follow linear processing when solving problem and learn in small incremental steps whereas global learners

progress toward holistic thinking processes. Despite its significant importance, Iranian universities' students must undertake some essay writing courses as a requirement for scientific research conducting in which they have to know critical thinking, researching, well organized opinion giving about research subject matter beside using communicative skills in writing process. To be successful in mentioned courses students must possess independent thinking and proficient language usage abilities. As Rathakrishnan and Umar (2010) mentioned although students are able to refine generalization and compare analogous situations, they are unable to use precise vocabulary.

As is evident from Iranian students' writing, they have some problems in clarifying and analyzing the meaning of words or phrases during essay writing which caused by lack of reading and exquisite design of analysis and critical thinking, so it is important to become more skilful in evaluating and analyzing information (critical thinking). Being passive in giving opinions, students become reluctant to take part in collaborative discussion in online environment. In sum students' different learning styles must be considered as an important point. As we know, any of these problems disturbs students learning, and the consequence of students' failure in learning is hatred of English. Based on the above-described problem it is interesting to investigate whether formal language learning and learning style assist students' critical thinking and essay writing performance in a web. 2.0 environments. Students' active or reflective learning style also was investigated. Therefore the objective of this study to propose a solution for this issue based on the investigation of active and reflective students' essay writing performance and critical thinking in a wiki space environment.

III. THE SCOPE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The scope of the study is, to compare two approaches in teaching writing through web 2.0 instructions. In order to solve the problems in part 1.2 researcher worked on formal language learning and learning style assist students' critical thinking and essay writing performance in a web2.0 environments along with the Students' active or reflective learning style.

Another main purpose behind this research is finding some information which is practical and applicable in further research in TEFL field. The goal of this research is to highlight:

1. Language learners' performance will be improved in the web environment along with.
2. Learning English by web is time saving and less expensive.
3. Language learners' writing performance with critical thinking abilities will be improved.

The results of this study can be generalizable in all universities and private language institute of Iran, therefore a large community of teachers and students can get benefit out of the finding of this research.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In keeping with the purpose of this study the following questions were raised:

1. To what extent do language learning context, and learning style affect Iranian EFL students' essay writing performance and critical thinking in a web. 2.0 environments?
2. What technical elements contribute to the promotion of Iranian EFL students' essay writing performance and critical thinking in a web.2.0 environments?

V. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Based on the research questions two hypotheses were formulated on follows:

1. There is no relationship between language learning context and Iranian students' essay writing performance and critical thinking in web environment.
2. Students' style of learning has no impact on students' way of thinking and writing performance in the web environment.

VI. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review is divided into two parts. The first part take focus on theoretical background, theoretical framework, and motivation of the project, the importance of the problem, prevailing theories, and previous trends that have been applied on them are going to be discussed. The second part of this chapter presents the empirical background, which is a brief review of what others have done with regard to this topic that is, section 2.3.

A. Theoretical Background

This study stocks are a mixture of Berge (1995), Garrison, Anderson & Archer (2000), Felder & Silverman (1988), Paul (1993), and Vygotsky (1978) which identified the teachers' roles and their interaction with language learners. Adding Khandaghi (2012) and Paul (2003) papers' conclusion together, find out that critical thinking is identifying correct conclusion beside the judgment components. Critical thinking has two faces: first macro and then micro cognitive strategies which more specifically have 18 macro and nine micro critical thinking sub branches which are essential for students to deepen their critical thinking ability.

As cited in Irfan N. Umar, Mohan Rathakrishnan (2012), Berge (1995) and Hussein (2010) have explained the

importance of online teachers' guidance to the students and suggested four dimensions of an online teacher's role (pedagogical, social, technical and managerial roles) and some of the roles of PROT moderator are: (i) to facilitate the students to understand the objective, critical concepts, and help the students to be self-motivated, (ii) to involve passive students to participate in collaborative discussion, (iii) to become a feedback giver, refine, and update the learning material when the students cannot find the solution, (iv) to give direct comment on the content and learning objectives especially if the discussions go out of the topic (Cumming, 2000), (v) to develop the students' ideas by using their experiences, encourage debate, convey idea maturely and edit peers ideas, (vi) to present conflict opinion and offer intellectual feedback, (vii) to provide ideas to the students on how to solve some problems and give motivation, and (viii) to encourage students to use pictures, data, and analysis to answer the given topics by using search engines in online learning. In contrast, SROT moderators' roles are (i): to promote human relationships and develop group cohesiveness by giving support and keeping to the main objective (ii) to promote a friendly environment and community feelings to support students' cognitive learning processes (iii) to gently accept students' comments and deals with exceptions off the list, (iv) to show empathy to the students' input, (v) to give comments on students input through email if necessary (Berge, 1995) and use interpersonal approach, (vi) to encourage inter group communication instead of taking leading roles in establishing a wider community (Bonk, et al., 2001), and (vii) to encourage the students to work in a mutual cause in online learning by using special introductory techniques, dyadic collaborating and facilitate informal discussion among learners.

Computer technology, digital media, and Internet surfing recently have filled all aspects of our life as a result change the traditional educational systems to modern education, enhance the knowledge and skills acquisitions or learning.

Nowadays student centered learning requirement is mostly customizable usage of technology. In an effort to provide practitioners and policy -makers with some guidance about how to use technology to support student-centered learning initiatives, Education Development Center, Inc. (EDC) conducted an extensive review of the research and practice literature. We built on the literature on technology integration as a framework for understanding various uses of technology to personalize learning. This report summarizes the findings from this review and discusses implications for practice, policy, and research. Using technology for purposes, such as writing, research and analysis rather than simply drills and practice—can enhance student competencies that surpass the knowledge and skills typically measured in achievement tests. These competencies include problem solving, creativity, collaboration, data management and communication. Many employers find these skills lacking among today's college graduates. In addition, a number of organizations ranging from the Partner -ship for 21st Century Skills to the U.S. Department of Education see literacy in digital media as essential for succeeding in a global society. (<http://www.nmefoundation.org>)

As more information is made accessible via the internet it becomes more important for tomorrow's students to know how to access that information and how to use it. It is important that local, state and national standards dictate technology be integrated into content standards. Technology cannot simply be its own content standard. Technology is used in many aspects of our daily lives, so we must prepare our future citizens to effectively use current technology. We must also instill these same students with the imagination to take today's technology and develop it into tomorrow's innovation. Use of technology in teacher preparation programs (<http://www.slideshare.net>).

B. Empirical Background

Learning style as the way students sees, listens, reacts, gives reasons, reflects, thinks logically, use intuition, visualizes and analyses of information in which they could stimulate their ideas and experiences to engage in the learning experiences, Felder and Silverman's (1988), found four dimensions for learning style: active – reflective, visual – verbal, sequential – global, and sensory intuitive which active students learn by trying things out and enjoy working in groups but reflective students learns by thinking things through, prefer working alone or with a single familiar partner. Visual learners prefer learning using materials such as pictures, diagrams and flow charts while others prefer learning using written and spoken explanation. Sequential students follow linear processing when solving problem and learn in small incremental steps whereas global learners progress toward holistic thinking processes. Irfan N. Umar, Mohan Rathakrishnan (2012). As Wable system (2001) cleared the teacher, learner, and researcher accommodation beside an interactive environment of computers, internet, and language analysis as the most required means for language learning classes. A crucial consequence of the interactive nature of this system is that users actually create information through their use, and this information enables the system to improve with use. (<http://www.tc.columbia.edu>). According to Khandaghi (2012), the process of accessing a clear conclusion and reasoning means called critical thinking. Critical thinking was divided in two faces by Paul and Elder (2002) one is macro and the other micro cognitive strategies which have 18 macro and 9 micro critical thinking skills in them for cognitive and affective components to make the process of thinking deeper through students. Van-Waes, Van-Weijen, and Leijten (2014) selected twenty students each completed a module on writing 'bad news' letters designed for Business Communication courses at the undergraduate level. Their reading and writing processes were recorded. The letters were also graded to determine their quality. An effect of learning style was found: Active and Reflective writers approached the task differently, but only in the beginning of the process. In this early stage, reflective learners were more likely to focus on the theory section than Active learners. This shows that each of the students beside their own different style of learning also has their own writing preference although their learning style has no effects on their writing quality.

Wolff (2013) demonstrates that successful compositional engagement with Web 2.0 applications requires an evolving

interactive set of practices similar to those practiced by gamers, comics, and electronic literature authors and readers. What we learn about these practices has the potential to transform the way we understand writing and the teaching of writing within and outside of a Web 2.0 ecosystem.

These days teaching foreign language with new technologies such as computers, mobiles, tablets, internet base programs, and webs are growing in all over the world and especially in Iran we could find an extreme number of application in language teaching/learning but the vacancy of writing ability skills is obvious. This study intended to show how students could benefits more from writing ability in doing research by critical thinking which ultimately affect scientific writing in second language area. By using web based application in this study the limitation of time and place of students will be eliminate and they could reach the professor class any time and everywhere in online or offline mode, which give the students opportunity to learn how to write and practice writing.

VII. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants who took part in study were selected from among Iranian EFL freshman students in Payam Noor University in the summer of 2014. These participants were selected from among a large sample of 90 EFL learners after taking the placement test. Both males and females participated in this study. Attempts were made to include an equal number of each gender so that the gender factor could be controlled.

Sampling Procedure

There were two placement tests for this process: first English entrance exam of universities (Konkur exam) which proved us that all participants are in the same level of general English proficiency especially in English writing, and then a solution placement test developed by Edwards in 2007.

ninety male and female students between the ages of 18 to 22 were divided randomly into two groups: 45 of them were placed in one class as the control group, which received traditional teaching methods of writing, and the other 45 were placed in another class as the experimental group, which received web based teaching method through wiki space on the internet. The following table shows the final number of students in the study and the type of treatment for each sample group.

TABLE 6.1
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE STUDY SAMPLE GROUPS AND RELATED TREATMENT

Group	Total	Active	Reflective	Treatment
Exp. G.	45	22	23	web based
Cont. G.	45	-	-	traditional

B. Materials

In this study, the researcher used several instruments to understand the language learning context, learning style and Iranian EFL Students' essay writing performance as a critical thinking perspective in a Web. 2.0 environment and data collecting which included the placement test, the pretest, the posttest, and the treatment which is going to be explained more.

Placement Test

In order to choose homogenous participants and place them in the relevant groups, solution placement test developed by Edwards in 2007 also were used. This test designing is for assessing general knowledge of the key language as well as receptive and productive skills and the level of students. The test has three parts, in the first section 50 multiple choice questions which tests students' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary from elementary to intermediate level are available; the second part consists 10 graded reading comprehension items, and the third section was a writing tasks which allows students to produce the language. Participants divided in proficiency level based on their received scores and the test developer identified criterias. Passing the English Entrance Exam of Universities (Konkur Zaban exam in Iran); shows that all of the freshmen had enough general proficiency in English especially in English writing. After ensuring about the homogeneity of the participants, the researcher continued to next step. The reliability of the tests as a standard one has been established as it has been used frequently in between students for several years constantly. It has also gain the validity of a standard test measuring the general proficiency of students.

Pretest

This study took advantage of pretest assessment as its data collection instrument which included a writing assessment for both control and experimental group. Students in the two groups were asked to take part in this test. A sample writing skills test were held in two parts which firstly students wrote an essay of 400/500 words about the English language research in 60 minutes, then examinees were presented with an essay and were asked to look for errors in grammar, punctuation, usage, and style in 30 minutes in class. Exam essays were evaluated by faculty members drawn from the English departments, independently two university professor corrected each essay based on the correction guide if the correction scores have more than two points differences a third university professor had third time correction duty. Papers with 8 higher scores have the research requirement to take part but 6 and lower marks wouldn't be able to take part. Their writing proficiency was similar and they did not have any extra writing practice at home.

Posttest

In order to examine the impact of independent variable (formal language learning) and a moderator variable (active or reflective learning style) on dependent variable (students' level of critical thinking in essay writing performance) in a Wiki space environment a posttest which included writing for both control and experimental group were held. Students in two groups were asked to take part in this test. They were asked to write a paper about a subject of second language research in the taught style.

The Index of Learning Style Questionnaire

The Index of Learning Style Questionnaire instrument (ILSQ) by Felder & Solomon, (2001) was administered to categorize participants into two groups of active and reflective students by 10 items of the instrument.

The Textbook: Researching Second Language Classroom

Beside the tests, participants also were given a textbook which was taught during the research. The textbook was researching second language classroom by Sandra Lee Mc Kay, published in 2008. The book consists of four units that students were familiarized with second language research in first session; in the second part the data collection instrument were introduced, the data analysis processes are available in chapter three, and at the final unit research report writing results are available. In addition learners were taught about certain important characteristics of writing.

The control group were taught based on the traditional teaching methods of writing and also received materials, feedbacks, and through traditional way, but in the experimental group all the materials, instructions, feedbacks, and teaching courses were available through web environment in a Wiki space.

Wiki space

Developing a wiki space was done by the researcher because web based environment was a substantial part of the research and participants had to use it for sending and receiving materials and their assignment through it.

All the contents of this web fulfilled the needed materials of the course such as book, direction, teaching videos, topics, feedbacks, examples, and etc. In addition participants were given an email address which they used in a case that there was any internet crashes.

C. Procedure

Data Collection

In order to select, place the participants, and collect the data, first of all, the 90 freshman students who took part in Entrance Exam of universities (Konkur exam) could pass. Their writing was similar and they did not have any extra writing practice at home. And also the Oxford solution placement test (OSPT) was administered, it should be noted that the validity and reliability of this test already have already been established.

These 90 male and female students between the ages of 18 to 22 were then randomly assigned to two equal groups. These two classes were characterized as follow:

1. Forty five students were assigned to one class as the control group to receive instruction as usual way of teaching without internet.
2. The other forty five made another class as the experimental group to receive treatment in an internet based class.

Ensuring about the homogeneity of the participants, the researcher continued to the next step. The only difference between these two groups was their web-based application. The Index of Learning Style Questionnaire instrument (ILSQ) by Felder & Solomon, (2001) was administered to categorize participants into two groups of active and reflective students by 10 items of the instrument. Both groups participated in writing course for 10 session of 120 minutes, two sessions each week. The experimental group students used a Wiki space environment during the course and they sent their writing tasks in wiki environment. The teacher corrected them and wrote comments about their writings in web too. But the control group students worked in hard copy form during the class.

Data Analysis

To address the research questions of the study at the end of the course a post test was administered. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on students' pretest scores to show the homogeneity. The gathered data were analyzed by Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version22.

The descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, percentages, and the variance (ANOVA) to show the groups' differences were obtained. A MANOVA method of analyzing data was used to investigate the difference between active – reflective students' writing performance and critical thinking.

VIII. RESULTS

In order to assess the effect of training among the groups of learners, the performance of the participants in experimental and control groups were to be compared to make sure that they were homogeneous at the beginning of the treatment. To this end, an Oxford Solution Placement Test (OSPT) was administered and the obtained data was then calculated and analyzed, the result of which appear in the table below.

TABLE 8.2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE MEAN COMPARISON OF THE OSPT BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP.

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
VAR0000	1	45	38.4444	5.18380	.99762
	2	45	38.8462	3.58544	.70316

1= Experimental group, EG, or group A

2= Control group, CG, or group B

Based on table structure in ([http://: www.europeanevaluation.org](http://www.europeanevaluation.org)) it is shown in table 8.2, there is no significant difference between the mean scores of EG and CG groups (the mean score for experimental group is 38.4444 and that for control group is 38.8462 that is a difference of .4018 which is not a significant difference). In order to be more objective regarding the claim of homogeneity of the two groups an independent sample t-test was run between the scores of OSPT of control and experimental groups, the results of which are presented in table 8.3. As it is shown in this table the *p value* is greater than that of expected (.062 > .05) and the t-observed is -.327 which is lower than the t-critical from the table of t-scores, so it means that the observed difference was not significant and it can be claimed that the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their proficiency level. As a result, the study went on safely with these two groups.

TABLE 8.3
RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST OF THE OSPT BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF RESEARCH.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
OPT	Equal variances assumed	4.364	.062	-.327	88	.745	-.40171	1.22884	-2.86871	2.06529
	Equal variances not assumed			-.329	83.353	.744	-.40171	1.22053	-2.85800	2.05458

A. Investigating the First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis of the present study which was formulated based on the first question was that there is no relation between language learning context and Iranian students' essay writing performance and critical thinking in web environment. Therefore, the following steps were taken in order to test the hypothesis and find the answer for the first question of the study.

The scores on the pre-test were first analyzed and tabulated in table 8.4. Accordingly, the pre-test will be seen from two different perspectives in order to serve the two research questions as follows: First, it will be used as an indicator for making sure that both groups are starting from the same level regarding their writing proficiency; second, it will be used for measuring the writing achievement after the treatment.

TABLE 8.4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE MEAN COMPARISON OF THE WRITING PRE-TEST BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP.
Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest	Control	45	3.1346	1.65262	.32411
	Experimental	45	3.0185	1.70114	.32738

According to the statistics depicted in table 8.4, the mean difference of pre-test for the two groups is 0.1161 (the mean for control group being 3.1346 and for experimental group 3.0185) which is not statistically significant. Since a meaningful difference was not detected, there was no need to run an independent samples t-test. This could mean that all of the participants' writing performance at the onset of the study was nearly the same, so any change in their behavior could be attributed to the treatment used in the study. These findings further support the results of OSPT which confirmed the homogeneity of the participants prior to the experiment.

As explained in previous Chapter, the treatments included a web-based instruction for experimental group and conventional method of writing instruction for control group. Both groups participated in writing course for 10 sessions of about 120 minutes class time, two sessions each week. After the treatment, the participants were asked to take a writing post-test the results of which is shown in the following Table.

TABLE 8.5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE MEAN COMPARISON OF THE WRITING POSTTEST BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP.

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest	Control	45	11.3846	1.84015	.36088
	Experimental	45	16.2037	2.02987	.39065

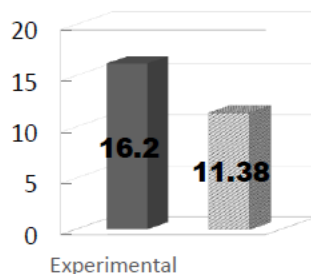


Figure8.1. Graphical Representation of the Means for Hypothesis One.

As it is clearly shown in table 8.5 and figures 8.1, the post-test mean for EG, or group A is 16.2037 which is higher than that of CG, or group B being 11.3846 having a mean difference of 4.8191. So it can be said that the two groups have changed in terms of their writing performance and that this change seems to be significant. In order to ascertain that the difference between post-tests of EG and CG group is significant, an independent sample t-test was run between the post-test scores of the two groups. Table 4.5 illustrates the results of this t-test.

TABLE 8.6
RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T- TEST BETWEEN POST-TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower		Upper
Control	Equal variances assumed	.136	.014	-.252	88	.802	-.11610	.46094	-1.04146	.80927
	Equal variances not assumed			-.252	83.995	.802	-.11610	.46068	-1.04095	.80876
Experimental	Equal variances assumed	.443	.009	9.044	88	.000	4.81909	.53283	3.74938	5.88879
	Equal variances not assumed			9.061	83.820	.000	4.81909	.53183	3.75130	5.88687

Since t-value for Experimental Group is equal to 9.061, which is greater than -.252 for that of Control group with an alpha= 0.05 (*p value*=.009<.05) and df= 88; therefore, the difference is statistically significant and that shows that EG outperformed CG. As depicted in Table 4.4 and further confirmed through independent samples t-test shown in Table 8.6, with regard to posttest scores, teaching critical thinking in web environments does lead to differences between experimental and control groups. Finally, based on the analysis of the results, the first hypothesis of the study was rejected since, as the results supported, training critical thinking in web environments has positive effect on writing performance of the students.

B. Investigating the Second Null Hypothesis

By proposing the second null hypothesis, the researcher intended to understand if students' style of learning has any impact on students' way of thinking and writing performance in the web environment. In order to embark on testing this hypothesis and finding the answer for the second question of the study, the experimental group was arranged with regards to different learning style. To this end, the Index of Learning Style Questionnaire instrument (ILSQ) by Felder & Solomon, (2001) was administered to categorize participants of experimental group as active or reflective learners (refer to Table 3.1 in Chapter Three). Based on the results of this questionnaire, there were 22 active and 23 reflective learners in this group. The next step was to analyze the results of this group on the posttest with respect to their specific type of learning style. This way we could test the second hypothesis and see which of the two learning style performed better on the post-test after the treatment. The post-test scores of the participants of the EG was then arranged based on their learning style into two sub groups. The following table shows the number of students based on their learning style.

TABLE 8.7
NUMBER OF STUDENTS AND THEIR LEARNING STYLE

Group	Total	Active	Reflective	Treatment
E G. A	22	22	-	web based
E G. B	23	-	23	web based

As shown in Table 8.8 below, posttest means in EGA is $X = 17.7308$ and for EGB equals $X = 13.6071$. So a difference in posttest means in behalf of EGA or the group with active style of learning could be observed. But it is not clear yet whether the difference is significant or not.

TABLE 8.8
MEANS COMPARISON OF EGA AND EGB

Means Comparison posttest			
Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
EGA (Active learners)	22	17.7308	2.11754
EGB (Reflective learners)	23	13.6071	1.50867

The next step was then to run another independent samples t-test on the results of the post-test to compare the achievements of the two sub groups and to see whether the difference could meet the criteria of being statistically significant. Table 8.9 reports the results.

TABLE 8.9
RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST BETWEEN EGA AND EGB.

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
Learning Style	Equal variances assumed	.491	.032	6.025	43	.006	4.1309	.25874	2.25312	2.37851
	Equal variances not assumed			6.053	38.461	.006	4.1309	.24752	2.25406	2.37624

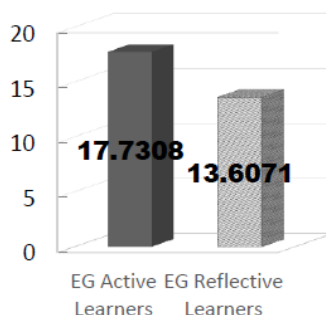


Figure 8.2. Graphical Representation of the Means for Hypothesis Two

According to the results in Table 8.9, the amount of t-observed ($t = 6.053$) is significant at the probability level of $p = .006$, which shows a statistically significant amount. Based on these results it was concluded that the participants with active learning style outperformed the others with reflective learning style. Therefore, the second null hypothesis, stating that “Students style of learning has no impact on students’ way of thinking and writing performance in the web environment” can also be safely rejected.

IX. DISCUSSION

One of the several noticeable features online language teaching provides is synchronous and asynchronous communication of teacher and language learners. By web 2.0 language user could learn and take part in classes individually or by peers’ groups without any time and place limitation by a very low internet cost. For this purpose participants’ writing assessments during the classes and at the end of the research was compared with each other and the obtained results from the data analysis process provide a vivid answer to the first posed question of the study: that language learning context in a web environment can indeed enhance the Iranian EFL students essay writing ability. As Uzunboylu et al. (2011), identified that learners with wiki technology are able to get input, get comments, create, add, edit, and delete the content with ease and not much time consuming. It is implied from their study that language learners can work with other peers and instructor collaboratively about any thought tasks. Having a moderator to encourage and facilitate the learning process, clearly could be seen in their work too. The experimental class participants outperformed the control group regarding the taught second language research rules and this supremacy support the idea that language learning context beside web based classes, reinforce students’ writing ability and critical thinking.

Pedagogical, technical, social, and managerial dimensions of moderator or teacher in an online environment for

learning which have a very important role in learning promotion in web assisted language learning (WALL), were identified by Berge (1995). The moderator could manage students' interaction and direction with managerial role, and introduce communication instruments in an online web to boost the concentration on language tasks. (Aydin, 2005; Persico & Pozzi, 2011).

The above demonstrated facts are hoped to shed more light on why control group displayed lower level of writing ability than experimental group.

X. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was investigating the impacts of language learning context and learning style on Iranian EFL students' writing ability in a critical thinking perspective. As one of the few studies on this topic, the study, more specifically aimed in comparing the role of language learning context and learning style of traditional writing teaching process with web based essay writing classes.

In other words the combination of traditional method and modern technology which result in a better and more prolific English learning as a second language. There were no statistically differences between the web based group and the control group at the beginning. However the results of this study there were improvement over time in writing performance and critical thinking for the web based group. It is interesting to highlight this fact that during the treatment there were small effects from pretest and the experimental group showed a greater mean gains in writing performance than the control group. Sharing critical thinking and essay writing instructions through a web is an effective language teaching tools to help EFL learners to improve their essay writing ability which is in agreement with other previous studies on essay writing progress. The usage of only web itself cannot undertake writing ability learning, It should be noted that computer and web couldn't replace teacher who is responsible for developing appropriate material for students, select learning activities, students' preparation for learning, conduct drills, and monitor students learning process. English teachers and specialist could benefit this finding for best materials designing and adaption to improve students 'writing ability. As revealed in the study as previous researches, like (Baharani, 2011; Vinther, 2011; and Wiebi & Kabata, 2011.) Web based language teaching and learning has many advantages like motivating students, giving detailed and immediate feedbacks, reducing anxiety, autonomy for learners, and flexible learning over traditional classes by using hypertext, hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia in teaching process.

XI. IMPLICATION OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study have considerable implications for EFL pedagogy in Iranian EFL settings. First of all it suggests that writing shouldn't be ignored and should be given the attention they deserve. English essay writing with critical thinking have received little attention in Iranian EFL education and little support is given to help learners. By putting emphasize on the web based language learning especially essay writing with critical thinking, this study suggest a great advantage for presentation and instruction writing in wiki space. Understanding more profoundly the conceptual basis of technology usage in EFL classes which result in better performance in learning.

Becoming more confident and less intimidated by knowing critical thinking and writing rules. Final implication of the study relates to pedagogues and syllabus designers, to benefit from these findings in designing and could use web, computer and technology in language learning process which are very important in explicit teaching, time and place saving.

XII. SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Due to the limitations of this study several lines of this research could be suggested for doing more research. Teaching language components could be done in a web based environment in both first and second language. New invention of language learning specially writing applications of technology with saving time and money. This type of research also could be done in lower level of writing as paragraph writing. What is strongly recommended from finding of this study is conducting on different stages of critical thinking also need more research in EFL context especially in Iran.

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Saeid Malek Mohammadi was born in 1987 in Borujen, Iran. He recently finished his M.A. in TEFL in Islamic Azad University, Shahreza branch.

He works as an English Teacher in language institute and school and also private classes for TOEFL.

Mohammad Reza Talebinejad was born in Iran. He received his Ph.D. in applied linguistics in U.K. in 1994. He is currently university professor in the foreign language faculty of Islamic Azad University, Shahreza branch. His research interests include interlanguage development and second language development, transfer in second language acquisition, and metaphoricity of language and SLA.

Teaching Design for the Course of Movies Appreciation from the Perspective of Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Pingli Lei

Guangdong Baiyun University, Guangzhou, Guangdong, 510450, China

Abstract—Currently, despite the fact that the course of English Movies Appreciation has been quite prevailing in each and every university and college in China, it is being given a low statue and undergoing a unitary and dull teaching method. This paper, however, based on the theory of Multimodal Discourse Analysis, explores a trial way in which movies can be utilized as the multimodal language carrier, and in which the teaching functions originally undertaken by more than one course are expected to be realized by the sole course of English Movies Appreciation.

Index Terms—the theory of Multimodal Discourse Analysis, the course of movies appreciation, teaching design

I. THE CURRENT TEACHING SITUATION FOR THE COURSE OF MOVIES APPRECIATION

Now with the development of multimedia technology and the popularization of multimedia equipments, a majority of colleges and universities in China have offered and are offering the course of Movies Appreciation to students. But the course is endowed with different meanings according to different teaching objects and purposes. If being an elective subject towards all students in some universities and colleges, it aims to give students some knowledge about the movie history, the primary schools for movies study and practice, basic movie technology, and a number of representative masterpieces as well, thereby enhancing students' humanistic and aesthetic qualities. On the other hand, some schools tend to provide non-English majors with the course of British and American Movies Appreciation for the reasons of versatile movie themes, rich contents, intriguing plots, and authentic language contained in the classical movies, which are likely to make students become more interested in learning English language. It has been early realized that, English movies appreciation can not only provide English learners with vivid and true-to-life visual scenes, but also with abundant language materials, giving students a maximum of language input by means of the double effects from audio and visual elements in a minimum of time, meanwhile, English movies can influence their sentiment and purify their minds, thus their language learning interest is to be inspired, their learning efficiency to be improved, their capacity for English listening and speaking to be enhanced, and their cultural knowledge about target language to be enriched. (Guan Jingjun, 2012)

For a long time, numerous Chinese teachers have conducted meticulous researches on how to execute the course of Movies Appreciation in a high level of efficiency, which result in abundant constructive comments and suggestions, but their research perspectives have been focusing on its supportive functions within the system of college English teaching, just obtaining some limited and narrow understandings about the teaching contents and methods. (Tang Liqin, 2009; He Qingmei, 2012; Liang Yan, 2012). Wholly, the current teaching for Movies Appreciation in China's colleges and universities hovers between two extremes: either being extremely entertaining, or being extremely academic. Being extremely entertaining: in movie appreciation classes, teachers merely show the movies, with the students enjoying them, without learning tasks that can induce information input. Also many teachers insert some clips of English movies into their teaching period for lecturing College English, just intended to introduce a topic related to the unit, or to trigger students' discussion on a certain issue. Still a number of teachers deliberately design the session of showing some clips of movies as a condiment for fear that the classes are too boring to appeal to their listeners. Additionally, there are some teachers who may fill the classes with movies just in the case that they have finished the lectures ahead of the teaching syllabus, or that they have not a good preparation for lectures to be delivered. Conversely, being extremely academic stands on the other pole, where some teachers put too much emphasis on analyzing the movie themes and characters during their classroom instruction, so that the course of Movies Appreciation seems quite monotonous, tedious and makes no sense, and as a result, students will gradually lose their interest in it.

There is no denying that the two extreme teaching modes mentioned above are not conducive to language teaching. Under this circumstance, in my opinion, the course English Movies Appreciation should be relocated, which owes a further development in terms of its academic value and course functions. We should set it as an independent and comprehensive course for students who major in English language. Based on the theory of multimodal discourse analysis, this paper has proposed some suggestions to readjust the teaching ideas and methods of English Movies Appreciation, employing a new multimodal and multidimensional way to supplant the traditional one that is simply

dominated by “showing” and “analyzing”, by which students’ English learning interest, aesthetics literacy and language level are hoped to be upgraded simultaneously.

II. THE THEORY OF MULTIMODAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND MULTIMODAL TEACHING

Multimodality refers to “the use of a variety of semiotic modes in symbol products or events” (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996, p. 20). Whereas, a theory named Multimodal Discourse Analysis emerged in the nineties of last century and was developed since then by western researchers, who, on the basis of critical discourse analysis, combined the study achievements involving the fields of social semiotics, systemic functional grammar and the traditional discourse analysis theory. This booming theory holds that language is a social symbol, that other symbols apart from oral and written languages (including painting, music, dance, etc.) also belong to the category of language, and that multi language symbols are independent from but interactive to each other, which altogether produce and convey meanings. This theory breaks through the limitations of the traditional discourse analysis that merely conducted studies on the writing language, and extends the studies to various modal symbols such as picture, animation, color, font and etc.. Being concerned with the roles played by a variety of modal symbols, the theory of multimodal discourse analysis, up to now, has been widely involved in various fields. And it is particularly worth mentioning that, its role for giving a guideline to the foreign language teaching is increasingly significant, which hence has set off a research wave on multimodal teaching.

The so-called multimodal teaching mainly emphasizes the introduction of multi mode symbols (language, images, music, networking, and so on) into the teaching process to fully mobilize the students’ various senses(listening, seeing, tasting, touching and smelling), so as to enhance and broaden their understanding of new knowledge and the effects for their mastering what they have been exposed to. This method must have a greater influence on students than explaining with a single language does, and it is predicted to contribute to a better study result. Additionally, multi-modal teaching, using a variety of instructional methods (network, team cooperation, association and role playing), helps to mobilize learners’ enthusiasm to participate in the process of learning and teaching, to satisfy the demands of language learning for the combination of listening, speaking, writing and practicing, and, eventually to stimulate students’ interest in learning languages. And the lure of multimodal discourse analysis theory also comes from the fact that it allows for a relaxing, active and self-independent learning atmosphere where students can improve their learning outcomes and enhance their learning ability. The flexible application of a variety of teaching methods, to a large extent, may compensate for the shortcomings of traditional single-mode teaching method. Multi-modal teaching requires that teachers choose different teaching methods (such as audio-lingual method, communication method, the total physical response method, secret suggestion, direct explanation, situational teaching method, the grammatical translation method, etc) according to the course content, teaching and learning environment, as well as the learning target, and their rational uses are essential for students to understand and grasp the target language knowledge.

Every movie itself can be regarded as a complexity of multimodal language elements, including pictures, actions, sounds, and so on, which, if efficiently used, can be a carrier for a systematical multimodal teaching, and will hence greatly improve English-majoring students’ integrated capacities.

III. TEACHING DESIGN FOR THE COURSE OF MOVIES APPRECIATION WITH MULTIMODAL THEORY

A. *The Teaching Purpose*

We must realize that as long as English Movies Appreciation has been repositioned to be the basic course for English majors, it is required to burden a commission to improve English majors’ language levels in an integrated manner. English language level herein involves listening, pronunciation, translation, writing, oral expression, cultural understanding and together with other aspects, wherein the students’ humanistic qualities are included. It is based on these objectives that this course is expected to be accessible to the realization of functions of different subjects such as English lexicology, pronunciation, English writing, English listening, English grammar, and oral English.

B. *Teaching Contents and Methods*

As mentioned above, all the movies host a diversity of language elements, which can make us utilize them as a carrier to exert more than one teaching method. However, a movie usually occupies 1.5 to 2 hours, sometimes even longer, so if it is showed in class, the time for other class activities will be squeezed out. Therefore, the teachers shall hand out and deliver the movies(with English captions) that are included in the teaching plan at the beginning of this session to students, and ask them to view the movies after class as per the teaching plan. Meanwhile, the teachers should assign some active tasks associated with a certain movie, thus, in class they mainly deal with such teaching contents related to the movie, without the movie showing taking up the class time. It is required that the course of English Movies Appreciation should combine the functions of several language disciplines at one time, and be conducted in a multi-modal form.

1. Combining with English lexical course: Vocabulary learning is vital for English study, and to learn English well, the very essential is to enlarge one’s vocabulary. English linguist Wilskin (1972) said, “Without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed”.(p.111) And British lexicologist Michael McCarthy(1990)

also argued, “No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully he masters the sounds of a language, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in that language cannot happen in any meaningful way.” (p. 10) Whereas many students have difficulty remembering English words. The viewers without a purpose to learn English language are likely to obtain a meager vocabulary input, many among whom, after having watched a large number of Hollywood movies, poorly end up getting known a few dirty words, such as “fuck”, “son of bitch” and so forth, which are easy to remember just because these words, they think, are funny. But in fact, a movie usually contains abundant popular and commonly-used words and phrases, which are in a higher vitality than those listed in the textbooks, besides, many excellent movies have constructed natural and realistic scenarios, which enable learners to experience the authentic target language environment through auditory and visual senses, thus the effects of their vocabulary input could have been improved. Teachers can employ some snippets and scenes to explain the slangs and words that appear in the film. But it is essential that the teachers guide students to distinguish between the formal and mainstream vocabulary and the informal and improper one, so as to avoid students from falling into the astray, who may improperly focus on non-mainstream vocabulary just due to their curiosity and a pursuit of fashion.

2. Combining with English pronunciation lessons: Words are based on sound, and without a sound, a word can not be used to express anything. So, pronunciation and intonation are essential for us to communicate with others. It is without a doubt that mostly movies are in standard American English pronunciation or British English accent, thus the students can mimic authentic English pronunciation from within the film and acquire varied pronunciation skills, including linking, weak form, elision, blasting sounds, and so on, especially the phonetic transformation rules in a variety of contexts. The flower-selling girl Eliza Doolittle in the movie *My Fair Lady* has a handsome appearance, and she is cute and clever, but when she speaks, her voice and pronunciation turns out to be very vulgar and unpleasant, who, under the instruction of the linguist Professor Henry Higgins, eventually is promoted into the high society because of her acquired polished London accent. Although with the theme of love and romance, this film can be registered as a living pronunciation “textbook” from a linguistic perspective. Meanwhile, many English movies sometimes concern the people from other ethnics, who generally pronounce English words with different regional characteristics, which students shall understand and get familiar with, for it is quite necessary for them to communicate with different groups of people in this pluralist world, they shall be cultivated with the ability to adapt to this situation. For example, in the famous Indian movie *Three Idiots*, there exist many plots where the characters speak English with strong Indian accent, who are typically used to pronouncing “th” into [d], but in fact, they only should be read as [θ] or [ð].(For instance, they interestingly read the word “thirty” into “dirty”, and “this” into “days” .)

3. Combining with English grammar lesson: Grammar is the study of words and the ways how words work together, which is an invisible force that guides us to put words together into sentences and eventually produce paragraphs and discourses, and how we write and speak has everything to do with the content of our ideas. However, the importance of grammar is often minimized and viewed as tangential in English learning. Though there tend to be dialogues between two or conversation among more characters in the movies, what they say often contain some very important grammatical rules. For example, in the classical movie cast by Smith, *The Pursuit of Happiness*, the hero (Chris Gardner) whose marriage and career has fallen in the dump, still remains strongly-minded and optimistic about life. Living a desperately poor life with his son, he plays hard and eventually becomes a successful businessman. The title of this movie was deliberately spelled “Happyness” instead of “Happiness”, just because the private kindergarten where his son stays is run by a Chinese, who incorrectly spelled “happiness” into “happyness”. In this case, the teachers may present the fact that Chinese students are likely to have similar misspellings, arousing the attention of students on this phenomenon and help students summarize the spelling rules for converting this type of adjectives into nouns. Furthermore, in a Hollywood comedy, *The Proposal*, which features Margaret, we can also induce some grammatical knowledge to students. Margaret has been already a Senior Director working with a publishing company, but she remains an alien without an American Permanent Resident Card. Her intention to stay in United States forces her to make a compelled proposal to a native boy, but after a series of dramatic events, the false proposal ultimately turns to be a real romance and a merry wedding, the story being full of funs. In the movie, Margaret, as a superintendent, is strict with her colleagues, and when she announces to fire one of her subordinates, the latter triggers a fierce confrontation with her, during which, Margaret says: “Listen, I don’t fire you because I envy you.” This sentence can be regarded as a model of prefixed negation and extended to several sentences in the same pattern, letting students understand this syntactic structure well, for instance, “I don’t teach because teaching is easy for me.” and “I don’t miss you because I feel lonely.”

4. Combining with English culture courses: It’s a quite frequent phenomenon that the students have a quite good mastery of grammar and vocabulary, but they cannot communicate with the native speakers successfully when the information is associated with western social culture. Therefore, it is necessary to develop students’ interest towards cultural learning and to cultivate their ability of cultural understanding. Some traditional English movies allow students to learn about Western mainstream culture and historical events. For instance, *Jane Eyre*, *Pride and Prejudice* tell us the histories of Western women’s quests for independence and equality, while the movie *Dance with the Wolves* shows us a powerful and detailed picture about the racial issue for American Indians in the beginning of the founding of the United States. And being dwelled in this era of internationalization, we can frequently experience the cultural conflict and blend among different countries and peoples from movies, such as the movies *The Treatment* and *Lost in Translation*.

Before asking students to watch the movie *The Treatment*, the teacher may require that the students discuss several questions in group to find the differences between western cultures and eastern cultures, with the specific aspects including medicine, family education, friendship, and marriage, after which, each group will present their discussion results in class, and their analyses are required to be in-depth and in place, relating to the pieces in the movie.

5. Combining with English listening course: Although the significance of listening in English learning has been widely recognized, the traditional listening teaching in China's class is not encouraging, where the teachers always let the students listen to some fragments of listening materials which are not so real to life, and then, ask them to finish some questions about what they have heard, followed by the teachers' explanations to the answers together with the listening materials (generally in the mother tongue). This mode of English listening teaching is quite dull and far from satisfying. For effective listening teaching, we should offer natural materials that are closely linked to the daily life and that students are interested in. The materials coming from movie are far more real than those single audio ones, because we exchange information and communicate with others mostly when we are facing each other, and under this circumstance, the counterparts' facial expressions and body language can assist us of our understanding to the parts that we may have not caught. And these visual listening teaching materials can help reduce students' anxiety in listening class. The teachers may give assignments to students for repeating and reciting some pieces of the monologues or dialogues of the characters in the movies after they have watched the movie clip without captions first. Movies, like *Finding Nemo*, *Dead Poets Society*, and *The Devil Wears Prada*, must be the best choices, for they contain affluent contents of verbal language.

6. Combining with English writing course: In a traditional Movies Appreciation class, the teachers just require the students to write some essays about the movies that they have seen, explaining the theme of the movie or analyzing the personalities of the characters, especially the protagonists. But, we shall realize that writing movie reviews should not be the sole writing assignment for movies appreciation course, conversely, there should be more rich and versatile tasks assigned to them, such as abbreviating, rewriting or continuing the movie story. Or they may be given the tasks to compose some detailed descriptions about a scenario, or about a character, including the descriptions of his or her appearance, movements, and emotions, and so on. Besides, after the movie was over, the teacher may ask students to simulate and memorize the classic lines within the movie, or the teacher may help the students analyze the usages of various rhetorical devices, such as simile, antithesis and parallelism, and the students may be asked to write sentences accordingly. For example, there are sentences in the movie *Forrest Gump*: "Mama always said life was like a box of chocolate. You never know that you're gonna get." These sentences involve the figure speech of simile, being meaningful in life philosophy and sophisticated in expressing technique, for which the teacher may let students deeply ponder these sentences, sensing out the meanings within it, and then ask them to simulate them. And further the class shall be organized to give remarks to the sentences that they have composed.

7. Combining with oral English: Nowadays, oral English classes, namely, the lessons of English speaking are actually the monologues of the foreign teachers, who dominate the class, giving little chances to the students to practice their oral English. And what the teachers talk about are the frequently-repeated shallow topics, such as greetings, transportation, weather, food, clothes, etc., which are conducted in a classroom, being isolated from authentic circumstances. This method, for sure, results in low input for students' speaking capacity. In a multimodal Movies Appreciation class, a teacher may ask students to remember the classical dialogues, and allow them to imitate some scenarios, for which, the expressing tension and expression capability are highly demanded, and in that way, the students have the opportunity to experience different tones of voice and body languages when people are in different moods, such as anger, excitement, or mania. *Pride and Prejudice* has a small clip when Elizabeth and Darcy have a quarrel in the rain, both of who speak very formal languages in measured tones and intonation. If students are trained on these, they can fully sense the passion brought by learning English, and their abilities in verbal and body expression are bound to enjoy a great improvement.

8. Combining with translation course: Movies are valuable for English translation teaching. As discussed above, the sentences from a movie are related to a certain situation context, maybe in modern or ancient times, or in a comedy or tragedy, which requires different translation products. It is necessary for students to have a try for translating the excellent sentences in the movies which contain great language and cultural values, following which their translations could be compared to find the best ones. Like the classical movie *First Blood*, the hero Rambo (played by Sylvester Stallone) uttered some good sentences: "The town you dominate, in the mountains I King." And, "No value, valuable death." These sentences can reflect, extremely well, the unrelenting and toughness of the strong man, Rambo. Of course, students can be guided to have a good grasp of the theme of the movie before they have perfect translations for the sentences that can reflect the meaning of the source language as well as the characters best and that have the best aesthetic effect.

C. Films Selection

Of course, for multi-modal teaching the selection of the films is very critical. To begin with, we should consider whether the movie's thought is in a reasonable depth, whether its contents are healthy without an excessive exposure to sex or violence, and whether it has an artistic level. What's more, a possibly large variety of movies should be chosen according to their birth and type, so that students are provided with the chances to have an objective and scientific understanding about English movies, to get a systematic theoretical knowledge of movies, and get an enough familiarity

with western social and cultural background. (Chen Hong, Dong Weiwei, 2009). Secondly, we should follow the step from easy to difficult, from shallow to deep as per their languages and involved topics. In the early stage, some cartoon movies, such as *Hua Mulan* and *The Lion King* can be used, and then in the medium-term, some life movies can be arranged, such as *Roman Holidays* and *The Terminal*, which are easy to the viewers; For the final stage, we can select some difficult ones, such as those which involve a significant history event or professional knowledge, for instance, *Hamlet*, and *Schindler's List*. The third and particularly important point is that the film available to students must have been officially published, with formal English captions. But Chinese captioning must not be provided (to avoid students from simply reading the Chinese captions). What's worse, the pirated copies of DVDs just downloaded from the internet are often accompanied with the wrong English captions, and they are poorly translated into Chinese by some non-professional groups of armature translators, which are likely to mislead the students.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

All in all, English movie appreciation must be a comprehensive course that integrates many linguistic aspects, such as lexical knowledge, pragmatic knowledge and culture knowledge, for which we shall explore to the greatest extent the gigantic functions borne by this carrier, fully making use of the multimodal language elements, for instance, pictures, animation, voice and the like. With a reset of the status of the course English movie appreciation, a teaching strategy of multimodality shall be carried out, in a combination with various language courses such as English pronunciation, and English speaking, listening, English writing, and culture, thus the teaching effect of the course Movies Appreciate can be hopefully improved, and more pleasingly, students' interest in learning English will be upgraded into a higher level. Multimodal discourse, as a new emerging teaching method, is bound to bring the new life for language teaching, which is in a complete compliance with our study rules and principles, exerting an irreplaceable effect on our language teaching. It is believed that, the combination of more teaching approaches and methods, with more information channels and the stimulation from more senses, will become the mainstream trend of future Chinese language teaching development.

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Pingli Lei was born in Anlu, Hubei province of China, who received her master degree from Sun Yat-sen University, China in 2009.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Guangdong Baiyun University in China. Her study interests focus on discourse analysis and teaching methods.

The Effect of Short Message Service on Iranian Lower Intermediate EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension through Skimming and Guessing Strategies Awareness

Emad Ataee

English Department, Torbat-e Heydariyeh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran

Mohammad Ali Fatemi

English Department, Torbat-e Heydariyeh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran

Hamid Ashraf

English Department, Torbat-e Heydariyeh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran

Abstract—The present study tried to investigate the use of Short Message Service (SMS) as a new way to skimming and guessing strategies awareness in reading comprehension, beyond the confines of classroom. To this end, 80 male high school students were selected. To ensure the homogeneity of their proficiency level, Oxford Quick Placement Test (version 2) was administered to them. Fifty five participants were chosen and others were excluded. The participants were assigned into control and experimental groups. Then, they received questions asking them to skim the texts for their main ideas as well as guess the meaning of some new words either on paper or through SMS messages in scheduled pattern of delivery two times a week during eight weeks. After eight weeks, the two groups were compared. The results of t-tests revealed that experimental group, the SMS group, outperformed significantly ($p < .05$) in both skimming and guessing strategies awareness. But there was no significant difference between reading comprehension skills of two groups.

Index Terms—strategies awareness, Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), Short Message Service (SMS), skimming strategy, guessing strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

During recent years language teaching and learning has tried to change its path from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness in western countries. Learner-centeredness is a term associated with Brown's (2007) learner's autonomy. On the other hand, Brown considers autonomy connected with strategies awareness in language learning. He believes in strategies awareness as an impetus to the process of autonomy. But the key point is what Brown states: strategies awareness is not something limited to classroom since many so-called successful learners have reached their mastery through their own efforts beyond the confines of a classroom. Nowadays, new technologies can provide foreign language teachers with the opportunity to attain this purpose. Using SMS, an anytime anywhere feature of mobile phone, the following study tried to examine MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning), specifically mobile phone-based language learning, to achieve this end. Employing this device, the researchers intended to explore a new way of reading comprehension strategies awareness, especially skimming and guessing strategies awareness, beyond the confines of school.

The reason behind this decision was that in Iran, reading comprehension is the focus of English language learning in high school. But with limited hours of English language instruction in schools there is not enough time for teachers to work efficiently on reading comprehension skill and its strategies, especially skimming and guessing, as two important features. Therefore, the main concern of the study was to find a method of improving Iranian high school students' reading comprehension strategies out of classroom. It intended to detect a solution to the time limitation that teachers of English face in this regard.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) is described by Begum (2011) as an approach to language learning that is enhanced through use of a mobile device and is involved with the use of mobile technologies, such as mobile phones, MP3 players and palmtop computers to support students' language learning. As long as the purpose of the study was to

examine the effect of using mobile phone and its distinctive feature Short Message Service (SMS) in language learning, our literature review will focus mainly on the previous work done in areas of language learning through mobile phone.

In a study, Motallebzadeh and Ganjali (2011) examined the effect of SMS on vocabulary retention and reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. The experimental group received English words besides definitions and example sentences via SMS in a spaced and scheduled pattern of delivery while those in control group were taught new words through conventional board and paper technique for the same period. Results of t-test analysis implied that participants in SMS group could significantly outperform those in control group. In another study, Motallebzadeh, Beh-Afarin, and Daliry Rad (2011) investigated the effect of SMS on the retention of collocations among Iranian lower intermediate EFL learners. The participants who were university students received collocations as well as example and definitions on paper in control group and through SMS in experimental group for retention. The result revealed the fact that participants in SMS group outperformed the ones in control group. Norouzi et al. (2012) explored the effect of mobile learning over the critical thinking in higher education. The participants were students of a language institute. The researcher discovered that students' attitudes toward the usefulness of a mobile learning system improved significantly at the end of the study. Likewise, it was found that after the study the students' creativity improved significantly. Alemi, Anani Sarab, and Lari (2012) investigating the effectiveness of SMS on Iranian university students' vocabulary learning and retention of academic word lists noticed that the experimental group had a better performance in the delayed post-test in comparison with the control group who used dictionary for retention. In another research, Tabatabaei and Heidari Goojani (2012) explored the effectiveness of text-messaging on vocabulary learning of EFL learners. Both the experimental and control group were taught the same words. In order to learn the new words, the experimental group was required to send sentences for the taught words through SMS, but the control group wrote sentences for each word and brought them to the class. Result of t-test indicated that participants in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group. In another research, Thornton and Houser (2005) performed two counter balanced studies to compare the usefulness of delivering of vocabulary items via different mobile media. In one experiment, they compared forwarding some short mini lessons to students' emails on their mobile phones with presenting them on paper. In another study, they compared sending lessons through SMS with presenting them on paper. At the end, they found no significant difference between long and short lessons. They argued that the effect of the frequency of the lessons was more important than the quantity of materials presented in a lesson. Likewise, Levy and Kennedy (2005) in a similar program developed for Italian learners in Australia found that sending English words and idioms via mobile phone can enhance the participants' recall of the given words (as cited in Motallebzadeh & Ganjali, 2011). On a study, Song and Fox (2005) examined the role of SMS in English as second language vocabulary learning for working adult learners. The study showed that mobile technology improved the learners' performance in their learning. Market et al. (2006) researched on use of SMS to encourage classroom interactions. In their study, some students sent SMSs via their personal mobile phones and these SMSs were exposed on the screen of a laptop where a modem interfacing with customized software was used to produce SMS file in order to view the sent message. The teacher then replied verbally and this message with teacher's verbal reply was later posted online to promote interactivity by further comments. Begum (2011) investigated the potentiality of cell phone use in the EFL classroom of Bangladesh as an instructional tool. The researcher conducted a case study on university students. For the study, some SMS based class tests were held in the English department of the university where one hundred graduate EFL students participated as subjects. Before the tests, in order to teach appropriate use of prepositions, some EFL teachers sent SMSs to students for one week. After one week, the teachers took some class tests where the test questions were delivered via SMS and the students also replied to the test questions by mobile SMS. The author gathered data through students' questionnaires, and teachers' interview records and classroom observation reports. The research results showed that cell phone has great potential as an instructional tool despite the common point of view that considers cell phones as a disturbing factor in the classroom.

To achieve the goals of the present study, the following questions were posed:

Q₁: Does SMS have any significant effect on EFL learners' skimming strategies awareness in reading comprehension?

Q₂: Does SMS have any significant effect on EFL learners' guessing strategies awareness in Reading comprehension?

Q₃: Does an awareness of skimming and guessing strategies through SMS have any significant effects on EFL learners' reading comprehension skill?

To come up with reasonable results on the basis of the mentioned research questions, the following null hypotheses were proposed:

H₀₁: SMS does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' skimming strategies awareness in reading comprehension.

H₀₂: SMS does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' guessing strategies awareness in reading comprehension.

H₀₃: Skimming and guessing strategies awareness through SMS does not have any significant effects on EFL learners' reading comprehension skill.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In this study, the sample was selected out of eighty students of last grade of a high school in Gonabad, Iran in the academic year of 2013-14. Due to gender segregation in Iran's schools, the participants in this project were only male. The subjects' age ranged from 17 to 18. In order to homogenize the participants regarding their general proficiency level, a test of homogeneity was administered to the subjects. Having analyzed the data, 54 students whose scores were between 30 and 39 (out of 60) were chosen as the subjects of this study. Based on the scoring guideline of the test, this range of score is suitable for lower-intermediate level. Then, they were assigned into experimental and control groups with 27 in each group.

B. Instrumentation

To conduct the study, the researchers used the following instruments for data collection:

(1) *Oxford Quick Placement Test (version 2)*: In order to homogenize the proficiency level of the participants to select the experimental and control groups, Quick Placement Test (version 2) developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate was used. This test included 60 items testing vocabulary and grammar knowledge of the participants.

(2) *Researchers-made reading comprehension test*: The second instrument was the researchers-made test containing eight reading comprehension passages which was used as pretest. Each of these passages included five multiple-choice questions, totally forty. Two questions in each passage were related to skimming and guessing strategies and the others were detail questions. These passages were chosen from University Entrance Examinations during past years. Hatch and Farhady (1982) postulated that if there is more than two week duration between a pretest and a posttest, we can use a pretest as a posttest. Therefore, this test was utilized at the end of study as posttest, too. The reliability of the test was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha which was 0.741.

C. Procedure

To achieve the purpose of this study, first of all, eighty students of last grade of high school were selected. To ensure the homogeneity of their proficiency level, Oxford Quick Placement Test (version 2) was administered to them. 54 participants, whose scores were between 30 and 39 (out of 60), were chosen and others were excluded. Then, the researchers spoke to the participants about what was going to happen in this study. Of course, skimming and guessing are two strategies which are mentioned in the students' book with a few exercises concerning them. In addition, the learners were reminded that in order to attend the experimental group of this research having a mobile phone is necessary. It was also emphasized that the expense of SMSs sent by experimental group would be paid to them before starting the research. On the basis of these assumptions and students' willingness to experience MALL, they were assigned to each of the experimental and control groups. The second phase was piloting the reading comprehension test devised by the researchers to verify its reliability. The researchers-made test was administered to thirty two students of a high school. The estimated reliability coefficient through Cronbach's Alpha was 0.741. After being assured of the reliability, the researchers pre-tested both groups to check reading comprehension proficiency of each one separately. The next phase was treatment. Twice a week, totally eight weeks (sixteen sessions), at the end of the last sessions of Sundays and Tuesdays, both of experimental and control groups received a reading passage. The reading passages given to both groups were the same. In each passage, there were four to six new words (two or three for each group) to guess. The criterion for selecting new words was the range of words that Iranian students learn in school. In the control group, they should skim the passage for its main idea, and then try to guess the meaning of underlined words and write their answers on the passage paper. At the beginning of the next day of their school (on Mondays and Wednesday), they submitted their papers. Later, the papers were checked and the proper main idea(s) as well as the correct meaning of the words required to guess were written on them; then they were returned to the students. In the experimental group, according to the previous arrangement an SMS including two questions was sent to the subjects; the first one was always about the main idea of the text to force them to skim the passage and the second one was a question that asked the students to guess the meaning of new words (sent through SMS). They were asked to send OK through SMS after receiving the questions. Receiving the SMS, they had to send the main idea and the guessed meanings to the researchers via SMS within half an hour. After receiving the answers from the students, correct answers were sent to them through mobile phone. This was done after receiving answers from the control group. From the beginning, this point was emphasized that in addition to the importance of the strategies in reading comprehension skill, they would be tested for them later as the main part of their second continuous class mark at the end of the year (in Iran's high school there are two continuous marks given in the mid-year and at the end of the year based on students' class work); likewise, they were told that bad marks show their dishonesty and cheating because they should improve after sixteen sessions of practice. This matter was implied that they should try to do their best for correct guessing and skimming; however, they would not be penalized for wrong answers (to prevent them from looking up the meanings in their dictionary and cheating). Sometimes they were chided for cheating to show that they are under control. After sixteen sessions of practice, both groups were given the post-test (the students didn't know that the post test would be the same as the pretest). The final stage of the study consisted of analyzing the data including the results of pre-test and post-test through applying t-test and comparing the mean of each group (after calculating the result of normality test) which was performed by software program of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), version nineteen.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT

A. Results of Normality Test

First of all, in order to ensure the normality of data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for all data in both Oxford Quick Placement (homogenizing) Test and the researchers-made reading comprehension test. Tables 1, 2, and 3 represent the results. Null hypothesis of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test shows the normality of data. If the obtained p-value is more than 0.05, then the null hypothesis is accepted.

TABLE 1.
RESULTS OF KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR OXFORD QUICK PLACEMENT TEST

Group	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	P-value
Control	27	.120	.200
Experimental	27	.122	.200

According to table 1, p-value for the two groups in Oxford Quick Placement test is more than 0.05; therefore the null hypothesis is accepted, and data are normal.

TABLE 2.
NORMALITY TEST OF RESEARCHERS-MADE READING COMPREHENSION TEST – CONTROL GROUP

Control group	Variable	Test	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	P-value
Skimming strategy	Dependent	Pretest	27	.262	0.71
		Posttest	27	.157	0.84
Guessing strategy	Dependent	Pretest	27	.153	.104
		Posttest	27	.166	.053
Reading Comprehension	Dependent	Pretest	27	.148	.123
		Posttest	27	.101	.200

TABLE 3.
NORMALITY TEST OF RESEARCHERS-MADE READING COMPREHENSION TEST – EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Control group	Variable	Test	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	P-value
Skimming strategy	Dependent	Pretest	27	.127	.200
		Posttest	27	.215	.070
Guessing strategy	Dependent	Pretest	27	.243	.063
		Posttest	27	.198	.081
Reading Comprehension	Dependent	Pretest	27	.183	.098
		posttest	27	.112	.200

Tables 2 and 3 show that the p-values for the two groups' data in the researchers-made reading comprehension test are more than 0.05; then, the null hypothesis is accepted, that is, all data obtained for variables are normal. Therefore, t-test would be an appropriate method for comparing means.

B. Results of Oxford Quick Placement Test as the Homogenizing Instrument

After conducting Oxford Quick Placement Test to homogenize the participants, in order to ensure their true homogeneity (N = 54) in control (N = 27) and experimental (N = 27) groups, the researchers decided to conduct an independent-sample t-test (see Table 4).

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR HOMOGENIZING TEST

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Cont	27	34.55	2.96	-.229	52	0.82
Exp	27	34.74	2.98			

First of all, it should be mentioned that all the t-tests of this study was carried out at the probability level $p < .05$. That is, in the following t-tests if the p-value is lower than 0.05 the result will be significant.

As the results of Table 4 implies, there is no statistically significant difference [$t(52) = -.229$, $p = .82$ (two-tailed)] between control (M = 34.55, SD = 2.96) and experimental (M = 34.74, SD = 2.98) groups concerning language proficiency which proves the homogeneity of two groups.

C. Results of Independent Samples T-test

In this phase, findings of independent samples or inter-group t-tests are surveyed. In these t-tests, the mean of control and experimental groups are compared with each other in pre and posttests. It should be noted that in all independent samples t-tests of this study, the computation of the variances for the two groups carried out through Levene's test showed a non-significant value ($> .05$).

1. Results of pretest

The inferential statistics of this section intend to present the findings vis-à-vis the scores of control and experimental groups in pretest. These findings show if there was a significant difference between two groups before treatment. Let's start the scrutiny with skimming variable.

TABLE 5.
PRETEST RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF SKIMMING STRATEGY AWARENESS

Groups	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Cont.	27	4.81	1.27	-0.22	-.554	52	.582
Exp.	27	5.03	1.65				

As Table 5 reveals, the results express that the difference between control (paper and pencil) group ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 1.27$) and experimental (SMS) group ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 1.65$) is not significant [$t(52) = -0.554$, $p = 0.582$ (two-tailed)]. This implies that skimming strategy awareness of control and experimental groups was similar before the treatment began.

TABLE 6.
PRETEST RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF GUESSING STRATEGY AWARENESS

Groups	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Cont.	27	4.25	1.34	-.44	-1.12	52	0.264
Exp.	27	4.70	1.53				

Table 6 illustrates the difference between the means of control group ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 1.34$) and experimental group ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 1.53$). As it shows, there is not a significant difference [$t(52) = -1.12$, $p = 0.264$ (two-tailed)] between two groups' performance before starting treatment. Therefore, their guessing strategy awareness has been nearly at the same level.

TABLE 7.
PRETEST RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF READING COMPREHENSION

Groups	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Cont.	27	14.44	3.96	.14	.131	52	.896
Exp.	27	14.29	4.33				

Table 7 displays, the difference between the performance of control group ($M = 14.14$, $SD = 3.96$) and experimental group ($M = 14.29$, $SD = 4.33$) in pretest is not significant [$t(52) = 0.131$, $p = 0.896$ (two-tailed)]. This means reading comprehension level of the two groups has been similar before treatment.

Tables 5, 6, and 7 show that the two groups were homogenized in skimming and guessing strategies awareness as well as reading comprehension level before starting treatment.

2. Results of posttest

In this section, the researcher is going to describe the most important findings, i.e. posttest inferential statistics. This purpose was obtained through t-tests comparing the means of control and experimental groups to show the significance of study. Again, this process is started with skimming strategy awareness.

TABLE 8.
POSTTEST RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF SKIMMING STRATEGY AWARENESS

Groups	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Cont.	27	5.55	1.25	-.92	-3.081	52	.003
Exp.	27	6.84	.935				

Table 8 displays the results of control group ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.25$) and experimental group ($M = 6.84$, $SD = .935$) in posttest. As it implies, there is a significant difference [$t(52) = -3.081$, $p = .003$ (two-tailed)] between the performance of control and experimental groups in skimming strategy after treatment. The results of Table 7 indicate that using SMS for strategy awareness of skimming has been more effective than traditional method of paper and pencil.

TABLE 9.
POSTTEST RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF GUESSING STRATEGY AWARENESS

Group	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Cont.	27	4.85	1.61	-.851	-2.268	52	.028
Exp.	27	5.70	1.10				

As Table 9 illustrates, after sixteen sessions of treatment, the difference between control group ($M = 4.85$, $SD = 1.61$) and experimental group ($M = 5.70$, $SD = 1.10$) in guessing strategy awareness is statistically significant [$t(52) = -2.268$, $p = .028$ (two-tailed)]. This reveals that guessing strategy awareness via SMS has had a more positive effect on learners than that of paper and pencil method.

TABLE 10.
POSTTEST RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF READING COMPREHENSION

Groups	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Cont.	27	15.70	3.20	-.629	-.639	52	.526
Exp.	27	16.33	3.99				

Table 10 shows the findings concerning the effect of strategy awareness through SMS on reading comprehension in experimental group compared with that of traditional paper and pencil method in control group. As it suggests after

sixteen sessions of treatment, the difference between control group ($M = 15.70$, $SD = 3.20$) and experimental group ($M = 16.33$, $SD = 3.99$) is not significant [$t(52) = -.639$, $p = .526$ (two-tailed)].

On the basis of tables 8, 9, and 10, it can be inferred that experimental group has outperformed significantly control group concerning skimming and guessing strategies awareness in posttest, but with regard to the effect of strategies awareness on reading comprehension, there is no significant difference between the two groups.

D. Results of Paired Samples T-tests

These tests contained the comparison of the control and experimental intra-group means regarding their performance in pre and posttests. The findings of this section are divided into parts: (1) results of control group, (2) results of experimental group.

1. Results of control group

To compare the control groups' performance on the pre and posttest, the researchers conducted three paired samples t-test concerning three research questions of the study. The first one relates to skimming strategy (see Table 11).

TABLE 11.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST ON SKIMMING STRATEGY AWARENESS IN CONTROL GROUP

Tests	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Pre	27	4.81	1.27	-0.74	-3.058	26	.005
Post	27	5.55	1.25				

Note. Pre = pretest; Post = posttest; MD = Mean Difference between pretest and posttest.
The MD was reached with the mean of pretest minus that of posttest.

As Table 11 reveals, after sixteen sessions of skimming strategy awareness, subjects in control group ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.25$) significantly outperformed [$t(26) = -3.058$, $p = .005$ (two-tailed)] their performance at the beginning of treatment ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 1.27$). It can be concluded that control group developed their skimming strategy after working on this strategy through paper and pencil.

TABLE 12.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST ON GUESSING STRATEGY AWARENESS IN CONTROL GROUP

Tests	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Pre	27	4.25	1.34	-0.59	-2.08	26	.047
Post	27	4.85	1.61				

Table 12 shows the results related to guessing strategy awareness of control group. As it indicates, after sixteen sessions of instruction, participants of posttest ($M = 4.85$, $SD = 1.61$) significantly outperformed [$t(26) = -2.08$, $p = .047$ (two-tailed)] their pretest performance ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 1.34$). This expresses that guessing strategy awareness via paper and pencil has improved control group's guessing strategy.

TABLE 13.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS ON READING COMPREHENSION IN CONTROL GROUP

Test	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Pre	27	14.44	3.96	-1.25	-2.56	26	.016
Post	27	15.70	3.20				

Table 13 reveals the results of treatment regarding the effect of skimming and guessing strategies awareness on control group's reading comprehension. As it is presented in the table, after treatment, subjects of control group ($M = 15.70$, $SD = 3.20$) in posttest significantly outperformed [$t(26) = -2.56$, $p = .016$ (two-tailed)] their performance in pretest ($M = 14.44$, $SD = 3.96$). This finding delineates that working on their skimming and guessing strategies awareness through paper and pencil had a positive effect on control group's reading comprehension skill.

Tables 11, 12, and 13 express that paper and pencil method of treatment had a significant effect on control group.

2. Results of experimental group

In this section, the results of paired samples t-tests of experimental group are surveyed. These findings state the difference of their performance on pre and posttest concerning three research questions of study. Like control group's study, we start with the results of skimming strategy awareness.

TABLE 14.
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST ON SKIMMING STRATEGY AWARENESS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Test	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Pre	27	5.03	1.65	-1.44	-5.37	26	0.00
Post	27	6.48	0.93				

As Table 14 shows, after sixteen sessions of treatment, participants of experimental group ($M = 6.48$, $SD = 0.93$) significantly outperformed [$t(26) = -5.37$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] their performance before the beginning of treatment ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 1.56$). Therefore, it can be concluded that using SMS for skimming strategy awareness has been effective.

The next part relates to the effect of treatment on guessing strategies awareness (see Table 15).

TABLE 15.
 PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST ON GUESSING STRATEGY AWARENESS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Test	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Pre	27	4.70	1.53	-1.00	-4.29	26	0.00
Post	27	5.70	1.10				

As Table 15 reveals, sixteen sessions of treatment using SMS has had a positive effect on guessing strategy awareness of experimental group. Subjects of experimental group ($M = 5.70$, $SD = 1.10$) significantly outperformed [$t(26) = -4.29$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] their performance in pretest ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 1.53$).

TABLE 16.
 PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST ON READING COMPREHENSION IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Tests	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	p
Pre	27	14.29	4.33	-2.03	-4.10	26	0.00
Post	27	16.33	3.99				

As Table 16 illustrates, after sixteen sessions of treatment, participants of experimental group in posttest ($M = 16.33$, $SD = 3.99$) significantly outperformed [$t(26) = -4.10$, $p = 0.00$ (two-tailed)] their performance before the outset of treatment ($M = 14$, $SD = 4.33$). Therefore, it can be inferred that using SMS for skimming and scanning strategy awareness has influenced positively experimental group's reading comprehension skill.

With a review of tables 14, 15, and 16 you can deduce that using SMS for treatment in experimental group had a significant effect on skimming and guessing strategies awareness and in turn, this awareness significantly influenced reading comprehension; although the mean differences in experimental group are much more prominent than that of control group.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

On the basis of data analysis of the study, the following findings concerning the research hypotheses were achieved:

The first research hypothesis stating that SMS does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' skimming strategy awareness in reading was rejected. The results of paired-sample t-tests showed that sixteen sessions of treatment had a significant effect on experimental group's performance. Likewise, the findings of independent-sample t-tests delineated experimental (SMS) group outperformed significantly control (paper and pencil) group in skimming strategy awareness.

The second research hypothesis claiming that SMS does not have any significant effect on EFL learner's guessing strategy awareness in reading was also rejected. The finding of paired-sample t-tests revealed that treatment had a significant influence on experimental group's guessing strategy awareness. In addition, the results of independent-sample t-tests implied that SMS group outperformed significantly control group in this regard.

The third research hypothesis suggesting that skimming and guessing strategies awareness through SMS do not have any significant effect on EFL learners' reading comprehension should be judged from two aspects. First, data analysis of paired-sample t-tests illustrated that both method of skimming and guessing strategies awareness had a significant influence on reading comprehension skill of two groups. Nevertheless, the outcome of independent-sample t-tests displayed that there was no significant difference between the improvements of SMS (experimental) group's reading comprehension skill and that of control group.

From the results yielded in the study, the following issues can be discussed:

First, the significant effect of strategy awareness in skimming and guessing strategies awareness in both groups and their consequent significant effect on their reading comprehension are consistent with the following findings: they are in harmony with findings (Anderson, 1991; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999) suggesting that guessing from context can be taught. They are in accordance with studies (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Anastasiou & Griva, 2009; Hassan, n.d.; Mokhtari & Richard, 2004; Noroozi Sima & Soozandehfar, n.d.) claiming that strategic reading instruction has a significant effect on learners' reading comprehension. Specifically, they support Kojima and Narita's (2004) claiming that guessing strategy training has significant influence on reading comprehension. Likewise, they conform to Edmonds-Behrend's (2009) argument regarding the positive effect of skimming strategy training on reading comprehension. Also, they are consistent with Fuping's (2006) finding concerning the significant influence of the instruction of skimming and guessing strategies on reading comprehension.

Second, the significant outperformance of experimental group regarding strategies awareness as a part of foreign language learning supports the studies related to the positive effect of mobile phone-based language learning in general. These include: (a) findings related to using SMS for vocabulary retention (Alemi, Anani Sarab, & Lari, 2012; Derakhshan & Kaivanpanah, 2011; Tabatabaee & Heidari Goojani, 2012; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; Lu, 2008), (b) studies using mobile phone for vocabulary retention and promoting reading comprehension (Chen & Hsu, 2008; Motallebzadeh & Ganjali, 2011), (c) Motallebzadeh, Beh-afarin, and Daliry Rad's (2011) utilizing SMS for the retention of collocations, (d) Thornton and Houser's (2005) employing mobile phone for presenting foreign language materials to students, (e) Baleghizadeh and Oladrostam's (2010) applying mobile phone to grammar learning of their learners; and finally, (f) Huang and Sun's (2010) using mobile phone for enhancing listening comprehension.

Third, the obtained results of the study revealed that both SMS and paper and pencil methods employed in this research had significant effects on strategies awareness and in turn on reading comprehension skill of the EFL learners. But concerning the degree of strategies awareness, SMS group significantly outperformed paper and pencil group. However, regarding reading comprehension, the difference between the effects of two methods was not significant.

Based on the findings of this study along with some previous similar studies, the following pedagogical implications concerning strategies awareness and mobile phone-based language learning arise:

The results of the research illustrates that strategies awareness and training are essential parts of EFL learning and should be integrated into high school learners' curriculum. As it was stated before, achieving significant effect in both methods incorporated into this study implies that Iranian EFL learners require such a kind of training. This requirement was also reflected in their attitudes towards strategy training.

However, achieving this purpose needs teacher's modeling and guided practice so that learners will know why, when, and how they use these strategies. Likewise, teachers should not limit their strategies training to particular mini-course; especially, absorbing test-taking strategies in reading is a time-consuming process. Therefore, it should be integrated into the teaching program from the first year of high school.

Eskey and Grabe (1988) claim that EFL teacher should help language learners develop both bottom-up and top-down processing. This aim was obtained in this study via working on skimming and guessing strategy awareness simultaneously. In reading comprehension, top-down processing is something that happens in skimming when students try to get a general idea of a text before scanning it to answer its questions. However, attempting to guess an unknown word only according to its surrounding words without skimming the whole text, they use bottom-up processing. While students skim a passage and have a general understanding of it, this helps them in better guessing of the meanings of new words. In fact, they are utilizing both bottom-up and top-down processing.

The preliminary step to strategies awareness is teacher's trying to motivate EFL learners for reading. In this study, this goal was attained extrinsically through telling the students that the results would affect their continuous marks. But this purpose can be achieved intrinsically via extensive reading by introducing short stories with attractive and authentic themes in different levels for students to choose and read. In this way, we can change the frustrating nature of reading to many EFL learners.

Teachers should be familiar with the process of strategies training. They should know how to model the strategy. They should follow a theoretical framework for their training. Having this knowledge, they can scaffold learners during the procedure and give them feedback. However, these proceedings should lead to autonomous application of strategies by learners. Therefore, this point must be considered in in-service teacher training program.

The results of the study showed that strategy training is not something necessarily limited to classroom, but training strategic readers can be continued at home.

This fact should be accepted that mobile phone-based language learning technology, thanks to its portability and anytime anywhere features, can give this opportunity to language educators to provide their learners with authentic audio/visual language learning materials and virtual classrooms without the panic of a laptop, video projector and electricity supply for their teaching. This advantage can also be transferred to outside of schools like what happened in this study to escape from time constraint of classroom. In addition, the interactive feature of this technology helps them make their teaching more learner-centered and encourage learners in self-regulating learning of constructivism although it does not replace direct instruction completely in classroom. This is in accordance with Roschelle et al.'s (2005) belief that learning management may best enhanced by a combination of mobile technology and human assistance. On the other hand, because of mobile learning novelty, it can arouse learners' motivation, intrinsically or extrinsically, and motivation is a concept closely related to achievement. In addition, it may be an alternative instructional tool for those learners who need special help or complementary teaching materials (Lu, 2008).

A. Suggestions for Further Studies

There are some suggestions for further studies that can be sources of different researches. Among them, eliminating the problem of selecting the correct meaning of multi-meaning English words in reading may be an impetus for devising innovative methodology whether via MALL or other approaches. Another suggestion is working on scanning strategy that can be implemented easily through mobile phone through sending questions via SMS asking learners to scan passages and send their answers through mobile phone. The next point is that this research was based on a simple design including two groups. Further researches with more complex design and larger scale of participants may be implemented to survey the effect of using mobile phone as an instructional tool. For example, by employing three groups the effect of skimming and guessing strategies on reading comprehension can be scrutinized separately. In this study, there was not such a separation. The next issue is regarding the duration of this study, strategy training is a time consuming process. If an instructor devotes an academic year to strategies training, he can definitely attain more convincing results.

B. (De) Limitations of Study

It must be mentioned that this research involved limitations which should be considered. First, there may be different causes for Iranian EFL learners' weaknesses in reading comprehension among which the researchers have chosen skimming and guessing strategies based on their experience. The next point is regarding sample size, this research was

performed on only fifty four students of a small city and its results should not be over generalized. The other limitation is concerning the duration of this research which included eight weeks; perfect strategy training is usually a long process. Likewise, gender and other personal variables were not taken into account because this study was taking place outside of school and controlling all conditions and variables were not possible for the researchers. The last point is regarding mobile phone itself; due to the limitation of character numbers allowed in an SMS and small screen of mobile phones, the researchers were forced to give the reading passages to the experimental group through paper. Therefore the method employed in experimental group was not merely performed via mobile phone.

The last word, at the turn of century to keep up with technological advancement is a need for EFL learning. The turning point of this aim can be mobile phone-based learning. There are many reciprocal and nonreciprocal mobile phone-based methods that inventive minds of language instructors can think of not only for instructing but also testing their EFL learners. However, sometimes innovations must be tailored to the cultural setting in which they are used. Today, in our schools, when students enter classroom, they should switch off their mobile phones because it is considered something meddling with learning. To cultivate the presence of mobile phone as an assistant of learning certainly needs time and conducting more researches to convince the policy makers of Iran Ministry of Education to change their views towards mobile phone. It is hoped that despite its limitation, this article will shed light into applicability of MALL in foreign language learning.

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Emad Ataee is an EFL teacher at ministry of education of Iran and a part-time instructor of university. He holds an MA degree in TEFL from Islamic Azad University of Iran (Torbat-e-Heydarieh Branch). His areas of interests are language learning strategies, MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning) and sociolinguistics.

Mohammad Ali Fatemi, PhD in TEFL is currently teaching in Islamic Azad University of Iran (Torbat-e-Heydarieh Branch). His fields of interests are Teaching Methodology, Research Methodology and Contrastive Discourse Analysis. He has participated and presented articles in many national as well as international conferences. He has also published articles in relation to teachability of learning strategies, pronunciation problems of Iranian EFL Learners, active learning instructions, instructors' beliefs, E-Reading Text, Iranian perceptions of the best language teaching method, etc.

Hamid Ashraf did his PhD in English Language Teaching at English Department, University of Pune, India. He has been a member of faculty at English Department in Islamic Azad University of Iran (Torbat Heydarieh Branch) since 1996. He has published and presented papers in international and national journals and conferences on issues in ELT: critical thinking in ELT, speaking assessment (iBT TOEFL), electronic material preparation (Podcasting), and English project works, etc. He has authored textbooks on listening for IELTS, and critical reading, and also has done three granted projects. He has also supervised and advised MA theses of a number of TEFL students.

Hamid Ashraf is a member of Asia TEFL society, and TELLISI. He has been the chair of scientific committee in two recent national and international conferences in Iran.

Exploring the Connection between Stability and Variability in Language Classrooms and EFL Teachers' Creativity and Burnout

Fatemeh Hemati

Payam Noor University of Tehran, Iran

Ali Raeesi

Payam Noor University of Tehran, Iran

Abstract—Burnout and creativity, as two psychological constructs, are considered as variables which may have a considerable impact on the quality of teaching and learning. The present case study aimed at investigating the possible connections between degrees of class stability and variability and levels of creativity and burnout among 6 Iranian EFL teachers. In so doing, degrees of variability and stability, as defined and characterized in the domain of Chaos/Complexity theory, were studied qualitatively in EFL classes in relation to creativity and burnout levels of the teachers. The results suggested a direct relationship between variability and creativity levels of the participants together with a reverse relationship between the variability level and the 'depersonalization' aspect of burnout. In other words, class dynamism and creativity have more shared patterns and seem to be analogous.

Index Terms—variability and stability in complex systems, creativity, burnout

I. INTRODUCTION

Burnout and creativity are two psychological concepts which are predicted to have contrasting effects on the human performance in all situations. Particularly, in an educational context improving learners' level of creativity can have a huge positive impact whereas burnout effects can be detrimental. Burnout for example, as Bryne (1998) stated, has forced a large number teachers to leave their occupations after a couple of years of experience. Other studies have also been carried out to elaborate on the vague aspects of this phenomenon. For example, it was reported that around one third of teachers were not satisfied with their jobs, and that plenty of them, suffer from some degree of burnout (Farber, 2000). To Iwanicki (1983) and many other experts in the field, burnout is a complex phenomenon requiring the close attention of all educators. From this perspective, burnout is a multi-faceted, multi dimensional phenomenon whose various components require more attention and investigation.

Similarly though, creativity as a part of each person's mental abilities, is believed to be composed of some distinct components. From Vygotsky (1995)'s point of view, creativity is an indispensable part of the human existence and the whole society and it is not only an artistic ability that some people possess, but in essence, something that is essential for the process of consciousness. Studies on the concept of creativity and its wide-ranging influence are by far extensive and insightful. Most of these studies point to the fact that teaching should be geared towards practices and patterns that foster creativity and removes boredom and frustration from educational classes.

However, recently chaos/ complexity theory has brought with it new perspectives to the field of linguistics as well as applied linguistics. To learn about this further, we need to know what complex systems are and what specific features and qualities they possess. In essence, Complex systems theory (CST), Dynamic system theory (DST), Chaos theory and 'Emergentism' almost share the same specifics and principles; amongst them CST is the most matured theory with the other three theories as closely associated strands under it (Dornyei, 2009). *Variability and stability*, for instance is one of the main features of any complex system.

It appears that different levels of creativity and burnout on the part of EFL teachers may correlate differently with degrees of variability and stability. Unfortunately, research on determining the possible connection of these two variables i.e. burnout and creativity with the level of class dynamism or variability and stability in EFL context, has remained intact and mediocre.

Thus, the present qualitative study is meant to investigate any possible interaction between degrees of class dynamism or variability, based on the criteria provided by Chaos/ Complexity theory, and the two psychological constructs of creativity and burnout among six Iranian EFL teachers. Put another way, the study has tried to see if there are any shared patterns between creativity and variability in class on one hand and burnout and class variability on the other hand.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Burnout

As for burnout, there exist a wide variety of definitions and elaborations, yet most of them point a similar entity. In this regard, Maslach (1982) referred to burnout as a multi-faceted concept and defined the term as: “a three dimensional syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that occurs among individuals who work with people in some helping capacity” (p. 3). This is a widely used definition as it covers almost all aspects of the term. Furthermore, Goddard et al. (2006) believed that burnout is a chronic state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that is experienced by some employees due to the huge amount of work load.

Yet, from a broader perspective, Smith & McWilliams (1980) claimed that burnout develops when an individual’s energy and motivation is degrading much faster than it is being retrieved. This is reflected in the feelings of alienation, isolation, depression, irritability and chronic physical ailments (*ibid*).

In two comprehensive studies by Maslach and her colleagues, burnout was found to have three major symptoms (Maslach & Jackson, 1984). These three main components of burnout were explicated by Maslach et al. (2001): (a) the emotional exhaustion that is the feeling of being emotionally overextended and exhausted with one’s work; (b) depersonalization as the development of negative and indifferent attitudes toward others and (c) the reduced personal accomplishment which is the loss of feelings of self competence and not being satisfied with one’s achievements.

One key figure with regard to burnout is Christina Maslach who has done pioneering research on the concept of burnout. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), is still used as the most reliable and valid instrument on measuring burnout. However, it is clearly evident that measuring mental and emotional constructs is always a challenging task and one that requires a great deal of precision.

B. Creativity

Speaking of creativity, it is hard to come to one single clear-cut definition of the term. However, creativity, as compared to burnout, has enjoyed a larger body of research by some great experts of the field. In this respect, Dornyei (2005), a key figure in of ELT psychology, stated that research into the concept of creativity is either limited or mediocre. He further maintained that the studies to define creativity have focused on the description of ‘creative person’, ‘creative thinking’ or the ‘creative process/ behavior/production/ performance’ rather than the actual mental construct of creativity. One explanation for this deficiency in the literature of creativity is its fuzzy nature and the fact that it is studied in the field of *soft psychology* (plucker et al., 2004). The problem is that “Soft constructs” are difficult to define or describe due to their unobservable qualities and specifics which make it almost impossible to be measured objectively. In a similar vein, Amabile (1983), described creativity as a combination of three major constructs: intrinsic motivation, knowledge of a field and particular cognitive skills.

Likewise, Carter (2004) believes that the dominant paradigm of research into creativity is based on the discipline of psychology, and that creativity is commonly viewed as a mentalistic phenomenon. He claims that this phenomenon cannot be decontextualised or studied in a disciplinary vacuum or seen as an exclusively mental process and that creativity is a social, cultural and environmental phenomenon as well as a psychological process (cited in Ghonsooly & Raeesi, 2012).

Having studied the pioneering works in this field, Torrance was the one who developed the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) and helped explain some of the vague components of this construct. Torrance (1966) saw creativity as ‘a process of becoming sensitive to problems, deficiencies, gaps in knowledge, missing elements, disharmonies, and so on. Moreover he continued that, creativity is identifying the difficulty; and eventually searching for solutions, making guesses, or formulating hypotheses about the deficiencies: testing and retesting these hypotheses and possibly modifying and retesting them; and finally communicating the results.

Furthermore, Baer (1993) counts four relatively distinct aspects of divergent thinking: creative fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration. The first one is the ability to produce a large number of ideas; while the second concerns the ability to produce a wide variety of ideas. Further, originality deals with the potential to produce unusual ideas and elaboration centers around developing and embellishing ideas and producing many details (cited in Ghonsooly & Raeesi, 2012). Many experts take these four components as the main building blocks of creativity itself. In a different study, Guilford made a list of cognitive processes which were believed to play an important role in one’s creativity. According to Guilford (1950) sensitivity to problems, creative fluency of production, ability to come up with novel ideas, flexibility of mind, synthesizing ability, analyzing ability, reorganization and redefinition of organized wholes, a high degree of complexity of the conceptual structure, and evaluation. Guilford (1959)’s work introduced the idea of ‘divergent thinking’ as the most important cognitive component of creativity. This is the ability to come up with a wide range of possible solutions in addressing a given problem. At that point, this finding was probably the most illuminating study concerning the definition of the term creativity.

Now, seen from a different perspective, Chaos/ complexity theory portrays a different image of the notion of creativity. Freeman & Cameron (2008) believe that where systems are stretched, where conventional rules are not upheld, where a point of criticality is reached, new forms emerge. To them, this is called ‘the edge of chaos’ where systems show a great deal of flexibility and responsiveness and when creativity is developed and/ or fostered. Larsen-Freeman (1997), within the domain of this theory, states that complex systems such as human being, brain, and

languages go through stages of order and disorder/ chaos. “A system at or near the edge of chaos (disorder) changes adaptively to maintain stability and consequently, allows for a high level of flexibility” (2008, p.58). In this sense, flexibility and variability seem to convey an identical concept as regards complex systems.

C. *Variability and Stability in Complex Systems*

Prior to understanding the concept of variability and stability, it is absolutely crucial to define complex systems. A complex system is “that its behavior emerges from the interaction of its component; the emergent behavior is often non-linear, meaning disproportionate to its causal factors” (Freeman & Cameron 2008, p. 2). Additionally, complex systems are characterized by features such as *openness to energy, adaptation, heterogeneity, dynamism, interconnectedness, non-linearity, unpredictability* and etc. Given this definition, it can be easily deduced that language classrooms, learners, teachers and human brain are all obvious examples of a complex system as they all share the characteristics mentioned by Freeman and Cameron (2008) with respect to complex systems.

Complex systems always maintain a certain degree of stability as well as variability. In other words they are both stable and variable. Stability perpetuates the total identity of a system whereas variability allows for development and dynamism in the system (Freeman & Cameron, 2008). More specifically Cameron and Freeman put it as ‘variability around stability’ or in other terms we can say ‘unity in diversity’.

Further they maintained that sticking to the concept of variability around stabilized patterns could be indicative of how patterns of classroom actions may be altered to increase the benefit to language learning through finding ways to perturb systems out of attractors and into new trajectories. Put another way, to what extent teachers in their classes keep away from their own tendencies and old habits (attractors) in language instruction and develop new ways and ideas (new trajectories) to favor learning more dynamically.

Moreover, through the lens of chaos/ complexity theory, Freeman and Cameron (2008) defined teaching as “*managing the dynamics of learning*”. Embarking upon this view, Larsen Freeman (2006) asserted that teaching does not result in learning; in essence, learners devise their own paths to learning. In this sense, the approach to be advocated is neither curriculum-based nor learner-centered but it would be *learning centered*, in which the learning leads the teaching process and not the other way round (Freeman and Cameron, 2008). In the same vein, they confirmed that what a teacher does is manage and serve their students learning in a way that is in accordance with their learning processes.

For the purpose of this study, there seems to be a lack or mediocrity of research on the relationship between the concept of variability and stability and creativity and burnout. The researchers found no empirical study which explored creativity and burnout from this perspective and believe that this study can bridge the gap in the related literature.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

This research was conducted so as to study 6 English language teachers, including 3 males and 3 females. These participants taught English in different language institutes in the city of Mahhad.

Regarding the age range, the average age of the sample group was around 31, ranging from 22 to 37. Moreover, all the participants possessed at least 5 years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language in Iran. In this study, the “convenience” sampling technique (Dornyei, 2007) was employed in order to facilitate the procedures.

B. *Instruments*

In the present study two empirical tests have been used. Firstly, the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) (Torrance, 1998) was employed to measure the participants’ creativity on 4 different components of fluency, originality, elaboration, and flexibility. Questions 1-22 assess fluency, 23-33 cover elaboration, 34-49 captures originality and finally questions 50-60 pertain to flexibility. In this case, the participants had to answer 60 questions. Every question includes 3 choices, each having a different value: (A)=0, (B)=1 and (C)=2. Then the overall score was obtained out of 120. This overall score represented the general creativity level of each participant.

Secondly, the Maslach’s Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson 1986) was applied to measure the level of burnout components in each participant. The participants had to answer 22 questions regarding the ‘frequency’ and ‘intensity’ of burnout. In this test, 9 items were specified to measure ‘emotional exhaustion’, 8 items to measure ‘reduced personal accomplishment’ and 5 to assess ‘depersonalization’. However, in the present study, the Persian translations of both TTCT and MBI were used in order to improve comprehensibility, as the participants’ different English proficiency levels may affect their understanding of the test items and thereby their responses.

C. *The Validity and Reliability of the Instruments*

Regarding the English version of the burnout test, Maslach and Jackson (1981) examined the reliability of MBI with the use of alpha and the following results were gained: emotional exhaustion (alpha= 0.90), depersonalization (alpha= 0.79) and reduced personal accomplishment (alpha=0.71) (cited in Ghobari, Nabavi & Shirkoul, 2005). The reliability of this inventory for its Persian translation, however, was studied by Badri Gargari (1995) who arrived at the following

results in her study: emotional exhaustion ($\alpha = 0.84$), depersonalization ($\alpha = 0.75$) and reduced personal accomplishment ($\alpha = 0.74$) (cited in Ghobari, Nabavi & Shirkouli, 2005; Farahmand, 2007).

The validation and translation of this inventory was done by Filiyan (1992) in Iran. In his study, Filiyan used test-retest method to find the reliability of this inventory. The reliability was found to be .78 (cited in Ghobari, Nabavi & Shirkouli, 2005; Talaei, Mohammadnejad & Samari, 2007).

As with the creativity test, the Persian version of TTCT was used in this study; it has been translated and modified by Abedi (1993). Using the test-retest method, he gave the test to the students of secondary schools in Tehran and gained the following reliability scores: fluency: $r = 0.85$, flexibility: $r = 0.85$, originality: $r = 0.82$, and elaboration: $r = 0.80$. Further, the total reliability of the test was reported to be between 0.80 to 0.90. In addition, the validity of the test was calculated by Abedi (1993) through concurrent validity method. He achieved meaningful and significant reliability correlations of the four subscales between the two versions of creativity test. For instance, $r = 0.497$ for originality subscale and $r = 0.468$ for fluency were obtained (cited in Ghonsooly & Raeesi, 2012).

D. Procedures

The participants i.e. the six English teachers were asked to fill out the creativity and burnout questionnaires and bring them back within two days. The MBI is expected to take 10-15 minutes to complete while the TTCT can take a bit longer, that is 15-20 minutes. Once the researchers collected the questionnaires, they were checked to see if they had been completely filled out.

Subsequently, six in-depth interviews were conducted with these 6 English teachers, to check for the extent of 'variability and stability' in their real classroom environment. During the interviews the respondents had to answer about 10 questions, already made by the researchers, so as to measure and study the given concept thoroughly; the questions were made according to the concept of variability and stability defined earlier. Each interview took around 30 minutes allowing for the extraction of as much detailed information as possible. Additionally, these 6 teachers were observed in their classes a couple of times (2-3 times) without any notice to make sure their teaching manners and patterns in real class conditions matched the descriptions they had provided earlier in their interviews. The researcher used 'semi-structured' interviews, in that the respondents are allowed to elaborate and expand their answers. As for the class observations, an unstructured model of observation was utilized in order to allow for more flexibility without a predetermined check list, and also to include and investigate any unpredictable aspect of the classes observed.

Regarding the analysis and interpretation of the interviews and the observations of this qualitative research, the model presented by the Grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Charmaz K., 2006), has been applied in which a theory is generated from data systematically obtained from social research (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

In so doing, once all the data had been collected through observation and face-to-face interviews, the interviewees were coded into 3 distinct groups. Therefore, they were divided into three codes: Code (1), Code (2) and Code (3). For each group a whole series of features and characteristics was specified based on the assumptions borrowed from the concept of Dynamism in Classroom, Complex Systems and Variability around Stability in the domain of Chaos/Complexity theory.

In this regard, sticking to the course syllabus and teachers' lesson plans forced by the institutional policies plus teachers' own tendencies and teaching habits is to be considered as the *stable* and the fixed pattern of their teaching whereas providing new educational materials and handouts together with innovative classroom activities other than those of course components is deemed as the *variable* and dynamic pattern. Here the groups are labeled as *High*, *Low* or *Average* variability.

Code 1: High-variability (dynamism): Teachers who normally do not stick firmly to the procedures in the textbooks, lesson plans, course syllabus and tend to act unpredictably and innovatively; they bring their own handouts to class very often, do not follow every single activity in the books; add, omit and edit the predetermined materials so as to make it more interesting and viable in class conditions. Moreover, they do not have a fixed and unchanging pattern of teaching in their classes and therefore their students often have no idea how the teacher is going to act on a given task. Also they might happen to change the order of the tasks in a given textbook. Neither the teacher nor the learners get bored in this type of class.

Code 2: Low-variability (dynamism): As opposed to the previous group, teachers in this category are inclined to act based on a predetermined syllabus and with very few variations in the course of the term. The procedures and activities are mostly predictable in their classes and they follow a fixed lesson plan almost all through the course. Further, they have a tendency to get bored and frustrated with the repeated materials and teaching approaches they apply repeatedly; they only employ a limited range of approaches to their teaching English rather than teaching eclectically and selectively.

Code 3: Average-variability (dynamism): An intermediate level of variability between the High and the Low group codes.

Once it was decided that to which group code each of the 6 participants belonged, a comparison was drawn between them and their creativity and burnout test results to see whether or not there existed any relationship between any pair of them, that is: (a) *variability and burnout* in class or (b) *variability and creativity* in class.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Descriptive Statistics

Primarily, the results from the TTCT indicate that the mean score for the creativity index is around 85 (out of 120); that is, the total sample has enjoyed an “average level” of creativity which ranges between 75-85 based on the description provided by the test manual. Regarding the differences between the two genders, while the male index is 80.24, the female index is 83.04. However, all participants fall into the “average creativity” level of the test manual.

As for burnout, it is clearly evident that the levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization for the whole population are fairly low; 14.50 and 4.20 respectively. Furthermore, the mean score for personal accomplishment (38.77) again indicates the average frequency of burnout in the sample population is below average. Consequently, a ‘low’ frequency of burnout can be considered for the sample in this study. Moreover, the mean scores for the male and female groups were not noticeably different when compared to the whole population mean scores. Overall, the results of the mean scores point to a fairly ‘high’ creativity level, ‘low’ frequency in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and an average frequency level for personal accomplishment. Table I illustrates the mean scores for creativity and burnout components in the whole sample.

TABLE I.
THE MEAN SCORES OF THE CREATIVITY AND BURNOUT COMPONENTS IN THE WHOLE SAMPLE

		Creativity	Emotional exhaustion	Personal accomplishment	Depersonalization
N	Valid	6	6	6	6
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		85.70	14.50	38.77	4.20
Minimum		63	13	10	6
Maximum		109	37	50	24
Maximum score possible		120	48	54	30

B. Findings

After a thorough analysis of the interviews, the participants were classified into the 3 variability (dynamism) codes which were already devised. Furthermore, their creativity levels together with the indexes of burnout components were studied and considered in relation to their variability levels. Table 2 puts together all the information regarding the levels of variability, creativity and burnout for the 6 interviewees. In this table the raw scores of creativity and burnout tests have been converted to grades of “very low”, “low”, “average”, “high” and “very high” according to the conversion manual of the tests. This was done so that comparison with the variability codes would be possible.

TABLE II.
LEVELS OF VARIABILITY, CREATIVITY AND BURNOUT FOR EACH PARTICIPANT

Participants	Variability code	Creativity	Emotional exhaustion	Personal accomplishment	Depersonalization
Teacher (1)	Average	Average	Low	High	Low
Teacher (2)	High	Very high	Low	Average	Very low
Teacher (3)	High	High	Average	High	Low
Teacher (4)	Low	Low	Average	Low	Average
Teacher (5)	High	Low	Low	Average	Low
Teacher (6)	High	High	Low	High	Low

Note: Throughout the article, teachers 1-6 are referred to as ‘T1’-‘T6’

It can be understood from the table that participants’ level of variability in class is quite analogous to that of their creativity levels. Only one participant, that is teacher 4, has got reverse rates of creativity and variability which can be ignored. In contrast, all other 5 participants have comparable and similar degrees of the two variables. Therefore, it can be stated that there is a direct relationship between creativity as a mental psychological construct and variability/dynamism as a behavioral pattern in language classrooms. Put another way, the more creative the teachers are the more dynamic they are and the more variety they bring to their classes. Further, they try to change their teaching techniques more often in order to arrive at a better and more effective approach to teaching.

On the other hand, it was hard to find a general pattern between burnout and dynamism. In this case, variability appeared to have little interaction with the two dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment. However, among all three components, depersonalization had a reverse relationship with degrees of variability; meaning that the lower the level of depersonalization the higher the level of variability. In other words, teachers who were more depersonalized tended to be less dynamic in their classes and changed their teaching approaches very rarely.

Interestingly though, when asked to give a proportion for the stable and variable patterns of their teaching, almost all the participants confirmed that an average of 30% (ranging from the lowest, 25%, to the highest, 35%) is the room they devote to creativity, new ideas and change in their teaching experiences, while around 70% is given to old, fixed methods they normally apply in order to teach English as well as their teaching tendencies, habits and biases. Stability perpetuates the total identity of a complex system and variability allows for new developments and dynamism; given

this definition by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008), it appears that the greater percentage ought to be designated to *stability* as it brings security and order to a language classroom.

As with unpredictability in class, 3 participants, that is T2, T3 and T6, stated that students might be aware of the main procedures of the class but they do not have any knowledge about the details of *how* the tasks are going to be delivered by the teacher. Thus, they know the general patterns but not the specifics of the teacher's approach. As a result, a certain degree of unpredictability was applied in their teaching methodology which as they put it, enhanced the quality and effectiveness of both learning and teaching. Further, they maintained that too much unpredictability might result in degrees of stress, anxiety and confusion on the part of learners, and that there should be a balance. Others, however, mentioned that they were so eager to act more unpredictably as it relieves *boredom* in class, but that it was not the case in their classrooms and they had to stick to a standard, well-practiced set of procedures throughout the semester.

In addition, almost all agreed that they did not follow all the procedures and steps through a given lesson plan provided either by the textbook or teachers themselves, and that they normally had a general plan of what they had to cover for a specific session. To them, this allows for more adaptation and flexibility regarding the details with which they can deliver the specified activities and tasks under real class conditions.

Later, through further investigations during the observation sessions of these 6 teachers, the researchers came to realize that T2, T3, T4 and T6 reflected the same behavior and teaching patterns as they had described in their interviews. In their classrooms it was noticed that students' level of *motivation* and *willingness to communicate* (WTC) can have a considerable impact on the teachers' actions and reactions and thereby on variability and flexibility in the way they instructed; however, these two notions were not measured empirically in this research study and it is the researcher's best speculation. Further, they all concurred that a fixed predetermined course syllabus and lesson plan could never be applied with high precision and match, and that implementing a standard degree of variability, dynamism and flexibility around the specified material and methodology should be made an integral part of teaching.

V. CONCLUSION

Regarding the main research question i.e. whether or not the concept of 'variability around stability' has anything to do with creativity index and/ or burnout, the findings showed fairly strong connections between creativity and variability/ dynamism in classrooms. The observations and interviews with the participants implied that the more creative the teachers are the more dynamic they tend to be, and the other way round; that is, the more changes and variety the teachers bring to their classes the more creatively they can teach. This finding is supported by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008), asserting that creativity appears at 'the edge of chaos' where systems show a great deal of *flexibility* and *responsiveness*. In this study the terms *flexibility* and *variability* are referred to interchangeably and reflect the same concept.

Besides, the results suggested that there should be a larger proportion of stability in class instructions and trends (that of 70%) compared to the percentage of variability (around 30%); since too much variety, change and flexibility might deviate the class from its main instructional objectives. On the other hand, sticking firmly to lesson plans, following fixed procedures in teaching, employing a limited range of activities and fixed approaches and tendency in being predictable, were indicative of the 'stable' part of an English class. From their perspective, creativity implied the same sense as variability and flexibility did. Further the results confirmed that too much stability can have a reverse effect as it might kill creativity on the part of both the teacher and the learner, and consequently reduce the level of class dynamism. Teachers ought to alter their instruction methods from time to time and experiment with newer and more creative practices so that they can build upon their teaching knowledge and experience. In this regard teachers biases, beliefs, tendencies, and old habits pose serious obstacles to positive change and variability in class.

As opposed to creativity, burnout and class dynamism did not seem to have any shared pattern and teachers' level of burnout appeared to have no or very little interaction with variability and flexibility. However, it appears that one aspect of burnout, that is depersonalization, and variability tends to have an indirect relationship in almost all six teachers. Put simply, teachers with higher levels of depersonalization indicated lower degrees of variability while those with low depersonalization levels reported high flexibility and dynamism in their classrooms. As a result, it can be deduced that teachers with severe depersonalization levels seldom change their teaching methodology and tendencies; they leave little room for change and creativity in their classes and thereby very low variability.

Thus, the null hypothesis of the research study was rejected as creativity and variability reflected shared patterns and analogous degrees. Creativity and variability are directly related to one another and boost each other on a large scale. Teachers who are more creative are prone to act more selectively and innovatively, this way they can create a more desirable atmosphere in which learning takes place at a faster rate. On the other hand, there is a tradeoff between variability and depersonalization, that is, the more dynamism the less depersonalization.

Moreover, the researchers' guess is that learners' level of motivation and willingness to communicate (WTC) is likely to function as an intervening variable with regard to the connection between the two main variables under study rate of variability in teaching. MacIntyre et al. defined WTC as readiness to enter into discourse at a given time with a specific person or persons, using a second language (cited in Dornyei, 2005). It was observed that more motivated students encouraged their teachers to act more dynamically and creatively whereas, learners' with low levels of WTC and motivation dissuaded teachers from being innovative and flexible. The learners demonstrated more willingness to

interact in groups and pairs rather than involving in whole class participation; this, may partially be due to lower levels of anxiety within groups and pairs. Weak student involvement and engagement in class activities affected teachers performance and creativity. In this case teachers tended to stick to fixity and normal teaching methodology with no incentive to bring any change and variety to class. In the same way Amabile (1998) considered 'motivation' as one of the three major components of creativity together with expertise and creative-thinking skills.

Pedagogical Implications

The results of this study particularly address language teachers, educational supervisors, and textbook and syllabus designers.

The findings suggest that material developers allow for more dynamism and variability via developing tasks and activities that foster creativity in teachers and learners rather than killing it or fostering burnout. Tasks that require learners to resort to critical thinking as well as divergent thinking can be an offered possibility in this respect. The course books should offer a variety of exercises and activities to provide more learning and teaching opportunities for learners and teachers in class.

Furthermore, it is recommended that teachers avoid static teaching by incorporating a certain degree of dynamism through lesson plans that are not limited to a series of fixed and predetermined procedures but are open to change and variation. They can and in fact should edit and omit the content of their textbooks and incorporate new materials into their lesson plans so that practicality and plausibility of the activities and tasks will be improved. This, in turn may result in more engagement and efficiency in fulfilling a task successfully on the part of students. Teachers' handouts and teacher developed activities are but a few examples of the materials which bring variety and kill boredom in language classrooms. Similarly, educational supervisors can train teachers to teach more creatively and dynamically and enable them to make independent changes when and where necessary.

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Fatemeh Hemmati is an assistant professor at Payam Noor University of Tehran, Iran. Her interest areas include classroom discourse analysis, language teacher education, and teaching methods.

Ali Raeesi is a Ph.D candidate in the field of applied linguistics at Payam Noor University of Tehran, Iran. He received a bachelor degree in English language and literature in 2010 and a master degree in applied linguistics in 2012, from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. His main areas of interest are *teacher education* and *language learning psychology*. He has written a book and an article on the concepts of *creativity*, *burnout* and *class dynamism*. Moreover, Ali Raeesi has long practical experience of teaching English to EFL learners in Iran. He is currently teaching research methods and language testing theories in Imam Reza International university of Mashhad, Iran.

On Probability and Knowability in Language: A Physics Perspective

Yilong Yang

College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China;
School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Yunnan Normal University, Yunnan, China

Abstract—Since the 20th century, science development follows a trend, characterized with high degrees of divergence, as well as convergence, shaking the traditional system of science disciplines. Linguistic studies follow a similar pattern, which highlights on social disciplines, but few of them take the advantage of nature sciences. In the case, this article attempts to explore two long-lasting issues in language studies from a physics perspective. Since, on the one hand, physics is a much well-developed science than linguistics, the troubles and problems the latter faces may be like those of the former. Also, the great similarities shared by the two sciences may shed light on the latter. To be more specific, in reviewing the transition from classical mechanics to quantum physics, the importance of probability is explored, and thus the concept can be used in language research. A second point is about two epistemologies in physics, namely, the Copernican principle and the anthropic principle, which proposes totally different sets of hypotheses on whether the nature of universe could be known and understood by humans. Inspired by two theories, the puzzle about the nature of language is discussed. The article concludes that, the research in physics can guide and stimulate linguistic studies.

Index Terms—linguistics, physics, probability, knowability

I. INTRODUCTION

Michael Halliday (2014) stated, in his *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, “language as particle, wave and field” (p.387). A Chinese scholar also criticized, “the development of linguistics today is much more like that of physics in 17th century” (Zhang, 2008). Very few researchers discuss language studies under physics theories. This, however, does not mean the two sciences has an unbridgeable gap, and does not cover the works of forerunners. Albert Bastardas-Boada (2014) argued that the concept of observer effect in quantum physics could enlighten us to study linguistics. Noam Chomsky proposed language studies should follow Galilean-Newtonian style in nature science, which insisted that due to human’s limitations in science and technology, the world was unknown to us, and, in a specific field, what we should do was to try to build the known part (Feng, 2011). With the rapidly growing researches, linguistic achievements are used in some nature and social sciences, such as voice recognition, artificial intelligence, and machine translation. Meanwhile, linguistics makes use of other disciplines, and a number of new paradigms begin to emerge, computational linguistics, neurolinguistics, cognitive linguistics and corpus linguistics, to cite only a few (Wu, 1994). The studies tend to be one focuses on two or more disciplines, and an inter-disciplinary or super-disciplinary study is likely to be dominant, just as Hu (2007) said, “the situation in which one single theory dominate linguistic studies has gone with the wind since there is no perfect theory”.

There is, however, an obvious shortage in current language studies that the inter-disciplinary ways are constrained mainly in social sciences, without much work being done in nature science, and with just a few exception, computational linguistics, ecolinguistics, etc.. Based on the situation, this article attempts to explore two linguistic issues from a physics perspective, i.e., the probability and the knowability.

II. PROBABILITY

A. Research in Classical Mechanics

In 1687, drawing on the predecessors’ work, Isaac Newton’s *Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy* was published, a milestone that classical mechanics as a complete system was established, and the first integration of human’s nature sciences. Newton’s work affected directly, both in theory and method, physicists’ mind, research, and practice in the following 200 years and beyond. It is a fundamental revolution in nature sciences that greatly changes people’s point of views on the world and the way of thinking, and its achievements accelerates the development of chemistry, biology, astronomy, etc.. Newton, so to speak, stimulated the process of sciences in modern times (Qing, 2007, p.13). Led by Newton and other physicists, the mansion of classical physics was built so splendid that many believed all physics laws were already discovered, and its development had already reached the summit, and what was left for the coming generations of scientists was to find more details under the framework. “The future physics has to look for truth and facts after six digits after the decimal point” (Li, 2009, p.9).

The perfection and practicability of classical mechanics made the physicists believed all things and motions could be

described and predicted, both for their past and future. Under Newtonian regime “all scientists are driven by a mania of mechanical motion” (Li, 2009). After *Principles*’ publishment mechanics laws were applied to acoustics, optics, electromagnetism, and thermology and other paradigms, and even the universe was running in the way a clock swings, just as Einstein commented, “there is no complete system before Newton that can reflect the fundamental features of the experiential world” (Li, 2009, p.4). In a long time, people had a blind faith in Newton and his theories, and it lasted to the end of the 19th century.

B. *The Turn of Research in Physics*

Though some scientists, such as Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz and George Berkeley, were skeptics and criticized Newton’s theory, those voices were buried up in his glory until a new revolution once again changed people’s mind and overturned their views about the world and the universe. In 1901, Baron Kelvin, in one address, represented two “dark clouds” in physics, which turned science direction in 20th century, and brought two pillars of the modern physics mansion: the theory of relativity and the quantum physics. One is the theory of macrocosm, and the other microcosm.

In 1905, based on relevant studies Albert Einstein’s paper *On the Electrodynamics of Moving Bodies* was published, a landmark of the establishment of the theory of special relativity. He continued to explore and discovered general relativity in 1915. Given by his theory, the explanation for the anomalous perihelion advance of the planet Mercury being proved in 1919 shocked the whole world. The theory of relativity is a key foundation of modern physics and high technology. Its establishment is the greatest achievement of nature science in the 20th century, giving far-reaching impacts to physics, astronomy and philosophy.

In 1925, inspired by Niels Bohr’s atomic framework, Werner Heisenberg and Max Born discarded the concept of atomic “path”, and laid the foundation for matrix formulation of quantum mechanics from two observables, the frequency and intensity of radiation. In 1926, drawing on Max Planck’s quantum hypothesis, Einstein’s quantum theory of light, and Louis de Broglie’s theory of matter wave, Erwin Schrodinger originated wave mechanics. Later then, he proved, mathematically, his theory and Heisenberg’s were equivalences. Paul Dirac and Pascual Jordan soon respectively represented transformational equations for the two systems, and proposed a concise and perfect mathematical expression of quantum physics.

C. *The Significance of Quantum Physics*

Quantum physics is the first theory human built with logic completeness at macroscopic scales. Not only it explains phenomena traditional theories fail, but it also provides us insights on secrets of the tiny world. A lot of new technologies come from it, with direct examples being information technology, nuclear energy uses, aerospace exploration, and nano technologies, and indirect instances ranging from life science, geoscience, and chemistry to materials science. Its application in the study of semiconductors led to the invention of the diode and the transistor, which are indispensable parts of modern electronic systems and devices (He, 2001). Thus it can be stated that without quantum physics there would be no modern computers, let alone the economic globalization and information revolution, which are the bases of the third industrial revolution. Therefore quantum physics together with relativity theory and the double helix structure are three greatest discoveries in the 20th century, which changed human concepts on time, space, motion, matter, and life.

The Copenhagen school proposed the classical explanation for quantum physics, which was composed of the probability interpretation, the uncertainty principle, and the complementarity principle. Just as American physicist and science historian Abraham Pais commented on the probability interpretation, “the introduction of probability into quantum physics is likely to be the most dramatic change in science. Meanwhile, its discovery marks the end, not the beginning, of a revolution” (Li, 2009, p.314). In Pais’ view (favored by most physicists today) the probability interpretation proposed by Born provides a perfect completion for the establishment of quantum physics.

Born’s probability interpretation has much far reaching effects and significances. Nancy Greenspan named her Born’s biography *the End of the Certain World*, because the probability interpretation he originated became a truly fundamental scientific method, and he was the one who shattered the certain world defined by classical physics. Born’s interpretation broke the classical determinism in Newtonian physics world. Also, it denied what believed by Immanuel Kant the efficacy of determined necessity, and created the new paradigm of the world (Hou, 2013).

Classical mechanics also frequently refers to probability, however its basic rules are determined. Starting from the micro structures and interaction of matters, the tasks of statistical mechanics are to represent and predict the macro physical system, composed of large quantities of particles. If the amount of substance reaches at the same level of Avogadro’s constant, the quantity of particles is so large that its mechanics equations cannot be solved, and it has to be dealt with statistical analysis. According to Copenhagen school, however, probability in quantum physics is a fundamental principle. Even a simple system like hydrogen atom has to be described by probability. On nanoscopic scales, probability is related to the uncertainty principle which asserts a moving particle’s path is undefined, either its position or momentum that can be defined, but not the both at a given time. According to this principle, a particle may be at any point in the space, and travel at any speed, and may even be various places at the same time. Its speed and position are certain at the instant of measurement as if it “knows” someone is measuring it and, accordingly, its path becomes clear. This is called observer effect, a perspective claims that the measurement introduced brings the deviation to the system, which collapses from superposition states, in which many states of the system are co-existing, to a

particular state that is prominent and observable.

Though the certainty on micro scales is excluded by quantum physics, the theory based on the probability interpretation is a precise one for the physical world, in which the theory is tested repeatedly and is applicable. A typical example is the innovation and development of quantum computers, a computation system that makes direct use of quantum-mechanical phenomena, such as superposition and entanglement, to perform operations on data. The field of quantum computing was first introduced by Yuri Manin in 1980 and Richard Feynman in 1982, and David Deutsch designed its first blueprint in 1985, which combined quantum mechanics and information processing (Zhang & Zhang, 2004). In principle, quantum computers are much faster than the classical ones, and have the potential to be an effective way to lead new innovations in other branches of science.

D. *Implications to Linguistic Study*

From above discussion, we can see that linguistics and quantum physics share a similarity, that is, both have a high degree of indeterminacy. The property in language is reflected at least in two ways. First of all, language does not only links the physical world with mental activities, but also it is a biological activity, which is initiated from a body of great uncertainties. Taking language production for example, a point is formulated, and then expressed by words. In the process, even though an idea in mind can be conveyed by different tongues, some expression is eventually chosen and emerge. The question here, however, would be that before we speak it out or write it down we cannot make sure the exact language we may use, and it seems that the expression is determined at the very moment we produce it, to the extreme that we may not realize what our words are even when we speak. Taking language context into consideration, some words are more common and regular than others, but it is not absolutely so. Here, it may be more appropriate to use probability to explain language, a much more convincing description than the way of certainty.

Secondly, western linguistics circle has been sharing the recognition of uncertainty, regarding the relationship between language signs and meaning. Saussure saw language as an arbitrary system of signs, which was composed of the signifier and the signified. He believed that the relationship between the two elements was arbitrary, or to simply put it, “languages are arbitrary” (Saussure, 1972, p.113). Such arbitrariness is randomly produced. Though some scholars proposed theoretical frameworks for it, such as minimalist program, they were not universal principles. Similarly, ancient Chinese argued the issue of “Ming” (representing for the appearance or the form) and “Shi” (representing for the nature or the reality), and in a sense “Ming” is identical with the signifier and “Shi” the signified in Saussure’s theory.

Linguistic studies focus on certainty over time. In systemic functional linguistics there is the concept of proximity and probability, but it is not the main point. Functionalism pays much more attention to language description, being especially more prominent in syntactic analysis. Structuralism takes a step further, abandoning the closely related factors of semantics, i.e., context, society, and infrequent language usage, etc., and tries to propose a language generating theory, following a mechanism fashion. There attempts seek to study uncertainties in language, with the starting point in certainties, a much similar pattern with classical physics. Is there any possibility to study language based on its uncertainties, and to follow a quantum physics way?

Through the transition from classical physics to quantum physics discussed above, we can find that the development of linguistic studies goes an amazingly similar route. Shall we still be confined to the conception of certainty, and, taking the other way round, study certainty starting from its uncertainty? Language is not static in nature, and has quantum superposition states: people have various choices of expressions at certain moments for the same meaning, and the specific choice is not settled, also the various potentials share the same probability. However, the intrusion of some background information, both personally and impersonally, breaks the balance in the moment, interfering language system and leading to a regular expression under the context.

III. KNOWABILITY

A. *The Copernican Principle and Language*

The second discussion concerns with the knowability of language, i.e., whether humans have the ability to understand the nature of language in final analysis. Likewise, there has long been a heated debate in physics on the nature of the world.

It has a long history for the argument in physics and philosophy that if humans and the earth are unique in the universe. In the early days, due to people’s limited knowledge of the physical world, they tended to agree with the idea, leading to the theories such as geocentrism and heliocentrism. Based on such perception, the main stream was more likely to believe the earth was the center of the universe, and humans were the only intelligent beings in it. Even people know more and more about nature in a much more in-depth way, the controversy on the issue never ceases to stop, and continues up until today. There born two totally contrary epistemologies in physics in the 20th century, namely, the Copernican principle and the anthropic principle.

In 1543, Copernicus’s *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Spheres* was published, elaborating that the earth was not the center of the universe, and, just like other planets, it was orbiting around the sun, which was the solo center of the system. Drawing on latest researches, scholars developed the theory, i.e., the modern Copernican principle. A basic point of the principle says that the existence of humans and the earth comes from the pure chance. The appearance of

the life and the earth is a matter of probability, which is also true for solar system and the creation of the universe, and the structure of atoms. The Copernican principle ruthlessly denies humans' uniqueness, and takes a further step, claiming that humans are not privileged observers and all positions share the same privilege. The principle can be extended to the extent that any observer in the universe will observe the universe on large scales the exactly same with us, i.e., the universe is generally homogeneous or the same everywhere (at any given time) and is also isotropic about any given point. Such a theory leads to a conception: since human existence is a matter of probability he may never be allowed to have enough time to evolve to have required intelligence to understand the nature of the physical world, including the universe. Due to the large quantities of coincidences in the long process of evolution, such possibility may not exist.

As for language, many believe its nature would remain unknown for us as it is interwoven with consciousness. An embarrassing situation is that the study on human consciousness hardly makes any significant progress. The study of artificial intelligence also faces the dilemma: a little improvement in intelligence of machines would go far beyond our abilities. The current technology enables the machines to have an identical IQ with 4-year old child, leaving out the emotional factors. On the other hand, though there are various language schools with relatively complete theories, they do not reach an agreement concerning the nature of language, and such divergence even exists in different branches within the same school. Such language perspective accords with the Copernican principle.

B. The Anthropic Principle and the Language

There is completely different epistemology from the Copernican principle in physics, that is, the anthropic principle. Looking at the results of studies in nature sciences, a lot of phenomena emerge by coincidence like a miracle, one that cannot be explained by rationality or the logic and incorporates large amount of extremely low probability events. If atomic energy levels are different from what they are today, atoms are impossible to come into formation, let alone the molecules, and the materials composing the physical world. If the earth is too close to the sun, its surface would be over heated, water will be evaporated, losing the source of life; if it is too far from the sun, temperature decreases, chemical activity recedes, leading to a hard condition for life. The density of water reduces when frozen, the ice thus can float on the surface and preserves the heat below, and, adding the effect of terrestrial heat, the underneath water remains liquid. If not so, ice falling on the bottom, the planet would be a frozen world, in which there must be no life evolution, at least not in today's form. All these are so "perfectly designed".

Based on the above discussion, Brandon Carter was the first to propose the anthropic principle in 1973. One point is that the current physical world and objective rules "cater" to the very need of human existence, in a degree like a tailored design for us. The anthropic principle is thus one theory asserting that the physical world fits the intelligent beings observing it. If this is the case, humans then can develop enough wisdom to reveal the laws of universe. A proof by contradiction of the principle goes as follows: the reason why we live in a universe "tuned" so precise that makes life possible is that if it is not so humans will not appear, not even to mention to discuss about it. If any fundamental physical constant differs from what it is now, the universe will be totally different, and the life today may never appear and think about it. Therefore, the universe must have the properties that allow life to evolve. In other words, the principle ensures human privilege and provides the potential for humans to acquire enough intelligence to know and understand the nature of the universe.

Similarly, language is indeed much tailored to human's way of thinking and cognition, a persuasive example being that no species can learn our words on the planet. There is an obvious fact that human's process of mother tongue acquiring is very natural and effortless, regardless of whether it being a simple one like English or the one with complex grammatical rules as Sanskrit. The learning of speech is more distinct since a man can get hold of it whether he is an educated man or not. And even a grown man can still learn many other languages. Thus, language is human's unique and special creation. As the language being what it is today can we believe if the language is not its current formation people would not study it now? In present time, we begin to know language in a more and more complete way, implying humans are endowed with a potential to study it. As the trend keeps in momentum, mankind will reveal the nature of it in the final end.

IV. CONCLUSION

Today's society needs more integration between different sciences, and in these inter-disciplinary areas there would be new approaches to resolve long standing problems and challenges. It is a practical action that European countries have been exploring the possibilities to implement liberal education for quite some time. Another example is the tendency that linguistic studies tend to incorporate with other branches of science, sociolinguistics, computational linguistics, and biolinguistics, to name just a few.

Linguistic studies long have the tradition to learn from on other sciences, because some deep rooted issues cannot be resolved by language study itself. If we can take the advantages of other disciplines and cross the boundary between them, the theories we propose would be superior, with more explanatory power, and more applicability. In recent years, Jim Martin introduced biological and historical conceptions and research methods into the research of genre and register, leading to the integration of systemic functional linguistics and legitimate code theory; making the use of imaging technology to the study of language Jonathan Webster created visual semantics (Pan & Xin, 2012).

On the other way around, other scientific researches also draw on linguistic studies. A prominent instance is artificial intelligence study, which facilitates cognitive research. It is generally recognized that cognitive science is founded and stimulated by philosophy, logic, linguistics, psychology, computer science, and neurology. And cognitive science in turn contributes to cognitive linguistics. In this respect, the relationship of linguistics and other sciences is mutual.

To conclude, linguistics and physics can be mutual stimulus for each other, and the research methods of the later may spur development of the former.

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Yilong Yang is a PhD student in English, Southwest University, China, and also an English teacher in Yunnan Normal University, China. His research interests include English teacher education, systemic functional linguistics and translation.

A Comparative Study of Rehearsal and Loci Methods in Learning Vocabulary in EFL Context

Touran Ahour

Department of English, Tabriz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Sepideh Berenji

Department of Public and Basic Science, Osku Branch, Islamic Azad University, Osku, Iran

Abstract—Effective learning in foreign language settings depends on acquiring a large number of vocabularies. This study intended to compare two vocabulary learning methods known as loci and rehearsal methods to find out which one leads to better retention and recalling of words. Employing a quasi-experimental research, 80 learners from two intact classes in Islamic Azad University, Osku Branch, Iran, were randomly selected as the experimental and control groups. For the purpose of vocabulary learning, the experimental group trained in loci method while rehearsal strategy training was used in the control group. At the end of each session of the treatment, multiple-choice vocabulary tests were used to measure whether the participants can recall the lexical items from their short-term memory. A delayed multiple-choice posttest of vocabulary was also used in order to compare vocabulary learning among two groups four weeks after the treatment. Implementing Independent Samples t-test, the results indicated that experimental group was better than control group in retention and recalling of lexical items in immediate posttest. It was also found that the loci method was more effective than rehearsal in permanency of lexical items in long term memory. Syllabus designers and textbook writers can consider different learning strategies in designing vocabulary books by taking the learners' proficiency level into account.

Index Terms—loci method, long-term memory, rehearsal method, recall, retention, short term memory, vocabulary learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Managing learning appropriately by learners in EFL contexts is what appears to be necessary for effective learning. In EFL classes there is an intense exposure to information and also a need to remember a lot of data. Therefore, what is important for EFL students is to use strategies to succeed in the complex task of learning a language. According to William and Burden (1997) some of these strategies are used consciously and some of them are used unconsciously. One thing that is agreed upon to be an essential part of mastering a language is learning vocabularies. EFL students are dependent on their memory skills in order to process and remember a large input of new vocabularies in their long term memory. In Iranian setting like other foreign language settings, one of the main issues is how to teach new vocabularies. Students mostly complain about their inability to learn and use vocabularies. The new vocabularies should be taught and presented in such a way that students can learn them easily. Nattinger (1988) recommends mnemonic techniques as the best tool to learn and remember vocabularies in EFL and ESL contexts. Loci method and rehearsal are two mnemonic techniques which have been developed to help learning through repetition and context. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate which technique (loci or rehearsal) is the most appropriate one in EFL classes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Foreign Language Settings and Vocabulary Learning

Recently language teachers and researchers recognized the fact that vocabulary learning is an important aspect in language classes to investigate. As Tavakoli and Gerami (2013) state, experienced teachers of English as a second language know very well how important vocabulary is and that vocabulary learning is at the heart of any language learning and language use (Laufer, 1997). Wilkins (1972) believes that without grammar, very little can be achieved, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed; therefore, as Zhan-Xiang (2004, p. 118) believes, "words of a language are just like bricks of a high building; despite quite small pieces, they are vital to the great structure". Thornburry (2002) also represents the fact that to improve our English we need not spending too much time to study grammar but need to learn more vocabularies and expressions. Therefore, as Thornburry indicates little can be said with grammar but almost anything with words. However, learners usually admit that the greatest source of difficulty in learning classes is with vocabulary. In fact, the problem can be clearly stated as finding the best learning skills and strategies in learning, retaining and retrieving vocabularies.

As Amiryousefi and Ketabi (2011) state, the most essential step to take in the process of language learning is choosing and deciding on required methods and strategies to memorize vocabularies in ESL and EFL contexts. The

term language learning strategy has been defined by many researchers but generally as Amiryousefi and Ketabi indicate, it can be said that language learning strategies are specific tactics and behaviors which make language learning process easy. Despite the fact that most studies on learning strategies focus on what the learners do or should do, the role of the teacher in strategy training must not be neglected. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) state that the good teacher is the one who teaches the learners the way they think, remember, learn and motivate themselves. Therefore, teachers are required to help learners choose the most effective learning strategy by considering their L1, the task and text being used, the nature of L2 itself, their motivation and purposes for learning L2, and learners' proficiency level (Schmitt, 2007).

A language teacher must also be aware of whether to employ implicit or explicit strategy training. The strategy is directly taught in explicit way of instruction while the purposes in tasks are not told to students in implicit teaching. Mizumoto, and Kansai (2009) investigated the effect of explicit instruction of vocabulary learning strategies on reading comprehension. Their results showed the outperformance of students in the experimental group. As they claim, their findings also lead to better understanding vocabulary learning strategies.

B. Mnemonics and Vocabulary Learning

According to Yates (1966), the origin of the word "mnemonic" can be traced back to ancient Greek and as Yates says it refers to Greek goddess of memory. The use of the word "mnemonic" as Yates state refers back to 500B.C. Memory affects vocabulary and grammar achievement to a great extent. Short-term memory and long-term memory are stated as two types of memory. Krashen and Terrell (2000) indicate that short term memory with a small storage capacity keeps the new information in memory only for a very short time. On the other hand, long term memory is slow in comparison to short-term memory and it has an unlimited storage capacity. The important target in language classes is to transfer the information from the short term memory to the long term memory (Schmitt, 2000). Nattinger (1988) believes that the essential element which leads to long term memory is the ability to concentrate on what is to be remembered, which is supported by motivation and interest. In other words, the main way to internalize lexical information in long-term memory is by finding some known elements in memory to attach to the new lexical items (Schmitt, 2000). Mnemonic, according to Schmitt, is a useful instructional strategy to enhance memory as it is used to teach students to link new information to the ones they already have in their memory.

Solso (1995) states that, mnemonic is either a verbal or visual technique that can improve the storage of new information already existing in long-term memory. According to Bulgren, Schumaker and Deshler (1994), Mnemonics have been proven to be extremely effective in helping people to remember things. If there will be a meaningful relationship between the material presented and what is already known, then the new information can retain in memory for a long time and can also be retrieved easily through verbal or visual clues.

Krashen and Terrell (2000) question the effects of repetitive training when learning new vocabularies. Krashen (1985) states that memorizing vocabulary and grammar rules has not worked in L2 teaching because we acquire words when we understand the message, in other words, receive "comprehensible input" (p.101). If we do not understand and recognize the meaning of vocabulary and the key elements of utterances, there will be no acquisition. Krashen and Terrell (2000) argue that 'memorized' or 'drilled' vocabulary does not stick in mind. In other words, rote learning or drills do not bring about long-term memory storage of vocabularies. Meaningful learning of lexical items results in acquisition of vocabularies with permanent memory retention. Since comprehensible input is so important for L2 acquisition, Krashen and Terrell recommend teachers to teach vocabularies in context. As an example, they suggest visual aids and pictures for classroom practice. This idea is supported by Carter and McCarthy (1988), who indicate that images and other associations enrich the context of the vocabulary to be learned, which, consequently, is more likely to be retained. However, they conclude that positive recall of the L2 learners' contextual learning is age-dependent and proficiency dependent, "thus, the more advanced the learners, the more likely they are to benefit from learning words in context" (p.15). In the early stages of language learning it is difficult to understand meaning of words in contextual sentences when the general knowledge is still poor. The notion of context is also mentioned in Nattinger's (1988) study. She believes that the longer and more complex the sentences, the better the recall; consequently, length, versatility and complexity of the context have an influence on the recall of words. A possible reason for this would be that it creates a situation where deeper processing is needed. The most efficient mnemonic technique to encourage students to learn vocabularies in context and through visualization is the loci method.

C. Loci Method

Loci method is actually the oldest mnemonic technique. This method can be helpful in remembering lists of words and retrieving vocabulary through visualization. According to Mirhassani and Eghtesadei (2007), the loci method combines the technique of active visualization with already known structures and experiences. In other words, vocabulary or digits that you want to remember are connected to a well-known path that gives them inner life with pictures. In this regard, Mirhassani and Eghtesadei also (2007) state that in using this method we image a known place such as a school and then try to link each new word with different parts of that place in order to memorize vocabularies. As people's experiences are different, students may come up with different pictures (Thomson 1987). Individuals are also different in tendency and capacity to use their visual imagery (Clark & Paivio, 1991). Jamieson and Schimpf (1980) believe, subject-generated pathways are more effective than experimenter-generated pathways because the former are more specific and, De Beni and Pra Baldi (1989) also refer more to the autobiographical elements which aid memory.

The purpose of the loci method is to learn a well-known path with loci (locations) until it can be more or less automatically remembered. This path can be a room or a familiar sequence such as the morning routine. According to Nattinger (1988) “to memorize an item, one forms a visual image of it and places it at one of the loci in one’s imagined scene. Retrieval of these items then comes about effortlessly when the entire scene is brought back to mind” (p.65).

According to Moe and De Beni (2005),

“Application of the Loci method involves: (1) selecting and memorizing a series of distinct loci along a familiar pathway; (2) creating an image for each item to be remembered, or if applied to passages, for each cue-word correspondent to a concept; and (3) placing images of the items in the selected loci. In the recall phase, the images to be transformed into corresponding verbal items are found when mentally retracing the Loci pathway. When using the Loci method, subjects must imagine twice. First, they have to adequately visualize the Loci pathway. Then they have to imagine the items or cue-words and place them in the selected loci. The images are different according to the material to be studied, while the Loci pathway is always the same.” (p. 95)

Rehearsal

Rehearsal is the most frequently used technique for encoding information into long term memory, which is memorizing material with the help of repetition. It has also proven to be the most effective technique for memorization and retrieval. Banikowski (1999) explained rehearsal as retaining the information in working memory by repeating it again and again. He also said information would be transferred to long term memory through rehearsal. According to Banikowski (1999), there are two types of rehearsal; maintenance rehearsal and elaborative rehearsal. Maintenance rehearsal is just repeating information through rote rehearsing. In contrast to maintenance rehearsal, elaborative rehearsal provided a connection between new information and some existing information. This kind of rehearsal resulted in storing information into long term memory.

According to Hayati, Samian and Tavakoli (2012), the repeatedly used strategy among EFL Iranian learners is rote-learning. In addition, there is an association between the learners’ proficiency level and the use of rote learning strategy. It means students with low proficiency level consider rote learning as the best and the most important strategy while the high-proficiency level students consider rote learning as one of the various ways of vocabulary learning.

III. EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Investigating the effects, recognition and instruction of different learning strategies in general and vocabulary in particular in the process of second and foreign language learning is not something new. There are, however, few studies on mnemonic devices most of which indicated that in comparison to other learning strategies mnemonic techniques lead to higher levels of second language vocabulary retention both in immediate and delayed recall. For example, Atkinson and Raugh (1975) investigated the efficiency of the keyword method in learning Spanish vocabularies. The keyword method proved to be highly effective as the experimental group outperformed the control group with 88% correct answers in final test. Wyra, Lawson and Hungi (2007) examined the effects of key word method on recall of word-meaning pairs. Their study also indicated that students using key words method were more successful in recalling lexical items.

In another study Baleghizadeh and Ashoori (2010) compared the word list and the keyword methods to investigate which one leads to immediate retention of English lexical items in a normal English class condition. The study took place in one of the schools in Astara, Iran with 44 low proficiency level female participants from two intact classes. The two classes were randomly chosen as the word list group and the keyword group. On the recall test, the participants in the keyword group were more successful than the word list group. Saeedi and Mohajernia (2012) compared the effectiveness of keyword and context methods in immediate and delayed retention of lexical items and also the rate of forgetting in EFL classes. 40 learners from two intact classes in one of the English institutes in Khorramabbad, Iran participated. They were randomly assigned to the keyword and context groups. Implementing a quasi-experimental method, it became evident that the keyword group learners outperformed the context group learners in recalling vocabularies immediately after training and one week later. The context group also indicated high rate of forgetting in comparison to the key word group.

However, due to the little research done in this area, this research intends to compare rehearsal and loci methods in learning vocabulary in the EFL context of Iran. For this purpose the following research questions and hypotheses were developed to process the issue:

Research Questions:

1. Do loci and rehearsal methods of vocabulary instruction affect learners’ vocabulary development differently during treatment sessions?
2. Does the permanency of acquired lexical items in long term memory differ implementing the two techniques of vocabulary teaching?

Null Hypotheses:

H01. There is no significant difference between loci and rehearsal methods regarding their effects on vocabulary developments during the treatment sessions.

H02. There is no significant difference between loci and rehearsal methods in terms of the permanency of acquired lexical items between loci and rehearsal methods.

IV. METHOD

A. Design

This study was a quasi-experimental research with pretest-posttest nonequivalent groups design and adapted a quantitative approach with data in the form of written tests. English vocabulary learning was considered as dependent variable and loci and rehearsal methods as independent variables in this study.

B. Participants

Two intact classes of intermediate and pre-intermediate undergraduate EFL junior students in Islamic Azad University, Osku Branch-Iran participated in this study. All of the participants were students majoring in Electronic engineering. The number of students participated in this study was 40 in each class. Their age range was between 18 to 25. These two classes were randomly assigned into the control (applying rehearsal method) and experimental (applying loci method) groups.

C. Instruments and Materials

Pretest of target words

To make sure of the students unfamiliarity with vocabularies which they were supposed to learn in their EFL classes, an 80-item vocabulary test was used before the experiment. Each item was intended to question the meaning of the target vocabulary items. The words were chosen from "Cover to Cover 2" by Richard R. Day and Kenton Harsch (2008). Twenty items with which the students were familiar were discarded from the experiment and 60 unfamiliar items were used in the treatment.

Immediate post-test

In order to test the learners' short-term memory with regard to the taught lexical items, ten- item multiple choice vocabulary tests were constructed.

Delayed post-test

To test lexical acquisition and recall, a delayed 60- item post-test based on the 60 vocabularies taught during the course was also constructed. This test was administered four weeks after the treatment to test the learners' ability to retain lexical items in their long term memories. Two experienced teachers in the field examined post-tests and pretest carefully and comprehensively to ensure content validity.

D. Piloting

After preparing the items and before starting the experiment, in order to remove any potential flaws in the items of the tests and to check if the allotted time is enough, the pretest and delayed post-tests (only delayed test was piloted as long as immediate and delayed post tests were the same) were piloted with forty students similar to the participants of the study in terms of their English background knowledge. Most of the target lexical items were taught and studied before the experiment. Some malfunctioning lexical items were either excluded or changed after calculating item difficulty, item discrimination and choice distribution and also a high reliability of 0.88 was gained by implementing KR21.

V. PROCEDURE

After assigning students into the control and experimental groups, the pretest was administered to all 80 students in both classes. The students were required to choose the correct meaning of lexical items. After administrating the test of vocabulary, the 20 known words were omitted from the instructional program. The remaining 60 lexical items were divided into six class sessions in order to be taught to students in both experimental and control groups in six weeks, one session in a week for 90 minutes.

Before teaching the new lexical items, the loci method was explained to the students in the experimental group in how to use this technique to memorize and recall words. After explanation new vocabularies were presented to them in each session. The students in the control group were taught the same vocabularies in each session but they were required to use the usual and known method of rehearsal which is mere repetition of words to memorize. Each session, right after the treatment, a multiple-choice vocabulary test was administered as the immediate post test to measure the participants' short term memory regarding the words taught at that session by the teacher/researcher. The average of each student's score on these six multiple-choice vocabulary tests was recorded as her/ his score for short-term memory.

Four weeks after the treatment, the delayed posttest was used to test the participants' retention of the instructed words. The learners were asked to choose the lexical items which were considered the most appropriate to complete the sentences. In order to prevent memorization effect, the order of the items in the test was changed to be varied from the order of the target words while teaching in class. The collected data were entered into the SPSS 20 for further analysis. In order to answer the research questions and test the null hypotheses of the study, Independent-Samples t-test was used. The alpha level for significance testing was set at the .05 level of confidence.

VI. RESULTS

For the first research question regarding the effect of loci and rehearsal methods of instruction on vocabulary development during the treatment sessions, every six item multiple-choice vocabulary test in each session was scored out of 20 (each question was assigned two points). At the end of the sixth session, the average of each student's score was recorded as a short-term memory score. The immediate post-test average mean scores were calculated for both experimental and control groups. Then Independent-Samples t-test was used to compare the average mean scores. Tables 1 and 2 show the results of this analysis.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loci	40	17.31	2.33	.36
Rehearsal	40	11.66	3.42	.54

TABLE II
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST

		Levene Test		t-test for Equality		
		F	Significance	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Post1	Equal variances	5.06	.027	8.619	78	.000
	Not Equal Variance			8.619	68.77	.000

Note. * $p < .05$

As Table 2 represents, there was a significant difference, $t(68.78) = 8.619$, $p = .000$, between the loci group ($M = 17.31$, $SD = 2.33$) and rehearsal group ($M = 11.66$, $SD = 3.43$) in their vocabulary learning during the treatment, implying the better performance of the group using the loci method. Therefore, the first null hypothesis is rejected.

For the second research question regarding the difference between the two methods of teaching lexical items to measure the permanency of learned vocabularies in long-term memory, after administering the 60-item delayed posttest to students in both experimental and control groups, each question was assigned one point. These scores used as long term memory recall scores for every student. But in order to preserve consistency in this study, the scores were calculated out of 20. Then the delayed posttest average mean scores were calculated for both experimental and control groups. Tables 3 and 4 show the results of this analysis.

TABLE III
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. error Mean	
Post 2	Loci	40	16.35	2.07	.32
	Rehearsal	40	8.18	2.66	.42

TABLE IV
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST

		Levene Test		t-test for Equality		
		F	Significance	t	df	sig (2-tailed)
Post 2	Equal Variances	6.57	.012	15.285	78	.000
	Not Equal Variances			15.285	73.63	.000

Note. * $p < .05$

As Table 4 represents, there was a significant difference, $t(73.63) = 15.285$, $p = .000$, between the loci group ($M = 16.35$, $SD = 2.07$) and rehearsal group ($M = 8.18$, $SD = 2.66$) in their vocabulary permanency in long term memory, implying the better performance of the group using the loci method. Therefore, the Second null hypothesis is rejected.

VII. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to compare the effect of two techniques of vocabulary learning known as rehearsal and loci methods on short term memory and long term memory retention. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the effects of two methods in both long term and short term memory retention.

The findings indicating that learners applying loci method are more successful in recalling words than learners applying rehearsal method is consistent with previous researchers' findings regarding the effectiveness of mnemonic techniques in comparison to other methods. For example, Saeedi and Mohajernia (2012) compared the mnemonic technique of keyword with context method and found out that keyword is more efficient than context method in recalling words. In another study, Moe and De Beni (2005) introduced loci method as the most effective method in recalling words especially in oral modality. Wyra, Lawson and Hungi (2007) also introduced the mnemonic keyword method as an effective technique for vocabulary acquisition. They suggested that there should be an explicit instruction of key-word method both on retrieval and encoding lexical words in language classes. In addition, they also found that the rating for ability to make images made a small but significant contribution to recall performance.

Loci method can enhance imagination and creativity; it can help students to not only connect the mental image of a word into the meaning of that word but also connect the word to their background knowledge of familiar places (Mirhassani and Eghtesadei, 2007) indicate,. Therefore, it can be said that this method leads to meaningful learning and

in this way the degree of rote learning can be decreased (Jenpattarakul, 2012). This method also decreases students' feeling of stress that results in enjoying the learning process. This fact was actually seen in the experimental group applying loci method to memorize lexical items.

Compared to the loci method, learning through rehearsal method is more time consuming. As it is usually seen in actual EFL classes, the students always state that learning vocabularies through rehearsal makes them bored because they need to repeat large number of words to memorize. It is a fact that this kind of learning never leads to meaningful learning.

VIII. CONCLUSION

As Moe and De Beni (2005) stated, loci method improves and enhances vocabulary learning and retention. Therefore, it is better to incorporate this method to the students' regular language learning schedule. Students also prefer to work on the vocabulary learning methods which can help retention and recalling of lexical items more effectively.

Because of the importance of language learning strategies, the role of teachers are really important. Teachers not only should be familiar with different kinds of learning strategies but also should be familiar with their students' characteristics, such as their age, proficiency level, their background knowledge as well as their learning style and preferences to choose the most appropriate and effective strategy for students.

Several implications can be drawn from the findings of this study that can be a great asset for language practitioners, teachers and students in an EFL context. First, researchers, teachers and practitioners should notice the importance of L2 vocabulary teaching methods in EFL classes. The results of this study may assist EFL teachers to provide answers for students who ask for the effective methods for vocabulary learning.

The knowledge of different vocabulary teaching techniques make teachers develop positive attitudes toward incorporation of the best and varied methods in conventional teaching contexts. The findings are also useful for teacher trainers to develop practical methods of vocabulary instruction.

This study can also help syllabus designers and textbook writers to introduce different mnemonics within the graded vocabulary books and other materials by taking the proficiency level of students into account.

In the present research gender and age were not taken into account. A more detailed study is needed to explore the relationship between these variables and the implementation of loci method in foreign language learning context.

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Touran Ahour is an assistant professor and academic staff member at the Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz branch, Iran. She has received her PhD degree in TESL from the University Putra Malaysia. She has published several books and articles in international scholarly journals. Her research interests include writing assessment, materials evaluation, reading-writing connection, and ELT issues.

Sepideh Berenji is PhD student and academic staff member in English Language Teaching, Department of Public and Basic Science, Islamic Azad University, Osku branch, Iran. She has published several articles in international scholarly journals and presented articles in several international and national conferences. Her research interests include ELT issues and discourse analysis.

Challenges to Dynamic Assessment in Second Language Learning

Ehsan Mehri

Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University, Arak, Iran

Majid Amerian

Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University, Arak, Iran

Abstract—The concept of the zone of the proximal development can contribute not only to the assessment, but also to the teaching within the second language learning environment. However, the unifying philosophy within sociocultural theory (SCT) in relation to language and thought has also merged the assessment and teaching procedures into the concept of Dynamic Assessment (DA). The process of DA lets the teacher/mediator permeate into both the actual and potential zones of the development. It teaches and assesses at the same time. This contributive and critical article focuses on the peculiarities of DA. It introduces two new approaches within DA: Dynamic Assessment and Teaching (DAT), and Dynamic Teaching and Assessment (DTA). Moreover, it will discuss where DA stands within applied linguistics, the idea of transcendence both as the device of development and assessment, and the doubts applied linguists might have regarding the promising outcome of metacognitive awareness as a key point in the process of development in DA. After evaluating the problem of validity and reliability of DA, the article will critically analyze the two realizations of DA: interactionist and interventionist. Finally, the mere process of development within SCT in general, and DA in particular will be discussed.

Index Terms—sociocultural theory, dynamic assessment, dynamic assessment and teaching, dynamic teaching and assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

Dynamic assessment was born as an inspiration of Vygotsky's major concern for instruction and assessment. Vygotsky (1986) investigated the issue of instruction and assessment in the zone of proximal development (henceforth ZPD) in that the collaborative activity between two individuals in a purposeful manner would make a difference in the development and learning of the students. Not only could the implementation of ZPD foster a better instructional outcome which leads to the acquisition of tools and development toward higher mental functioning, but also it assists the assessment process toward a more comprehensive examination of learners' mental functioning. Two individuals who receive the same score on their exams cannot be perceived as having the same cognitive ability, but that they have to be mediated carefully in order to assess who advantages the mediation more than the other so that the assessment authorities can select with more confidence the one who has more actual and potential ability than the other. According to Poehner and Lantolf (2005), the unit of analysis in ZPD-sensitive activities is "the interpersonal functional system formed by people and cultural artifacts jointly to bring about development" (p. 238).

Luria (1961) introduced the idea of Dynamic Assessment (henceforth DA) to the western research community. The concept merged the instruction and assessment to reemerge then as a learning/assessment procedure in that neither the instruction nor the assessment part of the DA could be exactly distinguished.

The process takes what the individual has acquired before and what will be possible within his reach in the ZPD. Valinsler and van der Veer (1993) believe that "all development involves in the construction of distance between the present and the past, and overcoming the distance from the present and the future" (p. 266). In order to have a more comprehensive understanding of the person's ability for our assessment goals and their development of the abilities for instructional goals, one needs entering the process of interaction. The dynamic assessment aims at assessing the abilities of the learners through transforming them via dialogic activities between the learner and the mediator (Zhang, 2013). The mediator on his part has to see how much the learner benefits from the cues, prompts, hints, and in general the intervention he¹ provides, and on the other, the learner has to struggle to access higher levels of performance to develop. More narrowly, it is actually the interactiveness of the process sensitive to learners' responsiveness as well as metacognitive awareness that differentiates DA from other models of assessment and instruction (Haywood, 1992). The effort used by the mediator in order to see how much change is possible through assistance reveals the potential development of the individual.

¹ No sexist orientation is intended

In the field of second language development, Poehner and Lantolf (2005, p. 234) have supported the implementation of the DA approach since:

A full picture [of an individual cognitive ability] requires two additional bits of information: The person's performance with assistance from someone else and the extent to which the person can benefit from this assistance not only in completing the same task or test, but in transferring this mediated performance to different tasks or tests.

The former part of the above quotation implies the collaboration of another person (mediator) who has more knowledge and ability in the content of interaction. The information acquired through the assistance of the mediator is aimed at more valid assessment. Although DA does merge the instruction and assessment, the goal of DA is to realize the individual's "full picture" of cognitive ability in the field of second language learning.

II. DAT OR DTA

Poehner (2008) visualizes the possible unwelcoming attitude of the teachers for DA due to the assessment part of the concept. Assessment could trigger very difficult-to-understand-and-use affectives for the teachers. Mostly, teachers are dealing with the classroom assessment not that of high risk ones. However, DA has the learning part within itself. The title of DA has been in favor of the assessment part, not that of the teaching part. If we agree on the merging process of instruction and assessment, we have to show the instruction part of it too. Unlike the favor attributed to the assessment part of the DA, the concept has to be figured out as to the function it provides. If it is the assessment part, so the Dynamic Assessment could be a justified title. But what if the instruction part is the goal? Although the word instruction has some sense of "instructivism", we suggest the word "teaching" since there is more of constructivism to it which is in line with the general philosophy of sociocultural theory (henceforth SCT). Therefore, the term could be titled upon its use. What should be added is the teaching part. Dynamic Assessment and Teaching (DAT) prioritizes the assessment aspect of the process over the teaching, though the teaching part of the process is within the assessment. That goes to the merging of both concepts. On the other hand, the Dynamic Teaching and Assessment (DTA) emphasizes the teaching part of the process of interaction over the assessment part. Although, there are lots of practitioner's guides written in the market (Lidz, 1991; Poehner, 2011a), it could be more stress releasing for the students of language teaching or in-service teachers to be introduced to the field of DA as DTA so that they realize that it is not all about assessing, but also teaching. Of course, as (Butler, 1997) mentions, DA needs deep-insight knowledge of the field and teachers have to be intensively trained as how to put into practice the cognitive developing concept.

According to Poehner and Lantolf (2010), DA is born out of the concept of ZPD, in that "the jointed activity intended to reveal a learner's ZPD and the provision of mediation to support continued development are fully integrated in DA" (p. 312). However, the concept of ZPD is a general umbrella for the interactional, jointed, and collaborative activities. One can realize the development of the individual in the practical concept of scaffolding (Amerian and Mehri, 2014), where the bots and bolts of the scaffolding could lead to the development of the individual. But what we need to realize is that the scaffolding part could not give us enough evidence into the cognitive functions of the individual, unlike DA in which the mediator sweeps into the abilities and disabilities of the learner in order to gain insights of the basic reasons of the problems learners have in doing a certain activity or developing a specific mental tool (Sternberg and Grigorenko, 2002). Therefore, the scaffolding concept could sometimes be haphazardous. It could not be as principled as DA is in the course of interaction. Although scaffolding makes a change in the cognitive function, the assessment of where the learner stands, what he has gained so far, why he has certain problems, and all in all, the assessment of the individual is almost lost. On the other hand, the DAT/DTA could have a bifunctional outcome since it could be finely scripted and principled as the interventionist approach suggests, or it could be interactively investigational as the interactionist approach claims. Moreover, DA has the favor of transcendence which provides new skills for the learner as a result of the mediator/learner interaction in order to perform in increasingly more difficult and complex relevant tasks (Dowing and Chirchi, no date). The transcendence part of DA, unlike scaffolding, takes the learner out of the here-and-now consideration to the potential future (Xiaoxiao and Yan, 2010).

III. DYNAMIC AND STATIC ASSESSMENT

DA is usually contrasted with the static assessment (henceforth SA) or whatever approach which is not dynamic, and it is titled non-dynamic assessment (NDA) (Poehner, 2008). Static and Dynamic assessments are contrasted in their theoretical assumptions, the process employed, and the interpretation of their results. SA does not bring about assessment and teaching within the same process. Although the washback effect brings about learning, it is related to the dualistic view of teaching and assessment as separate instructional activities. Actually DA cries for the assessment and teaching within the same interactional opportunity. In contrast, SA practically divides the teaching phase of education from the assessment phase. In the assessment phase, SA assumes that the intelligence of the learners could be crystallized and assessed through answering some ability related items. In other words, the mental abilities are said to be under a microscope, measured objectively, and analyzed for the results of the test. In addition, SA assumes that all the learners have the same cultural-historical background, motives and emotions (Haywood, 1992), and they have been raised to the same norm the SA might refer to for the interpretation of the test results. Gillam, Pena, and Miller (1999) maintain that the test bias of SA, its process of standardization is against those learners who have different

understanding and experience from the current education and assessment. They have to be completely familiar to the bots and bolts of tests within the SA approach to show their ability thoroughly. Baek and Kim (2003) mention that the tests of SA are decontextualized since the learner has to be separated from the real world experience and answer each item individually in order to let the assessment authorities know whether he has acquired the content of the course and if he has a certain level of intelligence competency. As a result of decontextualization and standardization, the learner has to be objectively observed, in that he is not allowed to consult anybody during the test and nobody is allowed to enter into an interaction as to provide feedback or get involved with the testee (Hill and Sabet, 2009). Wagner (1992, p. 176-177, cited in Lidz, 1995) sees the problems of SA as follows:

Beyond providing a very rough index of general level of cognitive functioning... the tests do not provide the kind of specific information that is needed to train students in the processes and products of learning. IQ tests sample only a narrow slice of the range of competencies that are required for effective school learning, let alone learning in out of school context.

To increase a test's reliability and validity, SA followers believe that if they intervene in the process of the test, they jeopardize the information they aim to get and result in the instrument decay which is vastly problematic to the inferences based on the test scores. The scores introduce the past-to-present information of the learners, that is, what the learner has acquired so far, and the generalization of the test performance is based on the previous learning. This latter criticism could be viewed positively. Since the turn of the 20th century, the SA system of evaluation has helped us in almost all areas of knowledge. The mass production of the post-Second World War has brought to us unseen opportunities, the assessment of which has been on the shoulder of the SA approach toward the examination of mind. We cannot ignore the fact that static approaches have helped us tremendously in structuring the assessment system of most of the academic, school, and educational centers, not to mention its quick and cheap implementation. Therefore, it is this long termed service of SA that makes some researchers in the field (Lidz, 1987; Nazari, 2012) believe that DA has to be a complementary approach for SA.

IV. DA ASSUMPTIONS

To understand the DA assumptions, one has to emphasize that DA not only tries to understand the previous learning and independent performance of the individual, but also his potential ability in jointed performance. In DA the examiner intervenes in the problem the learner is about to solve in order to figure out the strategies and processes of mental functioning he puts into action in the collaborative environment that has been provided (Macrine and Lidz, 2001). Therefore, there is no attempt to bias the collaboration as to what previous experience the learner has gone through, but the potential he has brought in, since all the humans, according to Feuerstein, Ran, and Rynders (1988), are modifiable. This characteristic of DA does not ignore the cultural-historical differences among people and raises the fairness of the educational system (Poehner, 2011a). Learners are viewed not only in their actuality, but also in their potentiality for pursuing their studies and development for better opportunities in life and career. The society can have a huge impact on the individual's life trajectory since the opportunities could be deprived by the social and educational systems.

The intervention of the examiner in DA challenges the reliability of the test which provokes cries of SA followers for the consistency of the test scores in the process of standardization of the test. This assumption, of course, is in sharp contrast with the belief of DA due to its changing prospect. One of the DA's basic goals is to change the person and see the potential for change in the course of interaction. As a result, the reliability of the test does not have a critical meaning and place in its perspective. Better said, the traditional definition of reliability in the SA related studies should be revisited and redefined in DA related studies.

The issue of reliability in DA does not ruin its accuracy in determining the ability of an individual. Gillam and Pena's (2004) study reveals that the use of DA increases the clarification of ability among different ethnic backgrounds. The SA approach might not be able to distinguish comprehensively among individuals, and could deprive people from life costing opportunities for education and development. Therefore, the idea of a democratic educational system could benefit tremendously from DA since the results assist the educational centers in more accurate and fairer selection of the students.

Haywood and Lidz (2007) explain that DA's interactive mood objectively measures the possibility of change through different techniques. But there is a disadvantage to this change and measurement of the process. The time, cost, and deep knowledge of the instructors it requires may hinder a vast implementation of the DA approach in designing a curriculum. Despite the problem, if DA is used for the purpose of teaching (DTA in our classification as opposed to DAT), the high quality form of education can be the reward for our selection.

V. TRANSCENDENCE AND THE PROBLEM OF METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS

Transcendence as a feature of DA in the transference of abilities to other more complex and difficult situations can be to the advantage of the learners in coping with other problems of a similar kind. The introduction of the purposeful more difficult tasks to the learners pushes them toward acquiring underlying principles of the course content. Actually, Kozulin (2011) believes that the process of DA equips the learners with the learning potential. In this process which refers to the acquisition related abilities, the learner benefits from the mediation and scaffolding techniques. Now to

validate this acquisition related abilities, the cognitive modifiability element which refers to the thinking related abilities of the model Kozulin provides for the assessment and development of the intelligence is well justified. By cognitive modifiability, it is meant the independent selection, application, and integration of the knowledge acquired in the learning potential phase in more complex tasks and activities. Therefore, it is the transcendence task that distinguishes DA from other forms of assessment and development approaches.

According to Dunn and Lantolf (1998), DA improves the "learning to learn" criteria for educational programs and it increases the quality of learning. The metacognitive awareness, as one of the characteristics of DA (Dowing and Chirchi, no date) is believed to make learners conscious of their mental processes, thus their problem solving ability would increase. DA promises to qualitatively change the mental capabilities through the appropriation of mental tools warily, thus metacognitive awareness, and implement them in other contexts of use, thus transcendence. However, one has to question the absolute validity of such claims.

In the second language learning environment, there are occasions where the learner cannot and possibly is not to have complete awareness of what happens when they learn something. The metacognitive emphasis that researchers in the second language learning put forth (Poehner, 2008; Poehner and Lantolf, 2010) could not be thoroughly acceptable. The learners could feel that what they are saying is correct but could not have any reason for it. In fact this is related to their implicit knowledge of the language. Even if we ignore Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999) that there are many grammatical points we are still wondering what they are, the proponents of DA could not easily ask learners to reason about their every bit of learning. There are many grammatical points in every language that do not expose themselves at the level of analysis and explanation easily. The teacher or the examiner should hold a Ph.D. in linguistics to be able to explain the reasons for highly complex structures. In Poehner's (2002) study, borrowing the steps of mediation from Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), the researcher emphasizes that the learner has to put forth a reason for their selection of the grammatical choice. Of course, it could be a method of research to conceptualize the process of the learning, and a reason for problems, but the mere fact of not knowing the reason could not necessarily mean that the person does not have the knowledge. The claim that DA has over the control of mind and metacognitive awareness could not be applied to all areas of language learning. Even in the process of teaching, there are occasions of implicit teaching, where learners might not confidently announce their reason for the point acquired. Long (1990) argues that a theory should not attribute all learning to be unconscious. In similar vein, the consciousness of learning is to be practical to some extent. Now, even if the learner acquires the specific metacognitive knowledge we like them to acquire, the transference of this awareness about the principles of metacognition should be applied in the transcendence phase of DA. The transfer here means that the new task holds specific principles of the previously accomplished activity but changes some others into more difficult ones. Another question here is that what type of changes makes one task more difficult than the other? What are the criteria of these changes? The possible solution we suggest is the reference of the DA users to the tasks-based syllabus design in arranging the hierarchy of difficulty in tasks based on several criteria provided in the literature (see Ellis, 2003).

VI. THE PROBLEM OF VALIDITY

The validity aspect of DA also bears certain problems. To examine the ability we intend to examine, one needs evidence. The interactive feature of DA provides bundles of information for the assessors to assure their users of the validity of the test. Messick (1989) believes that the process of validation should support the evidence for the construct one claims to measure. The pros of DA is that its mental process-oriented approach can dig into what happens in the mind of the learner that he performs how he performs, an evidence for the construct validity. For example, in a study on the reading comprehension test, Cohen and Upton (2007) believe that the engagement of the learners in the test could not necessarily mean that they are adhering to their reading ability. Learners might use strategies as short cuts to the answers. Rather than deeply following the text to answer the question, they might circumvent it.

In constructing a structured support for the validity of DA, Poehner introduces the micro/macro framework of validity for DA; however, it seems that the construct fuzziness (Jitendra and Kame'enui, 1993) of the evidence is not as principled and vast productive as it firstly shows. According to Poehner (2011b), "while micro validity points to particular instances of mediator-learner cooperation during a DA session, macro validity considers patterns throughout the session" (p. 259). The macro validity puts forth evidence for the independent performance, the form of mediation, and the responsiveness of the learner to that mediation (ibid). However, the patterns need specific classifications. This is a matter of person to person interaction that could result in a profile of the individual and validity of the construct examined. The vast implementation of the approach could not be as easily handled as the framework suggests. Also, the micro validity requires the learner's verbalization, while previously we argued that the learner might not be competent enough metacognitively, due to the jargons or ability to explain, to open up the reasons behind his choices. The framework also has to answer the following questions: a) If the assessment is based on the learners immediate needs, how should one specify the size of overlapping ZPDs of different grammatical points? b) Can the framework clarify the expansion of one's degree of ability, whether potential or actual, in one session of interaction? If yes, on what criteria? c) How can the framework show the development in a large class size, if it is argued that the group DA has also the required validity?

VII. INTERACTIONIST AND INTERVENTIONIST APPROACHES OF DA

A. *Analyzing Interactionist DA*

DA in second language learning is divided into two approaches of interactionist and interventionist (Lantolf and Poehner, 2004). Each of these approaches bears certain characteristics on the one hand and lacks some on the other. The interactionist approach of DA is in favor of the qualitative approach of investigating the learners' mental development. Emphasizing the emergent interactiveness of this approach, van Compernelle (2010) believes that "the social interaction is itself the locus of situated cognition, where learners or novices can appropriate the means for participation in social-interactive activity of more expert social members" (p. 66). Therefore, it is more in line with Vygotsky's qualitative approach of higher mental functioning. Vygotsky insisted that the individual should not be measured but interpreted and this is only possible through the collaborative interaction with the person. The interaction between the mediator and the learner makes the problems be negotiated rather than predicted (Lantolf and Poehner, 2004) in the interactionist approach. This emergent view of the interaction in the process of problem solving provides a great amount of freedom for the mediators to make an effort to tune their assistance to the learner's need throughout the course of completing the activity. The permeation of the mediator into the learner's needs and cognitive process through interaction lets him understand his mental functioning in detail. The interactionist approach bears resemblance to the Feuerstein's learning potential assessment device. Although the design of Feuerstein's work is basically interactionist, the process of examining and developing learners does not identify the primary level of the individuals. Feuerstein, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1988) believe that the fluidity of the interaction gives some sense of understanding to the mediator as where the individual stands so far as his/her competency in the given task is concerned. However, there is not any specific procedure for how to follow the course of interaction and what reaction should be provided when specific problems happen in the interactionist approach. It is all figured out based the interpretation of the mediator from the situation.

The interactionist approach is not without its shortcomings. First of all, any mediator adopting the interactionist approach toward developing or assessing the individuals' cognitive functions might reveal different styles of behavior due to his/her own competency and interpretation of the learner's needs in the context of interaction (Kozulin and Garb, 2001). The examination of each individual with a different outcome and style, even by the same mediator, might not let the exact comparison between the learners for selection and scoring purposes. Although Poehner (2008) insists that the preparation of profiles for each individual might reduce the problem of comparison, it could first let different interpretations of the results, and second, raise the time and effort for handling the large amount of information for assessing and developing a great number of learners. In addition, most of the studies borrowing an interactionist approach have taken a one-to-one interaction as a source of data for their analysis. The basic characteristics of the approach do not allow the whole class interaction at the same time. Also, the interaction with the whole class or large groups might not let the teacher or the researcher enter into the detail analysis of each individual. There are some attempts as to solve this problem.

Brown and Ferrara (1999) have suggested a "community of learners" in which there is a common goal among the individuals who seek to reach through constructive collaboration. Although there are differences among the members of the group, they can contribute to the ZPD of the group in general and each person's ZPD in particular. Moreover, each learner might follow different ZPDs for different abilities and cognitive functions. For example, learners of second language could have different ZPDs for different grammatical points. One learner's ZPD for the past tense could be wider than another's, while the former learner's ZPD for the future tense might be narrower than the latter's. Thus, the group member's overlapping ZPDs could contribute to the development of each other's specific ZPD (Nazari, 2012; Mehri and Amerian, in press).

In his classification of different group formats, Petrovsky (1985) viewed three forms of group. The group-as-context is just an opportunity for the learners to be associated for the sake of time and place. The group members use the opportunity of gathering for their own recovery. In group-as-cooperation, the members have specific goals for themselves, and in addition they regard the interrelation of their goals with other group members. It is actually the last form of group format, namely group-as-collective, that all the members have a common goal, they share their resources and mental tools in order to develop the functioning of all members individually and the group collectively.

Lantolf and Yanez-Prieto (2003) claim that when an appropriate activity is given to the group, and one member is faced with a problem, his interaction with the mediator should be assumed significant for other members of the group. Therefore, they form a primary interactants, while the other members are in the status of secondary interactants. All in all, all the members benefit from the interaction, whether primary or secondary. However, one has to doubt the exact development of the learners. If the purpose of DA is to assess the individual's actual and potential levels of development, in the group oriented DA, the learners are not assessed individually, but collaboratively. In other words, even if we can be successful in submitting a score for the potentiality of the group, it is the group's score. The ZPD of each individual in different areas (different grammatical points for example) could be distinct. The argument for the primary and secondary interactants have a significant effect on the development of the individuals since the interactions are stepping stones for everybody to develop, however, this is due to the teaching part of the DA, that is DTA, and not that of DAT. Moreover, Skinner and Madden (2010) argue that learners, due to their individual distinct characteristics, who believe that they are in the need of help, might not be as much certain as to ask for help. The group DA assumes that the

learners are effectively contributive to their and that of others' development. As a result, the claims on the basis of the validity of this form of DA are not evidenced justifiably. The next criticism is related to constructivism, according to Karpove and Haywood (1998), in that it is possible that the learners form unintended concepts in their mind without further mediation. It also might refer back to the spontaneous and scientific concepts of Vygotsky (1988), in that the change from the spontaneous-discovery based concept formation could mislead the learners to unpredictable scientific concept.

B. Analyzing Interventionist DA

The interventionist approach of DA is more favored among those working in the area of second language learning since it bears resemblance to the traditional psychometric assessment. The interventionist approach enjoys the standardization of the procedure for the interaction in DA sessions. In the course of implementing an interventionist approach, the mediators are "not free to respond to the learners' need...but must instead follow a highly scripted approach to mediation in which all prompts, hints, and leading questions have been arranged in a hierarchical manner" (Poehner, 2008, pp.44-45). Unlike the interactionist approach in which the mediator's different abilities in interacting with the learner could have different outcomes, the scripted based interactional behavior in the interventionist approach increases the possibility of score comparison between individuals. The scoring procedure, on the other hand, does not require a lot of qualitative profiles, but the quantification process allows the examiners to satisfy both learners and parents easier (Poehner, 2011b). According to Poehner and Lantolf (2013), the case of the interventionist approach provides the opportunity for dynamic assessors to administer DA for a large number of learners on the one hand, and reduces the effort and time on the other. However, there are also some disadvantages attributed to this approach.

First of all, the scripted standard procedure for implementing the interventionist approach limits the mediator in replying to the learners' needs. Since the mediator has to follow strict modes of mediation (from the most implicit to the most explicit according to Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994), he has to stick to the limited number of points he can mediate for the learner. The hierarchical arrangement of the hints, prompts, questions, and other mediational reactions can hinder the on-the-spot answer since the prediction of the beforehand mediation assumes an idealized learner whose individual characteristics are general for all the learners. The interventionist approach cannot seek into the difference between the learners from different socio-historical backgrounds as accurately as the interactionist approach can. However, the generalization for all the learners equips the interventionists to administer the approach in the classes with a large number of learners. This feature could be realized through the mediator-learner interaction.

To expand the scope of administration, Poehner and Lantolf (2013) have taken the idea of interventionist approach into the computerized format. Computerized dynamic assessment (C-DA) is a recent field of research within the SCT in general and DA in particular. The learners are introduced with a set of hints in the process of assessment as the scores are attributed to the degree of explicitness the learners need for answering the items. One of the claims of socioculturalists is that if learners are equipped with metacognitive awareness they can control the content of instruction. In his study, Poehner (2011a) conducted a study with the L2 French learners. The mediation required learners to explain the reason for their choice of the tense. Even if the implicit form of mediation was projected by the mediator, the learners had to explain the reason why or why not they used the tense. If the reason was not acceptable, they would have to wait for a more explicit form of mediation, the last of which is the explanation of the point itself by the mediator. Although the case of the approach in Poehner study is interactionist, most of the DA followers claim for the presence of explicit reasoning, or more technically, a metacognitive awareness of the learners. The use of C-DA reduces the time and effort of previous realizations of DA. However, if the learner can select the correct response through the hints, he is not provided with the opportunity to explain his reason for the selection. Only is the last mediation the explicit explanation of the correct response which is given by the computer display, or the explicit explanation would be provided given the examinee answers the question correctly. Therefore, even in C-DA, the examiners cannot very definitely address the source of the problem of the learners. He cannot be as sure as in the interactionist approach in claiming that the construct validity of the test is because the learner has the required amount of ability in the given domain. The examiner should trust the prompts in that they fit for all individuals. In other words, the C-DA's construct validity and interpretation of the test results are not, in our current state of knowledge, firmly evidenced. Although the micro/macro framework of validity is a serious attempt toward justifying the acceptability of the approach, the researchers have to merely trust the validity of DA in the curriculum design.

VIII. DEVELOPMENT IN SCT/DA

The basic claim of SCT in general and DA in particular is that they can lead the learner toward more development. The mental tools of mind have certain interrelationships and the development of these mental tools, as well as the injection of newly acquired tools, means that their interrelationship becomes more complex. To have a psychological reality in the experimental research, Vygotsky puts forth the concept of ZPD and believes that all that happens regarding the relationship between the learning and development happens in this zone. Moreover Poehner and van Compernelle (2013, p. 355-356) believe that:

Mediators should not take over full responsibility for completing tasks but should continually position learners to maximally contribute. Learner struggle, from this perspective, is not something to avoid because it is through the

tension to exceed one's present capabilities that development occurs. Of course, for such interaction to be most effective, mediator and learner must have a shared orientation to the task, that is, an agreed understanding of the goal they intend to realize.

The struggle the learner should have for expanding their ability in the zone of proximal development through interaction is well supported, in that the mutual intersubjectivity between the learner and the mediator, through providing the mood for expression of the learner, would stretch the zone of potential development (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994). But the development and extension of abilities do not guarantee the complete control of the person over the task in hand, especially in second language learning. Unlike Piaget's claim over the structure dependent development in mental functioning, the followers of SCT in general and DA in particular believe that the mediation process could change the person into more mental functioning, bearing that the individual can benefit from the interaction within the scope of his ZPD.

In relation to interlanguage studies (Corder, 1971; Selinker, 1972), the language system the learners make in their mind, or multi-competence as a web of interconnected language systems in the mind of the multilingual speakers (Cook, 2008), the language system or systems seem to have some fundamental specific principles. Some of these principles could be under the influence of the first language. For example, the Persian first language speakers acquire the third person "s" of English language very late. It is assumed that this grammatical point is delayed in its acquisition due to several possible reasons, one of which is that the concept is not present in the Persian language. If we take this idea to the DA field of investigation, we need to be cautious about the implications. Given that the DA approach cries out for the metacognitive awareness of the learners, the third person "s" grammatical point could be easily comprehended by the learners.

In addition, the mediation of the learner cannot assuredly influence the full development of the point in question. In other words, the ZPD for this grammatical point despite so much effort is delayed to later stages of second language learning. The ZPD of the third person "s" is very low and is kept low until late stages of full competency over the second language (here English for Persian first language speakers). Development in general is not finely predictable. There are many occasions which can contribute to the development of the individual, and thus the independent functioning of the person on the given problem. However, one needs to be cautious that the regression of the second language learning is also at work. As Poehner and Lantolf (2005) contend the "development in the ZPD is not a smooth and predictable process but is revolutionary in the sense that it entails both progress and regression" (p. 245).

The development of the individual in so far as their actual level of functioning is concerned, could not be easily identified. In other words, those who are low at the actual level of functioning in relation to second language compared to those who are at high level of actual functioning do not have the same sense of development if that is to be examined by the DA approaches. They could not be easily compared as in their line of potential development. De Beer (2002, p. 98-99) in the following provides an interesting example:

If someone were to say that a university mathematics professor has no learning potential, quite a few eyebrows would be raised. A person who functions at such a high level should by all accounts be able to cope better than most people with virtually any new learning situation. If the focus is on the ability to learn, then credit also needs to be given to learning that has already been accomplished and which forms part of the learner's repertoire. The professor will probably obtain a very high score on the initial (actual) level of performance and consequently can show only limited improvement. Within the restrictive framework of considering only the difference score as the score that indicates learning potential, it is therefore possible to say that she has very little learning potential. To take the example to the extreme, when selecting someone for further training, this professor could find herself being dropped in favour of a primary school pupil who showed more improvement, since the latter's difference score (ZPD) is larger – and this, in spite of the fact that the overall level of performance of the primary school pupil is substantially below that of the professor.

The example gives credit to the Vygotsky's interpretation of the ZPD in that the actual level of development should also be part of the examination within DA in addition to the potential level (Amerian and Mehri, unpublished). The above mentioned example refers to the concept of the ceiling effect in research methods too. The study of Hill and Sabet (2009) justifies the point in speaking DA that those learners who are in the most competent side of the continuum of second language ability are at a ceiling level where even their minor development is highly influential in their mental functioning, as opposed to those at the least competent side of the continuum whose huge effort could quantitatively or qualitatively seem to be developmentally trivial in comparison with their more competent counterparts.

In language studies on the other hand, according to Gillam, Pena, and Miller (1999), those who have a high level of control over language, or are good language learners have a better opportunity for learning more complex levels of discourse forms than those who are at the lower levels. This indicates that the different layers of language learning could benefit their development at different levels of competency.

IX. CONCLUSION

DA approaches of development and assessment have been very effective and useful in different lines of research: from psychoeducational assessment of socially at risk students, to culturally deprived people, impaired individuals, mentally retarded children, people with psychiatric disorders, and language learners. However, one needs expanding the

scope of knowledge and specification of the impedances and problems for a better evaluation of the approach. It is academically justifiable that the interdisciplinary research can contribute to the better understanding of the phenomenon in question, but the within-disciplinary investigation has specific peculiarities which require answering specific questions. One cannot ignore the findings of the other realms of research, interlanguage studies for example, in relation to the implementation of DA in second language learning. Also, there are still many questions the DA researchers and followers have to find some answers to, some of which we tried to highlight through our analysis. The continuous reflection and self-assessment of the status of knowledge within our field of research can assuredly help us in the development of the field.

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Ehsan Mehri holds an M.A. in TEFL and a B.A. in English Translation from Arak University. He currently teaches at Arak University. He has published several research articles in international journals. His main research interests include Vygotskian sociocultural theory and dynamic assessment.

Majid Amerian holds a Ph.D. in TEFL from Allameh Tabataba'i. He is an Assistant Professor and a faculty member at Arak University. He has authored and co-authored some research articles in national and international journals. His main research interests include Vygotskian sociocultural theory, dynamic assessment, discourse analysis, and postcolonial studies.

A Study of Politeness Strategies in Persuasive English Business Letters from the Perspective of Londo's AIDA Formula

Shaohui Zheng

School of Foreign Studies, Guangdong University of Petrochemical Technology, Maoming, Guangdong, China

Abstract—Based on Leech's Politeness Principle and Brown and Levinson's Face Theory, this paper tends to explore how Politeness Principle and relative politeness strategies are used in persuasive English business letters. Londo's AIDA formula is adopted to help to account for the manifestations of politeness as well to demonstrate the importance of Politeness Principle and the relative strategies we should take in writing English business letters. The study provides a descriptive analysis and finds out that the you-attitude plays a significant role in persuasive letters, for it provides the goodwill and positive involvement necessary for effective communication, if used appropriately. In addition, the AIDA formula serves as a guideline of successful persuasive letters. This paper also shows that the purpose of employing politeness strategies is to establish, maintain, or consolidate social solidarity, which is of particular significance for business letters writings. It is suggested that writers of persuasive business letters should take cultural influences into consideration in multinational corporations and international business activities and it is hoped that this paper can provide some implications for pedagogical application as well.

Index Terms—politeness; positive face; negative face; strategies; business letters

I. INTRODUCTION

With the globalization of world economy, business communication is becoming increasingly important. Business letters, being a major form of communication in the commercial world, play a significant role in administration and operation of a business. Writers of business letters usually write with definite purposes to the specific readers. To reach the intended goal, writers should always remember readers' needs and expectations and write in a polite and tactful way.

As is known to all, businesses are very image-conscious. With an attempt to establish and maintain their images in the business world, and develop longstanding business relationship with their business partners as well, most of the companies try to conduct themselves decently and politely in their business transactions, among which business letters are major manifestations of politeness. The tone of a business letter helps to create the image and impression of a company. A discourteous and tactless business letter makes the writer appear to be indifferent and dominating, while a courteous and friendly business letter gives the impression of being considerate and helpful.

According to Brown and Levinson's distinction (1987) between positive and negative face, business letters can be divided into four categories: routine business letters, good-news business letters, bad-news business letters and persuasive business letters. Individual speech acts and different genres of business letters combined may require different degrees of politeness and various types of politeness strategies.

Since the modern society is a society full of information, in order not to be drowned in the ocean of information, we will have to "sell" ourselves first instead of waiting for the opportunities coming to you. For this reason, persuasive letters are of vital importance nowadays. Persuasive letters are letters that aim to convince the reader to do something not previously considered or something that might be inconvenient. There are three types of persuasive messages: persuasive requests, sales messages, and collection letters. Persuasive business letters are intended to produce some effect through action by the reader, in which negative politeness is important. According to Brown and Levinson's distinction (1987), persuasive business letters are face-threatening to the potential reader's negative face. At the same time, the writer of a persuasive business letter also risks losing his or her own positive face, because the persuasive message he or she seeks to convey may be disliked or turned down by the reader.

Based on Leech's Politeness Principle and Brown and Levinson's Face Theory, this paper tends to explore how Politeness Principle and relative politeness strategies are used in persuasive letters. In addition, Londo's AIDA formula (1982) will be adopted to help to account for the manifestations of politeness in persuasive English business letters as well. However, due to the constraints of length, only two types of persuasive letters—sales letters and application letters are analyzed to demonstrate the importance of Politeness Principle and the relative strategies we should take in writing English business letters.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Literature Review

With the birth of Politeness Principle and Face Theory in 1980s, great progress has been made in various domains such as people's oral communication, texts, mass media including political and economic arenas, personal utterances, etc. In these domains analysts showed us how Politeness Principle and Face Theory are applied in different discourses and most of the researchers focus mainly on the pragmatic use of these theories. Studies on English business letters also abound, most of which mainly study the lexical, syntactic and discoursal characteristics of all kinds of business English letters and their translation strategies (See for example Maierk, 1992; Morten, 1997; Paarlahti, 1998; Si, 2003; Cai, 2006; Peng & Huang, 2006; Li, 2008; Frank & Daniel, 2010; Hou, 2010; Wang, 2011; Liu, 2012; Huang, 2012; Fan, 2012; Lu, 2012; Mohammad, 2014). However, studies focusing on persuasive English business letters from an integrated perspective by applying Londo's AIDA formula are scanty. How do the writers use persuasive language and arrange the structure in these letters to persuade the readers to take action? This may provide room for the present study. Therefore, this paper tends to explore how Politeness Principle and relative politeness strategies are used in persuasive letters by adopting Brown and Levinson's Face Theory and Londo's AIDA formula.

B. Leech's Politeness Principle

By putting forward his Politeness Principle, Leech establishes himself as a key contributor to the research on politeness. He regards politeness as forms of behavior and a phenomenon existing in all languages aiming to establish and maintain comity and harmony (Leech, 1983, p.104). Leech's Politeness Principle can be demonstrated as follows: other things being equal, minimize the expression of beliefs which are unfavorable to the hearer and at the same time (less important) maximize the expression of beliefs which are favorable to the hearer (Leech, 1983, p.251). Modeling himself after Grice's Cooperative Principle, Leech sums up six maxims of the Politeness Principle as follows (Leech, 1983, p.132):

- 1) Tact Maxim. ①Minimize cost to other;
②Maximize benefit to other;
- 2) Generosity Maxim. ①Minimize benefit to self;
②Maximize cost to self;
- 3) Approbation Maxim. ①Minimize praise of self;
②Maximize praise of other;
- 4) Modesty Maxim. ①Minimize praise of self;
②Maximize dispraise of self;
- 5) Agreement Maxim. ①Minimize disagreement between self and other;
②Maximize agreement between self and other;
- 6) Sympathy Maxim. ①Minimize antipathy between self and other;
②Maximize sympathy between self and other.

On the whole, Leech's six maxims of politeness demonstrate that the most important principle to become polite is to minimize the expression of opinions which are unfavorable to the hearer and simultaneously maximize the expression of beliefs which are favorable to the hearer, i.e., to maximize benefit to others and maximize cost to the self.

C. Brown and Levinson's Face Theory

The face-saving view of politeness by Brown and Levinson (1987) is still one of the most influential works on politeness up till now. According to Brown and Levinson, the face here refers to "public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" and "something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction"(Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.61). A model person who has both a negative face and a positive face thinks strategically and is conscious of his language choice. A negative face is the want to be unimpeded by others, maintaining right of independence, freedom of action within one's own territory, or the right not to be imposed upon while a positive face is the want to be desired or accepted, the concern with being thought of as a normal, contributing member of one's social world or the desire for common ground(Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.61). In order to achieve his own goals in interactions, the model person also assumes that other people are also endowed with positive and negative face and takes other people's face wants into consideration. Usually rational people tend to avoid disagreement and minimize their loss of face. Hence, Brown and Levinson (1987, p.60) argue that both the speaker and the hearer (or the writer and the reader) have an interest in maintaining each other's face, but often have to commit face-threatening acts (FTAs). These FTAs can threaten the independence aspects of the hearer's face, the involvement aspect of the hearer's face and the speaker's own face wants.

The concept of face is the property of the hearer. There are 3 options for the speakers to use when he decides to make an FTA, and the following three options usually form a cline from the most polite to the least polite.

- 1) Speak indirectly or "off-record"—so that if challenged, he can deny it.
- 2) Perform the act explicitly or "on-record" using mitigation.
- 3) Perform the act baldly with no mitigation.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS—THE YOU-ATTITUDE AND AIDA FORMULA

A. *Persuasive English Business Letters and Materials Collection*

As has been mentioned above, business letters can be divided into four categories: routine business letters, good-news business letters, bad-news business letters and persuasive business letters. Individual speech acts and different genres of business letters combined may require different degrees of politeness and various types of politeness strategies. In accordance with Brown and Levinson's face theory, persuasive business letters inherently threaten the reader's negative face since the writer tries to persuade the reader to take action or to influence the reader's decision. Owing to this specific communicative goal, politeness and the efficiency of information conveying interact to obtain the best possible results in persuasive business letters.

There are three types of persuasive business letters—sales letters, application letters and collection series. In sales letters, AIDA formula is in accordance with Brown and Levinson's negative politeness strategies as well as Leech's Politeness Principle by arousing readers' interest first and then making them come into action without imposing too much on readers' negative face. Application letters follow a similar pattern with AIDA formula in sales letters since the aim of this type of letter is usually to get an interview first and finally convince the readers to employ the writers. Things are relatively complicated in collection series. To keep balance between being polite and achieving maximum efficiency, writers of collection series may use a number of positive or negative politeness strategies to mitigate the FTAs in the initial parts of the series. However, when the efficiency of conveying the message is of high priority, politeness is then decreased to the lowest degree with no mitigating devices at all.

Due to the constraint of length, only sales letters and application letters are carefully analyzed in this paper. To see the world from a grain of sand, these materials serve as the very examples to show the application of theories and strategies of politeness in business correspondence. The sampling sales letter is chosen from a business textbook for Chinese university students while 2 application letters are collected from the Internet of different countries, both of which are samples of instructions and suggestions of job hunting. The selection of samples helps to ensure the varieties and credibility of materials.

B. *The You-attitude in Persuasive English Business Letters*

While presenting ideas, two basic viewpoints are to be considered: the writer's and the reader's. The writer's viewpoint is often referred to as the I/we-attitude, which presents the message by saying "here is what I think". The you-attitude approaches communication from the reader's point of view, which presents the message by saying "here is something you should know". The reader receives the primary focus of attention. The you-attitude is particularly useful in business communication (Gibson, etc., 1990, p.103). In other words, the you-attitude is a state of mind emphasizing the benefits to the other person resulting from your suggestion or decision. Besides, emphasizing the reader's viewpoint instead of the writer's viewpoint manifests sincerity. If used properly, the you-attitude can provide the goodwill and positive involvement that are necessary for effective communication. The communicative goal of the you-attitude is in accordance with Leech's Politeness Principle as well as the positive politeness strategy proposed by Brown and Levinson (to notice/attend to the hearer or the reader's wants). Consequently, the politeness considerations require the adoption of the you-attitude in business correspondence. The person whom a business letter is aimed at should be a major influence on the content of the letter as well as the way it is presented. As a matter of fact, whether the person who receives the message will understand it or cooperate with the writer will depend on how well the writer is able to anticipate his or her expectations, attitudes and needs.

No matter whom the audience is, the writer of a business letter will communicate more successfully if he or she paces the reader by seeing the situation from his or her angles and by using positive language to express most of the ideas at the same time. Generally speaking, readers respond better to information presented from their angle instead of from the writer's angle. The you-attitude does not mean that the writer's own concerns are ignored, but simply that the reader's concerns should be of utmost importance. The four steps in persuasive letter writing are as follows:

- 1) Attract attention first.
- 2) Develop genuine interest in whatever is being sold.
- 3) Awaken readers' desire.
- 4) Lead to a "yes" answer, to action.

Obviously, all the four steps are closely related to the reader instead of the writer. The writer develops Attention, interest, belief, desire and decision before writing, and then what he or she has to do is to transfer them to the mind of the possible customer, which is what is meant exactly by the you-attitude in business correspondence. (Old And Sold, 2015)

C. *The Four Elements of AIDA Formula*

Being a recommended pattern of writing a sales letter, the AIDA formula includes four steps: attracting the reader's attention, arousing the reader's interest, inflaming the reader's desire and moving the reader to action. In Londo's formulation (Londo, 1982, p.195), the components of the AIDA formula are as follows:

A—Attention. Get the reader's attention by appealing to his or her curiosity or self-interest.

I—Interest. Once the writer has the reader's attention, the former must get the latter interested in the product or

service the writer is selling.

D—Desire. This is the most important part. To inflame the reader's desire, the writer must show a vivid picture of the product as well as the benefits the reader may get from it.

A—Action. In this part, the writer may possibly threaten the reader's negative face. The writer tells what action the reader needs to take in order to get what the writer is selling.

As seen from the AIDA formula listed above, the first three elements are designed to meet the reader's needs and expectations. And finally, the writer provides a convenient way for the reader to get the product or service in the last element (action). According to Leech's Tact and Generosity Maxim, the benefit to the reader should be maximized, while the cost to the reader should be minimized. In a sales letter, the benefit is some good product or service and the cost is the price. Therefore, all good things about the product or service should be presented to the reader, while the price should be de-emphasized.

IV. CASE STUDIES AND DISCUSSIONS

A. *Politeness in Sales Letters*

In order to fully demonstrate the manifestations of politeness in sales letters, the author chooses the following example from a Business English textbook in South China Normal University.

Sample 1(Gu, 2005).

Situation: This sales letter focuses on a business man. The letter seeks to persuade people to buy a stenograph.

. Promoting the Sale of Stenogram

Dear Sirs,

①*Have you ever thought how much time your typist wastes in taking down your letters? It can be much as a third of the time he spends on correspondence. Why not record your dictation—on our Stenogram—and save this time for other jobs he can be doing while dictation is in progress?*

②*You will be surprised how little it costs. For fifty-two weeks in the year your Stenogram works hard for you, without lunch breaks or holidays. You can't even give it too much to do. And all for less than an average months' salary for a secretary! It will take your dictation at any time, and anywhere—after office hours, at home, or even while you are traveling. It does away with mistranscriptions in short-hand and can even do away altogether with typewriting since recorded messages can be posted.*

③*The Stenogram is efficient, dependable, timesaving and economical and, backed as it is by our international reputation for reliability, is in regular use in thousands of offices all over the country. It gives superb reproduction quality—every syllable as clear as a bell. It is unbelievably simple to use. You just slip in a pre-loaded cassette, press a button, and your Stenogram is ready to record dictation, instructions, interviews, telephone conversations, or what you will. Nothing could be simpler or more efficient either. Our unique after-sale contract ensures lasting operation at the peak of efficiency.*

④*Some of your business friends are sure to be using the Stenogram. Ask them about it before you place an order; or, if you prefer, fill in the enclosed prepaid card and we will arrange for Mr. James Baron our representative for your area, to call and give you a demonstration. Just state a day and time.*

Yours sincerely;

Analysis:

First of all, the organization of this polite sales letter appropriately follows the indirect-inductive approach. Second, most of the content of this sales letter follows the AIDA formula. According to the AIDA formula, in the first stage, the writer of a sales letter should always remember that the potential readers may be reluctant to read on. The writer's efforts to send the persuasive message are threatening readers' negative face. Therefore, he or she should be able to draw readers' attention first and make them continue reading without feeling too much imposition. In this letter, the first paragraph serves to attract readers' attention. In fact, readers' curiosity is likely to be aroused by the several questions such as "Have you ever thought how much time your typist wastes in taking down your letters" and "Why not record your dictation—on our Stenogram...". In addition, the major benefit is introduced in the first paragraph so that readers will be able to feel and sense the product while they read on. The sentence "It can be much as a third of the time he spends on correspondence" serves as the very example.

After attracting attention, in accordance with the AIDA formula, the writer should move on to the introduction of the product or service. In this part, the attributes of the product or service that appeals most to readers' needs are described in order to develop readers' desire to own the product or service. As a cost to the readers, prices should be de-emphasized so as to mitigate the face-threatening force. However, if a low price creates beneficial situation for both readers and writers, it should be emphasized. Otherwise, it should be played down. Here in this letter, the price is mentioned quite early to emphasize the benefits brought by the product. By comparing the price with a secretary's month salary, it demonstrates that the product is really worth the money, though the letter does not clearly state out the price. Therefore readers' interest is aroused before the letter goes deep into detail.

In fact, the writer succeeds in leading readers to moving on without too much imposition on their negative face here. While using the you-attitude, the second paragraph or even the whole letter shows the writer's concern for readers.

“You” frequently appears in this part, to show that the writer is ready to take readers’ interests into consideration. Readers’ may get the impression that the writer of this sales letter is considerate and thoughtful. Furthermore, the you-language here helps to put readers into such a situation that they can imagine themselves enjoying all the benefits the product may bring to them. Paragraph ③ highlights the unique characteristics of the product and the convenience for the readers, which helps arouse readers’ desire. Therefore, the central selling point is introduced and repeated to the greatest degree.

The final stage after attracting readers’ attention, developing their interest, arousing their desire for the product is to persuade the readers to take action. This step should be handled tactfully so as to redress the face-threatening act. In the last paragraph, the action is made much easier—“fill in the enclosed prepaid card”. To ensure an order, the writer even proposes to do a special favor to “arrange for Mr. James Baron our representative for your area, to call and give you a demonstration” (Gu, 2005). To offer special favors to readers is a positive politeness strategy to satisfy the readers’ positive face wants.

To sum up, the writer of this sales letter is fully aware of readers’ needs and expectations. It is exactly in accordance with all the aspects that compose a polite sales letter. Before the price is mentioned, all the benefits are fully demonstrated. The writer uses various techniques to emphasize the benefits, such as thinking from the readers’ angles, raising questions at the beginning and so on. Such a polite sales letter, in spite of its face-threatening nature, will very naturally get a favorable response from readers.

B. *Politeness in Application Letters: A Similar Pattern with Sales Letters*

a. *A Survey of Application Letters*

The aim of an application letter is to persuade readers to employ the writer without too much imposition and to demonstrate his or her abilities to perform the work the readers need. The key idea is to communicate the benefits an employer will derive from what is suggested in the letter. Most frequently, applicants should not emphasize their own egos; instead, they should show how their qualifications will benefit the company. This is exactly what the you-attitude calls for in persuasive letters.

According to Leech, the benefits to the readers should be maximized. Thus, it will be better to emphasize how the readers will benefit from employing the applicants. The tone of application letters is of great importance. Generally speaking, application letters must sound sincere and polite. The appropriate tone should convey the information that the writers have much to offer the companies, but still have plenty to learn by becoming parts of the companies and growing with them.

The goal of most application letters is to ask for an interview from the readers. As a form of request, this type of letter is highly likely to threaten the reader’s negative face. Three types of interview requests are examined: the take-it-or-leave-it type, the high-pressure type and the weak-hinting type (Golen, etc, 1984, p.241)

Example 1: *An interview will show my ability to meet the job requirement. Between eight and five you can telephone me at....*

This take-it-or-leave-it type of interview request is the least tactful and polite one. It shows that the writer is too arrogant and proud to request the action. It should never be forgotten that readers of the application letters are, more often than not, in a higher social position than the writers. Based on the formula provided by Brown and Levinson, a higher degree of politeness should be used in this situation.

Example 2: *When may I have an interview?*

This high-pressure type of interview request leaves little room for the readers to refuse and allow them only to choose the meeting time. As Lakoff (1973) puts it, the level of politeness depends on writers’ assessment of certain situations. In formal situations, writers should avoid putting any imposition upon readers and choose to give readers more options so as to preserve the negative face of both the writers and the readers.

Example 3: *An interview would be appreciated.*

This weak-hinting type of interview request is an indirect way of asking for an interview. For politeness’ sake, it is less face threatening since the writer does not ask for it directly, without imposing on the reader’s negative face. However, this type may lack conviction and courage, which is not helpful for getting an interview.

From the above analysis, we may conclude that writers can end application letters with friendly, tactful, courteous and direct action words such as “As my interests do lie in the realm of useful and satisfying work in the field of industrial management, may I meet you personally and talk with you? I can make myself available at any date convenient to you”. This approach sets a tone of modest confidence while at the same time avoid too much imposition on readers’ negative face. Since the goals of application letters and sales letters are similar, application letters should also follow the AIDA formula. First of all, bearing readers’ expectation in mind (to find someone who is qualified for the job), writers of application letters should carefully design the opening of the letters so that they may attract readers’ attention. The attention-getter may well be a mention of the way the writers have learned about the jobs. The parts of the letters that develop interest and desire should show evidence that the writers possesses the qualifications required for the jobs. Finally, the writers work towards the move-to-action part that grows out of readers’ desire to employ such persons.

b. *Case Study of Application Letters*

The following two application letters are collected from the Internet (see references 3 & 21) . How the writers start

the letters and move step by step to achieve their intention are analyzed as follows:

Sample 2 (The Land Economist, 2009):

311 Nestor Street

West Lafayette, IN 47902

June 6, 1998

Ms. Christine Rennick

Engineer

Aerosol Monitoring and Analysis, Inc.

P.O. Box 233

Gulltown, MD 21038

Dear Ms. Rennick:

① Dr. Saul Wilder, a consultant to your firm and my Organizational Management professor, has informed me that Aerosol Monitoring and Analysis is looking for someone with excellent communications skills, organizational experience, and leadership background to train for a management position. I believe that my enclosed resume will demonstrate that I have the characteristics and experience you seek. In addition, I'd like to mention how my work experience last summer makes me a particularly strong candidate for the position.

② As a promoter for Kentech Training at the 1997 Paris Air Show, I discussed Kentech's products with marketers and sales personnel from around the world. I also researched and wrote reports on new product development and compiled information on aircraft industry trends. The knowledge of the aircraft industry I gained from this position would help me analyze how Aerosol products can meet the needs of regular and prospective clients, and the valuable experience I gained in promotion, sales, and marketing would help me use that information effectively.

③ I would welcome the opportunity to discuss these and other qualifications with you. If you are interested, please contact me at (317) 555-0118 any morning before 11:00 a.m., or feel free to leave a message. I look forward to meeting with you to discuss the ways my skills may best serve Aerosol Monitoring and Analysis.

Sincerely yours,

Analysis:

The structure of this application letter follows the AIDA formula in sales letters. Paragraph ① is the attention-getter, in which the writer, at the very beginning, talks about where he got the information about the job vacancy. The writer succeeds in attending to readers' needs and expectations by highlighting the central selling point—his qualifications for the job. Paragraphs ② belongs to the stage where readers' interest and desire to hire the applicant are developed. The participation in Kentech Training at the 1997 Paris Air Show, the researches and written reports on new product development and compiled information on aircraft industry trends, the knowledge of the aircraft industry and the valuable experience gained in promotion, sales, and marketing would qualify the applicant for the job. This central selling point is given full length to develop, therefore the benefits to the reader is maximized. The last paragraph is the stage in which the writer convinces readers to take action. It is worth mentioning that the writer mentions the interview in a tactful and indirect way—"if you are interested, please contact me at..." By stating "please contact me....or feel free to leave a message", the writer succeeds in redressing the inherent face-threatening nature of the request. In addition, as has been mentioned above, the tone of application letters is of great importance. The applicant has used proper tone by saying "I would welcome...." and "I look forward to..." so as to show his sincerity and politeness, without imposing much on the readers. Consequently, this polite application letter is highly likely to leave a favorable impression on the reader and increases the possibility of landing the job.

Sample 3 (European Career Orientation, 2001):

Paula Wiersma

Hopeatie 45 B8

00440 HELSINKI

FINLAND

+ 358 18 208 522

15 July 2001

Maarit Hyyppi ä

Business Manager

NeTel Oy

Kaupunkinkatu 12

00345 HELSINKI

FINLAND

Your advertisement of 12 July - MANAGEMENT ASSISTANT / Ref364B

Dear Ms. Hyyppi ä

① I am pleased to apply for the position of Management Assistant with NeTel Oy.

② My most recent work experience was with Helmond Systems in the Netherlands where I gained experience as a management assistant. The main job task was to assist the manager with all of the branch's operations in the region. From this job I have gained a solid understanding of what is needed in managing a branch in a large company, which

would be useful knowledge to apply to the similar circumstances of NeTel Oy.

③ As well as my work history, I have a strong educational background supporting me. This June I graduated from Mercuria Business School, Vantaa, and the University of Lincolnshire & Humberside, U.K, with both a BBA and BA in European Management. The business theory gained from my studies is very useful, and already I have used this knowledge in my limited career experience. Importantly too, these studies helped me to obtain my work placement abroad, making me more familiar with work in the European context. To complement this, I am able to speak five European languages, which might be very beneficial in the position offered.

④ Being a good Management Assistant takes excellent analytical and communication skills, as well as strong leadership abilities. I possess these and more. I am a fair, diligent, and detail oriented person who also has a good sense of humour to apply to even the most stressful of situations. Working to help the company reach all of its goals is very motivating for me.

⑤ In the attached curriculum vitae you can read more about my skills and experience. I would be very happy to meet you at an interview to further discuss my qualities and qualifications.

Please feel free to contact me by phone at 18 208 522, or by e-mail at writepw @ mailme.fi.

⑥ Thank you very much for your time and consideration.

Yours Sincerely

(Signature)

Paula Wiersma

ENC: Curriculum vitae

Analysis:

Similar to Sample 2, the structure of this application letter also follows the AIDA formula in sales letters. However, Paragraph ① is a little bit different, where the writer puts the advertisement of the position before the addressing and the whole paragraph serve as the greeting. Paragraph ① is the attention-getter, in which the writer, at the very beginning, tends to be polite and leave a good impression on readers. Then the writer succeeds in attending to readers' needs and expectations by highlighting the central selling point—his qualifications for the job. Paragraphs ②③④ belong to the stage where readers' interest and desire to hire the applicant are developed. Working as a management assistant with Helmond Systems and having strong educational background are the writer's excellent qualifications. Paragraph ⑤ is the stage where the writer convinces the readers to take action. The writer mentions the interview in a tactful and indirect way—"please feel free to contact me by phone..." By stating this, the writer succeeds in redressing the inherent face-threatening nature of the request. Besides, by offering more detailed curriculum vitae, the writer has clearly demonstrated his sincerity and politeness. In short, this polite application letter probably leaves a favorable impression on the reader and thus increases the possibility of landing the job.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The research in this paper provides a descriptive analysis on the manifestations of politeness in persuasive business letter writing. Generally speaking, effective persuasive English business letters should employ both positive and negative politeness strategies so as to avoid the negative reaction from the readers. In persuasive letters, the you-attitude plays a significant role, for it provides the goodwill and positive involvement necessary for effective communication, if used appropriately. In addition, the AIDA formula serves as a guideline of a successful persuasive letter.

As for sales letters, since writers' efforts to send the persuasive messages are threatening the readers' negative face, they should be able to draw readers' attention (A) first, making them continue reading without feeling too much imposition. Second, writers need to find ways to arouse readers' interest (I), such as raising questions, stating practical facts closely related to their daily life, etc. To inflame readers' desire (D), writers should show the benefits they might get from the products or service sold to them. Finally, though writers will probably threaten readers' negative face, they should have to persuade readers to take action (A) so as to get what the writers are selling. To sum up, writers of sales letters should first meet readers' needs and expectation and then provide convenient ways for readers to get the products or services. According to Leech's Tact and Generosity Maxim (1983), the benefit to the readers should be maximized, while the cost to the readers should be minimized. In a sales letter, the benefit is some good product or service and the cost is the price. Therefore, all good things about the products or service should be presented to readers, while the price should be de-emphasized.

At the same time, the goal of application letters is to persuade readers to employ writers without too much imposition and to demonstrate their abilities to perform the work readers need, which is also threatening readers' negative face. The key idea is to communicate the benefits an employer will derive from what is suggested in the letter. To maximize readers' benefit (Leech, 1983), it will be better to emphasize how readers can benefit from employing the applicants. Since the aim of application letters is similar to that of sales letters, AIDA formula is also applicable in application letters. First, due to readers' expectation to find qualified applicants, writers should design good openings to attract readers' attention (A). Second, to develop readers' interest (I) and desire (D), writers should show evidence that they possess the qualifications required for the jobs. Finally, they should persuade readers to take action (A) in tactful and indirect ways to redress the inherent face-threatening nature of the requests for the possible face-to-face interviews.

Even though there is no reason to assume that business communication is more polite than any other communications, the goal-oriented nature of this communication suggests that the avoidance of impoliteness should be a high priority in business correspondence. The purpose of employing politeness strategies is to establish, maintain, or consolidate social solidarity, which is of particular significance for business letter writings since they represent the company's general image in the business world.

However, this paper has its own limitations, since only one type of business correspondence is chosen for specific analysis and no cultural factors are analyzed. Actually, it is suggested that writers of business correspondence should be able to take the cultural influences into consideration in multinational corporations and international business activities. Nevertheless, it is dangerous for a business writer to take the cultural differences for granted. Therefore, further analysis with cultural factors is needed for future study. It is hoped that this paper can provide some implications for pedagogical application.

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Shaohui Zheng is a lecturer of School of Foreign Studies, Guangdong University of Petrochemical Technology. She graduated from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies and got her master's degree in 2006. Her areas of specialization include applied linguistics, business English, intercultural communication.

Is Azerbaijani Turkish an Endangered Language? Language Attitudes among Azerbaijani Youth in Tabriz

Naser Nouri

Department of English Language & Linguistics, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Abstract—This study investigates the most important historical factors of language change in Iran. Based on writings from history, politics, sociology and linguistics it generally discusses different causes of language change in the world and tries to arrive at a framework to describe the status of non-Persian languages in Iran, in particular Azerbaijani Turkish, and whether these languages are endangered. Data extracted from a study in which some Azerbaijani youth living in Tabriz were selected and given questionnaire to answer to several questions about their attitudes to mother tongue. The results of this study show that respondents have highly positive attitudes towards their ethnic identity and Azerbaijani language as one its indices. According to UNESCO (2003) criteria Azerbaijani Turkish now is safe. Theoretical discussions of this paper engross advocates of linguistic rights and linguists in the situation of languages in Iran and also it can inform policymakers to take compensatory measures to support these languages. Also, this study warns families and indigenous societies about the fate of their languages and can awaken them to be more faithful to their culture and to maintain their languages.

Index Terms—language change, language death, Azerbaijani Turkish, ethnic identity, attitude

I. INTRODUCTION

Every language that people use changes constantly. English, for example, has been changing throughout its history and it is still changing today (Trask, 1994, p.1). Some changes are natural and usual but some others are imposed and unnatural. Iran is a multilingual and multicultural country. According to Ethnologue (2003), a widely cited reference for languages around the world, there are 73 languages in Iran. Boundary between dialects and languages has been taken for granted. Two of ancient Iranian languages, *Avestan* and *Mandaic*, are extinct. Except Persian other Iranian languages are not bestowed equal and fair quota in educational, governmental and social spheres.

Languages evolve gradually into different forms. In this paper, the variable influence of social factors on language variation and language change will be described and discussed, with material from a partial study in Azerbaijani Turkish, a major Iranian indigenous language with close to 25 million speakers (Mafinezam & Mehrabi, 2008, p.118) mostly living in Northwestern provinces and also in Tehran. Furthermore, we are considering true language death and its factors: cases in which a language literally ceases to be spoken and gives rise to no later forms at all.

Language death may result in many ways. There are four main possibilities: a sudden death; radical language death, bottom-to-top death and gradual death.

Sudden language death refers to situations in which a language dies because its speakers suddenly die. The most salient reasons for sudden language death are ethnocide or linguicide, or even genocide, of a language community (Headland, 2003). Khubrooy-Pak (2001) defines ethnocide as “the annihilation and extermination of ethnic culture which is executed through violent suppression, compulsory education in non-native language and psychological operations by lowering the indigenous language to mere dialect or accent or a combination of cacophonous sounds” (as cited in Davarnia, 2006, pp: 74-77). These factors along with natural disasters like tidal waves, severe earthquakes, famine, epidemic diseases are common causes of sudden language death.

Radical language death refers to rapid decline and loss due, for example, to severe political repression where speakers stop speaking language for self defense. Radical language death may also result from cultural disruption and dislocation. For instance, on December 17, 1946, Pahlavi's, ruling dynasty from 1925–1979, army invaded Azerbaijan and in book-burning ceremonies set fire to all Turkish books that had been published during one year ruling of Azerbaijan Democratic Party [Azerbaycan Demokrat Firqesi, ADF] (Heyat, 2002, p.25).

Bottom-to-top language death pertains to a situation where the decline of a language begins in low domains and spreads to high spheres of usage and is sometimes maintained in particular contexts like religion.

The most common form of language death is the gradual type in which a language ceases to be spoken since its speakers gradually shift to another language. This shift may be based upon economic or utilitarian grounds or prestige of the intended language. This is so-called voluntary language shift.

One obvious way of language death is for all the speakers of a language to die, without leaving any survivors. This might at first seem unlikely, but in fact it has taken place a number of times, though perhaps not often naturally (Trask,

1994, p.15). Much more frequently, a language dies when its speakers give up speaking it in favor of some other languages. This can happen when a language comes into contact with another language which is perceived as being more prestigious (ibid, p.16). This is true about indigenous languages of Iran. Persian is presented as the most prestigious language in audio-visual media and IRIB (Islamic Republic of Iran Broadcasting), a giant Iranian corporation in control of radio and television, formal and public education is offered solely in this language and non-Persian Iranian languages and dialects are limited to only local and trivial affairs and their social and cultural functions are restricted continuously. In Iran, languages like Azerbaijani Turkish, Arabic, Kurdish and Baluchi succumb to the increasing prestige of Persian in much the same way as non English languages to English. It can be said that indigenous languages are incapable and feeble in front of the dominant official language. This situation is the heritage of Pahlavi era and its Persian only language policy. Compared to the status of Persian language, even major languages like Azerbaijani Turkish, Arabic, Kurdish and Baluchi even with relatively high populations are deprived of the natural right of being educated and flourished.

Another important factor of rapid language change and consequent language death is that of modern culture, abetted by new technologies, encroaching on once isolated peoples with drastic effect on their way of life and on the environments they inhabit. Destruction of lands and livelihoods; the spread of consumerism, individualism, and other western values, pressures for assimilation into dominant cultures; and conscious policies of repression directed at indigenous groups are among the factors threatening the worlds biodiversity as well as its cultural and linguistic diversity (Crawford, 1994).

This agent has had great impact on the languages in Iran. Urbanization, Persianization and communications grow daily, all serving to diminish the self sufficiency and self-confidence of small and traditional communities. Discriminatory policies and population movements also take their toll of languages. For example, young Azerbaijani Turks do not know of much Turkish vocabulary instead they use Persian equivalents, they have forgotten many local customs, traditions and ceremonies, and they no longer use or even remember sayings, proverbs, adages, anecdotes and words of wisdom of their ancestors.

Crawford (1994) maintains that:

By the 1880s strict English Only rules taken by the U.S government in order to eradicate native American languages were institutionalized and students in boarding school systems were *punished* and *humiliated* [italics added] for speaking their native language as part of a general campaign to erase every vestige of their Indian-ness. A teacher in the early 1900s explained that the schools 'went on the assumption that any Indian custom was, per se, objectionable, whereas the customs of whites were the ways of civilization'.

This was the case about Azerbaijani Turkish in Iran in Pahlavi era. Mohseni, cultural affairs chief of Azerbaijan province in 1941, was saying that "whoever speaks Turkish, tether him like a donkey and fasten him to stall...". Zoghi, successor of Mohseni, put a charging box for speaking Turkish in order to punish and fine every Azerbaijani school child who has dared to speak in Turkish (JAMI, 2002, p.263).

Reza shah's notorious "one country, one nation, one language" policy and his attempts to homogenize cultures did take a toll on the pride and identity of many ethnic groups, alienating them from their cultural roots and from their tribes, and giving them little or nothing in turn. Being punished for speaking their ancestral and native language often devalued it in their own minds, and some accepted the dominant society's judgments. Rashedi (2005), Azerbaijani cultural activist and researcher, believes that one of the social problems of today's Azerbaijani youths and intellectuals is identity crisis. Due to the detrimental effect of crisis of identity except young Azerbaijani cultural activists and pioneers even still Azerbaijani university student and ordinary youth refuses to be called Turk. Since the advent of Pahlavi dynasty in 1925, Azerbaijani Turks and their language have sustained most dastardly blows which their ominous effects still burdens Azerbaijani community in Iran (p.4).

Javad Sheikh-Al-Eslami, an advocate and theoretician of Pahlavi's "one country, one nation, one language" doctrine, put forward the theory according which newly-born Azerbaijani child and children of other Turkish speaking areas in Iran should be separated from their mother and be kept and raised in special nurseries up to the age of seven in order to cut any contact with their parents to learn Persian as their first tongue instead of Turkish (Rashedi, 2005, p.11).

One way of gauging the endangerment of a minority language is to look at the marriage patterns of its speakers. Endogamous ethnolinguistic groups have a better chance of retaining their language than do groups with young people who marry outsiders (Headland, 2003).

As mentioned above, close to 25 million Azerbaijani Turks live in Iran. Although Azerbaijani Turks are called minority and their culture is described as subculture by authorities, indeed they are a majority in Iran; therefore, because of great population this last agent, i.e., intermarriage and loss of some of the speakers due to mixed marriages can not be a menacing factor, at least an imminent factor in vitality of Azerbaijani Turkish.

Azerbaijani Turkish does not appear threatened at first notice. The children are still speaking it, any Azerbaijani speaker is not aware that his language is dying or even changing. He seems completely unaware of how much his speech has changed. In any case, Azerbaijani Turkish is not at this time moribund. It is in danger not because Azerbaijani children are not speaking it, but because it is changing so fast. Most Azerbaijani officials in their interviews with media or in meetings or forums speak in an ugly amalgamation of Persian and Azerbaijani within which most of the compound is Persian and just the final word or verb is Turkish or Turkicized.

The number of speakers is not a reliable indicator of language health. More reliable indicators are the following: 1) rate of acquisition by children, i.e. the number of children learning the language in question, 2) distribution of speakers in age cohorts, 3) attitude towards the language on the part of language community, 4) the level of impact on a certain language coming from another language (Riese, 2002).

The main purpose of this study is to investigate language change in Iran with respect to Azerbaijani Turkish on the basis of the community members' attitudes toward their own language. Hypothesis of the current investigation is that Azerbaijani speakers do not have positive attitudes towards their own language.

Members of a speech community may see their language as essential to their community and identity, and they promote it. The more positive their attitudes and the more pride they have in their language, the stronger the language is. The more value they attach to their traditions, the more likely the community's language is maintained and promoted.

Moreover, the author is hopeful that the results of this study help advocates of linguistic rights and linguists recognize the main causes and different levels of change. Based on this study, policy makers can decide on the proper attitudes and options toward these endangered languages.

II. DATA AND PARTICIPANTS

A number of questionnaires were distributed to the subjects in different areas of Tabriz, the center of East Azerbaijan province. The total number of respondents is 380 youth between 20 to 30 years drawn randomly from different areas of Tabriz. Some of the answers which directly or indirectly were related to the attitudes of the speakers towards their native language, Azerbaijani Turkish, were selected and analyzed manually.

In this study the following forth main indices of ethnic identity have been used: *1. Azerbaijani Turkish Language and Literature, 2. Azerbaijani Music 3. Ethnic History 4. Ethnic Affiliation*

Azerbaijani Turkish Language and Literature as a main indicator of the attitudes of the respondents includes these sub-indicators: *1. Significance of Learning Azerbaijani Turkish for the Respondents, 2. Necessity of Turkish Language Education in Schools and Universities, 3. Interest of the Respondents to the Learning of Turkish, 4. Having the Books and Reading Materials in Turkish at Home, 5. Amount of Studying these Materials.*

Azerbaijani Music as the second main factor incorporates following sub-indices: *1. Interest of the Respondent to Turkish Music, 2. Interest of the Respondent to Ashiqs, Folk Music Singers, as the Keepers of Traditional Music, 3. The Importance of Invitation of Ashiqs to Ceremonies and Celebrations, 4. Amount of listening to the Traditional Music*

Ethnic History as the third main indicator of the respondents' attitudes towards their ethnic identity includes these sub-indicators: *1. Belief to the Special Ethnic History, 2. Significance of Having Knowledge and Awareness about History of Iran's Turks, 3. Being Proud of Ethnic History, 4. Knowledge about Symbols of Turk Ethnic Group.*

Ethnic Affiliation as the forth and final indicator of the participants' attitudes towards their ethnic identity incorporates following four sub-indicators: *1. Interest of the Respondent to Have Relations with co-ethnics, 2. Degree of Considering Problems of the Iran's Turks as one's Personal concern, 3. Importance of Being Turk for the Participant, 4. Being Proud of Being Turk.*

III. DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of data indicates that average of tendency to ethnic language and literature, i.e. Azerbaijani Turkish, is medium about 18.66 percent. As it is clear from Figure 1, about 40.3 percent of the respondents had medium tendency to this main factor of the attitude towards native language. 4.4 percent of the participants had very strong and 31.3 percent showed strong inclination to this index. 4.6 percent of the respondents declared that they had very weak inclination towards their ethnic language and literature while 19.3 percent stated that their tendency towards Azerbaijani language and literature is weak.

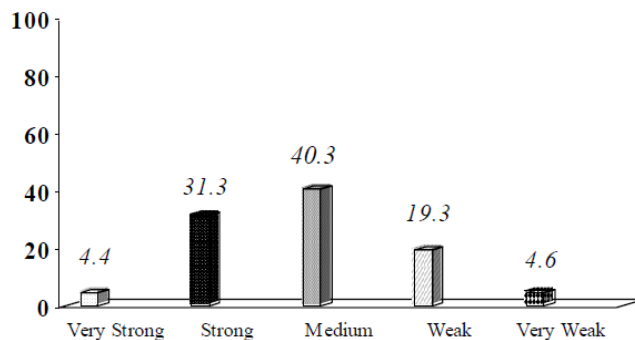


Figure1. Azerbaijani Turkish

As portrayed in figure 2 the average of the inclination of the respondents to Turkish music is 12.97. About 25.1 percent of the respondents declared that they had very strong tendency towards the sub-indices of the ethnic music.

Degree of tendency to Azerbaijani folk Ashiq music and other sub-factors of Azerbaijani Turkish music among respondents was 20.9 percent. 24.9 percent of the participants had medium tendency. 16 percent of the respondents declared that they had weak inclination to this factor of ethnic identity while 13.1 percent stated that their tendency towards Azerbaijani music was very weak.

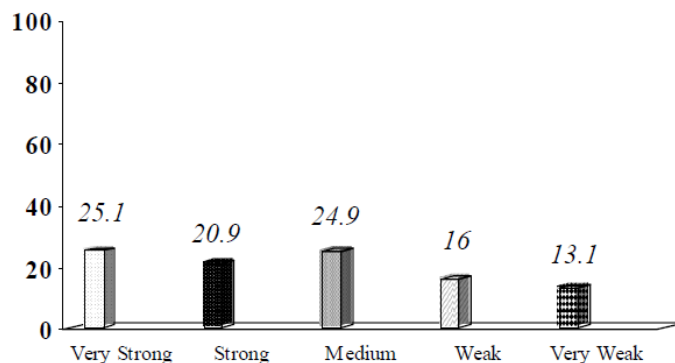


Figure2. Azerbaijani Music

Figure 3 reflects the results of the data analysis pertained to the study of the respondents' tendency and feelings to ethnic history and its four sub-factors. Among the factors of ethnic identity respondents had the highest tendency to ethnic history and existence of special ethnic history with special historical events and heroes and myths and symbols. 87.9 percent declared that their inclination to this factor was strong (52.5 very strong and 35.4 strong). 8.5 percent of the respondents reported that their tendency to ethnic history was medium while 3.6 percent stated they had weak inclination to this indicator of ethnic identity. No respondent had very weak tendency to ethnic history and its abovementioned four sub-factors which in turn can be an indicator of historical consciousness of the participants.

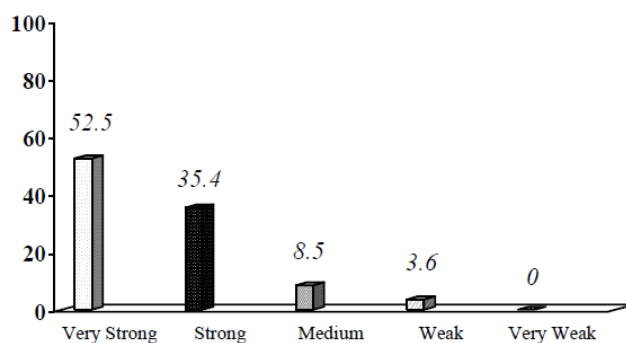


Figure3. Ethnic History

As figure 4 illustrates tendency to ethnic affiliation and interest to co-ethnics and being proud of being Turk among the participants is high and 45.8 percent had very strong and 29.4 percent of the subjects showed strong inclination to ethnic attachment. 18 percent stated that they had medium tendency to ethnic affiliation. 5.9 percent of the participants declared they had weak tendency while only 1.1 percent stated weak tendency.

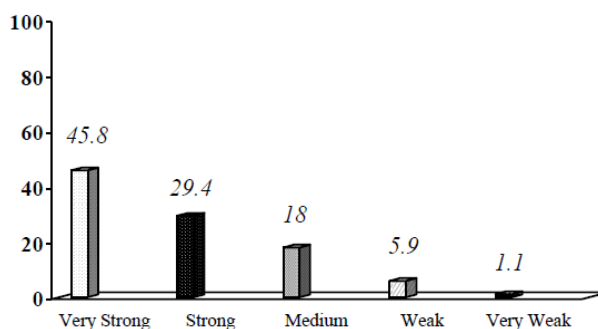


Figure4. Ethnic Affiliation

The participants' self-evaluation of their tendency to ethnic identity which directly or indirectly is related to the attitudes of the speakers to their language in general is illustrated and summarized in Figure 5. After analyzing and comparing the answers, the author found that there is a high commitment to ethnic identity among subjects. 10.4

percent of the respondents hold a very strong tendency to ethnic identity while 41.5 have strong inclination. 36.6 percent of the respondents reported that their commitment to ethnic identity is medium. 10.7 percent had weak tendency while only 0.9 percent of the participants declared very weak attitude to ethnic identity.

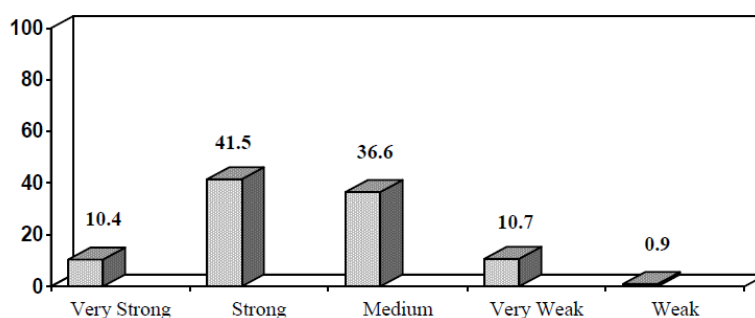


Figure5. Attitude towards Ethnic Identity among Respondents

IV. DISCUSSION

The facts mentioned and summarized above are instrumental and helpful for predicting the future of Azerbaijani Turkish as an underprivileged ethnic language in Iran. Members of a speech community are not usually neutral towards their own language. They may see it as essential to their community and identity and promote it; they may use it without promoting it; they may be ashamed of it and, therefore, not promote it; or they may see it as a nuisance and actively avoid using it (UNESCO, 2003). Seen from the perspective of the UNESCO criteria and with regard to *Factor 8: Community Members' Attitudes towards Their Own Language* Azerbaijani Turkish is not an endangered language among Tabriz youth since most of them hold positive attitudes towards generally ethnic identity and Azerbaijani Turkish as their ethnic language as particular.

Findings of this study confirm the Bani-Hashemi (2007) who concluded that Azerbaijani students are strongly interested to the history, civilization and culture of Azerbaijan. He also found that majority of the study population, 84.2%, view the education of Azerbaijani Turkish in universities and schools of Azerbaijan highly important. He also came to the conclusion that Azerbaijani students hold favorable attitude toward their ethnic identity. This study is also in line with the partially similar investigation done by the student magazine of *Sas* (2000). Zanzan-based Persian-Turkish bilingual student magazine of *Sas* (Turkish word meaning voice) conducted a wide opinion poll among students of Zanzan state university on October 2000. It found that most of the respondents (60.4%) were dissatisfied with the treatment of Islamic republic towards ethnic minorities. Great majority of them (70.8%) also believed that non-Persian families should maintain their own languages. 77.3 % of the study population also opined that ethnic and cultural diversity should be sustained rather than ethnic homogenization in the form of Persianization which can be interpreted as a positive indicator of favorable stance towards ethnic language.

V. CONCLUSION

Drawing upon various Persian, Turkish and English writings in linguistics, history, politics and sociology this paper has investigated historical yoke of indigenous Azerbaijani language in Iran. It has also scrutinized language attitudes among youth in Tabriz. More specifically, the paper discussed the respondents' tendency to four factors of 1.Azerbaijani Turkish Language and Literature, 2.Azerbaijani Music 3.Ethnic History 4.Ethnic Affiliation as indicators of attitude to ethnic identity. Results suggested that subjects showed more positive tendency to the components of their ethnic identity.

According to levels of endangerment recognized by UNESCO (2003), Azerbaijani Turkish is not an endangered language with regard to community members' attitudes towards language. However determining the absolute status of this language requires a more comprehensive investigation which incorporates and examines all the factors of language endangerment. Likely discrepancy between self-evaluation of the attitudes to native language and actual maintenance is another obstacle to cope with.

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Naser Nouri was born in the Northwest city of Ahar in Iran in 1980. He received his B.A. degree in English Translation from Kharazmi University in 2008. In 2011, he completed his MA in English Language Teaching in Azarbaijan Shahid Madani University in Tabriz. His main areas of interest are sociolinguistics (endangered languages), psycholinguistics, critical discourse analysis and multilingualism.

The Effect of Teachers' Storytelling and Reading Story Aloud on the Listening Comprehension of Iranian EFL Learners

Fatemeh Hemmati

Department of Literature and Foreign Languages, Payame Noor University, P.O.Box 19395-3697, Iran

Zeinab Gholamrezapour
Payame Noor University, Iran

Gholamreza Hessamy
Payame Noor University, Iran

Abstract—This study was an attempt to compare the effect of reading story aloud (RSA) and storytelling (ST) on intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension. The design of the study was quasi experimental with listening pre and post tests. The participants were 99 Iranian EFL learners who were selected based on their performance on a Placement and Evaluation Package. For 6 sessions, the participants of both experimental groups who were 66 students listened to their teacher reading a story aloud in group 1 and telling the story in the second group. At the end of each session, they answered the questions that followed each story. After 6 sessions of treatment, the listening posttest was administered to both groups. Besides, there was a control group in which the students were expected to listen to listening parts of the book taught in their term through a traditional method of teaching without receiving extra treatment like the two mentioned experimental groups. Based on the results of one-way ANOVA test, it was evident that the ST method was more effective in improving the learners' listening comprehension than the RSA. In order to specify where the difference(s) were, Scheffe post hoc test was applied. The results indicated that the gain in ST group's listening comprehension was significantly more than that of RSA group. The results could have been due to the influence of the way of telling story with the help of teacher's body language and continuous eye contact that attracted the students to follow the stories eagerly. The results have some implications for syllabus designers, material developers, and language teachers.

Index Terms—listening, storytelling, reading aloud

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to understand what others say is the first skill to master in language learning and the success of the rest of the skills to a large extent depends on this skill. The process of understanding what others say includes many aspects such as phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and meaning. Therefore, enhancing the listening skill of students is a crucial part of every language teaching syllabus.

According to Lee and Hatesohl (1993, as cited in Nurul Isalm 2012), in spite of the great importance of listening skill in comparison with reading or writing, most people do not possess great listening skills. So, the study of techniques to enhance listening comprehension is nowadays considered as a building block in second language acquisition researches (Dunkel, 1991). It is also believed that when teachers provide students with abundant opportunities for listening practice, the process of developing useful listening strategies will be best achieved. It seems that providing students with a variety of listening opportunities can lead to the enhancement of this important skill. On the one hand, in real life situations, students might listen to people talking or reading something and on the other hand stories have always been attractive to students and successful in getting their attention. Attempting to take advantage of the undeniable fun and enjoyment in stories, teachers try to include stories in different classroom activities. Storytelling is one of the ways of presenting a story and reading aloud is the second form. For different reasons, teachers might prefer one over the other. The results of some studies show that storytelling which, based on Abrahamsen (1998), forms the very foundation of the teaching profession, can be beneficial in improving students' speaking as well as listening skills. Also, Bendt and Bowe (2000) and Simmons, (2006) found similar influences. The other approach is reading story aloud that has its own followers. For example, Dragan (2001) suggests reading aloud to develop children's attention span and listening skills. Considering the vital role that listening plays in communication and the limited number of studies in the area of storytelling and reading aloud makes the present study justifiable to investigate and compare the effects of these two strategies on the listening comprehension of students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Denning (2005), stories can have different roles in helping language learners. For example, using their own experiences, language learners can interpret stories which might lead to further involvement of their cognitive abilities in problem solving. A story can add a personal component of understanding and connection that statistics alone cannot achieve, so the value added by stories and metaphor can be substantial (Hansen, 2008).

Furthermore, students' interest in stories and the benefits of listening to stories as well as reading them have been studied from different points of views. The relaxed environment created by stories and the emotions evoked by them can contribute to remove affective filters in second language learning. A case in point is the study by Weiss (2000) in which the students learned and retained better due to the association of learning with emotions evoked by stories. Similarly, Green and Brock (2000) emphasized on the effectiveness of story in comparison with simple examples, because stories can engage the students' thinking, their emotions, and imaginations. While they are listening to a story or when they are reading it, they follow the line of the story and what happens to the characters and their interest in finding out what happens next and how the story ends keep them focused and interested.

There are a number of studies emphasizing on the importance of storytelling in improving language comprehension and listening skills (e.g., Delano, 1977; Mottley & Telfer, 1997; Douglas, 2005). Zemke claims that Storytelling is also a natural medium for learning that can make learning enjoyable and effective (1990). In 1992, Mallan's study of storytelling showed that when students listen to a story they in fact learn how to listen. Besides, by taking part in the experiences of the story they realize how this kind of discourse works and it can even influence their other skills such as reading and writing. Narrative and storytelling are used as means of better understanding teachers' thinking and actions (Ornstein, 1995).

There are other benefits of storytelling in other language skills such as oral language production or even reading and writing. An example is Trousdale's (1990) study that emphasized the use of storytelling as a good help in enhancing students' speaking abilities. Other studies such as those done by Cooper (1989) and Hicks (1990) have pointed to similar improvements in students' oral skills. Storytelling contains not only literacy-related benefits, but also it helps many students learn course content more effectively. Students who may not learn through lecture and discussion may find that they learn the same content more easily with the use of stories. Examples of positive results for learning content through storytelling are social contents done by Pierce (1996), moral development, Tappan and Brown (1989), and even learning mathematics, Anderson (1995).

As for the difference between storytelling and reading story aloud, researchers are not unanimous. Storytelling is an enjoyable activity, because the storytellers, according to Roney (1996), have a lot of techniques and skills in their disposal to help them to communicate with their audience. Similarly, those who listen to a story engage in a wide range of cognitive activities to make sense of the story. Therefore, storytelling has always been used as a medium of instruction, especially for young learners and there are books such as Farrell, 1991 and Greene, 1996 (both cited in Mottley & Telfer, 1997) which show teachers how to use storytelling in their teaching.

There are also studies which confirm positive results for using reading story aloud. Dragan (2001), for instance, claims that reading aloud can be beneficial in developing students' listening skills, broadening their attention span as well as improving their precession of recall. According to Rog (2001), teachers can help their students develop their concepts about different elements of texts, the structure of stories and other elements of texts by reading aloud stories to them. Furthermore, as Terblanche 2002 asserts, when children listen to stories read aloud to them, they get familiar with various subjects presented in books. Similarly, Bredekamp et al., 2000 claim that listening to stories read aloud makes students familiar with how a story is written and can increase their knowledge of conventions and structures used in stories. Mol, 2010 claims that one of the advantages of reading aloud to children is that they can distinguish between written and spoken language. That is, they increase students' knowledge of writing as well as their phonological awareness.

Some of the storytelling artists do not associate storytelling with reading aloud. The attributes of reading a story may be similar to storytelling's attributes but not exactly like a well-told story. In their idea, they are two separate entities with some differences. The first main difference between these two is that the teller of a story is not limited by what has been written whereas the one who reads the story is bound. In other words, the reader has to have the book in his hand and read from the printed page. The storyteller is not limited by written sentences; he stands or sits, free to watch his audience, free to pay attention to their reactions to the story, free to use the body, eyes, and voice as aids in expression.

Another main difference between telling and reading a story which is related to the first difference is that the story teller can add personal touches to the story and make it his/her own. This can make the story personal and suitable to those who are not ready to read or who have low reading ability. However, it is worth mentioning that while reading a story, if the teacher notices that the students cannot follow some parts of the story, they can pause and explain the ambiguous parts.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study aimed at investigating the comparison between the effects of storytelling and reading story aloud on the listening comprehension of students. Therefore, this study attempted to answer the following questions and test the three null hypotheses that follow them:

1. Does storytelling have any significant effect on the students' listening comprehension?
2. Does Reading story aloud have any significant effect on the students' listening comprehension?
3. Is there any significant difference between the effects of storytelling and reading story aloud on the listening comprehension of students?

H1: Storytelling has no significant effect on the students' listening comprehension.

H2: Reading story aloud does not have any significant effect on the students' listening comprehension.

H3: There is no significant difference between the effect of storytelling and reading story aloud on the students' listening comprehension.

IV. METHOD

The study was a quasi-experimental study with two experimental and a control groups.

A. Participants

A total number of 99 intermediate TEFL undergraduate students took part in this study. There were 56 females and 43 males who shared the same first language. They formed up a representative sample of Iranian EFL learners.

B. Instruments

There were three instruments used for collecting the data: An English placement test for selecting intermediate learners, an Objective Placement Test by Lesley et al (2008) as the pretest, and another test from the same book as the posttest. Besides, a Storybook called *the turn of the screw* by Henry James (2002) was used to present the stories.

The English placement test comprised of 70 multiple-choice questions. The test was from Placement Evaluation Package by Lesley (2008) that assessed students' knowledge of listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary. If students answered 24 to 36 questions correctly, they were considered as intermediate and could participate in the present study.

The pretest consisted of nine listening situations along with twenty multiple-choice questions. The same pretest was used for the three groups. Another test similar in the level to the pretest was used as posttest at the end of the treatment sessions. It was a test consisting of nine listening situations with twenty multiple-choice questions.

C. Procedures

In the first phase of the study, the participants took part in a placement test. Then the qualified subjects who were divided to two experimental and one control group took the pretest. The two experimental groups took 6 sessions of treatment in which the storytelling group listened to stories told by their teacher and the reading aloud group listened to stories read aloud by their teacher. Students in the control group did not have any stories, instead they listened to the listening parts of their textbook. After six sessions of treatment the students in all three groups answered the questions of the posttest.

V. RESULTS

Table 1 below displays the results of the pretest and Figure 1 indicates the means.

TABLE 1
THE RESULTS OF THE PRETEST

Group	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Control	33	9.91	2.112	6	13
Storytelling	33	10.12	3.090	6	17
Reading	33	9.27	2.140	6	13

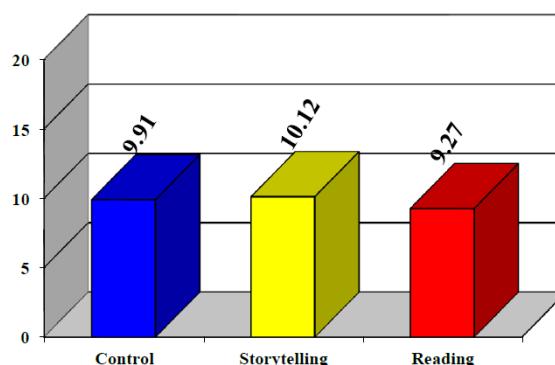


Figure 1. Graphical representation of the means for the pretest

According to Figure 1, there seems to be slight differences among the three means; however, it is not clear if the differences are significant. Therefore, a one-way ANOVA was implemented. Table 2 presents the results of the ANOVA.

TABLE 2
THE RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE PRETEST

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12.869	2	6.434	1.039	.358
Within Groups	594.788	96	6.196		
Total	607.657	98			

As shown in Table 2, the amount of F-observed ($F_{3, 99}=1.039$) is not high enough to be considered statistically significant because the probability value is above the safe value of .05 ($p=.358$). As a result, it can be concluded that at the beginning of the experiment, the three groups were homogeneous with regard to their listening comprehension.

A. Results of the Posttest

At the end of the treatment period, once again the groups were given the listening comprehension test, and their results were compared to see if different treatments produced different results. Table 3 shows the statistics for the comparison, and Figure 2 shows the means graphically.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF THE POSTTEST

Group	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Control	33	10.27	2.140	7	14
Storytelling	33	13.21	2.607	10	19
Reading	33	11.70	2.186	8	15

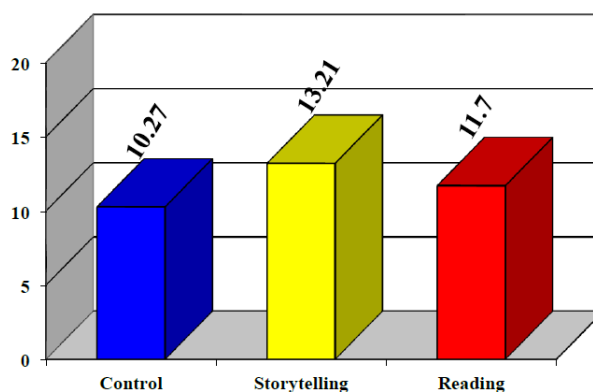


Figure 2. Graphical representation of the means for the posttest

According to Table 3 and Figure 2, the means of the three groups are not equal. To find out if these inequalities are meaningful or not, another one-way ANOVA was employed. Table 4 reports the results of this ANOVA.

TABLE 4
THE RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE POSTTEST

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	142.606	2	71.303	13.239	.000
Within Groups	517.030	96	5.386		
Total	659.636	98			

Based on table 4, the amount of F-observed ($F_{3, 99}= 13.239$) is significant at the probability level of $p=.000$ which denotes a statistically significant amount. However, this result does not show where the exact place(s) of difference(s) are. In order to find this out, Scheffe post hoc test was applied. Table 5 gives the results of the Scheffe post hoc test. On the other hand, Table 4 does not provide information concerning which group is different from which other groups. To understand it, we should look at the results of post hoc test (Pallant, 2007). Table 5 tells us exactly where the differences among the groups occur. In table 5, there are some asterisks next to the values which show that the two groups being compared are significantly different from one another at the $p<.05$ level. According to the asterisks, the following conclusion was drawn.

TABLE 5
THE RESULTS OF THE SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST FOR THE POSTTEST

Group	Group	Mean Difference	Sig.
Control	Storytelling	-2.94*	.000
	Reading	-1.42*	.049
Storytelling	Control	2.94*	.000
	Reading	1.52*	.034
Reading	Control	1.42*	.049
	Storytelling	-1.52	.034

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

B. Answer to the First Research Question

Does storytelling have any significant effect on the students' listening comprehension?

The results showed a significant difference between control group and storytelling group ($p = .000$, mean difference = -2.94).

As it can be seen, the mean difference is negative which means that storytelling group outperformed control group. This conclusion allows us to reject the first null hypothesis which states that "there is no significant effect of storytelling on the listening comprehension of students", and conclude that storytelling has a positive effect on the performance of students.

C. Answer to the Second Research Question

Does Reading story aloud have any significant effect on the students' listening comprehension?

The results showed a significant difference between control group and reading story aloud group ($p = .049$, mean difference = -1.42).

Like the previous conclusion, since the mean difference was negative, it meant that reading story aloud group showed a better performance than control group. This conclusion helps us to reject the second null hypothesis stating that "there is no significant effect of reading story aloud on the listening comprehension of students", and claim that reading story aloud affects the performance of students positively.

D. Answer to the Third Research Question

Is there any significant difference between the effects of storytelling and reading story aloud on the listening comprehension of students?

There was a significant difference between storytelling and reading story aloud group ($p = .034$, mean difference = 1.52), and the positive amount of mean difference confirmed that storytelling group outperformed reading story aloud group. As a result, the third null hypothesis stating that "there is no significant difference between the effects of storytelling and reading story aloud on the listening comprehension of students" is rejected, too.

VI. DISCUSSION

The research questions in this study were concerned with the influence of RSA and ST on the listening ability of the students as well as the differences in the listening comprehension skill between ST and RSA groups. All the three null hypotheses suggested at the beginning were statistically rejected. The analyses indicated that both ST and RSA groups had positive effects on the students' listening comprehension; however, after an exact comparison between these two groups, it was clear that the ST group outperformed the RAS group in posttests. The result in this study is in line with some studies such as (Isbell, 1979; Raines and Isbell, 1994; Isbell et al., 2004) that demonstrated Storytelling as a successful learning tool in promoting language development. Isbell even found evidence that storytelling was more effective than reading aloud.

Likewise, the findings of this study support Mallan's (1992) claim that as students listen to a story they in fact learn how to listen. Furthermore, the efficacy of ST technique in this study is in line with Brice's, 2004 study who claims that storytelling is a successful strategy to increase students' oral skills. The results also confirm Kalfus and Van Der Schyff (1996) and Peck (1989) who recommend storytelling as a means of enhancing children's language and literacy development. Similar results were also gained by Raines and Isbell, 1994 who believe that storytelling is particularly successful in promoting language development. As mentioned in literature review, Dragan 2001 claims that storytelling can develop children's attention span and listening skills.

As far as the better results for ST are concerned, one can say that telling a story without the aid of the printed page helps the storyteller and listener to have more connection. Because the storyteller doesn't have to hold the book in his hand and read from the printed page. Therefore, he/she is free to use gestures, walk, and pay more attention to the listener. Because of all these reasons, students might pay more attention and stay more focused on the story line.

To sum up, the findings showed positive effects for both ways of presenting stories in EFL classrooms; however, storytelling had more positive effects than reading aloud on the learners' listening comprehension improvement. These results can have some implications for syllabus designers, material developers, and language teachers. They can include

storytelling in the syllabus of language classes to help students get rid of some boring traditional methods for improving their listening comprehension. Storytelling costs nothing, is enjoyable, and can be used anywhere and at any time.

Second, language teachers can also benefit from the results of this study. From time to time, some of the class activities that prove to be not fruitful enough can be replaced by storytelling; however, in order to support these implications many more researches should be done. For example, this study can be replicated with a larger number of participants at different language proficiency levels to compare the results across these levels. As one of the limitations of this study was the length of the course, a similar research can be conducted through a longer course of instruction to compare the results of the investigations. Also, the same study can be conducted with younger and older students as well as students with different proficiency levels. Besides, the factor of gender can be investigated to see the possible relationship between the effect of storytelling and story reading on different genders. Finally, the same research can be carried out on the improvement of other language skills and sub skills.

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Fatemeh Hemmati is an assistant professor at Payame Noor University, Tehran, Iran. Her research interests are in EFL writing, Discourse analysis, and teaching Methods.

Zeinab Gholamrezapour was born in Isfahan, Iran in 1984. She received her BA degree in Translation from Payame Noor University of Shahreza, Isfahan, Iran in 2008. And now; she graduated her MA studies in TEFL from Payame Noor University of Tehran in July 2014. Her areas of interest are psycholinguistics, and teaching English.

Gholamreza Hessamy is an assistant professor at Payame Noor University Tehran, Iran. He graduated from Tehran University.

A Short Comment on Hart Crane's Poem *To Brooklyn Bridge*

Pu Zhao

School of Foreign Languages, Northeast Petroleum University, Daqing, China

Abstract—This article presents Crane's representative works "To Brooklyn Bridge" which is the proem of masterpiece "Bridge," and poet's creative thoughts. Through depicting the splendid spectator of the bridge, inserted spontaneous flow of the feelings of the poet, Crane expounds the theme of the poem: The bridge is the emblem of the creativity and spirit faith.

Index Terms—Crane, Bridge, proem, mythology, industrialization

I. LIFE INTRODUCTION

The miserable life of Hart Crane, an American lyrical poet in the tradition of romantic modernist, can be appropriately expressed by the French phrase 'poet maudit' that concepts the optimism and despair in his life. Hart's childhood spanned the tension between the parents and his adulthood frequently bouts of alcohol abuse, and finally his life ended by suicide at the age of 33. His tortured life has a root in the contradiction between his ambition to create the Great American Poem and the lack of popularity or patronage, and in his unwilling to live in any other way but as poet (MacGowan, 2004). The small body of work he left behind, mostly written within a single decade, testifies to both artist talent and tragic experiences.

Hart Crane was born and raised in Garrettsville, Ohio in 1899. His boyhood suffered agonies of the bitter quarrels and strife between the parents. He remained close to his mother, though burdened by her demands and expectations; he continually wished for the approval of his father, a successful candy manufacturer, but could not purchase it by acceding to his father's wish that he become a businessman. He went to New York City in 1917, ostensibly to prepare for college but in fact to investigate the possibility of a literary career. In 1919, Hart Crane returned to Cleveland and stayed there for four years until 1923, during which he tried to business as a means of financing an after-hours literary life, but he could not organize and discipline himself sufficiently to succeed in two lines at once. The years in Cleveland were useful to him, however, because he read widely and was in contact with almost all of key writers of the early 1920s (Bloom, 2003). He also produced some of the poems and published them in leading literary magazines which made his early reputation. His first major poem *For the Marriage of Faustus and Helen* was completed in the spring of 1923. Soon afterwards, he moved back to New York City and found another job at an advertising agency.

After Crane went back to New York City, in the winter of 1923, he announced to his plan to work on a long poem *The Bridge*. In the following years, he produced the best works of his poetry. His romantic relationship with a Danish sailor inspired *Voyages* which is a poetic apprehension of love and was finished it in 1924. In the year, Crane already commenced his first draft of *The Bridge*, which he intended to refute the pessimism in T. S. Eliot's masterpiece *The Waste Land*. In 1926, his first collection of lyrical poems *White Buildings* was published, which earned him substantial respect. Also, Crane composed ten of the fifteen poems that were to comprise *The Bridge* and published much of them in the collection *Key West: An Island Sheaf*. In contrast to the success in his poetry, mostly, his life in New York was a struggle due to unemployment and alcohol abuses. With the support from New York banker and artist's patron, Otto Kahn, he continued his work on *The Bridge*.

Crane believed that "poets had access to a higher state of consciousness than others" (MacGowan, 2004). Although Crane had little formal education, he read widely books by English poets William Shakespeare, Marlowe in 17th century, French poets, Bodlare, Laforg in 19th century and American poets Walt Whitman, Pound and Eliot. He became learned and versatile. After that it laid a solid foundation for poetry creation, which made him receive the strong points from other numerous poets. His commitment to visionary poetry was directly connected with the father of American poetry Walt Whitman (Bloom, 2005). His aim was nothing less than to entirely express the American experience. Eliot's *The Waste Land*, which imaged London Bridge as a passageway of the dead and expresses impotent disillusionment, was both threat and model for Crane who made Brooklyn Bridge positive, celebratory; and deeply meshed with modern American life. This was the vision he attempted in *the Bridge*.

The Bridge is a lyrical epic portraying the American experience—a new positive myth. Focusing on dynamism in Whitman's tradition, *The Bridge*, as a bridge connecting the American past and the present, dwelled on historical or legendary figures, from Columbus to Rip Van Winkle and on the modern urban reality from railroads to Brooklyn Bridge. Bloom (2005) said that "woven among these strands are allusions to literature: the Bible, Plato, Marlowe, Shakespeare, Blake, and most important, to American artists: Whitman, Melville, Poe, Dickinson, Isadora Duncan" (p.

74). The action of the poem comprises through its fifteen sections, one waking day, from dawn in "Harbor Dawn," to midnight in "Atlantis." (Bloom, 2005, p. 74). The poem is a personal journey of time and space: the American historical and legendary figures all at once showing up on Crane's journey to the city in temporal and literary cubism, all the way to California and down to Virginia and North Carolina, and back to Brooklyn. The journey moves back to past and forward to present, through which Crane "seeks to learn the meaning of American history which, in so far as that history is inseparable from his own memories, is the meaning of himself" (Bloom, 2005, p. 75).

The ambitiousness of the undertaking, along with Crane's very real doubts about both the future of poetry and his own career, made writing extremely difficult. To some degree the product represent not so much Crane's faith, but his will to believe; the traces of doubt provide a truly modern ironic undercurrent to the surface of the work. The poem, when published in 1930, was not well received an award from *Poetry* magazine. In this year, Crane received a Guggenheim fellowship and went to Mexico to ponder the next stage of his life. He completed work for a third book, *Key West*, but squandered his already depleted energies in drinking bouts and in pursuing sailors and waiters. Returning by ship to New York City in 1932, he jumped to his death.

II. INTERPRETATION ON "TO BROOKLYN BRIDGE"

A. *Background of the Poem*

Crane moved back to New York City In 1924 and resided in an apartment where just Roberlin, the man who devised the Brooklyn Bridge. One day, when he gazed the distance, the graceful shape of Brooklyn Bridge jumped into his eyes. So that inspired to eulogize the bridge. Although there exists sharp contrast on the theme between *Bridge* and *Waste Land*, on the structure, Crane made use of the composition of Eliot's. At the beginning of the poem, the hero waked up in the dawn and strolled on the bridge. Then he toured the whole city and returned to the original place at night. During a short day, his minds transcended from east to west, from remote antiquity by Whitman to modern society. Meantime, the poet converged diverse historical affairs, mythology and legend. The poem expresses the ebullient imagination of the poet as fully as possible and the advanced controlling ability of language.

B. *Paraphrase of the Poem*

The setting of "Proem" in the harbor and lower Manhattan area is clearly outlined, though the point of view shifts a good deal within this area, from a long view of the Bay and the Stature of Liberty, to an office in a skyscraper, down an elevator into the street, into a dark movie house, and then to the sun-bathed bridge. The view of the bridge also changes, from "across the harbor," in which the sun appears to be walking up the diagonal stays, to the promenade and towers as the bedlamite "speeds to thy parapets." Later the point of view is under the bridge, in its shadow. The shifting perspectives secure the object in space; there is no question that it is a bridge across a river between two concretely realized cities.

The first stanza depicts the splendid panorama of Brooklyn Bridge which spanned East River and is the earliest used steel cable bridge. It developed an inestimable function in the congested America. Then the poet presents the chill climate, the joyous seagull and the calm surface of the bay, all provides a tranquil atmosphere in the dawn. On a cold winter dawn from the water, the seagull soars upward, an emblem of freedom and unhampered motion. Like the bridge, the bird builds high, but unlike the bay waters below, it is not shackled. The seagull's wings shed "white rings of tumult," that is first, the excited cries of the seagull wheeling, and second, a Platonic circle of perfection, which anticipates the "inviolable curve" of stanza two. "White is found everywhere—in the gull, the sail, some pages of figures," the silvery paint of the bridge—suggesting the purity of this vision. This kaleidoscopic technique, "panoramic sleights," the rapid appearance and disappearance of images, describes fairly accurately Crane's formal imagistic procedure.

The 5th line draws the graceful curve of the bridge, which suddenly disappears from others' eyesight, till the elevators drop the people from their day (in 8th line). It implies the speeding pace of American life. Although the bridge has become the part of our routine life, the tall building is deep rooted in the minds of American's. The sails that cross some page of figures to be filed away are visionary, a dream of escape from the world of mundane face and dull business routine to which the masses of men are enslaved.

The 3rd stanza is a set of analogy. The poem provides some common scenes where people look over the flashing pictures. The underline meaning is the comparison between the movie or the magic and the noisy life. Numerous one could be or would be swirled into the painstaking life. The next two lines reveal the meaningless of the cosmopolitan life of America, which gives no originality, only makes different people come across the same scene in the daily life. The people hurry to seek refuge in the fantastic fictions of the cinema, seeking some revelation that will invest their life with meaning, but the motion is too quick, the magic is unreal and transitory. Man is irresistibly drowned to appealing temporary substitute that recur periodically, but nothing of value is revealed to him. The bridge is addressed directly in the next stanza.

The 4th stanza the potent is the sense of the bridge's organic vitality that usual contrasts get reversed, and nature seems for the moment to adapt itself to art: that natural measure of time, the sun, synchronizes its movement with the pace of the bridge. The poet conveys that the freedom spirit of the bridge condenses its steps. The bridge stretches across the harbor, paradoxically both freely moving and unmoving. The sun's motion seems to be measured by that of

the bridge. The vaulting stride of the bridge, from Brooklyn's shore to Manhattan's, is linked to some stoppage. Like the elevator, it is a typical product of the iron or technological age; but like the seagull, it has its own inviolate curve of motion, and it manifests a miraculous beauty of mobile repose and disciplined freedom.

"Out of some subway scuttle, cell or loft" (in line 21st) implies the narrow space and high tempo of American life. In the last line of the 5th stanza, if the bridge stands for unity and liberty, it is also the stage on which death is enacted, a death it is impotent to prevent. Some unstrained lunatic dashes out of some hole or other, sways momentarily on the bridge's parapet, a scream implicit in his wildly billowing shirt, and then plunges to his death, the horror accompanied by the silent mockery of others.

In stanza six, time has moved from dawn to the slow leakage of noon, and the scene has shifted to the city that shelters underneath the bridge. A rip tooth of the sky's acetylene in its juxtaposition of nature and machine images, vividly pictures the jagged bolt of light that harshly cuts and sears the New York skyline. The derricks, like the bridge, hum with activity and penetrate space, reaching toward the realm of the spirit though the derricks may be a parody of the bridge and the seagull. "Thy cables breath the North Atlantic still" means some timeless quiet. The poet provides the exciting spectator of industrialization of America. "acetylene" dotted here is aiming at drawing a layer color of modern industry civilization.

From the 25th to 27th line, the poet sings high praise of the bestow spirit of the bridge. Although the bridge is man-made, it has become something more than man; it is not exactly transcendently, but it is not temporal either. It represents an indefinite eternal principle which is without the metaphysical furniture of traditional religions. It processes the power to bestow peace, honor, pardon, and, ambiguously, the reward of anonymity that is not subject to the erosions of time.

Based on the meaning, the last line of this stanza should be regulated into the next part which explains that the bridge reprieve and pardon the fury fused, such as terrific threshold of the prophet's pledge, prayer of pariah and lover's cry. The bridge is filled with apostrophes such as this. The bridge has been built out of prophecy, pioneering, engineering, and an exceptional poetic frenzy, involving praise and sacrifice (the harp and altar). The bridge is "terrific threshold of the prophet's pledge," an epithet which characterizes the bridge's potent religious status. The poet expresses that the bridge indeed brings cosmopolitan people some console and release under the burden of life.

The 3rd stanza from the bottom composes the picturesque sparkling night scenery. Nothing would change the graceful bearing of the bridge. The lights and voices of the bridge are seldom separable, and they appear together. The lights of the bridge are like strings of pearls, pearls that might "whisper through the Doge's hands." Brooklyn bridge is a superbly articulated structure, an "infractioned idiom," which by transference of epithets means both spiritual wholeness and the poet's poem which mediates that wholeness to man. The time scheme has shifted to evening, and the lights are compared to an "immaculate sigh of stars," an inviolate exhalation of some divine reality—note once again the synaesthetic images—which literally and figuratively "condense eternity." The last line presents a fine visualization of night coming to the city. Crane personifies the bridge as a parent who lifts and hugs night in its arms, a gesture of love that drives away despair. Lift almost always implies some kind of aspiration; but here it also suggests that revelation waited for in vain is confirmed by the next stanza. If the bridge "condenses eternity," it also testifies the unyielding grip in which time holds man; and if the bridge is a shimmering light of salvation, it paradoxically can be glimpsed only in darkness, and then only its shadow. After that, the poet expresses his emotion on the bridge. The "shadow" used here is the shadow of the bridge; "darkness" is the darkness of the American life. Thus we can induce the underline meaning from the poet. Only if you understand the gloomy side of the American life, you can comprehend the truth of the bridge. "The city's fiery parcels all undone" suggests the extinguishing of the building's light, or fragmented urban lives, while "Already snow submerges an iron year" recalls the heavy load of custom that weighs down the spirit. Meantime, the word "iron" modifies the "year" technically and protrudes the overwhelming place of American industry.

The pessimistic interpretation seems correct, however, because it would logically account for the invocation to the bridge which ends the poem; thus the poem clearly announces the intention of the entire poem. Man's craving for an idealistic faith and the power if the bridge to aid in its achievement is acknowledged. The bridge is honored as a span between time and the timeless. So perfectly does the Brooklyn Bridge symbolize this function and so alluring are its inspirations that the poet is motivated to search within its glow for further support of his belief. From its towers he sees earlier spans across the American past, anticipants of this climax expression. He trusts that his cumulative strength of the bridge will constitute a sure "myth to God." The last sentence of the last stanza "And of the curveship lend a myth to God" vividly expresses that the poet takes the pride of the human's strength and he thinks that it is not god but men build the myth of the bridge. God, himself, cannot create the miracle. In the end, the poet points out the theme: The human create the civilization and mythology.

C. *The Thought of the Poem*

Bridge is consisted of eight parts and a prelude, which represents the creative climax of Crane's. It is one of the few poems to direct at eulogizing modern American society. The theme of the poem presents the cosmopolitan spectator of New York City, which induces some associations. The poet adopts the creative skill—symphony. By the description of the bridge to display the American mythology and the epic subject same as. The bridge is a symbol of evolution of civilization and spirit faith. For access to American, it connects the past, the present and the future. With exultant

emotion, the author draws a historical and spiritual sense of America and chants the poem with some way like Walt Whitman's who is associated with the upward and the westward. The poem expresses not only the rural scene, but the urban style, not the legendary figure, Rip Wan Winkle, but the masters, Walt Whitman. At the same time, the same as T.S.Eliot, the author creates a new kind of symbolic literature; however, the different idea is that Crane finds the hopeful life and vital future. Eliot's poem is full of pessimism. That's to say, the content of this poem strikes a powerful counterblow on the sense of "Waste Land".

The author can acquire the inspiration from the industry civilization of modern cities and insert the industrious content to the poem. Meantime, the poet can gather the subjects not only from the natural scene, but also from the modern industry. This expresses the positive idea of the poet. He warmly sings highly of the coming of the machine times and genuinely hopes that modern industry can bring about the civilization and progress, and that the traditional civilization can get extension and development.

The bridge presents a heroic quest, at once personal and epic, which is carried out in several directions. As in *Song of Myself* it moves westward in imagination from Brooklyn from California; it also goes backward into the depths of the psyche. Different historical figures appear to guide the poet-quester: Pocahontas, Columbus, Rip Wan Winkle. Two poets represent American opposites: Walt Whitman, who is associated with the upward and westward, and Edgar Allan Poe, poet of darkness, who is met in the depths of *The Tunnel*. The bridge, in various metaphorical meanings, is the object of all these quests and hence unifies the poem. The separate lyrics that comprise *The Bridge* are arranged like music, with recurring and modulated themes rather than a narrative or expository sequence. As in most modernist poems, the verse is open and varied the syntax complicated and often ambiguous, and the jumps in reference abrupt and often dependent on a personal, hence obscure, logic. All this makes the poems to apprehend; yet for some of its readers it accomplishes just what Crane intended—that is, it restates an American tradition in modernist terms.

The creation of *Bridge* is of a grand scale. It took Crane seven years to devote his energies of a lifetime to complete this piece of works. When the poetry came out, it got both the praise and blame from the echoing of the critic circles. Even the prestigious critiques hold the negative attitudes. After his death, the critic circles reconsidered to examine his works closely and confirmed out of the ordinary attainment of *Bridge*. They considered that Crane extremely developed modern functions of poetic creative patterns. Finally, he got a high reputation.

D. Summarization of Some Rhetorical Devices

Accordingly, this poem is a lyrical free verse, also known as "open form verse, and without regular meter, line length, rhyme scheme, or stanza form." In this poem, the poet provides some kinds of rhetorical devices as follows:

Metaphor: The core of Crane's poetic practice was the use of metaphor, the building of connections between metaphors, and the slow peeling of the associations that clustered around them. The center of *The Bridge*, for example, is the image of the Brooklyn Bridge: a tangible object studied for its implications as metaphor and transformed in the process. Crane believed that the essential difference between poetry and expository, logical discourse is the image; he believed that metaphor preceded logic in the history of human thought and it remains the primary mode in which human knowledge is acquired and expanded. Thus the Brooklyn Bridge becomes a metaphor for division and connection, for access to America, for a thrust into the past and future. It reminds one of American technology, and of Walt Whitman's great poem *Crossing Brooklyn Ferry*. The image is supported by other unique image, which is the total poem. "Over the chained by waters Liberty" (in the 4th line), the poet regards the graceful shape of the bridge as Liberty's. "The flashing scene" (in stanza 3) is the metaphorical meaning of cosmopolitan noisy life. "Shrill shirt ballooning" (in stanza 5): the poet regards the shrill shirt as the balloon.

Personification: "Some motion ever unspent in thy stride" (in stanza 4); "A rip tooth of the sky's acetylene" (in stanza 6); "Vibrant reprieve and pardon, thou dost show"; "immaculate sigh of stars" (in stanza 9); "Thy cables breath the North Atlantic still"; "And we have seen night lifted in thine arms"; "lend a myth to God."

Transferred epithet: "How many dawns, chill from his ripping rest" (in stanza 1): the word "rippling" modifies the surface water, not the "rest"; "Vibrant reprieve and pardon thou dost show": the word "vibrant" modifies the bridge not "reprieve pardon" (in stanza 7); "immacular sigh of stars" (in stanza 9): the word "immacular" modifies the stars, not "sigh."

Simile: "As apparitional as sails" (in stanza 2): the bridge is regarded as sails; "obscure as that heaven of the Jews" (in stanza 7); "O sleepless as the river under thee" (in stanza 11): the bridge is taken as the sleepless river.

Symbolism: "Beading the path---condense eternity" (in stanza 9): The sigh of stars spreads out a road for you which condenses eternity. The poet suggests that the bridge connects past, present and future. In a nutshell, the bridge symbolizes the eternity. "Only in darkness is thy shadow clear" (in stanza 10): It means that "Darkness" is the gloomy side of cosmopolitan life and "the shadow" is the shadow of the bridge. The poet wants to tell us that only if you understand the dark side of the American life, you can comprehend the truth of the bridge.

III. CONCLUSION

Crane is not interested principally in Whitman's social vision but in his conception of poetry as the final step in the restoration of man wholeness. Not the engineer nor the statesman or the captain or industry, but the poet was the true civilizer. In short, Crane inherited from Whitman the belief in the poet function to judge history from the point of view

of myth.

Bridge composes eight parts and every part is a deliberate concise and made himself as a whole, meantime, they are full fused together. Many critiques think that *To Brooklyn Bridge*, *The Tunnel* and *The River* are the essences of the poem. In the proem, the poet with intense emotion represents the absorbing shape of the bridge, which is referred as “harp” and “altar”. These vividly depict the “mythical composition” made by modern and mythology of American, which summarize the highest attainment of the poet.

To Brooklyn Bridge

How many dawns, chill from his rippling rest
The seagull’s wings shall dip and pivot him,
Shedding white rings of tumult, building high
Over the chained bay waters Liberty—

Then, with inviolate curve, forsake our eyes
As apparitional as sails that cross
Some page of figures to be filed away;
—Till elevators drop us from our day...

I think of cinemas, panoramic sleights
With multitudes bent toward some flashing scene
Never disclosed, but hastened to again,
Foretold to other eyes on the same screen;

And thee, across the harbor, silver-paced
As though the sun took step of thee, yet left
Some motion ever unspent in thy stride, —
Implicitly thy freedom staying thee!

Out of some subway scuttle, cell or loft
A bedlamite speeds to thy parapets,
Tilting there momentarily, shrill shirt ballooning,
A jest falls from the speechless caravan.

Down Wall, from girder into street noon leaks,
A rip-tooth of the sky’s acetylene;
All afternoon the cloud-flown derricks turn...
Thy cables breath the North Atlantic still.

And obscure as that heaven of the Jews,
Thy guerdon ...Accolade thou dost bestow
Of anonymity time cannot raise:
Vibrant reprieve and pardon thou dost show.

O harp and altar, of the fury fused,
(How could mere toil align thy choiring strings!)
Terrific threshold of the prophet’s pledge,
Prayer of pariah, and the lover’s cry, —

Again the traffic lights that skim thy swift
Unfractioned idiom, immaculate sigh of stars,
Beading thy path—condense eternity:
And we have seen night lifted in thine arms.

Under thy shadow by the piers I waited;
Only in darkness is thy shadow clear.
The City’s fiery parcels all undone,
Already snow submerges an iron year...

O sleepless as the river under thee,
Vaulting the sea, the prairies’ dreaming sod,
Unto us lowliest sometime sweep, descend

And of the curveship lend a myth to God.

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Pu Zhao was born in Daqing, China in 1979. She received her MA degree in linguistics from Guizhou University, China in 2006. She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Northeast Petroleum University, Daqing, China. Her research interests include foreign teaching and pragmatics.

Technology: A Better Teacher in Writing Skill

Faeze Ghahri

English Teaching Department, Islamic Azad University of Karaj, Karaj, Iran

Mohamad Hashamdar

English Teaching Department, Islamic Azad University of Karaj, Karaj, Iran

Zohre Mohamadi

English Teaching Department, Islamic Azad University of Karaj, Karaj, Iran

Abstract—Although CALL (computer assisted language learning) has long and distinguished history, it is still in its infancy on some aspects. Since writing is one of the inevitable parts of both academic and daily life, the researchers designed the present study to investigate the effect of technology namely English correcting websites in influencing the accuracy of the writing performance of 60 EFL intermediate students. To come up with an answer to the research questions, participants whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean in PET writing part 2 were selected. Then, they were assigned into experimental and control groups. The treatment which was motivating students to consult the English correcting websites as they were writing their writing assignments was given in the experimental group and in the control group; participants received the traditional teacher given feedback. The results showed statistically significant differences in students' performance suggesting experimental group outperformed the control group. The results have interesting implication for methodology, testing, and materials development.

Index Terms—CALL, teacher given feedback, technology given feedback, intermediate EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid evolution of technology has affected learning in many aspects. It has immensely altered L2 learning and transformed the way in which people communicate. It has expanded the communication system and effectively revolutionized our society. Computers made it possible for vast amounts of information and can undoubtedly facilitate trend as a means of learning. It can also provide instant feedback to learners to enhance their writing ability. EFL teachers can make use of different strategies to maintain learning opportunities for the learners. As Richards and Ranandya believe, there is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master.

Technology and English language education are highly related to each other (Singhal, 1997). During the sixties and seventies of the last centuries one way for acquiring English in institutions was English language laboratories. Teachers could see the learners' interaction through a control panel. Acquiring the second language immediately through verbal behavior was an advantage of this method. Practicing more was a crucial aspect of increasing learners' ability in different types of language skills. Although this technique could help learners to acquire L2, it was tedious for learners to some extent (Singhal, 1997).

Graddol's study (2000) suggests that one decade after 2000, the number of English learners increased. The forecast points to a surge in English learning, which has reached to its maximum in 2010. The same study indicates that over 80% of information stored on the internet is in English.

Jakoborits (1970) claimed that some factors influence language learning to deferent degree, such as aptitude (33%), sentiment (33%), intelligence (20%); and other items (14%). He also stated that aptitude in learning a foreign language has a relation with motivation in learning the language.

Using email can leave an important effect on learners' writing enhancement. By using email students learn how to respond to their incoming messages using some formal statement and meaningful learning. They can distinguish the differences of academic English and general English and they can realize how to use it in different situations (Singhal, 1997).

In second language learning, Wang (1993) compared the discourse of ESL student's dialogue journals written in both email and traditional paper format. She found that those who use email journals wrote better than the other group. By an analysis of discourse of ESL learners' in email and traditional paper format, Wang understood that learners using email wrote better and greater amount of text, and used various language functions than traditional method (writing on a paper)

Satio (1994) and Ferris (1995) reached similar conclusions based on their surveys of student's attitudes towards feedback in an ESL context. The results of the survey indicated that surface level correction was proved to be an effective way in reducing the errors in writing.

In a related study, 72 university ESL students' preferences and attitudes toward error feedback were investigated by (Ferris and Roberts, 2001). Problems with verbs with preference rate of 81% were considered as the most required areas

for error correction and word choice and sentence structure with 81% and 68% rate of preference were at the second and third rank. Noun endings or article usage were the least preferred area for error correction. Generally, 56% of students considered grammar problems as the most serious element that affects their writing negatively. However, just 10% thought differently and considered organization as the most need area for error correction. As for feedback preferences, all the respondents found error correction necessary.

Chang and Swales (1999) investigated specific discourse and sentence-level writing skills of highly advanced non-native speaker students. They indicated for discourse and sentence level linguistic features to be noticed by even advance students, it is necessary to direct learners' attention to those areas using different techniques one of which is error correction. Chang and Swales concluded the explicit instruction in advanced academic writing and text is needed. Similarly, Ellis (1990) believed that formal classroom teaching with its emphasis on linguistic accuracy will engage the learner in planned discourse and develop the corresponding type of competence.

In a series of studies, Truscott (1996, 1999, and 2007) pointed to the fact that there was no sufficient research in favor of grammar correction. He referred to many studies which couldn't actually support grammar correction for different reasons such as the absence of control groups and delayed posttests or the use of grammar exercises as their only writing tasks. This claim caused criticisms on the part of the proponents of grammar correction (Ferris, 1999, 2004) and some researchers tried to generate research to counter the conclusions (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003; Bitchener 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005,2008, 2009,2010; Rahimi, 2009; Sheen et al., 2009) and after each of their attempts Truscott has responded with critiques claiming that their work fails to demonstrate that error correction has any benefit (Truscott 2004, Truscott & Hsu, 2008).

Many researchers investigated the efficacy of different feedback types on students' writing accuracy. For example, Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) found that direct error corrections of any type; oral or written have a greater effect on accuracy over time, They also found that the combined feedback option facilitated improvement in some error categories but not others, moreover, they believed that upper intermediate L2 writers can improve the accuracy of their use of rule-governed linguistic features if they are regularly exposed to oral and written corrective feedback.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were set to find the answer:

1. Is there any statistically significant difference in learners' writing performance in control groups they received the traditional teacher given feedback?
2. Is there any statistically significant difference in learners' writing performance as they received technology driven feedback in experimental group?
3. Is there any statistically significant difference in the writing performance of intermediate EFL students that consult with English correcting websites and those who consult with teachers?

III. METHODOLOGY

In order to find answers to the aforementioned questions the following procedure was taken.

A. Participant Selection

In order to select the participant that confirm the representativeness of the target population, PET (Preliminary English Test) was used. Participants who were one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as intermediate participants. This was done to ensure the homogeneity of the groups. Then, the participants were assigned into experimental and control groups

B. Instruments

PET: as it was mentioned PET (Preliminary English Test) was used as participant selection instrument. The second writing task which was asking students to write 100 words about a topic was chosen. Then students' performances were analyzed using the writing band scale of the aforementioned test.

Topic familiarity questionnaire: in order to ensure that students will feel confident at writing about the topic and that their writing performance will not be affected by the nature of the topic, a topic familiarity questionnaire (Appendix A) was handed to ensure that students are confident at writing about the topic.

English correcting websites: in the experimental group, the teacher introduced English writing practice and websites such as online text correction and spellcheck plus. Com and asked the students to surf on net and find any web sites that they think may help students and then introduce them to the class so that not only the teacher helps them in how to use the websites but also other students learn about the web sites and in this way teacher could make sure that all students know different websites by which students could get assisted in practicing the accuracy of their writing.

C. Procedure

After participants' assignment into control and experimental group, and after determining the topics on the basis of their answers to the topic familiarity questionnaire, students were given the topics. Teachers in either group were given lesson plans that signify the same learning and teaching approach to writing. Teachers introduce the components of a

paragraph. Students are familiar with the structure of a paragraph writing so the focus of the study was only participants' accuracy of language. Before initiating the main study, and before going through the treatment stage, they were asked to write about two topics with a two week time interval as a pretest chosen from topic familiarity questionnaire.

Three raters were asked to rate the accuracy of the participants' performance according to PET writing scale. The average of their score on the two writings on the topics was taken as an index for their pretest token. The inter-rater reliability was calculated to ensure the reliability of the decisions made on the pretest stage. Teachers taught the participants' on the preplanned lesson plan. In experimental group, teachers were supposed to ask students to write and then the teacher highlight the problems they had in their writing and then they were introduced to check the problems they had with writing practice website like online text correction, spellcheck plus. Com, etc. They were asked to keep a record of the problems. In the control group, learners received the traditional approach towards writing feedback; teacher's correcting the mistake. As a post test, the learners were asked to write about the chosen topics from the topic familiarity questionnaire. The performances were rated according to the PET writing scale. They were given scores respectively.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In order to compare the mean number of the participants' across groups, two paired sample T-tests and one independent sample T-test was used. The results of the T-test display the mean difference from pre-test to post test of each group in doing so the researcher investigated if the treatments; both the CALL (Computer assisted language learning) and traditional one boosted students' performance from pretest to posttest of each group. The independent T-test between the post test of the experimental group and that of the control group identified which treatment worked better. The results are displayed in the following sections.

A. Participant Selection

For participant selection, three trained raters were asked to rate the learner's performance and inter-rater reliability was calculated to ensure the reliability of decision making process. The results are displayed in Table 4.1

TABLE 4.1
CORRELATIONS AMONG RATERS

		rater1	rater2	rater3
rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.875**	.757**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	80	80	80
rater2	Pearson Correlation	.875**	1	.674**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	80	80	80
rater3	Pearson Correlation	.757**	.674**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	80	80	80

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

The scores given by each rater on writing were entered into SPSS program and a correlation coefficient was calculated between them. Table 4.1 gives the correlation coefficient between each of the three possible pairings of ratings. These are estimates of the reliabilities for each set of ratings as they were assigned by the raters in the writing administration. Since these estimates are the reliability of each single set of ratings, and since two or three sets of raters are likely to be higher in reliability when taken together, adjusting to find the reliability of larger numbers of ratings taken together would be logical, possible, and advisable. The Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula can be used for this purpose (Brown, 1996). The adjustment can be applied to any one of the coefficients reported in Table 4.1, but careful approach to all statistics is to use the lowest estimate. The Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula was applied as follows:

$$r_{xx} = \frac{n \times r}{(n-1)r + 1}$$

$$r_{xx} = \frac{3 \times 0.674}{(3-1)0.674 + 1} = 0.60$$

This result gives a conservative reliability estimate (that is, it is safe and not likely to be an overestimate). Since the reliability estimate is close to one as the ideal estimate, it can be concluded that the writing and the rating procedure adapted by trained raters can be a sound source for reliable information and decision making. The descriptive statistics on raters' rating in the writing is depicted in Table 4.2.

Students whose scores on PET writing part 2 exam were one standard deviation above and below the mean were considered as the intermediate students.

TABLE 4.2

	N	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS			Std. Deviation
		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	
PETscores	80	1.00	5.00	2.7750	1.09052
Valid N (listwise)	80				

Among 80 participants, 60 students whose scores were 1.5 to 2.5 were considered as intermediate students. They were invited to take part in the study and assigned into control and experimental group.

B. The Effect of Technology on Accuracy of Writing

In order to investigate the effect of the technology on the participants' writing performance, learners were assigned into two groups of control and experimental groups and learners' score on writing in PET as participant selection were considered as their pretest score. The average of the raters' score in PET was considered as pretest scores. Topics from the topic familiarity questionnaire were chosen and the participants' in each group were asked to write about the topics in either group according to the procedure mentioned in the method section. Paired sample T- test was used to compare the mean differences between pretest and post -test of control and pretest and post- test of experimental group to investigate if there is any statistically significant difference in the performance of the learners in each group from pre- test to post- test stage. The results are depicted at Table 4.3 and Table 4.4

TABLE 4.3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest experimental	2.5800	30	1.02070	.18635
	Posttest experimental	4.4667	30	.57135	.10431
Pair 2	Pretest control	2.6320	30	1.04077	.19002
	Posttest control	3.3667	30	.85029	.15524

TABLE 4.4
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

		Paired Differences		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pretest experimental – posttest experimental	-1.8861	.095	.19994	-2.2955	-1.477	-9.436	.000
	Posttest experimental							
Pair 2	Pretest control – posttest control	-.7346	.49003	.08947	-.91765	-.5516	-8.212	.000
	Posttest control							

The results of table 4.3 show that there is statistically significant difference in students' performance from pretest to post-test stage since sig level of both groups (0.000) is significant since it is less than the research confidence interval (0.05). To investigate at which stage students had better performance; pretest or post test stage, the mean of each stage in each group was recalled from table 4.3. As table 4.3 shows the mean of pretest in experimental group was 2.58 and the posttest of the same group was 4.46 and the mean of the pretest of the control group was 2.63 and the mean of posttest of the same group was 3.36. Therefore, students perform better in post tests of the groups meaning that both traditional teacher given feedback and more modern technology given feedback were effective in boosting students' writing performance. The first two research questions are answered.

To investigate which method was more effective in increasing learner's writing skill, an independent sample t-test used to compare the mean differences in post test of control and experimental group. The results are depicted in table 4.5 and 4.6

TABLE 4.5
GROUP STATISTICS

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Writing scores	Posttestcontrol	30	3.3667	.85029	.15524
	Posttest experimental	30	4.4667	.57135	.10431

TABLE 4.6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Writing scores	Equal variances assumed	2.74	.103	-5.88	58	.000	-1.10	.18703	-1.47	-.72
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.88	50.	.000	-1.10	.18703	-1.47	-.72

The results of the table 4.6 show that there is a statistically significant difference in post- test of control and experimental group as the sig level (0.000) of the research is less than the research confidence interval (0.05) meaning that there is a statistically significant difference in traditional teach given feedback and more modern technology given feedback in improving learners 'writing skill. To see in which group learners' performed better, table 4.5 is recalled. The mean of post- test in control group is 3.36 and the mean of post- test in experimental group is 4.46 meaning that technology given feedback helped learners more. The third research question is answered.

V. DISCUSSION

As technology plays an important role in our society, many people can undoubtedly take its advantageous for their daily activities. Communication is one of the most crucial aspects of technology in which individuals are increasingly willing to master it and they have been able to achieve a tremendous amount of objectives through advancement in technology. In addition to communication that is highly used in today's world, enhancement of different types of skills in learning L2 is undeniable.

The present study, tried to investigate the role of technology in writing skill. The outcome of the research revealed that those who utilize different sites related to writing could achieve more proficiency in comparison with those who didn't have any use out of technology. Using spell check plus.com and online text correction enable learners to find their deficiencies and realize the correct form. These sites are few among various types of web based assistance in language learning as the results (Table 4.2) indicate the mean number of the writing performance of both groups underwent significant differences from pretest to post -tests meaning that both treatments; technology driven and teacher given feedback boasted participants writing performance since the sig level of the paired sample t- tests (0.000) are less that the research confidence interval level (0.05). The results of the independent sample t-test on the post tests of the two experimental groups (Table 4.6) indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the performances of the two groups since sig level of the test (0.000).

The results have important implications for language teaching methodology, materials development and language testing. Since one of the macrostrategies introduced in post method era is maximizing learning opportunities, language teachers should introduce technology in language teaching classes as it increases the amount of language that students keep in touch with.

Besides, the introduction of the web based learning and technology assistant learning can help students get autonomous as they practice to use what benefits they can achieve out of practices in this respect and use what they have at their disposal to open up what they don't know about the language. Material developers also should make principled decisions about what to introduce and how to introduce since these principled decisions will set up different language patterns.

Language testing also is affected by new approaches towards language testing including dynamic assessment but what is missing from the model is the role of technology and the type of information it can elicit about the students' language performance.

VI. CONCLUSION

As mentioned above, using technology in learning a L2 is necessary in today's life. It enhanced learning in the EFL classroom; increases students motivation and can have a positive effect on their writing skill. Therefore, learners can promote their writing ability due to technology rather than traditional principles and can easily see its prominent impact.

APPENDIX A. TOPIC FAMILIARITY QUESTIONNAIRE

Which activities are you confident at?

Choose from the highest confidence to the lowest

	1	2	3
1. Give suggestions and decide on the best suggestion			
2. Giving reasons			
3. Giving instructions			
4. Making decisions			
5. Solving problems			
6. Describing people			
7. Telling stories			
8. Completing incomplete set of information			
9. Organizing information			
10. Giving directions			

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Faeze Ghahri is an MA TEFL student at Islamic Azad University of Karaj, Karaj, Iran. She is a highly motivated instructor with work experience in TEFL. She presented some workshops on second language acquisition and learning. She is an active student in her classes.

Mohamad Hashamdar is a PhD holder in teaching English as a foreign language and a faculty member of English teaching department at Islamic Azad University of Karaj, Karaj, Iran. His academic contribution to the field of language teaching has benefited many graduate and post graduate students.

Zohre Mohamadi is a PhD holder in teaching English as a foreign language and a faculty member of English teaching department at Islamic Azad University of Karaj, Karaj, Iran. She has published many papers in related journals and attended international conferences. She organized and presented different workshops on second language acquisition and learning. Her research interests are teacher education and training, materials development and teaching SPSS for research purposes. She teaches to both graduate and post graduate students. She is a member of TELLSI (Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran) and also the head of Young Researchers and Elite Club, Karaj branch. She has been a referee at Islamic Azad University conferences and International journal of applied linguistics and English literature.

The Impact of Extensive Reading on Grammatical Mastery of Iranian EFL Learners

Ali Akbar Khansir

Bushehr University of Medical Sciences, Bushehr, Iran

Naeeme Dehghani

Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bushehr, Iran

Abstract—This research is intended to deal with The Impact of Extensive Reading on Grammatical Mastery of Iranian EFL Learners in Bushehr city, Iran. Grammar is not only structure of language but also is the heart of language. Language without of its heart cannot be alive. Reading is defined as a visual process. It is the ability to see symbols clearly with eyes. It is a perceptual process – perception meaning that readers thought processes is able to take these symbols and to invest them with meaning. Reading as one of the language skills plays a vital role in English foreign language settings. The population of this study consisted of 40 male English language learners studying English at Educational and Cultural English Language Institute from Bushehr city in Iran. They were in the age range of 15 to 16. After the administration of Language Proficiency Test, the subjects divided into two experimental and control groups; each group consisting of 20 homogeneous students. In the treatment period, the experimental group of the students was instructed for forty five days. This paper showed that there is a significant difference between the both experimental and control groups in answering to the post-test questions and these are the participants in experimental group that had better performance than the participants in control group.

Index Terms—Iranian EFL learners, English as foreign language, extensive reading, grammatical mastery

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this research paper is to investigate the Impact of extensive reading on grammatical mastery of Iranian EFL Learners in Bushehr city, Iran. In the history of human being language has always been the tool people use to shape their ideas and communicate with others. In any language, the basic unit of the language is grammar. Freeman (2003, p.13) said that " grammar is an area of knowledge that linguists and language teachers study". With regard to this project, in generally, reading as one of the four language skills can be the most important skill for the foreign students over the world and particular, for Iranian foreign students, because; they have not the opportunity to contact with English native speakers to get knowledge of the language. Berg (1977) argued that language can be used as one of the major important vehicles of learning to read. However, time and again, it has been indicated which one's ability to read and make meaning out of the printed page depends upon one's language facility and past experience. He added that some factors such as lack of effective techniques and practice, without a direct translation between word symbol and comprehension; thus a word is compared to one in the more mother-tongue or common spoken language, insufficient background , technical details as another factor demand a reading slowly and finally factor is visual problems caused of poor reading habits. Ziahosseiny (2009, p.117) indicated that reading is a process of perceiving information through the eye. He added that" the process of reading involves extracting three levels of meaning from the printed patterns: 1) Lexical meaning, that is the semantic content of the words or group of words; 2) Structural meaning which we derive from interrelationships among words or from the order of words; 3) Social –cultural meaning, that is the evaluation that native speakers of the language attach to the words or group of words. Linse (2005) mentioned that "reading is one of the language skills that involve making sense and deriving meaning from the printed word (cited in Khansir and Gholami Dashti, 2014). Birjandi et al (2006, p 211) argued that "reading is a basic skill through which students at a higher level can learn to read great quantities of authentic materials and to read for communication".

Richards et al (1992, p. 133) mentioned that" in language teaching, reading activities are sometimes classified as extensive and intensive". They made differentiate between extensive reading and intensive reading. They defined extensive reading as reading in quantity and it is used to get a general understanding of what is read. It used in order to cause development of good reading habits, to make vocabulary knowledge and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading. According to them, intensive reading is usually used for a slower speed, and requires a higher degree of understanding than extensive reading. Ziahosseiny (2009) argued that extensive reading can be made the basis for oral reports to the rest of the class, or full class discussions in later stages of language development. It can also be the source for written compositions in which students deal with specific issues arising from the material in the book. Day and Bamford (1998) mentioned many the benefits of extensive reading are used in second language learning. One of the benefits of extensive reading is development of a positive attitude toward reading in a second language, in addition;

they believed that motivation to read and increased reading fluency along with knowledge of grammar and get in vocabulary and finally, the writing improvement in the second language can be used as the benefits of extensive reading. Krashen (1993) indicated that extensive reading not only improves reading comprehension and increases vocabulary, but also improves grammatical performance and output. Nattal (1982) argued that extensive reading can be used in order to promote good reading habits in English foreign language or English second language teaching as it provides comprehensible input for the learners, providing the reading materials are easy enough to allow them to read without difficulty (cited in Khansir and Bafandeh , 2014,p. 267).

Jackson (1985, p. 1) indicated that "the English word grammar derives ultimately from the Greek *gramma*, meaning a 'letter'. He added that in classical Greek and Latin the word *grammatica* referred to the general study of literature and language". Ur (1996, p. 75) argued that grammar is sometimes defined as the way words are put together to make correct sentences. Fromkin et al (2003) mentioned that the grammar of a language includes of the sounds and sound patterns, the basic units of meaning such as words, and the rules to combine all of these to form sentences with the desired meaning. They added that every human being who can speak his language, he can know his grammar of language. Khansir (2008) mentioned that grammar plays a vital role in language teaching. Language teachers and specialists of language argued that that grammar can help language students in order to develop their linguistic competence as part of communicative competence.

In Iranian language classroom situation, reading almost trained intensively, and the teachers used grammar translation method to teach grammatical rules which has created negative attitudes among the students. Khansir and Tabande (2014) argued that in Iran, English text books are basically designed to improve the student's knowledge of grammar. Grammar translation method in English classrooms is used by teachers. Building up the student's vocabulary and reading comprehension ability is the main purpose of the present Iranian English text books. Although there are different factors that may contribute to problems related to learning grammatical rules, using an suitable strategy of reading practice may have some effects on improving the grammatical activities of the students and making the practices more attractive to the students. Khansir and Gholami Dashti, (2014) argued that the role of reading comprehension among Iranian students is very important and they feel that need more information about it in order to get knowledge of English Language for using it in their real life situation. However, reading comprehension passages are considered as an important method in foreign language setting, especially in Iran". This paper followed questions and hypotheses as follows:

- 1) Does exposure to grammatical structures through extensive reading improve learners' mastery of grammar?
- 2) Is there any significant difference between studying grammar traditionally and learning grammar through extensive reading?

H01: Exposure to grammatical structures through extensive reading does not improve learners' mastery of grammar?

H02: there is not any significant difference between studying grammar traditionally and learning grammar through extensive reading.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Several scholars, who studied the extensive reading language as a second or foreign language, have reported interesting findings:

Khansir and Bafandeh (2014) examined the Study of Effect of Extensive Reading on Enhancing Reading Comprehension and Word Recognition of Iranian Learners. In their study, 90 Iranian EFL students from Bordkhun high school, in Iran participated and divided into the experimental and control groups. Each group contained fifteen able readers, fifteen average readers and fifteen less able readers based on their reading comprehension and vocabulary scores in a multiple choice test. The findings of the study showed that there was a significant difference in reading comprehension ability and vocabulary recognition between the experimental and control group at the level. Dupay (1997) studied on extensive reading of learners who were studying French as a second language. The result of the study showed that extensive reading expanded the readers' vocabulary knowledge, increased reading comprehension and built reading confidence. Hayashi (1999) studied extensive reading in Japan country. The outcome of the study showed that extensive reading provided students with a good background knowledge, vocabulary growth, and an increased motivation to read. In addition, the learners could read fluently and discover reading strategies by themselves. Day and Bamford (1998) argued that extensive reading could help provide essential language elements for English foreign language and English second language students. By the use of extensive reading, both vocabulary and language structure could be learnt incidentally for learners and thus the learners repeatedly encounter both the vocabulary and sentence patterns. Tutwisoot (2003) studied on the extensive reading of Matayhom learners were studying at Assumption College Nakhon Ratchasima. The population for this study was fifteen Matayhom students from the science and mathematics program. In this research work, reading comprehension test, a Daily Reading Form, a Book Report Form, an Observation Form, and a questionnaire were used as research tools in order to get the purpose of the study. Finally, the outcome of the research work showed that the population of the study was satisfied with the organization of the extensive reading program and the materials provided. The research project recommended that the extensive reading program could help to develop the students reading comprehension skill.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The population for this paper was 40 male English language learners studying English at Educational and Cultural English Language Institute from Bushehr city in Iran. They were in the age range of 15 to 16. After the administration of Language Proficiency Test, the students divided into two experimental and control groups; each group consisting of 20 homogeneous students.

B. Instruments

The instruments used in the research included English Language Proficiency Test and Grammar Mastery Test. The English Language Proficiency Test was designed to elicit assess the participant's level of proficiency in English. The test consisted of 50 multiple choice vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items. The Grammar Mastery Test is a kind of grammar test that was used as a post-test in this study in order to test the grammatical mastery of the participants in both experimental and control group. This test consisted of grammatical structures namely, Simple Past, Object Pronoun, Adverbs of Frequency, and Determiners. Thus, in this research, two kinds of books used as the research materials. The first one was 'Connect Book' that was taught for the both groups and the second one consisted of two books that were devoted to the experimental group for extensive reading. These books consisted of 'The Hat by John Escott and The Little Woman' by Louisa May. The researchers selected these books based on the subjects' level of knowledge and interests, and they included full range of the four grammatical structures that the researchers intended to do this project.

C. Procedure

To achieve the purpose of this paper, the procedures were adopted: Administration of English Language Proficiency Test and Grammar Mastery Test and Analysis of collected data. The General English Proficiency Test (Transparent) consisted of 50 multiple choice vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items. This test was selected in order to assess the students' level of proficiency in English language. In conducted of this question, the researchers piloted the question for the target group with the same level. Thus, fifteen learners in the target group, in the English Language Institute from Bushehr city in Iran, with the same level and similar characteristics to populations of this study participated in the pilot study. The General English Proficiency Test was found to be appropriate for the participants' performing level. Its reliability through the K-R 21 formula turned out to be .89 for the subjects of this paper. After Administration of English Language Proficiency Test, the learners divided into two experimental and control groups; each group consisting of 20 homogeneous learners. The investigators developed and administered the Grammar Mastery Test as the main test of this project. It is worth noting that in order to test the reliability of this research test; the researchers selected 15 students and administered a pilot study and calculated the reliability of this test through KR-21 formula. The reliability index of this test was 0.96 which is considered as high level of reliability. After the students divided into two experimental and control groups. For about 45 days, three 75 minutes' sessions each week, the subjects studied the materials. In experimental group, at first the researchers selected two story books based on the students' English language level and interest and before each session, the learners should read one chapter of one of those selected books at their home with their own pace and paraphrase that chapter of the story book before they come to class. At the beginning of each session and before teaching the course book in experimental group, the researchers asked two or three students to give lectures about one unit of the selected reading books and discussed about different aspects of the story to make sure that all of the students comprehend the general meaning of the story. These books were selected based on the students' level and interest and included full range of the four grammatical structures that the researchers wanted to teach. Then the subjects studied their textbook (Connect Book) and did some of the grammatical exercises in their books. At the end of the course, the experimental group covered four lessons of 'Connect Book' as well as 9 units of 'The Hat' and 9 units of 'The Little Woman'. On the other hand, the control group studied 'Connect Book' traditionally and a mixture of Grammar Translation and Audio-Lingual Method was used by their researchers. Finally, each group was given a forty-item post-test to evaluate subjects' mastery of the four grammatical points. In the Post-test, 10 items were devoted to each grammatical structure: 10 items to Simple Past, 10 items to Object Pronoun, 10 items to Adverbs of Frequency, and finally 10 items to Determiners. The data obtained from the post-test scores of both experimental and control groups were analyzed in terms of mean (X), standard deviation (SD), and t-test using the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) program version 16 for Window.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the Impact of extensive reading on grammatical mastery of Iranian EFL learners in Bushehr city, Iran. In this paper, descriptive statistics and t-test results of the research test administered to the students. In addition, the results of this study have been done after 45 days instruction for both control and experimental groups. Table 1 and figure 1 showed the mean scores of experimental and control groups in term of simple past test. Based on this table and its figure, the score of the experimental group is higher than the mean score of the

control group and the significance level is equaled to 0.001 which is lower than 0.05. It suggests a significant superiority of the scores of experimental group over those of control group.

TABLE 1:
COMPARISON BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS FOR SIMPLE PAST CATEGORY

Group Statistics				
groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	40	14.0875	.25032	.03958
experimental	40	15.0375	.13337	.02109

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	5.452	.022	-21.183	78	.001	-.95000	.04485	-1.0392	-.8607
Equal variances not assumed			-21.183	59.49	.001	-.95000	.04485	-1.0397	-.8602

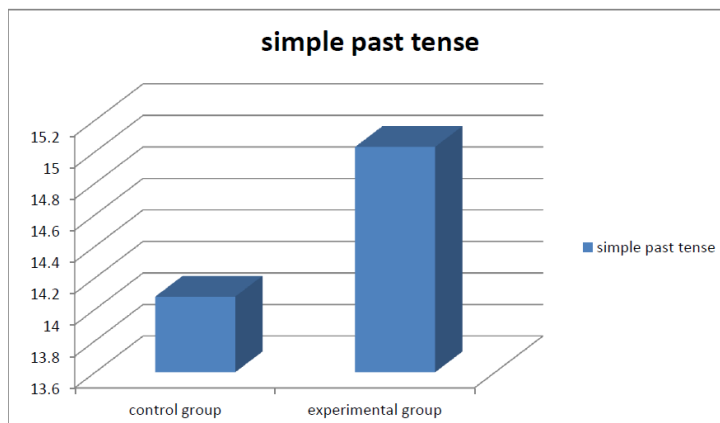


Figure 1: comparison between the mean scores of control and experimental groups for simple past category

Table 2 and figure 2 showed the results of experimental and control groups regarding the objective pronouns test. As it is shown in table 2, the mean score of experimental group is higher than that of control group and the significance level is equaled to 0.002 that is lower than 0.05., there is a significant difference between the participants of both groups in answering to the post-test questions of objective pronouns and the experimental group outperformed the control group in objective pronouns test.

TABLE 2:
COMPARISON BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS FOR OBJECTIVE PRONOUNS CATEGORY

Group Statistics				
Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error M
Control	40	14.3125	.41890	.06623
experimental	40	15.2375	.45273	.07158

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.133	.717	-9.485	78	.002	.92500	.09753	1.11916	.73084
Equal variances not assumed			-9.485	77.53	.002	-.92500	.09753	1.11918	-.73082

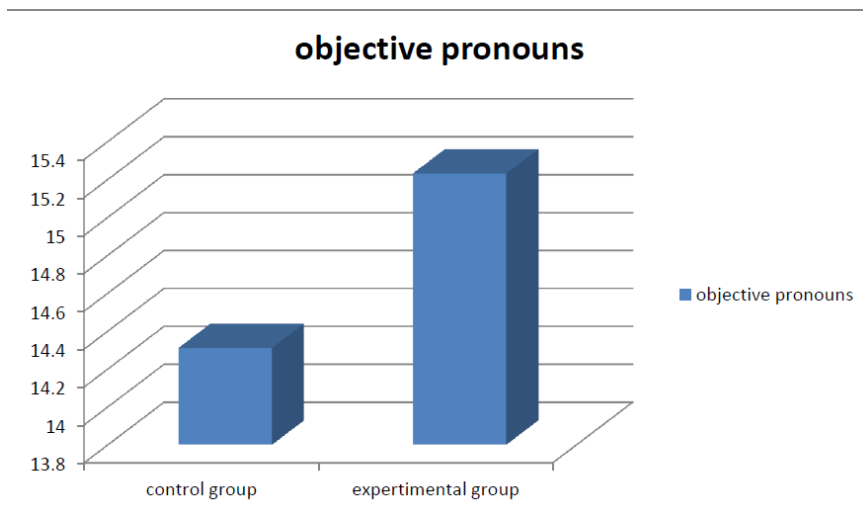


Figure 2: comparison between the mean scores of control and experimental groups for simple past category

Table 3 and its figure showed the results of the experimental and control groups regarding to adverbs of frequency category. Based on the results, the mean score of experimental group is equaled to 15.93 and the mean score of control group is equaled to 15.02 and the significance level of these two groups for this grammatical category is equaled to 0.001 which is lower than 0.05. So, there is a significant difference between the participants of both groups in answering to the post-test questions of adverbs of frequency category and the experimental group had a better performance than control group in answering to the questions of adverbs of frequency.

TABLE3:
COMPARISONS BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS FOR ADVERBS OF FREQUENCY CATEGORY

Group Statistics				
Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error M
Control	40	15.0250	.15811	.02500
experimental	40	15.9375	.83349	.13179

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	76.98	.001	-6.803	78	.001	-.91250	.1341	-1.179	-.6454
Equal variances not assumed			-6.803	41.80	.001	-.91250	.1341	-1.183	-.6417

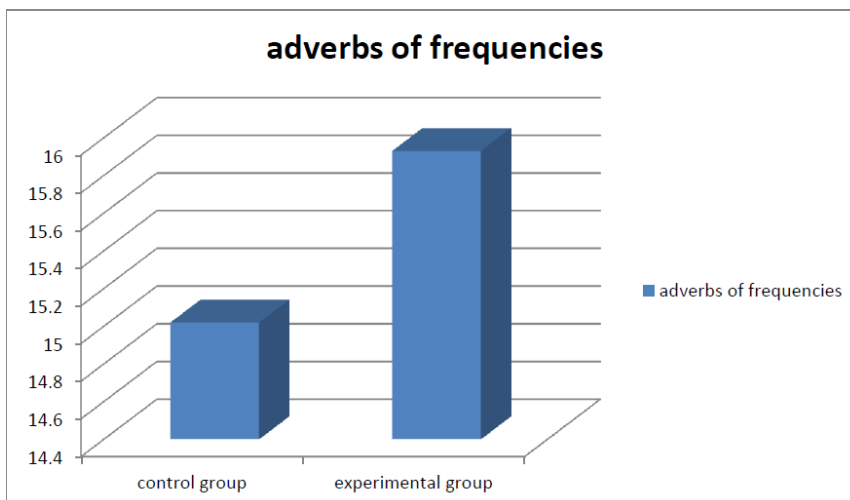


Figure 3: comparisons between the mean scores of control and experimental groups for adverbs of frequency category

The scores of the participants in both groups are presented in table.4 and its figure 4. As it is shown in this table, the mean score of participants who answered to the determiners test in control group is 15.11 and the mean score of participants in experimental group is 15.81. Based on t-test results of comparing the scores of the two groups, the significance level of the scores of both groups at significance level of 0.05 is equaled to 0.001. This showed that there is a significant difference between the participants of both groups in answering to the post-test questions of determiners test and thus, the experimental group had a better performance than control group.

TABLE 4:
COMPARISONS BETWEEN THE MEAN SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS FOR DETERMINERS CATEGORY

Group Statistics				
Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error M
control	40	15.1125	.23986	.03792
experimental	40	15.8125	.88931	.14061

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	115.30	.001	-4.806	78	.001	-.70000	.14564	-.98994	-.41006
Equal variances not assumed			-4.806	44.64	.001	-.70000	.14564	-.99339	-.40661

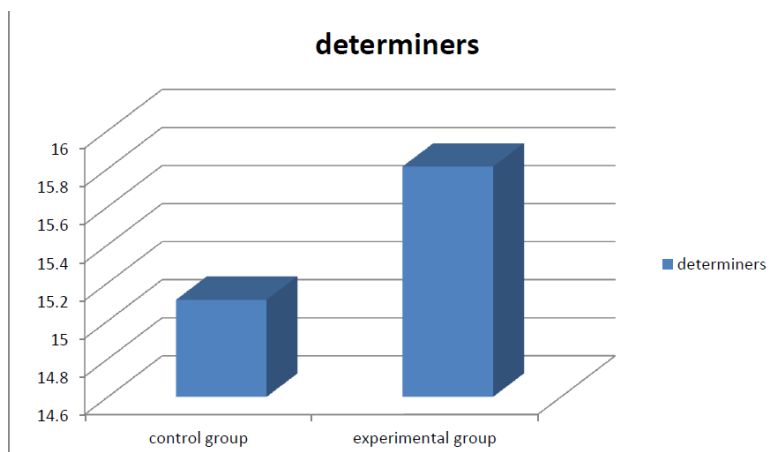


Figure 4: comparisons between the mean scores of control and experimental groups for determiners category

Discussion

In Iranian educational setting, the role of grammar and reading have always been important for Iranian EFL students and they have to pass the grammar and reading examinations in order to get promotion in their education process. In this research, it was also important to examine the concept of reading and the role of extensive reading on the Iranian learners' mastery of grammar. According to Falk (1978, p386), "reading is an active interaction of adults' knowledge of their language with material, printed or written, they perceive visually". He added that the aim of reading is to comprehend meaning. Extensive reading as one of teaching techniques in reading skill can be used for the foreign students in their target language to read materials for their enjoyment and purpose without their teachers' guidance.

V. CONCLUSION

In this research paper, two hypotheses are designed to achieve the purpose of the objective of the study. The first hypothesis was exposure to grammatical structures through extensive reading does not improve learners' mastery of grammar. Based on the scores of the subjects in this study, there is a significance difference between the two groups in answering to the post-test questions. So, the first null hypothesis is rejected and extensive reading cause the improvement of grammatical mastery of English language learners. There is not any significant difference between studying grammar traditionally and learning grammar through extensive reading was the second hypothesis of this paper. The outcome of this hypothesis also showed that there is a significance difference between studying grammar traditionally and learning grammar through incorporating extensive reading into teaching curriculum. The second null hypothesis is rejected.

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Ali Akbar Khansir is an Assistant professor in English Language Teaching at the Bushehr University of Medical Sciences in Iran. He has completed M.A. in English Language Teaching at the Aligarh Muslim University in 2003 and PhD in English Language Teaching at the Mysore University in 2010 in India. He has published some articles in the field of Applied Linguistics, English Language Teaching and Linguistics and published two books: *English Error Analysis* in 2010 and *English Spelling and Sound* in 2012 in Germany.

Naeeme Dehghani is an MA student of TEFL in Department of English, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bushehr, Iran. Her area of interest is Language teaching.

Influence of Translator's Subjectivity in Two Chinese Translated Versions of *The Secret Garden*

Fuli Li

The Faculty of Foreign Language, Huaiyin Institute of Technology, Huaian 223003, China

Abstract—After reviewing George Steiner's Four Translation Motion Theory (FTMT), the paper will exploit the connections between FTMT and translator's subjectivity. It reveals that the translator's subjectivities are displayed in each step of the four motions-- "trust", "aggression", "incorporation" and "compensation" within the framework of the FTMT. By analyzing two Chinese translated versions of *The Secret Garden* with abundant illustrations, the paper finds that translator's subjectivities are exerted in the whole process of translation and greatly influences the style and value of two translated versions.

Index Terms—translator's subjectivity, FTMT, *The Secret Garden*, analysis

I. TRANSLATOR'S SUBJECTIVITY AND FOURFOLD TRANSLATION MOTION THEORY

As one of the results of "culture turn", translators do not confine themselves to the study of translation criteria and standards any more, and their attention is also directed paid to the translator's subjectivity in selecting and interpreting the original works, the choice of translation tactics, language style as well as how to bridge cultural discrepancy. Among all the relating studies, the hermeneutic scholars offer a more universal perspective to study the translator's subjectivity because it views translation as an activity of interpretation and understanding. Based on hermeneutics, in *After Babel: Aspects of Language and Translation* (George Steiner, 2001), a works praised as a landmark in translation field, Gorge Steiner expounds his Fourfold Translation Motion Theory (Hence Forth, FTMT)--trust, aggression, incorporation and compensation, where translator's subjectivity can be perceived through all the different motions. So, to some extent, he offers a reasonable mode for a cross-sectional research of the embodiment of translator's subjectivity.

According to George Steiner's FTMT, translation has four steps: initiative trust, aggression (or penetration, invasion), incorporation (or appropriation, assimilation) and compensation (or restitution). "All the translation activities are originated from trust" (Steiner, 2001, P.312). Intrusive choice is made initiatively based on the translator's trust in what he will translate. The translator trusts the value of the works and trust in him to make something new with it. Then, the second move goes to aggression. In the stage, the translator will read between the lines and extract some insightful and personal aspect from the original works. The third step is "incorporation". In the stage, the original text is imported into the target text based on his previous aggression, to some extent; the stage is apt to embody the hermeneutic view of "horizon fusion". After the original invasion and absorption, Steiner affirmed that the loss is inevitable. So "compensation" will not be missed in the translation process as a way to regain the balance between the original and target works.

II. TRANSLATORS' SUBJECTIVITY IN THE TWO TRANSLATED VERSIONS OF *THE SECRET GARDEN*

The research is also inspired by a surprising fact that *The Secret Garden* (Burnett, F. H, 1993) has been translated into many languages in the world and adapted for plays and films which also gained much more popularity. Some previous researchers studied it in the hope of exploiting some literary significance; others took it as a case to promote translation study. In order to reveal how translators' subjectivity are penetrated in their translation and how the different versions are produced, the paper will select two influential translated versions of *The Secret Garden* (Li Wenjun, 2012), (Xu Hong & Wang Ying, 2012) and set about a contrastive study with George Steiner's FTMT mode.

A. Translator's Subjectivity in "Trust"

According to Steiner, initial trust is "an investment of belief" (Steiner, 2001, P.312), so translator's first step in the process of translation is to invest his belief in the original works; that is to say, the translator's decision means a trust built between him and his selected text. In this respect, a practical comparison involves choices of the investment of trust. Firstly, the value of the works is notable to all the translators and fans all over the world; and it is also easy to infer that Xu and Li share something in common as translator to concern much more on the works' value literally and practically and trust that they can make something new with it. Secondly, these translators' purposes should be a concerning point. Though Xu and Wang did not declare their translation purpose, the editorial department introduces to the series books as a classic which may influence children all lifetime to learn some basic qualities of human being,

such as love, kindness, integrity, harmony, beauty as well as rich knowledge of the world (Xu, 2012, P.V). So Xu and Wang's translation is selected to meet the assigned target of the series books—to influence children readers with the theme connotated in the original works. As to Li, he said in the preface of *The Secret Garden*, “translating those (children literature) brings him a lot of pleasure and ease” when he “merrily to imagine that the three books he translated are compiled in to a packed gift with beautiful and exquisite illustration for boys and girls” (Li, 2012, Pi). It seems that it was already his great pleasure to translate Mrs Burnett's works for children. They introduced the excellent and classic works to influence children with the value of the classic works.

B. Translator's Subjectivity in “Aggression”

In the phase of aggression, translator's initial trust will “be tested, more or less severely, also in the common run and process of language acquisition and translation” (Steiner, 2001, P.312). Though Li and Xu comprehended the original works invasively and exhaustively with encirclement and ingestion, it is just partial understanding that externalizes the translators' subjectivity and creation because of their different background, experience, linguistic competence and different cultural awareness even different times. So Li and Xu's individual and partial understandings make “the density of hostile or seductive ‘otherness’ is dissipated” (Steiner, 2001, P.314).

To the attractive story, Xu and Li deciphered children's words from quite different religious perspective, so they show readers two different world.

e.g.1. “You are so like her now,” said Mary, “that sometimes I think perhaps you are her ghost made into a boy.” (Burnett, 1993, P.125)

Li: “你现在非常像他。”玛丽说” 有时候我想, 你也许就是由她的精灵变成的一个男孩。” (Li, 2012, P.211)

Xu: “你现在太像她了”, 玛丽说, “有时我觉得, 也许你就是她灵魂托胎生的孩子。” (Xu, 2012, P.221)

In the original, Mary thinks that Colin is “made into a boy” by the “ghost” of the woman in the picture hang on the wall of Colin's room. In English “精灵” is spelled as “elves”, just is a imagined lovely creature who lives in the woods and flowers while “灵魂”, ghost, is used widely in religion referring a person's collective elements attached to a live physics, especially spirits of the dead. Li uses the way of “creative treason” to replace “ghost” with the lovely image “精灵” from fairytales might beloved by children while Xu reproduces the image as “灵魂” which is be loyal to the original works “ghost”. “托胎投生” is another Buddhism thinking which means that the dead may rebirth as another person with something like his previous lives. In the original, Colin's gray eyes are thought like the woman's in the picture hanging on the wall of his room, so Xu uses a more familiar phrase to transform “be made into”.

Just like Li and Xu's different understanding in religious element in the novel, their different understanding also endowing Li's version much more Chinese flavor while Xu's version a bit of British taste.

e.g.2. She was a sweet, pretty thing and he'd have walked the world over to get her a blade o' grass she wanted. (Burnett, 1993, P.7)

Li: 新娘子娇小玲珑, 很讨人喜欢。(Li, 2012, P.12)

Xu: 克雷文夫人是个可爱而又漂亮的女人.....(Xu, 2012, P.14)

e.g.3. The strongest footman in the house carried Colin down stairs and put him in his wheeled chair near which Dickon waited outside. (Burnett, 1993, P. 99)

Li: 府里最壮的一个男仆把科林抱下楼, 将他放进一辆推车, 迪康在门外车子边上等候着。(Li, 2012, P.163)

Xu: 那个体格十分强壮的男仆从屋子里把克林背下楼, 安顿在轮椅中, 迪肯在外面等候着。(Xu, 2012, P.174)

In the above two examples, Li transforms the noun “family” into “府里” here and “宅子” in chapter two, and “She (refers to Mrs. Craven)” into “新娘子”. All of them are really Li's quest of his subjectivity for Chinese symbolic ways. Xu chooses to use her subjectivity within the range of faithful interpretation to reserve it as a translated version.

C. Translator's Subjectivity in “Incorporation”

In the motion, translator's initiatives are conformed by various constraints, specifically, the translator's different semantic field, diction, translation strategies, creativity, personal findings, and other cultural factors related both the original and target texts. It is no wonder that Steiner deems that “No language, no traditional symbolic set or cultural ensemble imports without risk of being transformed” (Steiner, 2001, P.315). So, it is a major stage in translation practice that an interpreter will bring into play of all his subjectivities to decipher the original works and reproduce his own ideal text.

1. Linguistic Incorporation

Learned the fact that the original language is quietly transformed into Chinese in form, the translated versions are obviously diverse in the basic ways of expression. Sentence structure is the representative one. Here are some examples:

e.g.4. One of his darkest miseries in the unhealthy morbid past days had been his hatred of being a sickly weak-backed boy whose father was afraid to look at him. (Burnett, 1993, P.115)

Li: 过去他缠绵病榻时使他最最感到痛苦的一件事就是, 他恨自己怎么如此病弱, 如此佝偻, 连自己的父亲都不愿意正眼瞧他。(Li, 2012, P.192)

Xu: 他痛恨当一个弱不禁风、瘦骨嶙峋、连生身父亲都不愿意见到的男孩, 这是他以往那些可怕的生病的日子里最最痛苦的事情。(Xu, 2012, P.203)

English and Chinese are different in the syntax: English is a language requiring both external and internal logical relationship between words and phrases, while Chinese calls an internal logical relationship which need acceptant to reconstruct. As to the prolonged sentence, the two translators both destruct it into more than 2 clauses. In Xu's version, the clause is trunked by “当一个……的男孩”, then followed with a subject clause “这是……的事情” which is stressed the degree of Colin's hatred with an English sentence notion to antecede the important information of a sentence. Li just follows the main structure of the original text to decipher the sentence. One of what he noticed is to bring forward of the adverbial part “过去”。

Li, with his integral competence in manipulating language and culture, changes the narration into an exclamatory sentence. He is good at integrating the original long sentence into several with a parallel structure, which strengthens Colin's painful regret while Xu still try to be true to the original sentence structure with “这” to stand the long subject of the sentence.

2. Rhymed Song

Simple but rhymed sentences can be incoherent in meaning and expressive in practice. In the original works, the rhymed song is one of its features. Li and Xu find their subjectivities to answer such challenge which requires both linguistic skill and literature accomplishments. When they incarnate what they understood and extract from the original works, they have a lot in common: to select the appropriate rhyme, rhythm and diction to reproduce them a more Chinese children rhymed song.

Li and Xu convert the song into prose-like sentences while displaying differently in the appropriation.

Li and Xu convert the song into prose-like sentences while displaying differently in the appropriation. Li keeps rhyme of the song with the /ai/, is consistently in basic from of the original ones /eu/; Xu extends four-line jingle into 5 lines and rhymed /ang/ and /iu/, which is quieter different in form, while they are still readable in Chinese.

e.g. 5. “Mistress Mary, quite contrary,
How does your garden grow?
With silver bells, and cockle shells,
And marigolds all in a row.” (Burnett, 1993, P. 4, 5)

Li: 玛丽小姐乖乖乖,
花园真能造出来?
银铃铛, 花贝壳,
金盏花儿插起来。(Li, 2012, P.7)

Xu: 玛丽小姐你太犟,
你的花园能怎样?
银的铃铛, 鸟蛤壳,
再加几朵万寿菊,
排成一行可真没趣。(Xu, 2012, P.8)

Basil, the priest's son, ever teased Mary with the rhymed song when she was playing a gardening game. In the original text, Basil's song closed with “Mary” and “contrary”, “grow” and “row”, “silver bells”, “cockle shells” “marigolds”, which help to create a fluent and neat rhythm. When translating these rhymed words, the translators use rhymed Chinese words in order to create the same effect with the original version. Both of the Li and Xu clearly expressed the original meaning. But Li is faithful to the original text both in the form and rhythm, which is clear to be penetrated from the latter two lines. Li adopts /ai/ as the rhythm in the line one, three and four, which is widely used in Chinese classical quatrain and is easy to arouse target reader's familiarity. It is also can be traced deeply to Li's competence of mother tongue. In diction, Li and Xu decipher “quite contrary” a “乖乖乖” and “犟” respectively instead of dictionary explanation “相反的, 对立的” or the idiomatic meaning “与众不同的, 不合群的”, it is their initiative choice for the sake of Basil's dialect, children reader's comprehension and rhyme of the song.

Xu realizes the original author's intention of creating beautiful nursery rhyme and provides the target children readers with corresponding Chinese version, either. Xu breaks the original four-line sentences into five with his freedom as a translator which to some extent betrays the original's form, and rhymes line one and line two with /ang/ and /ju/ to end the line four and line five. Though being different from Li (assured to be different from anyone) in rhyme, she still does not fail to recreate some fluent and smooth lines from the angle of children. What's more, Concerning the meaning of the two version, Xu meets Basil's mischievous expectation with some additional words “可真没趣” which have ever provoked Mary to fight back latter in her secret garden.

3. Cultural Incorporation

In *After Bible*, Steiner finds that, assimilation may produce “innumerable shadings”, just as he puts “There are innumerable shadings of assimilation and placement of newly-acquired, ranging from a complete domestication, an at-homeness at the core of the kind which cultural history ascribe to...” (Steiner, 2001, P.315), simultaneously, his statement indicates that it is translator and culture that cause the different reproduction after incorporation motion.

Now that Li relocates the story back to the publication time, also Chinese Qing Dynasty, he incorporates the story in the context of Chinese Culture, so his version even creates a Chinese illusion because of most Chinese Cultural Symbol;

Contrary to Li, Xu would like to repay the original works its native flavor without outstand cultural identity of target language. The appellations and self-appellation in two versions reflect their subjectivity in the cultural angles.

e.g.6. "Sit thee down on th' rug a bit young Mester an' give me thy orders." (Burnett, 1993, P.107)

Xu: "现在, 我的小主人, 坐到那毯子上歇一会吧, 我听你的吩咐。" (Xu, 2012, P.190)

Li: ".....你就像少东家那样坐到毯子上去给我下命令吧。" (Li, 2012, P.178)

e.g.7. "Anythin' I'm told to do," answered old Ben. "I'm kep' on by favor -- because she liked me." (Burnett, 1993, P.107)

Xu: "凡吩咐我干的活我都干。" 老本回答道, "我留在这儿是一种特别的优待——因为她喜欢我。" (Xu, 2012, P.190)

Li: "差什么就干什么呗。" 老本回答道, "我能留下来是主子的恩典——因为她喜欢我。" (Li, 2012, P. 178)

e.g.8. The Rajah condescended to seat himself on a rug under the tree. (Burnett, 1993, P.107)

Xu: 酋长在树下一块毯子上屈尊就坐了。 (Xu, 2012, P.190)

Li: 小王爷俯允了, 在树荫里的毯子上坐了下来。 (Li, 2012, P. 178)

When Ben recognized that Colin was the only son of the Mistress, he was happy to address Colin "the young Mester". In Li's versions, Li asks Colin "少东家" to sit down; accordingly, "she", his "the young Mester", is rendered as "主子" by Li Wenjun; When Colin was arrogant to order his servant, "The Rajah" becomes "小王爷", and his condescendence is translated into "俯允". With context created by "主子" and "恩典", "小王爷" and "俯允", etc, these typical Chinese cultural symbols help to incorporate the readers' horizon to the story happened in the old mansion of China in the early of 20 century in Li's version.

Xu addresses "young Mester" as "我的小主人", an English dialect for Master; also, "The Rajah" is restored to its Indian way as "酋长", and Colin's mother mentioned with a simple third personal pronoun "她". So her version is more conservative and faithful to the original culture background. Compared with Li, Xu's subjectivities are restrained to some degree.

Many more examples can be recognized in the two versions. "Servant, Mr. Craven, Mrs. Craven, ayah, and Mester Colin," are interpreted as "仆人, 克雷文先生, 克雷文夫人, 保姆, 克雷文少爷" with an alienation attitude by Xu; while Li would like "用人, 克雷文老爷, 克雷文太太, 阿妈, 克雷文少爷" to serve his Chinese version. So the addressing ways has a direct influence on the style of translated version.

The story happened in Yorkshire, so Dickon, Martha and Ben. Weatherstaff, they all speak with Yorkshire dialect, Li choose Chinese dialect to labeled them with "俺" and "俺们" through his whole works which conveys the original flavor to his target readers, his translation is a bit more vivid accordingly.

4. The Choice of "Domestication" and "Foreignization"

In the two selected translated versions, Li and Xu use to fullest their subjectivities to decide the ways and skills for their translation. All in all, first of all, Li applies domestication much more to develop his Chinese atmosphere and incorporate the original information into Chinese; while Xu gives priority to foreignization and shows respect of the cultural diversity and discrepancy. With the overall view foreignization and domestication, their concrete translation strategies are embodied via transliteration & free translation and free translation & literal translation.

The following discussion will illustrate their choice of translation strategy.

e.g.9. There was so much to talk about. It seemed as if Colin could never hear enough of Dickon and Captain and Soot and Nut and Shell and the pony whose name was Jump. (Burnett, 1993, P.88)

Li: 要说的事情有多少呀! 科林像是永远都听不够, 迪康怎么样了, "船长"、"煤烟"、"坚果"、"贝壳" 还有名阿跳的的小马驹又怎么了。 (Li, 2012, P. 144)

Xu: 可谈的事太多了。科林对有关迪肯和船长、索特、纳特、谢尔以及那匹叫江浦的的小马的故事真是百听不厌。 (Xu, 2012, P.156)

What most attractive are Dickon's lovely animals' name. Xu transliterates these lovely creature's name "soot", "nut", "shell" and "Jump" literally as "索特、纳特、谢尔, and 江浦", which informs a English context to the target readers; Li renders them to "船长", "煤烟", "坚果", "贝壳" and "阿跳" with free translation to create an intimate feeling for target readers with some normal names heard everywhere on the domestic land. Thus, transliteration endows their versions different flavor generally. So, it is translators who use their subjectivities to select a corresponding strategy for the purpose of "injection or infection", that is to say, the introduction of the exterior culture thoroughly or partly.

Also, their subjectivities are embodied in the choice of free translation & literal translation. Here are some selected illustrations.

D. Subjectivity in "Compensation"

The last step of the translation motion put forward by Steiner is restitution, in other word, to compensate what lost in source works to balance the information of the target works. In the first step, "trust puts us off balance"; during invasion; "we come home laden, thus again off balance"; in appropriation, "the system is now off-tilt" by taking way and adding" (Steiner, 2001, P.316). So, compensation becomes a necessity for restoring the balance. So the step requires translator's

subjectivity nothing less than the previous steps.

Compensation (supplement) can be recognized easily in the target works as a way of complementary annotations, which usually clarifies what puzzled target readers caused by the cultural, historical or geographical barriers.

Following is another example from chapter 23. It is also related to the custom.

e.g.10. "Aye, aye, sir!" answered Ben Weatherstaff, touching his forehead. (One of the long concealed charms of Ben Weatherstaff was that in his boyhood he had once run away to sea and had made voyages. So he could reply like a sailor.) (Burnett, 1993, P.111)

Xu. "是，是，先生！"本·维斯塔夫一边回答，一边向柯林触额致意 δ 。本·维斯塔夫有一段长久以来秘而不宣的有趣经历。在少年时代，他曾离家出走来到海边，曾数次出海远航。所以，他可以像水手那样应答。(Xu, 2012, P.198)

δ 水手行礼的一种方式。

Li: "是的，是的，少爷！"本·维斯塔夫答道，还举起手来触了触额角。(本·维斯塔夫身上有种长期让人捉摸不透的吸引人之处，那就是他少年时代曾偷偷上船，出海做去作过多次航行。因此他应答时总有几分水手的气派。)(Li, 2012, P.186)

"Touching his forehead" is just a routine body gesture, so it might a behavior unconsciously of the old gardener. But Xu supplements what is unknown to domestic readers. In daily life, though salute is a common savoir vivre, it is still crucial for understanding the whole works. With the help of Xu's annotation, reader can picture a lovely scene: the old man was touched by three innocent children and deeply engaged in the magic game.

Li annotates differently from Xu. In chapter 27, Burnett states the power of positive thought "as good for one as sunlight" and sad thought "as bad for one as poison" —could change a person and the world thoroughly. Li notes the time mentioned in the original works which might puzzles the target readers.

III. SUMMARY

Within the theoretical framework of translator's subjectivity and George Steiner's hermeneutic motion for translation -- trust, aggression, incorporation and compensation, the investigation focuses on the embodiment of translator's subjectivity in the two Chinese translated versions of *The Secret Garden* from Li Wenjun, Xuhong and Wang Ying. The close probe reveals that in each motion, Li and Xu have their own subjectivities exerted fully to approach their ideal target works. From "trust" to "compensation", translators overcome all passive constraints internally and externally to incarnate his subjectivity actively, and the paper finds its existence in their estimation of the original works, translation purpose and personal preference. In aggression motion, translator decodes the original works from his own perspectives and his subjectivity is also shown as the result of his attack of culture and religion information. Incorporation is the key motion of the generation of the target works, where translator's subjectivities are pivoted on linguistic competence, culture awareness; in compensation, translator is accessible to all compensation methods. He has the initiatives to either compensate what he thinks puzzling to readers, or neglect it if he believes it already familiar to readers.

On the other hand, translator's subjectivity contributes to the versions' diversity directly. According to the previous discussion and above summary, translator is privileged more freedom in three aspects in turn: culture, linguistic and the choice of translation strategies, which are all key factors to influence the translated works.

In a word, George Steiner's FTMT connotes translator's subjectivity and offers a systematic approach to study translator's subjectivity. In Steiner's theory, though he neither pointed to the term of translator's subjectivity nor discussed the role of translator, he analyzed translator's task and translator's responses to each motion, which can be penetrated as an emphasis of translator's role in translation. So Gorge Steiner's FTMT offers not only a systematical but theoretical motion to accomplish the close study of translator's subjectivity dynamically.

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Fuli Li was born in Baoji, China in 1979. She received her M.A degree in linguistics from Fudan University, China in 2012.

She is currently a lecturer in the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Huaian Institute of Technology, Huaian, China. Her research interests include translation and sociolinguistics.

Construct Validation of TOEFL-iBT (as a Conventional Test) and IELTS (as a Task-based Test) among Iranian EFL Test-takers' Performance on Speaking Modules

Elham Zahedkazemi

Department of English, Science and Research Branch, Ahvaz, Iran

Abstract—The aim of the present research is to examine the construct validation of the speaking sections of two internationally known language proficiency examinations, namely IELTS and TOEFL iBT. IELTS (International English Language Testing System) and TOEFL iBT (Test of English as a Foreign Language, Internet-based Test) are two common examples of high-stake standardized tests which play a critical role in determining the future life of their candidates. This research seeks to scrutinize how IELTS and TOEFL iBT tap the same construct validity on the speaking proficiency of their candidates and moreover about the similarity of results for both IELTS and the TOEFL speaking tests. Participant in this study were 30 EFL students at high level of education in Khuzestan. Finding reveal that the IELTS and the TOEFL speaking tests share both differences and mostly similarities in terms of measuring a candidates' speaking ability. Different analyses yielded highly similar results: two tests are significantly correlated, classification of agreement between test-taker 'performance on both speaking test was very close. The study considers both the theoretical and practical implications of these findings for Iranian stakeholders in particular and for test users in general.

Index Terms—construct validation, speaking test, IELTS, TOEFL iBT

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's competitive and technological world, students need to develop effective skills in mastering the English language in order to communicate ideas, concepts, scientific and technological findings successfully (grad.uprm.edu, 2010). One of the most important abilities to develop is the oral proficiency. Oral proficiency testing has become one of the most central topics in both language teaching and language testing; more particularly with the advent of communicative language teaching, the role of speaking ability has become more important (Shirinazadeh Aghdam and Farahani, 2012).

Conventional testing and Task-based assessment are two very different methods of assessing EFL learners at any level of speaking (Abrams and Madaus, 2003). Conventional testing refers to assessments that are traditional and old assessments (Moshman, 2011). Traditional assessments are the conventional methods of testing which usually produce a written document, such as a quiz, exam, or paper. Standardized tests, most state achievement tests, and high school graduation examinations are also examples of conventional or traditional assessments (ETS, 2012). While traditional assessment relies on indirect or proxy item-efficient, simplistic substitutes from which we think valid inference can be made about the student performance at those students challenges (Wiggins and Grant, 1990); Task-based language assessment (TBLA) grows from the observation that mastering the grammar and lexicon of a language is not sufficient for using a language to achieve ends in social situations (Mislevy, 2002).

A good example of conventional testing is TOEFL iBT. The Internet-based test (iBT) is the latest version of TOEFL, and it was launched in 2006 following more than a decade of validation activities intended to support the design and the proposed test score interpretations and uses of the test (Fulcher, 2003). The speaking construct assessed in the iBT was defined in terms of the knowledge and control of important phonological and syntactic features, vocabulary, and discourse patterns encountered in academic contexts (Cyril, 2007). On the other hand IELTS as a sample of task-based test in this study stand apart from other through its face-to-face speaking assessment. It is personal, interactive and as close to real-life situation as you can get. Institutions can rely on IELTS to assess candidates' ability to communicate in real-life situation, not just respond to pre-recorded prompts (Stoynoff, 2009). Among the four language skills included in these two exams (the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT), speaking, because of measurement difficulties, has received less attention in the available literature. This is the same in most language schools and universities in Iran. Plus measurement difficulties; Another problem is that even if speaking module has been studied in many respects, but its construct validity argument is nevertheless seriously compromised and compared in these two wide spread tests (Brown and Taylor, 2006). Construct validity is one of the most central concepts in language testing field. Researchers generally establish the construct validity of a measure by correlating it with a number of other measures and arguing from the

pattern of correlations that the measure is associated with these variables in theoretically predictable ways (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955, p. 288).

Based on language testing research center (ITRC) statistics in 2014 the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT tests have been used widely and in the world as EFL language proficiency tests for admission for tertiary education in English speaking countries. Generally, scores of the two tests can be used interchangeably as the number of institutions in the world accepting both scores (of the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT) as evidence about as English language proficiency has increased greatly. The issue is whether we can make the same inference about test-takers' language proficiency based on the scores the obtained on each test. It is therefore of great importance to investigate and compare the validity and particularly the construct validity of two tests in general and of the speaking sub-test in particular.

Research Questions

This study will pose the following research questions:

1. Do the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking test measuring the same speaking ability of the test-takers?
2. Could we draw the same inferences about candidates' abilities based on each test they take?

Hypotheses

H01. The IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking test measuring the same speaking ability of the test-takers.

H02. We could draw the same inferences about candidates' abilities based on each test they take.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 50 Iranian EFL learners including MA students of both genders majoring in English teaching, in Islamic Azad University of Khuzestan, Science and Research branch; and also EFL learners at high level of proficiency in different language institutions in Dezful who all sat for a homogeneity test. Their ages ranged between 20 to 34. Out this population, 30 test-takers were selected based on the results of their performance on a given homogeneity test which was the Quick Placement Test of Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (2001). Then an oral interview was conducted to test their speaking ability, by two raters. The learners based on their proficiency level were divided to two groups of proficiency: intermediate and upper-intermediate.

Material

The material employed in this study consisted of a language proficiency test (OPT), an Oral interview test, IELTS test held in Australia in January 2014 and TOEFL iBT Longman speaking test version 2013. These materials were chosen for several reasons. Firstly, it was impossible to obtain genuine tests due to test security of both the IELTS test and the TOEFL iBT test. Secondly the IELTS test administered to the test-takers was held on January, 2014 that was the closest and newest one to the real IELTS test compared to any other commercial IELTS practice test available. Similarly, TOEFL iBT Longman software published by Pearson Longman and collected by Deborah Philips (2013) is one of the most authentic tests available and is the closest test to the real TOEFL iBT in comparison with other commercial iBT tests. Researcher has recorded the participants' voice during the speaking exams of both tests. The TOEFL exam program had the option to save the candidates' voice and the IELTS speaking file saved separately by the researcher. Later on, test-takers speaking recordings were saved in a particular folder for evaluations and scoring.

Instrumentation

A language proficiency test (OPT) to homogenize the prospective test-takers for the study. Then due to this reason why OPT exam lacks a speaking section; an Oral interview test was administered to. Researcher implemented the same oral interview which Shirinzade Aghdam and Farahai (2012) used in their study on speaking skill developed by Underhill (1987) and Brown (2004). The main instruments utilized was consisted of the IELTS test held in Australia in January 2014, and TOEFL iBT Longman software version 2013, which is a practice test for those getting prepared for real TOEFL iBT exam.

Procedure

As it was mentioned earlier (part 3.1), from among a population of 50 people 30 participants were selected to enter the present study based on their performance on the proficiency test— the Intermediate and Upper-intermediate levels – and each level of test-takers sat once for the IELTS speaking test and once for the TOEFL iBT speaking test (see sections 3.1 and 3.2 in this chapter). Participants were first provided with the required information about IELTS and TOEFL iBT's distinguishing features and characteristics on speaking part during the two sessions. The IELTS speaking test was administered to test-takers by a non-practicing IELTS examiner; the speaking interviews of each test-taker were recorded for later analyses and scoring. A non-practicing certificate IELTS examiner scored speaking modules of both tests for each level of test-takers proficiency. Two main functions were performed by the certificate IELTS examiner: rating the test-takers voice samples, and providing the researcher with information about speaking interview procedures of the participants. Once again as it was already mentioned in the instrument section TOEFL iBT speaking, the sub-test had two types of tasks: independent and integrated Each of these tasks was rated from 0 to 4. Regarding IELTS, the speaking scale is composed of ten levels, ranging from 0 to 9. Each of test-takers' performance on his/her speaking test was scored on specified criteria for each test. Regarding TOEFL iBT, the speaking exam, raters or interviewers did assess test-takers' speech samples from four the following criteria: General description, Delivery,

Language use and Topic development; and for the IELTS speaking test, test-takers performances were assessed in terms of the following four criteria: Vocabulary, Grammar, Fluency and pronunciation. By the end of the two tests, for each of the 30 participants, researcher could collect 8 sets of scores on each band of their speaking tests. 8 correlation analyses were carried out to examine the relationship between the different parts within and between this two speaking tests. The correlation between the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests was calculated to see if the same conclusion could be reached out about candidates' ability on each test (using Pearson correlation from the SPSS program version 18, see chapter four for the results).

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Research question number 1: The IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests measure the same speaking ability of the test-takers?

- Descriptive statistics of the raw scores

The basic descriptive statistics of the IELTS and TOEFL iBT speaking test-scores of 30 test-takers both in Intermediate and Upper-intermediate groups are presented in Table 1 and Table 2 below.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE IELTS AND THE TOEFL iBT SPEAKING SCORES IN UPPER-INTERMEDIATE GROUP

Upper-intermediate	The IELTS speaking test (N=12)	The TOEFL iBT speaking test (N=12)
Mean	23.73	23.65
Median	23.41	23.10
Std.Deviation	2.55	3.29
Minimum	20	19.5
Maximum	28	29

After converting all test-takers' scores to the same scale – in this research, researcher took TOEFL iBT scale scores as criterion based on tables of conversion documented by ETS organization. It can be seen that for Upper-intermediates, mean and median values of the IELTS speaking scores were highly similar at 23.73 and 23.41 respectively). Similar to the IELTS speaking scores, the mean and the median values of the TOEFL iBT speaking test were quite close together at 23.65 and 23.10, respectively, indicating a nearly normal distribution.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE IELTS AND THE TOEFL iBT SPEAKING SCORES IN INTERMEDIATE GROUP

Intermediate	The IELTS speaking test (N=18)	The TOEFL iBT speaking test (N=18)
Mean	19.39	18.78
Median	19.00	18.38
Std.Deviation	2.21	2.97
Minimum	17	16.5
Maximum	21	22

Regarding to Table 2 the similar results as for the Upper-intermediate group were driven for the Intermediate group of test-takers (mean: 19.39 and median: 19) showing a normal distribution of test takers. Similar to the IELTS speaking scores, the mean and the median values of the TOEFL iBT speaking test were also nearly close together at 18.78 and 18.38, respectively that show a normal distribution among test-takers.

-Pearson Correlation coefficient of test-takers' scores

This is also reflected in the Pearson Correlation coefficient table 10 that in Intermediate group of test-takers Correlation coefficient is 0.701 ($r = .701$, $p < .001$) which signifies that generally those who did well in the IELTS speaking test tended to do well in the TOEFL iBT speaking test and vice versa. The result for Upper-intermediate group ($r = .870$, $p < .001$) again proves that test-takers who did well on the IELTS speaking test are likely to do well on TOEFL iBT speaking test and vice versa. However, $r = .701$ indicates only a moderate correlation between two speaking tests in Intermediate group, while an $r = .870$ for Upper-intermediate group (Table 1) of test-takers indicated that there is stronger correlation between two the speaking tests in this group. These findings are a source of evidence in support of Hypothesis 1: The IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking test measure the same speaking ability of the test-takers.

Research question number 2: Could we draw the same inferences about candidates' abilities based on each test they take?

- Analyzing the relationship between test-takers' achievements

In order to analyze the relationship between test-takers' achievements – as measured by their scores on the two speaking tests of the IELTS and TOEFL iBT - and their abilities in speaking skill, their performance on each speaking exam in greatest details are presented in Tables 3 and 4 for both groups of Intermediate and Upper-intermediate.

TABLE 3:
COMPARISON OF IELTS AND IBT SPEAKING TESTS IN TERMS OF THEIR CRITERIA (UPPER- INTERMEDIATE GROUP)

Upper-Intermediate group (IELTS) N=12				Upper-Intermediate group (TOEFL iBT) N=12			
Speaking Criteria	Mean	Std.Dev	Correlation Coefficient	Speaking Criteria	Mean	Std.Dev	Correlation coefficient
Vocabulary	24.08	3.20	0.95	General Description	23.90	3.74	0.94
Grammar	23.92	3.37	0.99	Delivery	23.98	2.65	0.86
Pronunciation	24.25	2.96	0.91	Language use	24.65	3.78	0.93
Fluency	22.67	4.16	0.98	Topic Development	22.09	3.69	0.89

TABLE 4:
COMPARISON OF IELTS AND IBT SPEAKING TESTS IN TERMS OF THEIR CRITERIA (INTERMEDIATE GROUP)

Intermediate group (IELTS) N=18				Intermediate group (TOEFL iBT) N=18			
Speaking Criteria	Mean	Std.Dev	Correlation Coefficient	Speaking Criteria	Mean	Std.Dev	Correlation coefficient
Vocabulary	19.39	2.06	0.89	General Description	18.55	1.92	0.85
Grammar	20.39	1.82	0.82	Delivery	19.50	2.12	0.78
Pronunciation	19.06	2.07	0.88	Language use	21	2.08	0.91
Fluency	18.94	1.39	0.76	Topic Development	16.12	1.78	0.83

As it can be seen in Table 3, for Upper-intermediate group, test-takers' performance in the IELTS group were closer in all four areas of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and fluency, though the IELTS 'test-takers best performance was in the area of grammar (mean= 23.92, $r = 0.99$), test-takers mostly could use a range of complex structure with required flexibility with error-free sentences and few grammatical mistakes, while their performance in area of fluency was found to be weaker than the other areas of their speaking skill (Mean=22.67, $r = 0.98$). As for the TOEFL iBT test takers, raw scores revealed that while their performance as a whole was quiet similar to their performance for the IELTS speaking test (IELTS: 23.7, iBT: 23.65), the range and mean of their scores in four areas were not close.

Investigation for Intermediate group of test-takers in Table 4 revealed that test-takers' highest and lowest performances were in grammar and fluency areas (mean= 20.39, $r = 0.82$ and mean= 18.94, $r = 0.76$, respectively) which are truly similar to Upper-intermediate test-takers' performance on the highest and weakest areas of the IELTS speaking test. The correlation between test-takers 'performances in the four areas of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and fluency for both groups and the IELTS speaking test as a whole were found to be strong ($r = 0.95$ for Upper-intermediate and $r = 0.83$ for Intermediate group). This correlation appeared to be stronger for Upper-intermediate group than the Intermediate group. Likewise on performance for the TOEFL iBT Intermediate group, the result showed that test-takers performed strong in "language use" area and really weak in "topic development" area (mean= 21, $r = 0.91$ and mean= 16.12, $r = 0.83$, respectively). These results appeared to be consistent with the TOEFL iBT 'Upper-intermediate group performance. The correlation between test-takers 'performances in the four areas of general description, delivery, language use and topic development for both TOEFL iBT groups and speaking test as a whole were found to be strong ($r = 0.89$ for Upper-intermediate and $r = 0.79$ for Intermediate group). And finally a summary of basic information in the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking test performance raw scores across the two test-takers groups is shown in Table 5 below in order to come up with some basic results and conclusions related to the first hypothesis in this study.

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE IELTS AND THE TOEFL iBT SPEAKING RAW SCORES FOR EACH TEST IN TOTAL COMPARISON.

Group	Mean	Median	Std.Dev	Correlation	Minimum	Maximum
IELTS (Upper-intermediate)	23.73	23.41	2.91	0.95	20	28
TOEFL iBT (Upper-intermediate)	23.65	23.10	3.29	0.89	19.5	29
IELTS (Intermediate)	19.39	19.04	2.21	0.83	17	21
TOEFL iBT (Intermediate)	18.78	18.38	2.97	0.79	16.5	22
IELTS and iBT (Upper-intermediate)	23.69	23.50	3.25	0.87	19.5	29
IELTS and iBT (Intermediate)	19.08	18.88	3.72	0.70	16.5	22
IELTS	21.56	21.24	3.21	0.89	17	28
TOEFL iBT	20.67	20.39	4.01	0.80	16.5	29

Total comparison for the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT' scores of the test-takers

In total comparison for IELTS and the TOEFL iBT, as it is demonstrated in the raw scores of both groups of test-takers, firstly, the maximum score of the IELTS test-takers was very close to the TOEFL test-takers (17 and 16.5, respectively), likewise the minimum scores of both groups were at the close level (28 and 29, respectively). In addition, the median of the IELTS speaking test and the TOEFL iBT was at the minimum level of difference (21.24 and 20.39). Thus the primarily finding is that the IELTS test-takers and the TOEFL iBT test-takers both performed at the very close level of proficiency in their speaking tests. Evidence from the Table 5 showed that the mean score of the IELTS speaking test was higher than the mean score of the TOEFL iBT speaking test (21.56 vs. 21.21). In contrast, standard deviation of the IELTS speaking test was smaller than the TOEFL iBT speaking test (3.21 vs. 4.01) which means the

IELTS test-takers seemed to perform not only better on the test they were attended to but also in more homogeneous way than the TOEFL iBT test-takers. To examine if these differences between the two groups and across the two tests as whole were statistically significant, an independent t-test was used after conforming that the scores distributions for each group were normally distributed, meeting the requirements of an independent t-test (see Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991).

TABLE 6:
THE RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF
THE TWO GROUPS OF TEST-TAKERS ON IELTS AND TOEFL iBT (INTERMEDIATE AND UPPER-INTERMEDIATE)

IELTS and TOEFL Upper-intermediate N=12	Levene's test for equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Mean						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean differences	Std. Error differences	95% confidence interval of Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variance assumed	.241	.628	.525	22	.605	.666	1.268	-1.964	3.297
Equal variance not assumed			.525	21.691	.605	.666	1.268	-1.966	3.300
IELTS and TOEFL iBT intermediate N= 18									
Equal variance assumed	32.39	.000	-1.270	34	.048	-1.286	1.0123	-3.343	.771
Equal variance not assumed			-1.270	22.57	.017	-1.286	1.0123	-3.382	.810

The independent t-test showed a significant difference between the two speaking tests in Intermediate group with regard to their means of the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests (19.39 vs. 18.78, $t = -1.270$, $p < .05$). In other words, the IELTS Intermediate group performed significantly better than the TOEFL Intermediate group. As for Upper-intermediate group, we could see there was no significant difference between the IELTS and the TOEFL speaking tests with the regard to their means logit scores on two tests (23.73 vs. 23.65, $t = .525$, $p > .001$).

Once again to examine if the difference between scores for two groups of the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT test-takers as a whole, was statistically significant, an independent t-test was run. The distributions of the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking ability estimates of each group were first checked and a normal and close to normal distribution could be seen in the ability estimates of both groups meeting the requirements of an independent t-test.

TABLE 7:
THE RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST FOR THE TWO GROUPS OF TEST-TAKERS
IN BOTH IELTS AND TOEFL iBT SPEAKING TESTS AS A WHOLE.

IELTS and TOEFL Upper-intermediate N=30	Levene's test for equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Mean						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean differences	Std. Error differences	95% confidence interval of Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variance assumed	8.537	.005	-.484	58	.630	-.505	1.043	-2.592	1.582
Equal variance not assumed			-.484	51.123	.630	-.505	1.043	-2.598	1.588

The result for the independent t-test presented in Table 7 demonstrated that the difference between the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests as a whole was not statistically significant in both their performance of the test-takers on tests and their ability towards the two speaking tests. There was also no significant difference between the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests with regard to their means (21.56 vs. 21.21, $t = -.484$, $p > .001$). These results could suffice a piece of evidence to support the second sub-hypothesis in this study that: We could draw the same inferences about candidates' abilities based on each test they take.

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In brief, all the analyses revealed that the IELTS and the TOEFL speaking tests share both differences and mostly similarities in terms of measuring a candidates' speaking ability. Different analyses yielded highly similar results: two tests are significantly correlated, classification of agreement between test-taker 'performance on both speaking test was very close, indeed for Upper-intermediate that was in a higher correlation, but in total comparison both the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests could yield closely similar results for test-takers, and that could be a strong support for the research hypotheses. The current study is the first attempt made by the researcher to investigate and compare the construct validity of the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests of its type in Iranian context. Finding of this investigation can provide useful information regarding Iranian test-takers' reactions to these two tests: they have highlighted that both functions as well as measures of their true speaking ability but have emphasized the value of test preparation.

- Implications of the study

1. The approach used in this study to compare the construct validity of two test is driven from two sources: what Messick (1989) and Kane (1992-2002) suggested for (a) data sources and analyses relevant to construct validation purposes, and (b), this researcher' s critique of what other researchers have done when comparing two tests. This multi-faceted approach has contributed richer and more varied information about the similarities and differences between two tests constructs than has been the case with pervious test comparison research.

2. Even if two test are widely used interchangeably for the same purpose of (in this case the admission of non-native English speaking students to tertiary education) and they are significantly, they cannot be assumed to be measuring the same construct at all levels as it was shown in first part of chapter three. Researcher' analysis of the test-takers' scores imply the developers of the IELTS should consider the value of creating a more academically oriented speaking test for the Academic Module in its battery.

3. Test preparation training is likely to have some effects on test performance – in this study there was a very short test preparation training about 3 sessions – especially when the test format is complex as has been demonstrated in the IELTS and the TOEFL iBT speaking tests for both groups of test-takers at each level. Therefore test-takers should be encouraged to take part in test preparation courses or at least make them familiar with the test format through practice before actually sitting for the test.

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Elham Zahedkazemi holds an M.A. in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) from Ahvaz Science and Research Branch University, Iran. She was born in Dezful. She has had experiencing in area of teaching English for more than 9 years. Ms Elham Zahedkazemi has not been the member of any professional societies yet.

“The ‘I’ against an ‘Other’”: Gender Trouble in *The Edible Woman*

Samira Sasani

Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Diba Arjmandi

Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Abstract—The concept of self and body has been discussed since the evolution of Modern philosophy by Descartes. With the ignition of feminism movements, these theories attracted the attention of many critics to revise the truth of gender and identity with relation to body. One of the well-known critics in this realm is Judith Butler, who has given fresh sense to postmodern way of thinking. She believes that body, sex and gender are all mingled into one definition and this is the society which has separated them as different still false notions to preserve its survival through normalizing the heterosexual matrix. Being influenced by the chaotic world of limitations and rules, Margaret Atwood, the acknowledged novelist, wrote her first novel, the *Edible Woman* including the theme of woman in search of identity and the imprint of social norms on her character. The body and the act of eating in this novel appear symbolically, as they represent different modes of a character in the process of self-recognition. What has been tried to illustrate in this paper, is to show Butlerian instability of body and its inseparability of gender and the traces, back into Atwood’s first novel. Through the rejection of established interpretation of gender and body, the characters become involved in the process of change and realization. This is the possibility of change which still attracts many readers to this old work of Atwood.

Index Terms—Margaret Atwood, Judith Butler, gender, body, instability, identity

I. INTRODUCTION

Margaret Atwood’s various ways of representation and her creativity in the production of new fiction with the base of political and social life, have made her the voice of today’s Speculative Fiction. Her fiction in postmodern literature has found its unique status, as she goes on writing stories about identity and the lost self, each time with a new approach. Atwood embraces the world with the knowledge of its corruptibility and darkness. Though she tries not to put the spotlight on the dark sides of modern existence, her fiction mirrors her negative attitudes and sometimes doubt about deceptive concepts of everyday life. To be part of Atwood’s novel, is to be part of the social life she depicts through her character’s formation.

In her first novel, *The Edible Woman*, Atwood carves out a character in search of the independent individuality in the patriarchal system. The peculiarity of this novel lies in its view, towards the construction of identity, in a patriarchal society, where all the roles and labels are prior to the existence. The symbolic elements of capitalism and materialism reappear purposefully, through the images of food, eating, clothes and gatherings. In addition, Marian, the primary Atwoodian heroine, gains voice by refusing to yield to the masculine authorization and oppression by patriarchal society. Thus the basic but repetitive themes of Atwoodian fiction find ways into her novels, with the emphasis on the subordinate position of women and the connection between consumption and patriarchal domination.

“Like Atwood, Judith Butler explores the relation between material and citational being Butler describes the regulatory processes that operate like legal imperatives” (Boynton, 2002, p.52). This is when Judith Butler’s theories add new dimension of meaning to what was considered as the correct assumptions of gender, body and the conventional categories of heterosexuality. The purpose of this paper is to show the strict relations between society’s interpretation of gender and its effect on the roles each human plays, while all the rules are well-established before the existence of a figure. With regards to materialism and heterosexual matrix, it is crucial to understand “how the strict regulations of gender norms inform one’s action” through the “performativity” of gender in Atwoodian heroine (Fleitz, 2005, p.19). Butler’s theories, though complicated and difficult to grasp, are distinct in their unique way of reconnaissance of gender and the system it is defined in.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Butler’s Gender/Sex, Body and Heterosexual Matrix

Though being influenced by great thinkers like Freud, Wittig and Foucault, Butler brings into question many concepts like gender and sex which have been discussed and established before. She borrows Foucault’s idea of power and sexuality to endorse her view about the existence of rules, prior to heterosexuality and homosexuality. In her

influential book *Gender Trouble*, Butler refuses to accept the binary distinction between gender and sex and she fuses the two into one category as she asserts: "If the immutable character of sex is contested, perhaps this construct called 'sex' is as culturally constructed as gender" and she continues with this idea that "the distinction between sex and gender turns out to be no distinction at all" (2006, pp. 9-10). As Salih mentions, Butler believes that sex and gender are both the "effects" of discursive "production", not the "cause" (2002, p.73). Butler's assumption of the gender as a "free-floating artifice", supports her argument against stable sex and bodies (Butler, 2006, p.9). She opposes the fixed structure of anatomy as she asserts "that an individual's body boundary (the imago, or phantasmatic body) is an erotic surface whose individual perception is forged from social relations that are always evolving and shifting the body's contours and desires" (Kirby, 2006, p.61). With the emphasis on invented, but still mistaken aspects of cultural and normal perception of the so-called concepts, Judith Butler goes against the fixed formation of the body and gender.

Sex also appears as a result of the repetition of established rules. So the body is "this reiteration" which has a "social birth", though in Butler's sense "the body's ultimate unfixability" leads to its notion of being "revisable" (Boynton, 2002, pp.53-54). By this view, she regards body as a way of practice of norms through repetition, which has led to the false, misleading and permanent belief of body while still this false belief can be modified by rejecting the traditional confirmation of body. For instance, if one has this assumption of body in his/her mind as a matter of certainty, he/she can bring into mind the possibility of the opposite condition to the current one; when a body of man was considered to be female's and vice versa. Thus Butler, with the help of Foucault's theory of power, proves that the establishment of the view towards gender, sex and body has the pre-existence priority of culture and norms to the existence of the self.

In order to discuss gender, sex and body with its accepted terms like "male" and "female", she uses the "heterosexual matrix" as a framework "of cultural intelligibility through which bodies, genders, and desires are naturalized" (Butler, 2006, p.208). This process of "naturalization" happens through the "reiteration" in the culture as a normal way of living and also by the oppression of other categories, like bisexual or homosexual as the marginal ones.

III. DISCUSSION

A. *Marian, in Search of the Lost Self*

Although Atwood has separated herself from the "feminist label" and showed tendency "to protect her text from unauthorised interpretation", her concern for women's issues, their oppression and the look on them from the suppressive patriarchal system, has found important place in her fiction (Tolan, 2007, pp.9-10). The *Edible Woman*, Atwood's first novel, includes the discussion of identity and self as they are mingled to the concept of body and gender. What is new in her novel is how Atwood entangles this loss of self to the loss of body and also loss of desire for food. Marian, an employee in a market research company, leading an ordinary life, tries to gain a new identity through the entrance of Atwoodian quest. Atwood's heroines begin their story with the stereotyped female characteristics, while they try to reject the heterosexual gender norms.

The powerless heroines come to search for their lost self and step forward to claim what has been deprived of them in the patriarchal community. Marian is also captured in this system and cannot uncover her identity and also individuality. What is evident in Atwood's heroines, is their lack of knowledge of their condition, at the first stage of their appearance in the plot, and their similarity to a victim. Like Offred, *Handmaid's Tale's* protagonist, Marian is also ignorant of what has defined her individuality. Dissatisfied with her work and also her later relationship with Peter as her fiancé she begins to sink into a state that she cannot "recognize her own self" (Tolan, 2007, p.13).

In the beginning, Marian, as a narrator of the first part, presents herself with the most normal image of an accepted woman. What is very important to be focused on in this book, is the way Atwood depicts her characters, their taste of food, the preparation of it and different materialistic but inseparable aspects of human being's existence and his/her way of living. To show Marian as a character endorsing the social norms, Ainsley describes her choice of clothes as "camouflage or protective colouration" and through Marian's description of her own behavior and the comparison which happens with Ainsley's, the reader can speculate her very conservative side of individuality, following the restricted and convinced steps of the controlling culture (Atwood, 1969, p.12). Marian finds herself facing the question of "what one is expected to want" when she is culturally oppressed by her stick-to-norm fiancé Peter (Boynton, 2002, p.58). Handsome Peter, as Ainsley describes, is a 'nice package' who wears beautiful clothes and makes decisions "effortlessly" (Atwood, 1969, p.150). Once engaged, Marian behaves like a puppet in the hands of Peter, when even structurally, she loses the power of narration of the story, detached from her power of identity to act consciously on her own behalf and she find herself "letting him [Peter] choose for her" (Atwood, 1969, p.150). Atwood's maneuvering, for this loss of power, in Marian's individuality happens through the loss of appetite for food. In fact, it should be noticed that Marian's voice was the one, parallel with the standards of womanhood in her first appearance. As the narration switched from first to third person, her relationship with Peter takes a formal and serious step and goes to engagement. This is after the announcement that Marian's disorder in eating becomes intense.

With regards to Butler's view, Marian is a woman "in process" of choosing her gender. This "process" is the recognition of self and then its limitation in the defined categorization by the society. It continues with refusing the conventional definitions of body and gender. By choosing, Butler does not hold out this promise that infinite ways of acting is possible for a "subject". Instead, she supposes that "one's choice of 'gender style' is always limited from the start" when one is moving towards this recognition (Salih, 2002, pp.45-46). The conflict in Marian's inner self, the

binary that shows itself ubiquitously in her encounter to the “Other”, becomes explicit first in the structure of the novel. Marian reports the beginning chapters of the story in the first person point of view, the most dependable style of narration to the character. After her engagement to Peter, the passive side, the side which goes on till almost the end of the book continues, while the narration of this point of view is in control of an outsider, who scrutinizes Marian’s thought with the very detail imagery. As the title of the novel suggests, the story is replete with food and eating imagery and their connotation and objectification to the outside world.

Atwood’s detailed portrayal of the meal Marian and Peter have in the restaurant, is the beginning of the conflict, when Marian finds Peter’s choosing her meal as a “getting rid of vacillation”, in other words, his superiority of power in making decisions. In one of their conversations, Butler’s idea of the body as a “reiteration” in the culture can be viewed from the perspective of Peter. He believes that the right way to punish a child, “even physically”, is to do so “consistent[ly]” (Atwood, 1969, p.151). Peter, as a lawyer, has the power and rules in mind and is the controlling agent in the conversation when he depicts Marian’s life as a “sheltered” one, in other words, as a normal and accepted one from the common cultural vantage point (Atwood, 1969, p.151). He emphasizes that the effect of physical punishment can be felt when it is repeated, for this is the repetition that converts the “juvenile delinquents” to the welcome usual people (Atwood, 1969, p.151). This is when Peter considers himself as “‘I’ against an ‘Other’” and undermines the outcasts by sticking to the standard rules (Butler, 2006, p.197).

Marian’s reaction to Peter’s authority is silence. She reacts passively to Peter’s power, though “she was secretly convinced” that Peter is wrong in his judgment (Atwood, 1969, p.151). The wish to regulate the whole community in the patriarchal society, what Peter explains to Marian, gives validity to the “heterosexual matrix” and Marian’s silence, like Peter’s judgment is a practice of this regulation. In fact Butler believes that the heterosexual hegemony specifies “a sex and a gender to a body that can have no existence outside discourse” (Salih, 2002, p.89). Though Butler defines that the stable notion of gender no longer exists, she does stress that rules of gender have predominated the world before our presence and the world needs this “reiteration” and this “heterosexual matrix” to survive the way it is working momentarily.

B. *Food, Body and Identity*

Emma Parker (1995) states that there is this “cannibalistic nature of the relationship between women and men in Atwood’s fiction” which follows as an effect on another binary categorization of “consumed” and “consumer” (p. 363). Counihan in her *Anthropology of Food and Body* affirms this idea that food will provide women with “comfort, numbness, and pleasure” in order to be away “from sexual exploitation” (1999, pp. 80-81). Marian’s way of seeing people is so much affected by the idea of “consumed” food, and its relation to women specifically reveals itself when she associates women’s body with food and vegetables. For instance, she sees Clara’s oversize pregnant body as the “swallowed watermelon” and her tired expression like a “strange vegetable growth, a bulbous tuber” (Atwood, 1969, pp.30-31) and her colleagues in the gathering as “the roll of fat” (Atwood, 1969, p.171). This obsession with the embodiment of women comes to be problematic for Marian, in fact for all women, for this includes a fallacious involvement in “unrealistic standards” which will eventuate to the “distorted perception of their own and other’s bodies” (Counihan, 1999, p.81). The misleading perception that Counihan explains, signifies Butler’s theory that the “ontological autonomy”, which has been assimilated with “discourse or signification”, reveals the falsehood of gender and body as both being “fiction” (Salih, 2002, p.134).

One would recognize that non-eating in Atwood’s novels resembles the “powerlessness”. What Parker (1995) concludes about Marian is that non-eating can also represent “a protest against that powerlessness” (p. 350). Duncan, the cadaverous figure who is against all the normality from society’s perspective, elaborates this fact to Marian that she is “rebellious against the system” by her non-eating (Atwood, 1969, p.198). Duncan with his “fragile” body is the foil character for Peter, whose traditional style of manhood and his appearance are all against Duncan’s traits. Duncan, like Marian, expresses his protest against the patriarchal system and cultural normality by refusing all the deep-rooted way of behaving, in a similar way of eating so little. Duncan’s apartment is the symbol of the minimal life which those outcasts like Duncan and his friends are living. Marian’s inclination towards Duncan ratifies Butler’s idea of “performativity” when Butler states that an “identity” of a “subject” is a “performative construct”, signifying the search and act for finding this individuality through the chaotic, but still normal grounds of living (Salih, 2002, p.45). Marian is living in a world which its survival and continuity demands “the conventional categories of sexual identity” that are following to gain the aim of “normalizing regimes of heterosexuality” (Kirby, 2006, p.50). Duncan opens up this possibility to Marian, by degrading the mentioned “normalizing regimes” and unshackles her from the net of restriction that society, marriage and her gender have set on her. Marian’s having affair with Duncan, negates the traditional assumption of womanhood, passivity and commitment in marriage. She opposes “the parodic repetition of gender” which pervades among all as the “illusion of gender identity as an intractable depth and inner substance”, though no one is heedful of its illusory notion (Butler, 2006, p.220). Duncan discloses a nonconventional type of personality, wishing to be an “amoeba” for they are “shapeless and flexible” (Atwood, 1969, p.207). His reference to the shape and body of amoeba, can be considered of what he desires: the limitless interpretation of his existence, without any categorical definition. Thus he potentially motivates Marian to see the other side of endurance in the society, which demands rejection of rooted normality.

Atwood's references to the loss of self do not come to end with only materialistic and concrete images of food. In the sixth chapter when Marian recounts her dream briefly, she cannot remember it well, since she sees the reflection of herself in the mirror immediately upon her waking up. The only thing she can remember is her "feet beginning to dissolve, like melting jelly" and her "transparent" "fingers" (Atwood, 1969, p.43). How her body seems to be vanished, how escaping her figure appears, is what Butler points out as the unstable notion of physical figure. Marian's vanishing body represents this "unfixability" that Butler has maintained as the inseparable aspect of a "subject". Female body and "gender hierarchy" are only social constructions and norms which have been set by "compulsory heterosexuality" (Butler, 2006, p.198). But the references to the vanishing body of Marian have the denying power of the rooted norms, while she returns as a stronger female character at the end of the novel. At the end of the novel this condition becomes more tangible when Peter's presence hollows out her individuality. As Butler suggests, "the subject", the individual human being in the society, is "a consequence of certain rule-governed discourses" (Butler, 2006, p.198). In this sense Marian appears as the "I" who has problem with the "Other" who is Peter here, and later on with the defined identity he is imposing on her. Marian's process of changes is going towards the realization of the power of "I", the suppressed "subject" against the social construction of her identity. This is the dominant discourse in the society which is imposing this oppression of "I" as the "Other" gets more powerful.

She finds her engagement ring back "among the pennies, nickels and dimes", all resembling the materialistic side of marriage (Atwood, 1969, p.208). He possesses and evaluates her like his "new camera" by trying to grasp what was her "mechanism", which objectifies Marian's existence (Atwood, 1969, p.154). Marian's fathom of her own body is also fragmentary. She sees her own arms in the mirror as "fake, like soft pinkish-white rubber or plastic, boneless, flexible..." (Atwood, 1969, p.235). This is the lack of acknowledgement of her identity which makes her unresponsive to Peter's oppression.

At the end of the novel, this is eating that empowers Marian, making her return to her individuality and the lost power, even structurally narrating her own story again. She resists the "idealized, objectified, and sexualized images" of herself as a woman, when she begins eating and at the same time, gaining power to rejects Peter as a "consumer" (Counihan, 1999, p.82). By rejecting Peter and the established opinion of body, she approves Butler's view that "The loss of gender norms would have the effect of proliferating gender configurations, destabilizing substantive identity, and depriving the naturalizing narratives of compulsory heterosexuality" (Butler, 2006, p.220). This proliferation happens to Marian, when she denies the imposed feminine role by Peter and she finds her strength back by eating. Though limited in ways of expression, gender depicts itself in this novel to have this mode of alteration when one needs a new voice. To understand Butler, one should focus on the possibility of the new expression Marian finds, in behaving more freely by ignoring the boundaries, when she encounters Duncan. By refusing the passivity that Peter was imposing on her, she supports the idea that her role of femininity "is an 'act,' as it were, that is open to "splittings, self-parody, self-criticism" (Butler, 2006, p.220).

Joe, Clara's husband also affirms this point that there is this difference between one's "core" and "femininity", while the later one's tendency is towards "passivity" (Atwood, 1969, p. 242). In order to achieve "the wholeness" which Ainsley accuses Marian of being deprived of in the beginning of the process of self-realization, she needs to overcome the so-called passivity (Atwood, 1969, p.40). The depiction of a woman, sank into the culture normality, is the image of the old woman, the owner of Marian's apartment, whose behavior is the "performativity" of the established patriarchal discourse. This old woman lacks the name, as she is the one that no one will remember her identity and she is only acknowledged in the story for the infinite limits and rules she sets in the apartment to control the inhabitants of the building (Atwood, 1969, p.11). Marian's struggle is not a futile one, since she shares the cake with Peter, symbolically showing the power she has gained again, concretely by eating and in the deeper sense by rejecting the rooted femininity role by undermining the gender identity she faces. She ends this internalized feeling that she feels as a victim, like a food to be "consumed" by confessing that to remain passive, to be part of "heterosexual matrix", has no consequence other than being eaten or oppressed.

IV. CONCLUSION

Resistance to what society defines as the normal and accepted identity is what calls for struggle. This is not an effortless task to go against what has been established for centuries, as a deep-rooted system of controlling. The superiority of power lies in the patriarchal system of governing and this is through the discourse that the power permeates. Margaret Atwood's various, but still complicated novels, are representative of the so-called struggle to acquire voice and the discourse which women have been deprived of. Though body and gender have been instituted prior to the existence of a "subject", there is still this potential to achieve individuality with the personal desires, though it might cost a "subject" with his/her exile and label of abnormality. What remains to be told, is the struggle of an individual which is worth to be indicated through literary lines.

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Samira Sasani (Ph.D., English Literature, Shiraz University) presently works as a full-time faculty member at the Department of Foreign Languages, as an assistant professor of English literature at Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran. She has received her B. A. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2006, her M. A. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2008, and her Ph. D. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2012.

Diba Arjmandi M.A. Student of English Literature, Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Conversation Repair in the Class with Chinese as Foreign Language

Junqing Wang

College of International Education and Communication, Shanxi University, Taiyuan, China

Junli Wu

No. 59 Middle School, Taiyuan, China

Abstract—Conversation repair was used constantly to ensure the successful communication in foreign language class. This study focused on the repair forms, functions and effect in the class with Chinese as a foreign language. The recording from three dialogue classes participated in by 3 native speaker teachers and 50 students whose Chinese level ranged from HSK-3 to 4, was transcribed and analyzed. It was showed most repair forms were self-initiation/self-repair and other-initiation/ self-repair, which was not only consistent with face-saving theory, but also good to bring as far as possible initiative of students into full play. Secondly, the teachers should be required more accurate target language input by strong self-monitoring consciousness to reduce error output, because most of trouble source appeared in teacher's self-initiation/self-repair was caused by a slip of the tongue which would affect students' enthusiasm and teaching quality. Thirdly, high frequency of interrogative sentence, repetition or interrogative sentence plus repetition was used to initiate the clarity of problem production which called participants' self-repair. Actually multiple ways of initiation were suggested for exclusion of communication problems.

Index Terms—class conversation, Chinese as foreign language, trouble source, repair, initiation

I. INTRODUCTION

Interaction is the main form of information transmission in class teaching. However, in the foreign language class, the foreign students are Non-native Chinese learners, and class activities between teachers and students are carried out by using the target language. The students still have limited knowledge of the target language, therefore, the communication between teachers and students will be hindered by some inappropriate words or linguistic errors. To ensure the class mission to be accomplished efficiently, teachers and students will use some interaction strategies constantly to repair conversation trouble source.

The repair phenomenon in the class with teacher oriented teaching activities is different from daily conversation repair, where the more trouble sources are from the student participants (Jefferson and sacks, 1974). Jefferson (1988) divided conversation repair into three categories: correction, confirm, and extension. Then Schegloff (1988) modified into four categories: self-initiation/self-repair, self-initiation/other-repair, others-initiation/self-repair and other-initiation/other-repair, based on repair initiation /execution behaviors. The repair position in utterance could be found in first turn, second turn, third turn or fourth turn. It was found that the first turn repair was normally self-initiation/self-repair; the second turn repair could be self-initiation/other-repair or other-initiation/other-repair; the third turn repair was other initiation-self-repair by the ways of repeat (recycling), substitution (replacing), addition (insertion) or reconstruction (restarting). (Drew, 1984)

Li Yue'e (1996) found some factors to be related to the ways the participants choose to be repaired and the techniques undertaken to repair them after comparison of three types of conversational repair phenomenon using the method of quantitative analysis for the daily conversation, classroom interaction and group working. The operation of the repair system was based on communicative aspects such as what to repair, how to repair, why to repair, and who was to undertake repair. Discourse problem could be solved by self or other, whereas understanding problems were usually repaired by the trouble producer after other-initiation (Heritage, 2002). It was found that the frequency of self-initiated and self-repair in the conversation between native speakers (NS) and native speakers was higher than in the native speakers and non-native speakers (NNS), which was consistent with the Schegloff's proposal. Analysis showed that repair was a resource for modified output as well as modified input in content-based German as a foreign language class settings, where repair differed from mundane conversation and differently used by the teacher and student, because of incomplete L2 usage (Grice, 2003). Dai Yunjuan (2006) believed that the less trouble-sources accounted for the lower repair frequency in NS/NS and NNS/NNS conversation. Drew's study (2005) of classroom environment showed more teacher-initiated repair in class focused on accuracy, more student-initiated repair in class focused on task completion, but the repair ways were more flexible in class focused on content fluency. Yang Xiaojian (2008) compared native and non-native teachers' class found the former favorites

teacher-initiation/student-repair, and the latter favorites teacher-initiation/self-repair. Zhao Xiongli (2012) pointed out English learning students in group work preferred self-initiation/self-repair.

Yu Guodong (2008), Drew *et al.* (2013), Levinson (2013) reviewed repair in their writings, and most of them were referenced from the abroad English corpus or mainly focused on the class with English as a second language teaching. The repair phenomenon in class with Chinese as a foreign language should be paid more attention to, especially the repair forms, function and effects. Hopefully this study will be able to make a small contribution to improve the communication and teaching efficiency in class with Chinese as a foreign language.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. The Participants in This Study

The total of 50 students and three teachers of dialogue classes in the college of international education (CIE), Shanxi University took part in the recording. The reason why these three classes were chosen for the present study is that the author herself happens to be a teacher in charge of this class and it is worthwhile for her to do some research on a similar group to acquire a better understanding of them, besides, it is convenient and economical to conduct research. The detailed description of three classes of students is omitted for individual privacy. All students are foreign students in the CIE. Chinese is a foreign language for them. Their Chinese level ranged from HSK-3 or 4, and they are aged between 22 to 28 years. At the same time, they represented a wide range of different nationalities and engaged in different subjects of study. Three of native speaker teachers in these classes have been teaching Chinese as a foreign language to overseas students of different levels for several years. The recording course lasted for 16 weeks. The permission of all parties was obtained for recording session. It was agreed that all teachers would not change their regular plan because of recording. Full freedom was given to the teacher, without the presence of the presence of researcher during recording, so that the data could not be collected as unobtrusively and naturally as possible. All the classes lasted for 50 minutes.

B. Transcription

The recording were transcribed by the analyst and finally checked by the teacher who taught the classes. The transcription conventions proposed by Jefferson (1978) were adapted, with a few additions and simplifications that are convenient for interaction. The transcription symbols used in this study is showed in Table1. The gloss abbreviation is showed in Table2.

TABLE 1
TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

[One above the other on two successive lines with utterances by different speakers, indicates a point of overlap onset, whether at the end of an utterance or later.
]	One above the other on two successive lines with utterances by different speakers, indicates a point at which two overlapping utterances both end, where one ends while the other continues, or simultaneous moments in overlaps which continue.
=	Ordinarily come in pairs: one at the end of a line and another at the start of the next line or one shortly thereafter, which means there is no break or pause or discernable silence between two utterances.
(number)	Numbers in parentheses indicates silence time calculated by second.
(.)	A dot in parentheses indicates a micro-pause, ordinarily less than 2/10 of a second.
.	The punctuation mark isn't used grammatically, but to indicate intonation. The period indicates a falling, or final, intonation contour, not necessarily the end of a sentence.
?	A question mark indicates rising intonation, not necessarily a question.
,	A comma in indicates continuing intonation, not necessarily a clause boundary.
?,	A combined question mark and comma indicates a rise stronger than a comma, but weaker than a question mark.
:::	Colons used after a word or a letter indicate the prolongation or stretching of the sound just preceding them. The more colon, the longer the stretching.
<u>word</u>	Underlining is used to indicate some form of stress or emphasis, either by increased loudness or higher pitch.
↑↓	The up and down arrows mark sharper rises or falls in pitch.
><	The combination of 'more than' and 'less than' symbols indicates that the talk between them is compressed or rushed.
(())	Double parentheses are used to mark transcriber's description of events, rather than representations of them.

TABLE 2
GLOSS ABBREVIATIONS

T	teacher
S	student
DEM	Demonstrative
NOM	Nominalizer
QPN	Question pronoun
QAD	Question adverb
QMP	Question modal particle
TA	Tense auxiliary
SP	Structure particle

C. Data Analysis

The transcribed data were analyzed to investigate the forms and functions of repair.

1. Forms

Repair in this paper refers to a mechanism to remove trouble sources produced in speaking, listening, and understanding in dialogue class interaction with Chinese as a foreign language, to ensure the successful communication. Class repair were classified into eight forms according to the faithfulness of the model utterances and analysis of data, as shown below.

- (1) self-initiation / self-repair by teacher.
- (2) self-initiation / self-repair by student.
- (3) other-initiation by teacher / self-repair by student.
- (4) other-initiation by student / self-repair by teacher.
- (5) self-initiation by student / other-repair by teacher.
- (6) self-initiation by student / other-repair by other student.
- (7) self-initiation by student / other-repair by other student.
- (8) other-initiation by teacher / other-repair by teacher.

2. Functions

Repair of the different six forms were examined in the class conversational discourse to determine their communicative functions.

Word-searching. Speaker searches a word for prepositioned (signaled by cut-off, pause, sound stretching, standing in the place) or post-positioned (already produced disjunctive syntactically interrupt) self-editing to modify his/her utterance.

Insertion. Speaker tries to make utterance more clear and colloquial by inserting more elements into original phrase or clause.

Rejection. Other-initiation can be done by simply rejecting what has been said in previous utterance, which is mostly used together with clue.

Complementation. Complementation for insufficient information in interaction as self-repair.

Replacement. Speaker tries to make more precise and specific utterance by replaces one item or structure by another to make it correct.

Comment. Repair on non-understanding or misunderstanding problems associated with sound problems, language problems or shared knowledge.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Word-searching.

The word-searching in L2 learner interaction involved a frequent search for all kind of vocabulary items. Word-searching refers to the phenomenon that the speaker knows the words in communication, but for some reason couldn't remember and then tries to recall them. The speaker usually self-initiates by sound stretching, pause, or cut-off and self-repairs by searching a word or phrase. The word searches are constructed in such a way that speakers confer with their auditors to come a agreement on connecting a word with its exact meaning, which is not only a means to achieve completion of the utterance in on-going communication, but also a tool for building a unit together.

Extract 1 (*self-initiation/self-repair*)

- 01 T: ni xihuan kan xinwen ma
you like watch news QMP
Do you like watch news?
- 02 S: xihuan
like
(I) like
- 03 T: xihuan kan xinwen. ni xianzai kan ma?
like watch news you now watch QMP
(You) like to watch news. Do you watch it now?
- 04 S: a:: xianzai a: kan
Now watch
(I) watch news now
- 05 T: xianzai a: zen me kan ne?zai wangshang haishi zai dianshi shang?=
now ah QAD look QMP online still on TV
By what means do you watch news? On line or TV?
- 06 S: =zai wangshang
online
On line
- 07 T: zaiwang shang kan, kan de shi zhongwen de hai [shi:::

- online look SP be Chinese SP still be
Online. News in Chinese or...?
- 08 S: [a: bushi
no
No
- 09 T: bu shi?=
no
No?
- 10 S: =ao, wai
foreign
Foreign (language news)
- 11 (3.0)
- 12 T: [wai guo de
foreign country SP
International (news)
- 13→S: [a zi ziji]a::>zi ji yi ji< ziji ziji?,↓ wo wang le, ouch, what news
self self self already self self self I forgot TA what news
'ziji' or 'ziyi' I forgot how to pronounce.

In extract 1, the student tried to find an accurate word 'ziji' (line 13) in Chinese to tell the teacher she watched the news of her own country, Because the Chinese character 'ji' and 'yi' had very similar font, finally she failed to recall the pronunciation ('wo wang le' means 'I forgot' in English).

B. Insertion

It can be the case that a speaker substitutes a word or phrase by another to make it more precise. Substitution and self-correction both involve changing one item to another. The difference between them lies in the substitution both items are linguistically acceptable, and the change is just a matter of preciseness or appropriateness in the context, whereas the self-correction only one item is acceptable or correct, the other is not. We found certain amount of self-initiated insertion repair, as seen in extract 2, 3, 4.

Extract 2 (self-initiation/self-repair)

- 01→T: da le ji ci dianhua? Youmei gei Jimmy da le ji ci dianhua?
call TA few time phone Youmei give Jimmy call TA few time phone
How many times did (she) call? How many times did Youmei call Jimmy?
- 02 S: wu ci
five time
Five times

Extract 3 (self-initiation/self-repair)

- 01 → T: duo chang shijian? da ping pang qiu duo chang shi jian?
many long time play pingpang ball many long time
How long? How long did he play table tennis?
- 02 S: yige xiaoshi duo↓
one hour more
More than one hour.

Extract 4 (self-initiation/self-repair)

- 01→T: ta shenme shihou huilai a? hui sushe, Jimmy shenme shihou?
he what time come back back to dormitory Jimmy what time
When did he come back to dormitory, Jimmy? When?
- 02 S: a:: ba dian a: shihou
8 o'clock time
8 o'clock time

When teacher enquired students to answer her/him, the teacher would ask in a simple sentence to make the question topic very clear at first, and then she/he will add some essential definitive words or phrases to make question more exactly. Two constituents 'Youmei' as the subject and 'gei Jimmy' as the adverbial were added in extract 2; The 'verb+noun' phrase 'da ping pang qiu' was added as predicate and object in extract 3; 'Jimmy' as the subject and 'sushe' as object were added in extract 4. All these constituents added mean to make the question clearer by supplements of sentences' structure.

C. Rejection

Repair can be done by simply rejecting what has been said in previous utterance, which is different from disagreement where different opinions are expressed. It is frequently preceded by a pause, and sometimes asserted emphatically in the form of 'no+correction' in self-initiation/self-repair (in extract 5, 6), but sometimes gives the correction directly in other-initiation/other-repair by teacher or other student (in extract 7, 8, 9).

Extract 5 (*self-initiation/self-repair*)

The teacher asked a student to give a description about the characteristics of his/her classmate.

- 01 T: Meilin, nijue de Chrina you shenme tedian?
Meilin you think Chrina has what characteristics
What characteristics Chrina has, do you think, Meilin
- 02→S: Chrina? en:: hen kaixin (0.5) kailang ((laughter))
Chrina very happy optimistic
Chrina? (I think she is) very happy, (no) optimistic.
- 03 T: en, ta hen kailang
she very optimistic
She is very optimistic.
- 04 S: tade tade uhm:: yǒu ((wrong tone)) mo
her humor
Her humor.
- 05 T: you ((The teacher gave the right tone)) mo
humorous
humorous
- 06 S: a: you ((right tone)) mo, zenme shuo youmo, hen?
humorous how to say humorous very
How to express (the degree of) humor, very (humorous)?
- 07 T: hen youmo
very humorous
Very humorous.
- 08→S: ao hen ao. you youmo, NO, hen youmo
very has humorous no very humorous
Has humorous, NO, very humorous.

Two different kinds of self-initiation/self-repairs were found in extract 5. At first, when Meilin used ‘kaixin (happy)’ (line2) as the first characteristic about Chrina, after a 0.5-second pause, she corrected to ‘kailang (optimistic)’, because ‘kailang’ was more accurate to characteristic description, while ‘kaixin’ was normally used for feeling. Secondly, in last sentence, Meilin wanted to say Chrina was very humorous, but she used a ‘verb + noun’ structure ‘you youmo (has humor)’ which was not an adjective phrase to be a predictive. She realized this immediately, and corrected with ‘NO + humorous (*adj.*)’ (line8).

Extract 6 (*self-initiation/self-repair*)

The teacher asked the students to read the text, and one student read the second paragraph, while he should read the third one. He found his mistake once after the first sentence, then he said ‘NO’ and moved to the right paragraph started with ‘chexiang li...’.

- 01→S: wo zuowei shi, NO, chexiang li yige pang nǚren zheng::((cough))
my seat is NO carriage inside a fat lady is
My seat (number) is, NO, (I came into) carriage, (I saw) a fat lady
- 02 T: >you<
leisure
Nonsense (just a pronunciation)
- 03 S: youranzide
leisurely
Leisurely
- 04 T: dui
right
Right
- 05 S: youxianzide de zuozai 13 hao zuowei shang.
leisurely SP sitting 13 number seat upper.
sitting leisurely in the 13 seat.

Normally teacher would like to leave self-repair chance to students in consideration of face-saving and to encourage their enthusiasm of Chinese learning. In extract 7, the teacher found a grammatical error, she initiated the repair by repeating the student’s wrong expression with a question ‘bang wo yihui’r?’. Thereafter a 0.5-second pause meant to let student self-repair, but finally the teacher had to give the correction and explanation instead of keeping waiting. Obviously teacher’s prompt correction to students’ unknown knowledge is also necessary in a second-language acquisition class.

Extract 7 (*other-initiation/other-repair*)

- 01 S: bang wo yihui’r
help me a while

- Help me for a while
 02→T: bang wo yihui'r? (0.5) bang wo yixia↑
 help me a while help me one time
 Help me for a while? (Just) help me.
 03 S: yi xia↑
 one time
 In a short while
 04 T: bang wo yixia, nage shi yixia, bushi yihui'r yihui'r shi ge shijian duan
 help me once DPN is once not a little while 'yihui'r' is a time duration
 Help me. 'yixia' instead of 'yihui'r' which means a little while.

Similarly, in extract 8, the teacher found student's misstatements 'yingyu yinyue...deyu yinyue', but she didn't correct it immediately. After a 1.0-second silence, which meant student truly could self-repair, then she gave the right expression 'yingwen ge...dewen ge'.

Extract 8 (*other-initiation/other-repair*)

- 01 T: ni xihuan ting yinyue ma?
 you like listen music QMP
 Do you like music?
 02 S: wo xihuan ting yinyue=
 I like listen music
 I like music.
 03 T: =ni xihuan ting shenme yinyue?
 you like listen what music
 What kind of music do you like?
 04 S: a:: yingyu, yingyu de yinyue↑(0.5) haiyou: deyu?,
 English English SP music and German
 English and German music?
 (1.0)
 05→T: a::jiushi ting yingwen ge, ting yingwen ge huozheshi dewen ge deyu ge
 just listen English song listen English song or German song German
 Just English song, listen English or German songs

Besides, other-repair could be possibly from other student in class as in extract 9. The first student (S₁) gave a wrong answer 'san wu tian' to teacher. The second student (S₂) corrected it 'si wu tian' right away, which differed from teacher's other-repair pattern 'pause (waiting) + correction'.

Extract 9 (*other-initiation/other-repair*)

- 01 T: name ta qu le jitian?
 so he go TA how many days
 So, how many days has he been there?
 02 S1: san si a: san wu tian
 three four three five days
 Three or five days
 03→S2: si wu tian
 four five days
 Four or five days

D. Complementation

Complementation refers to the situation where the speaker tries to make his/her utterance more specific, precise, clear and/or colloquial by inserting more elements into the original phrase or clause, at the beginning or end of the utterance. The important point is that original utterances without modifiers can stand by themselves without losing their essential meaning, but in class, teacher would like to complement students more information or explanation by self-initiation/self-repair.

In extract 7 above, teacher corrected 'bang wo yihui'r' to 'bang wo yixia', and then explained why 'yihui'r' could not follow 'bang'.

- T: bang wo yixia, nage shi yixia, bushi yihui'r yihui'r shi ge shijian duan
 help me one time DPN is one time not a little while 'yihui'r' is a time duration
 Help me. (We use) 'yixia' instead of 'yihui'r' which means a little while.

Extract 10 (self-initiation/self-repair)

- 01 S: gei
 give
 give.
 02→T: gei a women keyi shuo gei liwu shibushi gei liwu ((writing on board))
 give we can say give present right or not give present

We can say give present, right?

- 03 zhege gei zai zheli shi ge jieci. keyi shuo women keyi shuo songgei
 this give here is a prop. can say we can say give
 Here this 'gei' is a proposition, so we can say give...
- 04 zaijia yigeci song song shi ge dongci shiba ta jiushi ge jieci zaizheli
 add a word give give is a verb right it is a proposition here
 Add a verb 'give', there is 'give to'. 'gei (to)' is a proposition here.

A little difference here in extract 10, teacher's supplementation 'gei zai zheli shi ge jieci' was not correction, but an analysis for the class.

Extract 11 (*self-initiation/self-repair*)

- 01 T: shiyi dian, women keyi shuo shiyi dian duo, xianzai shiyi dian duo=
 11 o'clock we can say 11 o'clock more now 11 o'clock more
 11 o'clock, We can say more than 11. (e.g.) It is more than 11 now.
- 02 S: =suoyi keyi shuo xianzai shi shiyidian ban ma?
 so can say now is 11:30 QMP
 So, Can (we) say (it) is more than 11:30 now?
- 03→T: ye keyi, shiyidian ban duo ye keyi, jiushi sanshi duo fenzhong sishi lai fenzhong de
 also right 11:30 more also right just 30 more minutes 40 less minutes SP
 (We can say) more than 11:30 which means it is between 30 and 40 minutes.
- 04 yangzi, zhege duo women keyi yongzai shijian shang, biaoshi dagai de yige shijian.
 like this more we can use to time upper means probably SP a time
 This 'more than + time' means a period duration around this time quantum.

Here in this extract, teacher interpreted structure 'more than + time' with an additional category 'jiushi...'

E. Replacement

Replacement were found in two types: self-correction in extract 12 and reformulation in extract 13. Self-correction refers to the situation where replaces one item by another to make it correct. Here replacement is essential to the on-going communication, which depends on it to avoid misunderstanding.

Extract 12 (*self-initiation/self-repair*)

In class teacher and students were talking about the scenery characteristics in Taiyuan, Shanxi province. One student gave a description 'laode (old)' which was normally used for somebody, but she self-repaired to 'gulaode (age-old)' which was better use for something, even there was not much difference between these two words in English.

- S: shi zui laode, a: zui gulaode
 is most old most age-old
 (It) is the oldest, no, the most age-old.

Reformulation refers to the situation where the speaker on language structure by another to make if more appropriate.

Extract 13 (*other-initiation/self-repair*)

- 01 S: youdeshihou wanshang wo yihui'r kanshu
 sometimes night I a little while read
 Sometimes, I read now and then at night.
 (1.0)
- 02→T: youdeshihou kankan shu zhege ci yao=
 sometimes read book this word should
 Sometimes (I) read, (here) this word should...
- 03→S: =ao↑kan, kan yihui'r shu
 read read a little while
 Yes, read for a little while.
- 04 T: hao, yidingyao ba kanshu fenkai, youde shihou wanshang wo kan yihui'r shu
 very good should prep. read divided sometimes online I watch a little while
 Very good. Time should follow 'read', (We can say,) I read for a little while.

When the teacher found student's grammar mistake, she initiated a close classic question to help the student aware of this and repair herself. A good teacher always bring as far as possible initiative of students into full play, foster students' innovation sense and ability.

F. Comment

The repetition of the trouble source or partial repetition plus WH question word, clarification request, confirmation check, comprehension check, indicate that it can be treated as understanding problem, which means a lack of confidence in the hearer's understanding of the utterance or difficulty in understanding the relevance, clarity or certainty of the utterance in context.

Extract 14 (*self-initiation/self-repair*)

In class, one student told the teacher she liked to listen to the music while she was ready to sleep, the teacher meant to check if student has already got the use of 'yibian...yibian...' grammatical structure, then she asked the student first question in extract 14.

- 01 T: na wo keyi shuo ni yibian shuijiao yibian ting yingyue ma?
so I can say you as sleep as listen to music QMP
So, can I say, you listened to the music while I was sleeping?
(2.0)
- 02 T: bukeyi=
no
No
- 03 S: =yi bian
as
As
- 04→T: women buneng zheyang shuo, yinwei shuijiao jiushi biaooshi ni shuizhao le
we can't this say because sleeping just means you asleep TA
We can't say like that, because sleeping means you were already asleep.
- 05 shuizhao le jiu buneng zai ting yinyue le.
asleep TA then can't are listen to music SP
While you can't listen to the music at that time.

There was a 2.0-second silence between the teacher's interrogative utterance and her own answer, which lead to the inference that students might need more comment, then the teacher interpreted with a structure '...yinwei (because)...' (line4).

IV. CONCLUSION

Repair played an important role no matter in daily conversation or classroom teaching activities. The repair forms and functions were analyzed in class interaction with Chinese as a foreign language. While most of forms were teacher other-initiation/student self-repair, teacher self-initiation/teacher self-repair, or student self-initiation/student self-repair. High self-repair occurrence frequency would put some positive influence on class atmosphere according to the Levinson's theory of face threaten (1983), which was consistent with this study. The other-repair meant disagreement or denying to speaker's point, that's why it would lead to students' class anxiety and less self-confidence in foreign language learning. The self-repair would improve students monitor their own language output, which is a great opportunity for the foreign student second language acquisition (Heritage, 2011).

Secondly, the teachers in second language teaching class should successfully self-monitor their language output, which were major sources of comprehensible target language input for students (Pomerantz, 2000). The data we collected showed that most of trouble source appeared in teacher's self-initiation/self-repair were caused by a slip of the tongue, instead of real error corrections, which would affect the students enthusiasm and teaching quality. Therefore, the teachers should be required more accurate target language input by strong self-monitoring consciousness to reduce error output.

It was also found the Interrogative sentences, more than vocabulary or vocabulary ways (Schegloff, 2000), were used by students' self-initiation repair, which could be regarded as the signals sent to teacher for help. While other-initiation were mainly used by teacher with question sentence or interrogative repetition to make the trouble source easier to be identified. The high frequency of interrogative sentence, repetition or interrogative sentence plus repetition was used in this study to initiate the clarity of problem production which called attention to participants self-repair. The exclusion of communication problems sometimes needed to be initiated several times. In this case, multiple ways of initiation were better able to identify trouble source uttered to be repaired.

Concerned with repair functions, the analysis revealed the supplementation and comment were two ways favorite in Chinese as a foreign language class, which indicated the understanding problems were the main trouble source to block the successful spoken discourse. The problem of non-understanding and incomplete understanding were solved by immediate initiation and repair, but the problem of misunderstanding delayed the repair procedure and was treated retrospectively in a way similar to that of a production problem.

The most clearly observed limitation of this study was the limited amount of data examined for the analysis. Secondly, no attention has been made to examine the relationship between repair and the realization of language structure, which could provide fruitful results.

Finally, the framework developed from the data and used for analysis in every study is not perfect, so 'repair' is necessary (Li Yue'e, 1996).

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Junqing Wang is an assistant professor in the College of International Education and Communication, Shanxi University. Her research concerns structures and strategies of spoken discourse, conversation analysis, and cross-culture issues in language and discourse. She is currently doing research on conversation strategies between native-Chinese teacher and non-native-Chinese students in classes to ensure the pedagogical tasks to be accomplished efficiently.



Junli Wu is a teacher in No 59 middle school of Taiyuan City, China. She is a partner of Prof Junqing Wang's research in conversation analysis in classes with Chinese as a foreign language.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
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- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
 - Submission of extended version
 - Notification of acceptance
 - Final submission due
 - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
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- Preparing the “Call for Papers” to be included on the Journal’s Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
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