Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Oral Skill Development in Second Languages: A Review in Search of Best Practices

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Abstract—There are many avenues of research in the field of second language (L2) acquisition. One that continues to be of great importance to researchers but also teachers is the development of students' oral proficiency skills. Research regarding effective teaching and learning strategies to aid L2 oral development has garnered much attention, yet a clear set of "best practices" remains absent. In an attempt to bring to the forefront some effective strategies for L2 oral skill development, we undertook a review of the literature in the areas of oral proficiency, academic language development, and L2 teaching and learning strategies. As our review presents research findings from various contexts around the world, our aim is not to provide a one-size-fits-all approach to improving students' L2 oral proficiency but to share issues from research that can and do inform teaching practice. Practical suggestions for L2 teachers that are connected to the findings of research are offered throughout the paper.

Index Terms—oral skills development, second language pedagogy, oral proficiency, teacher preparation, second language teaching and learning strategies, communicative competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning to speak in a second language (L2) is often judged to be the most vital of the language skills. In fact, many L2 classes devote much of their time to developing students' oral proficiency. Despite this concentrated effort, a review of the literature in the area of L2 oral skill development reveals that a clearly defined set of best teacher practices does not exist. While researchers and educators tend to agree about some aspects of oral skill development (e.g., the requirement of L2 input), opinions regarding, for example, optimal teaching and assessment strategies differ. The purpose of this paper is to highlight several issues that are currently guiding research and practice in the area of L2 oral skill development; implications for classroom practice will be addressed as well. We begin with an explanation of oral proficiency and a brief overview of our current understanding of academic language development. We then share our methods for conducting this review of the literature. This is followed by a thematic description of research on effective teaching strategies. Our conclusion points to the need for educators to reflect on how classroom communication forwards L2 development.

II. DEFINING ORAL PROFICIENCY

What is oral proficiency? Fisk (1969) questioned whether it is the "ability to express one's thoughts, limited only by vocabulary and knowledge of [language] structure" or "merely the ability to imitate accurately the spoken sounds of the second language and to respond with an appropriate dialogue line if one is asked a familiar question" (p. 65). While decades have passed since her questioning, defining oral proficiency is not as simple as one might imagine. Bachman (1990), for example, proposed two main components to oral communicative competence: organizational and pragmatic. Organizational competence includes grammatical (e.g., vocabulary, morphology, syntax) and textual competence (e.g., discourse genres). Pragmatic competence is composed of illocutionary competence (e.g., requests, promises, offers), and sociolinguistic competence (e.g., sensitivity to language register, dialect). We take into account all these aspects – and consider context as suggested by Hymes' (1972) conceptualization of communicative competence – in our use of the term oral language development.

Teachers' conceptualization of L2 oral language development may be influenced by the theories presented above through their use of frameworks, curriculum documents and/or textbooks, even if they do not consult such theories directly. For example, in draft second language documents in Australia (Australia Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2012), developers have considered the importance of context by preparing students to speak in different contexts (e.g., making a purchase in a store). Whether teachers consult theory directly or turn to other resources that are grounded in theory to inform their practice, the development of length, breadth, spontaneity, and students' ability to engage in a range of topics underscores oral skill improvement as gained from the commonalities among definitions, frameworks, documents and texts.

III. ACADEMIC LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Beyond the definition of oral proficiency, when thinking about "best practices" for L2 oral language teaching, it is important to consider the classroom context. In immersion classroom contexts in particular, L2 learners need to go beyond conversational language; they must develop the language skills required for academic endeavors. Cummins (1980) uses the term "Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills" (BICS) to refer to the language required for basic oral communication and "Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency" (CALP) to refer to the language of schooling. In immersion classrooms, and in contexts where the L2 is the language of schooling, L2 students are required to not only learn the language of communication, but are also required to learn the subject under study. Making note of the importance of academic language development helps us to understand that academic oral language requires specific instructional strategies.

IV. METHODS OF OUR STUDY

Given the above conceptualizations of L2 oral proficiency and academic language development in a variety of contexts, we asked the following question: What does research reveal about how teachers can best support their students' acquisition of L2 speaking skills? In order to explore this question, we conducted a thorough literature search. We first turned to academic databases (e.g., JSTOR) to pull articles related to L2 oral language development. Key words used in our data base search included: *L2 oral skills, proficiency, teaching strategies*. Next, we used the list of key words to search the university library system and the Internet (using Google Scholar). We limited our search to the years 1998-2013 (and made a few exceptions to include a few seminal pieces of research). Next, we conducted a manual search and review of titles and abstracts in well-known academic journals in the areas of education, pedagogy, and applied linguistics (e.g., *The Canadian Modern Language Review, TESOL Quarterly*). Once resources were found, we read articles multiple times and organized the findings from the literature into themes as they emerged. The findings from our thematic analysis of the literature are presented below.

V. TEACHING STRATEGIES

What strategies are the most effective for developing oral language skills? On the one hand, research in the area of oral skill development for L2 learners is varied and plentiful (e.g., see literature in the area of corrective feedback which is discussed below). On the other hand, the varied nature of research contexts, research participants, and research methods has resulted in a large number of suggestions for "best" teaching strategies to assist learners in their L2 oral skill development. We do not intend for this section of our paper to be exhaustive, but our goal is to explain some of the practices that have been shown to be successful and that continue to gain interest in both research and practice. We limit our discussion to the following strategies: explicit teaching, scaffolding, providing authentic encounters, planned and spontaneous presentations, task planning, fluency activities, questioning, role-play, and assessment and feedback.

A. Explicit Teaching

Explicit teaching has the potential to enhance accuracy and expand the range of topics with which our students can engage. Goldenberg's (2008) summary of the key findings of research from the National Literacy Panel and the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (both in the United States) revealed that explicit teaching of the components of an L2 (e.g., syntax, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and use) is necessary and learners must be provided with a multitude of opportunities for meaningful engagement with the L2.

Researchers agree that a combination of explicit teaching plus opportunities for meaningful and authentic communication helps promote L2 production (e.g., Spada & Lightbrown, 2008). Gibbons (2007) reviewed research in L2 acquisition and systemic functional linguistics and, in particular, explored how classroom discourse mediates academic language learning in the ESL context. She summarizes that language learning does not occur with mere exposure to the L2 in a mainstream classroom. Instead, if subject teaching is planned, specific contexts to develop academic language will be provided (Gibbons, 2007). Researchers conclude that classroom discourse needs to include both general discourse and discipline-specific discourse.

Koike and Pearson (2005) studied the effectiveness of teaching pragmatic information through explicit and implicit instruction for English-speaking learners in a Spanish class. Data was collected from pre-, post- and delayed posttests with comparison groups. Results revealed that the students who received explicit instruction and feedback during exercises performed significantly better than those who did not.

In the Canadian French immersion context where there is a focus on academic L2 production, Lyster (2004) found that form-oriented instructional strategies were more effective than those focused solely on meaning.

Practical application of the above findings, then, requires explicit teaching for the purpose of communication within a specific context. For example, when teaching students how to agree and disagree or express protest or ignorance, explicit teaching may come in the form of a chart (see Table 1), which provides language for different contexts:

TABLE I.
SAMPLE CHART THAT COULD BE USED IN TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO STATE THEIR OPINION

Express Agreement	Express Disagreement	Protest	Express Ignorance
Of course!	*I don't agree.*	*That is wrong.*	*I am not familiar with…* *I don't know about…*
You're right. *Oh yeah!* *Right on!*	*I don't think so.* *You what?*	*I am against…* *No way.* *You have got to be kidding.*	*Huh?*

B. Scaffolding

Scaffolding instruction is another common way to increase students' L2 oral skill development. Gibbons (2007) refers to scaffolding as "the means whereby a student is able to carry out a task that, alone, he or she would be unable to complete" (p. 703). She suggests that scaffolding is a temporary support that teachers use to help learners and as students show that they are able to produce the target language on their own, the scaffolded instruction is removed.

Scaffolding is beneficial for L2 learners because it involves helping learners "to do" something as well as helping them "to know *how* to do" (Gibbons, 2007, p. 703). Providing effective scaffolding allows teachers to maintain high expectations of learners while also guiding learners to complete tasks successfully. Scaffolding instruction integrates L2 instruction in content-area classes, which may enable L2 learners to demonstrate their knowledge without overly relying on L2 skills. Further, it can provide the learner with tools they need for learning both the L2 and specific subject-related content.

Ewald (2005) investigated student interaction during a formalized, but collaborative, assessment task involving 20 intermediate students of Spanish. Data was collected from students' recorded small-group quiz interactions, their graded written quizzes (which involved both comprehension and production tasks), and questionnaires that elicited information about their perspectives on the use of small-group quizzes. Findings revealed several instances of scaffolding (collaborative interaction) and private speech (self-directed utterances). Ewald's results showed that there was evidence of a high level of interaction among students, which often helped them to make discoveries and reach conclusions about the target language (e.g., grammar topics, test-taking strategies).

Donato (1994) designed a study to explore the ways in which L2 learners co-construct language learning experiences in a classroom setting. Students were observed as they completed a familiar task. In this study, the three learner participants collectively constructed a scaffold for one another's performance (p. 45). During their interaction, it was observed that the students provided guided scaffolded support. In fact, 32 cases of scaffolded help were noted in the one-hour task planning session that was observed in this study and 24 of these were observed during the task performance activity. The author concludes that collaborative tasks can result in scaffolded support among peers and benefit all learners in a group, not simply the individual who originally sought support.

As seen in the above examples, it is not always the teacher who provides scaffolding to support oral skills development. Providing opportunities for students to work together to complete joint production activities can offer occasions where students produce higher quality speech than they would have preparing on their own. Teachers can also provide linguistic scaffolding by modifying their language for example, and cultural scaffolding by encouraging use of students' prior knowledge of language (e.g., their L1).

C. Providing Authentic Encounters

Another teaching strategy that was found to be successful for L2 oral language development is to provide opportunities for students to engage in authentic oral encounters. Such opportunities are rare. August (as cited in Soto-Hinman, 2011) reports that L2 learners in the United States spend less than two percent of their school day developing their oral language skills. Further, rather than engaging L2 learners with academic topics or rigorous content, some teachers have lowered expectations (e.g., accepting one-word responses) (Gibbons, 2002). Similarly, Ernst-Slavit and Mason (2011) used ethnographic and sociolinguistic perspectives to examine the oral academic language used by L2 teachers during content area instruction (mathematics, social studies, language arts). Data was collected from classroom observations of five classes (in Grades 4 and 5) in three school districts, interviews with teachers, photographs, field notes and video and audio recordings. The researchers found that students did not have many opportunities to hear the specialized content language from their teachers during oral, content area instruction and, moreover, encountered a variety of linguistic terms (e.g., *homophones, idiomatic expressions*), which potentially hindered understanding (p. 433).

One practical way of encouraging students' development of their L2 is to provide them with multiple, complex opportunities to speak about academic topics throughout the school day (Soto-Hinman, 2011, p. 21). In order to judge the provision of such opportunities, teachers could monitor, and with appropriate permissions record, the learners' use of language over an identified period of time (e.g., at five minute intervals for a two-hour period). In doing so, they can reflect on their own instructional practices and how they may impact student achievement positively or negatively. Soto-Hinman (2011) found that participants (teachers, students, and administrators) are often surprised at how much talking the classroom teacher does, how much of the interaction in the class is lecture-based, even though the teacher's aim is to develop the learners' oral language.

D. Planned and Spontaneous Presentations

Providing students with opportunities for planned and spontaneous presentations is a practice that can be used to promote authentic encounters. Bunch (2009) summarizes that it is important for learners to grasp both the features of an L2 and the ways in which they can engage in classroom participation structures and routines. In addition to providing opportunities for students to develop their linguistic competence, the L2 learning environment should provide opportunities for interaction.

Bunch (2009) studied the challenges and opportunities for L2 learners during oral presentations in mainstream Grade 7 social studies classrooms. One of the tasks was an oral presentation on an assigned topic. The assignment required students to display their learning to their teacher for evaluation purposes while also considering the audience of real classmates who also doubled as a fictional historical audience (e.g., role-play). During such presentations students used presentational language and managed interpersonal interactions at the same time; this required them to maintain an extended discourse and respond to comments and interjections from the teacher. Among the various findings of this study, there was evidence that the L2 students actively participated in the group work and presentations, including when preparing the presentation, listening to the interaction during a presentation, and speaking during their own presentation.

Group presentations, Bunch (2009) says, are both supportive and challenging for students. When students prepare for and deliver oral presentations, they are given the opportunity for planned comprehensible output, which can aid L2 acquisition (see Swain, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). These presentations highlight academic language challenges, acknowledge opportunities for language development that come with these challenges, and predict the supports that might assist with overcoming challenges without eliminating opportunities (Bunch, 2009, p. 81). The language used in oral presentations may also increase the challenge for L2 learners. During oral presentations students are expected to use a "presentational mode" (p. 82) where others are left to interpret and negotiate the meaning of messages. This is in contrast to "interpersonal mode" (p. 82) where students can adjust and clarify their speech as needed while participants monitor one another to verify how meanings are being communicated.

Other researchers have also confirmed the importance of providing opportunities for communication. Coleman and Goldenberg (2009) argue that L2 learners must be given opportunities to use the target language for authentic and functional purposes. Higher levels of proficiency can only be attained through extensive language production and comprehension activities. In order to increase learners' L2 development, students need to interact with teachers and peers in both structured practice situations as well as in spontaneous conversation.

When applying these lessons to our teaching, it would be ideal to offer opportunities where our students complete tasks that require both preparation and spontaneous oral production. A jigsaw activity, where students read and prepare to share of their learning prior to sharing with a group who has not done the same preparation, is an example of a strategy that offers both planned and spontaneous interaction. A mock court proceeding is another example where within a team (crown or defense) students could prepare while responding spontaneously in inter-team interactions.

E. Task Planning

Planning for a task can promote L2 oral development as research has shown that some of the benefits of planned speech come at the actual task planning stage. In a pre-task planning, students are given a limited amount of time (e.g., 10 minutes) prior to completing a task (e.g., a decision-making task, a narrative task) (see Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kobayashi, 2003). Ortega (1999) investigated whether or not planning opportunities resulted in an increased level of focus on form for Spanish as an L2 students (n=64). Students' self-reports indicated that planning can strongly benefit their lexical retrieval process and lexical choices.

Ellis (2009) writes that task planning can have a beneficial impact on the fluency, complexity and accuracy of L2 performance. Rehearsal, for example, gives learners an opportunity to perform the task before the main performance. Rehearsal can be beneficial for oral development because it is thought that if a person performs a task once, this could provide him/her with some planning for performing the task a second time. Strategic planning allows learners to prepare the task while they will need to predetermine the content and how to express the content. Strategic planning can have a positive effect on oral fluency and can lead to the production of more complex language.

Providing students for opportunities to plan together and rehearse are strategies that are easily applied to the L2 class. Teachers may also consider having students record their rehearsal so that they can listen, evaluate and improve before their public sharing.

F. Fluency Activities

Benefits that come with task planning and rehearsing may include fluency improvement. Based on work by Skehan and Foster (1999), Ellis (2009) suggests that fluency can be defined as "the capacity to use language in real time, to emphasize meanings, possibly drawing on more lexicalized systems" (p. 475). As with scaffolding instruction and other methods of promotion of L2 oral development, assessing learners' starting point in oral fluency should be the first step in planning appropriate instruction to suit learners' needs. For example, a checklist could be used to rate learners' pause length, frequency, and speech rate for various oral tasks (e.g., monologues, dialogues, structured and unstructured tasks).

In their review of oral fluency activities and literature, Rossiter, Derwing, Manimtim, and Thomson (2010) summarize three types of oral fluency activities: (a) conscious-raising tasks, (b) rehearsal or repetition tasks, and (c) imposition of time constraints.

Consciousness-raising activities raise learners' awareness of fluency features. For example, instructors can record students' speech acts and then have students analyze their performance, making note of identified criteria which impacts fluency (e.g., their use of filler words such as "um"). Boers, Eyckmans, Kappel, Stengers, & Demecheleer's (2006) conducted a small-scale study of L2 learners' use of formulaic sentences and the extent to which they can help learners' development of oral proficiency. Participants were divided into two groups: (a) a control group who were exposed to audio, video, and textual language material and language was analyzed in a traditional way (emphasis on grammar and vocabulary); and (b) the experimental group who were exposed to the same material but were made aware of formulaic sequences. Pre- and post-interviews were conducted to judge students' oral proficiency before and after instruction. It was found that the experimental group was perceived as more proficient than the control group and, in fact, produced a greater number of formulaic sequences (e.g., standardized phrases such as idiomatic expressions). The researchers concluded that the use of formulaic sequences can help language learners come across as proficient L2 speakers in an interview and an instruction method that raises awareness of these sequences can benefit the way students' proficiency is evaluated by others.

Rehearsal or repetition activities can improve L2 fluency as learners gain familiarity with the language through repetitive tasks. Giving a poster presentation, for example, allows students to rehearse and repeat oral language as the speaker shares information about a topic (outlined on the poster) with people (peers, teachers) who "visit" the speaker at the board. Students can engage in oral interaction through a question and answer exchange. A study relevant to the issue of repetition and oral production is one conducted by Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, and Fernandez-Garcia (1999) who set out to understand how Spanish L2 learners use their knowledge of the L2 in oral production and whether task repletion, in particular, resulted in more accurate or sophisticated language use. In this comparative study, groups of participants (n=103) watched a silent video segment while they simultaneously recorded their own on-line version in the L2. Over the course of a few days – or up to 2 weeks – two experimental groups watched the video four times and the control group watched it twice. The first experimental group watched the same video three times and a different video for the fourth viewing. The second group watched a different video each of the four times. The control group saw the video only at the first and fourth viewing. Analysis of the results of L2 learners' oral production, show that, in general, the repetition of task resulted in improvement in students' overall proficiency, accuracy in morphosyntax, and greater lexical sophistication.

Imposing time constraints is another method of increasing L2 oral fluency. Nation (1989) describes the 4/3/2 technique whereby a learner spends several minutes mentally preparing to talk on a topic, then is asked to prepare the talk for a classmate for 4 minutes. The speaker is then required to give the same talk to a different classmate in a 3-minute time period. Finally, the speaker is paired with a third classmate and his/her talk must remain within a 2-minute period. In doing this type of activity, learners gain confidence and can access language more easily at each talking instance. In Nation's study of advanced adult L2 learners' speaking performance using the 4/3/2 approach, the rate of learners' speech increased over time as they repeatedly gave a talk over increasing time constraints. In addition, the number of false starts, hesitations, and repeated words decreased. It was found that with each repetition of the speech, the learners' confidence increased and they had easier access to the appropriate language required to fulfill the task.

G. Questioning

Questioning has been shown to be another common strategy used in L2 classrooms to develop students' oral proficiency. It may even be the most common strategy to engage with L2 students (Zwiers, 2007). Kao, Carkin, and Hsu (2011) examined teachers' questioning techniques in a three-week intensive drama-oriented L2 course where data were collected in the form of audio and video recorded classroom observations. As well, students' oral proficiency was measured using pre- and post- language standard proficiency tests. It was found that teachers used questions (e.g., confirming and clarifying questions) to gather new information from students, to contribute to the content of the drama scenes, or to remodel students' inaudible or grammatically incorrect utterances. Analysis of the oral tests showed that students had produced significantly more words and communication units; further, the mean length of communication unit was significantly longer in the post-test. The researchers concluded that through appropriate questioning techniques, low-level L2 learners can carry out natural interaction in an L2 classroom.

Collins, Stead, and Woolfrey (2004) use questioning as one way of encouraging interaction in intensive French classes. A daily routine in the intensive French class, for example, may include the teacher modeling questions and answers about the date, weather, seasons, etc., at the initial stage, and then the students take the lead role, asking questions and interacting with other students in the class. The authors write that this type of interactive routine provides students with a language repertoire that they can begin to use automatically which gives them a feeling that they can converse in French. Further, eventually and gradually, students can produce the learned expressions spontaneously.

When teachers implement a questioning approach, Soto-Hinman (2011) warns that it is important that questions elicit language which requires elaboration rather than simply one-word responses. If open-ended questions are used, then students have multiple ways to enter into, and extend, a conversation. When students are asked a question, they should be encouraged to elaborate on them. When students are not aware of how to elaborate, teachers should guide students as to why and how to elaborate.

H. Role-play

Role-play gives learners an opportunity to act in life-like situations so that they can learn, for example, conversational linguistic and behavioural structures for particular situations (New Brunswick Department of Education, 1996). Several researchers have noted the importance of role-plays for the development of L2 oral proficiency. For instance, Guilfoyle and Mistry (2012) investigated the effectiveness of role-play in supporting oral skill development of beginner learners of an L2. Data were collected via teacher questionnaires and interviews as well as observations of four learners over a 1-month period. Findings from this study showed that students demonstrated an improved use of the L2 and a wide range of language learning strategies as well as a decreased use of their home language when engaged in role-play activities.

In Sasaki's (1998) comparison of the use of a written production questionnaire and oral role-play in an L2, students orally responded to four request and four refusal situations (e.g., ask for a pen, ask for a long interview, refuse coffee offer, refuse party invitation). Analysis of L2 learners' response length, range and content of expressions, and native speaker evaluations of these responses revealed that role-plays resulted in longer responses and students' use of a greater number of diverse strategies than production questionnaires.

Dicks and LeBlanc (2005) offer a practical means for L2 teachers to easily use role-play in their classes. They suggest that teachers brainstorm a context and accompanying themes and topics with their students. The students would then identify activities that take place in the chosen context, choose characters and create scenarios. This process is especially feasible due to the opportunity to use it several times throughout a course.

I. Assessment and Feedback

The quality and type of assessment and feedback provided to L2 learners plays an important role in learners' oral language development. Corrective feedback emphasizes both the negative and positive evidence in students' L2 development (Lyster & Saito, 2010). Lyster and Ranta (1997) studied corrective feedback and students' responses to such feedback in junior level (Grades 4 and 5) French immersion classrooms. Data was collected in the form of audio-recordings (which were later transcribed) of classroom interaction in content-area and French language arts lessons. The researchers found that although the four teacher participants in the study implemented six types of feedback strategies four – elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition – were the most likely to elicit student-generated repair (i.e., "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn") (p. 49). Explicit correction led to student-repair only 50% of the time while recasts, although used often by the four teachers in this study, proved to be the least likely to lead to any type of student-repair. The most successful technique for this is elicitation. That is, all utterances following elicitation feedback involved student-repair.

Gibbons (2003) examined how two teachers, through their interaction with students of English as an L2, mediated students' English skills and their subject matter (science) in a content-based classroom. The data sources, drawn from a larger study involving 9- and 10-year olds (n=60) in an Australian school where 92% of the students in the school were from language backgrounds other than English, included audio recordings and transcriptions of 14 hours of classroom discourse, printed classroom work (i.e., posters, children's work, charts), field notes, and interviews with teachers and students. She concludes that teachers can successfully mediate language in several ways: (a) recasting (where a L2 speaker's utterances are reformulated at the level of morphology or syntax or where a teacher rewords any piece of a student's meaning in a more appropriate way); (b) signaling to students how they can self-reformulate (where a teacher signals a need for clarification, teacher may offer a recoded version of the student's expression once he/she has had sufficient opportunity to self-correct); and (c) modeling alternative ways of recontextualizing personal knowledge (Gibbons, 2003, p. 258, 267).

In practical terms, when interacting with L2 students on a one-on-one or small group basis, teachers can rephrase a student's incorrect oral response and prompt him/her to offer an improved version. The use of audio or video recordings of students' oral (formal) presentations may guide teachers' use of feedback strategies. Listening to recordings or watching videos alongside students can provide opportunities for teachers to explicitly correct L2 learners as well as raise their awareness of their own oral skill development. In implementing corrective feedback, it is important for teachers to use strategies that suit the needs and goals of their learners.

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to review findings from recent research about L2 oral development. The teaching strategies outlined here were those that emerged as themes in the literature. These strategies are not listed to suggest a "one size fits all" approach. Instead, these strategies are to be implemented with careful consideration of context. It is useful to highlight that the instructional approach that teachers adopt has an impact on the quality and effectiveness of the learning context for L2 learners (Gibbons, 2007). Educators should reflect on the nature of classroom communication and how it "cultivates or hinders the growth of thinking and language" (Zwiers, 2007, p. 113). When educators have a solid understanding of both L2 theory and how it informs practice, they will be able to better meet the needs of L2 learners in language-specific classes as well as in mainstream content classes.

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Enhancing Linguistic and Cultural Proficiency through Chinese Children's Literature

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Abstract—This paper addresses the issue of selecting high-quality materials for teaching Chinese to non-native-speaker students. The paper argues that the unique nature of literary texts for children and adolescents written in simple and standard language reflecting the rich social fabric of China make them valuable materials for teaching foreign learners of the modern Chinese language. The special value of these materials to non-native learners lies not only in their linguistic aptness, but also in their informative connection between the modern Chinese language and the history and culture of China. The paper demonstrates how to effectively use these materials in a cooperative Chinese language classroom.

Index Terms—Chinese teaching materials, Chinese children's literature, linguistic skills, cultural awareness, cooperative learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The Australian Government's White Paper, *Australia in the Asian Century*, points out that Australia's future prosperity will be built on its Asia-relevant strengths and capabilities. The Prime Minister, Julia Gillard, calls "on all of us to play our part in becoming a more Asia-literate and Asia-capable nation" (Australian Government *White Paper*, 2012). Over the last few decades, Chinese language has been given a high priority by decision-makers within Australian universities. This increased interest in Chinese has undoubtedly been driven by the view that the vitality of Australian economy, and indeed, that of the world economy, depends on broadening our understanding of Chinese society and its language. Thus, student enrolment in Chinese has increased greatly (Fang, 2012). This great achievement is somewhat negated, however, by the emergence of a number of significant problems and challenges, one of which is the scarcity of high-quality materials for teaching Chinese to non-native speaker students (Huang, Xu & Liu, 2011). Another problem identified by Lo Bianco (2011) is that "Constantly hitching language teaching to trade statistics" has resulted in "an almost absence of a rationale… for substantive educational, intellectual and cultural reasons" (p. xv). Indeed, it is difficult to separate communication from other goals, such as socio-cultural awareness.

Language cannot be removed from cultural and historical contexts. Thus, language teaching resources ought to reflect the fact that language is the carrier of culture, and that the cultural context gives language meaning (Farquhar & Cao, 1995). Kramsch (1994) points out that, "As language teachers are encouraged to help their students not only to read texts for information, but to interpret them for their many layers of meaning, it would seem natural to draw on literature as a means of language teaching" (p. 7). The problem with Chinese language teaching is that, traditionally, literature textbooks use texts selected for their aesthetic and literary values. More advanced students often feel frustrated because, after years of being taught in functional approaches, they are confronted with texts in which authors do not follow the routine of using grammatical and lexical rules in an orderly sequence. This paper argues that, given the proper selection of literary works, for length, difficulty, student interest, and appropriateness, Chinese children's literature – with its unique nature of standard language and realistic themes reflecting Chinese society – can be a very effective tool in improving communicative competence in Chinese language learning.

II. LANGUAGE REFORM AND MODERN CHINESE CHILDREN'S LITERATURE

The language reform in the early twentieth century from the classical Chinese written language (*wenyan*) was vital for the emergence of modern Chinese children's literature. Traditional Chinese education had preserved the form of Confucian writings as well as their content (Bi, 2012a). The classics were written in an abbreviated style and used a different syntax and vocabulary from those of the spoken language. Written language was developed through its use in political and administrative documents and historical writings, but it retained its abbreviated form and special structure and so, as time went on, it became far removed from the living spoken language. Traditional education in China required not only the memorising of thousands of characters, but also the knowledge of the classical written language and its special forms of expression. Because of its independence from everyday speech, its demanding nature, and also because of the authoritarian and uncritical way in which literacy is imparted through rote learning, teachers of classical

literary written language encourage copying and repeating what has been written before (Bi, 2012a). However, as classical Chinese prefers implied to explicit meanings, grammatical relations between words and phrases are often left to the reader's intuition. The classical writing is thus intended to be read by readers who are in tune with the writer, sharing enough experience and assumptions to be able to understand the author's meaning without clues (Bi, 2012a).

In the early twentieth century, Hu Shi (1891–1962) provided a very concrete strategy for language reform which was a resounding success. De Francis claims that the victory of Hu Shi's vernacular movement was made possible "by its identification with the cause of Chinese nationalism" (De Francis, 1950, p. 11). After the outbreak of the demonstrations on May 4th 1919, the vernacular language came to be used in all the new literary journals; thus, it spread rapidly, with over four hundred newspapers and journals appeared within a short time, all using the vernacular. In this way, the new writing became a tool and a symbol for the new nationalism. In 1921, the Education Ministry was compelled to decree the introduction of textbooks for the primary schools in the new writing, and in 1922 this decree was extended to secondary schools. From that time on, the new writing became the vehicle of Chinese education and book publishers began to accept it as "the national language" (Michael & Taylor, 1964, p. 231). Furthermore, as predicted by Hu Shi, the vernacular movement culminated in "a literary flowering that was one of the most creative and brilliant episodes" in the history of Chinese literature (Goldman, 1977, p. i).

Modern Chinese children's literature, as an independent and identifiable branch of literature in the new vernacular language, emerged from the May Fourth New Culture Movement. When China faced a national predicament, children represented a new vigour for a revitalised young China. Indeed, O'Sullivan (2005) has found that the educational status of children's literature is particularly high at times when there are new values to be conveyed in societies in a phase of transition from tradition to modernity. Modern Chinese children's literature, commencing from its "infancy", is closely and intricately related to political themes and nationalist sentiments, thus making it valuable and informative for foreign learners of the modern Chinese language and culture.

III. Suggestions for Teaching and Learning

Although enhancing linguistic and cultural proficiency through Chinese children's literary texts is usually placed at the advanced level in the third year, linguistic simplicity is still the main criterion for selecting a text for foreign language students. A linguistically easy text is still able to present a narrative sophistication that arouses students' aesthetic and cultural curiosity and lead to sophisticated communicative interactive activities in classrooms. In order to prevent class activities from meandering into vague generalities that have nothing to do with the text, the teacher needs to identify the main textual features and choose relevant focus points, which may pertain to both the story level and historical and cultural contexts. The teacher needs to plan what classroom format best suits teaching the text and what activities relevant to the main points stimulates learning: whole class discussion, group discussion and presentation, role-play, pair work or individual student reports.

It is essential to explain to students the difference between reading for information, reading for aesthetic purpose and reading for understanding history and culture. For the purpose of obtaining information, the reader must go back and forth to check new information against the old, skimming and scanning the text for relevant contents. For the purposes of aesthetics and understanding history and culture, the reader must pause to think, letting their minds make associations, evoke previous texts, and assess the effect of the choice of words and phrases by the author (Kramsch, 1994). It is also essential to tell students exactly what is expected of them when assigning them a text to read at home. Often, the expectations are three-fold: first, at the linguistic level, students are expected to grasp what the text is about; secondly, at the narrative level, students are expected to understand why events and actions take place in the story; and thirdly, at the level of historical and cultural contexts, students are expected to explore how the text expresses the intent of the author and the significance of the text.

At the linguistic level, it is beneficial to have the whole class in an activity in which the teacher starts with reciting the first part of the text or paraphrasing the beginning of the story. Then the teacher can assign some students to read the rest of the text aloud, passage after passage. The teacher should then read aloud the whole text, stopping after some words and phrases to encourage students to interpolate possible meanings, associations, comments or questions.

Once the syntax and vocabulary are clarified, the whole class can be divided in groups for the next level, looking at the narrative. There are many classroom activities to facilitate cooperative group work among students, so that communicative use of the target language can be promoted in a stimulating environment. The purpose of these activities is to help students understand the events in the story and to encourage them to use the target language to solve assigned problems through meaningful communication. The most effective activities include dramatisation, expansion and improvisation of the story. The process of the group activities is more important than the end product. At the end, each group delivers its presentation, which can be a report or a small drama, to the whole class.

At the level of historical and cultural contexts, writing as a collaborative activity can be effective. Although many people like writing on their own, in language class, students can take advantage of the knowledge of their peers and the teacher. It is challenging for students, because they need organise their abstract thought in the target language, relying on their critical thinking abilities, to engage in analysis and argument. Writing in groups can be greatly motivating to students for research, discussion and peer evaluation. The teacher should always be ready to provide help in terms of information and vocabulary, as well as suggestions in a constructive and tactful way. The end product can be a co-

authored paper from the group to be delivered at the whole class "conference", or an individual student's essay based on the group draft but completed at home by individual students, to be published in an online "journal".

It is important that the teacher should be flexible and ready to switch lesson plan if students arrive unprepared. For example, giving them ten minutes to read portion of the text silently in class or selecting a section to read together intensively would be better than starting with half of the class having not read the text at all. Some strategies for encouraging cooperative learning of Chinese embrace: (1) Ensuring that all learners understand that the classroom is a welcoming setting where all ideas are appreciated, and everyone is encouraged to contribute; (2) Making it unmistakable that it is the teacher's expectation that all learners will take part in discussions; (3) Using examples to show why group work is essential to learning development and providing students with a motivation to work together; (4) Telling students that the teacher does not always expect a perfect response, and that making mistakes is a part of learning process; and (5) Explaining that disagreement among students is normal in group work (Fang, 2012).

IV. EXAMPLE: YE SHENGTAO'S SCARECROW

Ye Shengtao's "*Daocao ren* [Scarecrow]" (1923) was the first major work of modern Chinese children's literature. This work depicts the scarecrow as a creature with human motivations and the ability to reason.

A. Story Introduction

The teacher starts with reciting the first part of the text:

田野里白天的风景和情形，有诗人 把它写成美妙的诗，有画家把它画成生动的画。到了夜间，诗人喝了酒，有些醉了，画家呢，正在抱着精致乐器低低地唱，都没有功夫到田野里来。那么，还有谁把田野里夜间的风景和情形告诉人们呢？有，还有，就是稻草人。

(The following English translation is adapted from Farquhar, 1999.)

The rural sceneries and occurrences in the fields by day have been described by poets in beautiful poems and painted by artists in lively pictures. At night, poets become a bit tipsy after drinking and artists, with exquisite musical instruments in arms, enjoy humming softly. None of them have time to spare for the fields. Is there anyone capable of telling what it is like in the fields and what really happens there at night? Yes, there is the scarecrow.

B. Story Development

The teacher goes through the story with the whole class, helping students understand the three women whose lives provide the story's narrative content. In the first account, the victim was an elderly peasant widow. Her husband died eight years ago. It took her and her son three years of hard labour to pay off the funeral debt. Misfortune hit her again. Her son died of illness too. It took her another three years to pay the expense of her son's funeral. Floods in the following two years caused further agony. For the first time in eight years, there seemed to be some hope for her to improve her living; however, insects started to attack her crops. The scarecrow wanted to drive the insects away but the breeze that came from the scarecrow's shabby fan was not strong enough.

The second account is of a fisherwoman, who was unable to look after her sick son, because she had to catch fish to make a living. While sitting by the river, she fell asleep from exhaustion. The scarecrow wanted to sacrifice itself as firewood so she could make some hot tea for the thirsty sick child, or be used as a quilt to bring some warmth to the shivering child, but he couldn't.

The third victim of the night was a woman walking into the river to drown herself, leaving her child behind, because she didn't want her husband, who was an alcoholic and an addicted gambler, to sell her the next morning. The scarecrow waved his fan even harder, but again, in vain.

C. Structured Debate

The teacher should organise a debate. There are seven steps to help students to gain deep understanding of the significance in the historical context:

(1) The teacher should put on the board the question in Chinese: "稻草人的意义" (Significance of the Scarecrow): "In the early twentieth century, patriotism, in the modern sense of loving one's country, became closely linked to the exposure of social problems in literary production of China's May Fourth era. Do you agree or disagree? [in Chinese]"

(2) Students should be divided into two teams, a red team and a blue team. The red team is to argue for "agree" and the blue team for "disagree" (Fang, 2012).

(3) The teams should discuss in Chinese on how to form their arguments and list their reasons in Chinese characters on big sheets of paper. This step is the central stage of this activity and may last for up to 20 minutes (Fang, 2012).

(4) A row of desks should be placed across the classroom. The members of the same team sit on the same side, facing their opponents, thus forming debating pairs. The big sheets of paper with their arguing reasons are put on the walls, facing their producers (see Figure 1) (Fang, 2012).
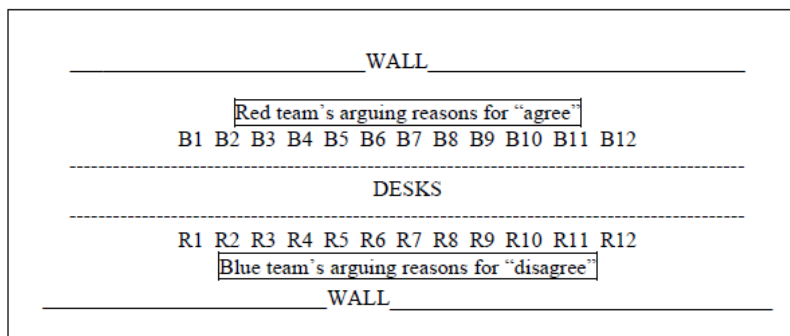
Figure 1. Classroom setting for debating (Fang, 2012).

(5) Students should shake hands and commence debate simultaneously, for 15 minutes. A lot of noise is generated in the room, as students become involved and generate a large amount of language use while deepening their understanding of various cultural characteristics (Fang, 2012).

(6) Students should come back to their teams to discuss how to improve their arguments. This lasts 10 minutes (Fang, 2012).

(7) The teacher should then instruct the two teams to swap the arguments. The red team is now arguing for "disagree" and the blue team arguing for "agree". Students are also instructed to sit in their opponent's seats, facing the arguing reasons prepared by the other team in Chinese characters. This becomes more stimulating and motivating because the extra challenge demands reading ability and oral fluency concurrently. The simultaneous debate lasts another 15 minutes (Fang, 2012).

There are some important points. To avoid problems, clearly communicate to the students the debate rules that will guide the interaction: (1) Encourage all students to have input when forming argument; (2) Focus on the best choice of expressions in Chinese, not on "winning"; (3) Respect everyone's views, even if you do not agree; (4) Be critical of ideas, not people; and (5) Try to understand both sides of the debate (Fang, 2012). Finally, the teacher should ask their students to write up their views on the debate in Chinese and publish in an online "open access journal" as homework.

V. EXAMPLE: ZHANG TIANYI'S BIG LIN AND LITTLE LIN

Zhang Tianyi's (1906-1985) revolutionary fairytale *Dalin he Xiaolin* [Big Lin and Little Lin] (1932) consists of nineteen chapters totalling 151 pages. The teacher should assign a section of the story to a group for reading at home before class.

A. Story Introduction

The teacher starts by going through the first part with the whole class, which begins with an intimate connection with the Chinese agrarian milieu and the two main characters representing millions of Chinese rural children:

从前有一个很穷很穷的农人，和他的妻子住在乡下。他们都很老了，老得 连他们自己都说不上有多大岁数了。有一天， 他们忽然生了两个儿子。

(The following English translation is adapted from Farquhar, 1999.)

Once upon a time there was a very, very poor peasant, who lived with his wife in the countryside. They were both very old, so old that they even didn't remember how old they were. But, one day, all of a sudden they had two sons.

The twins are identical, but there is a fundamental distinction between them which is made clear shortly after their parents' deaths, ten years after they are born. When the two tired and hungry ten-year-old orphans lie down to have a rest on their way to make a living, Big Lin looked at their empty sacks and sighed,

"When I grow up, I'm going to be a rich man. Rich men have all the food and clothes they want and they needn't work."

Little Lin didn't agree, "but Dad said; 'Everyone has to work.'"

"That's because he was a poor man. Wealthy landlords needn't work. Dad used to say, 'It'd be nice if we had land!'"

"Mum and Dad were poor, but they were good people, not like those nasty mean wealthy landlords."

"But, wealthy people always have a good time. I want…"

Their argument is interrupted by a deafening voice: "What do I want? I want to eat you up!" It is the roar of a ghastly Ogre. To escape, the two boys have to run in two different directions, hence starting two different lives. Little Lin is captured by a Dog Gentleman and sold in his shop at an auction as a child labourer to Sisi Ge, a factory owner.

The setting now moves to a big city, paralleling Shanghai, which emerged in the 1930s as one of the major cities in the world, with a population of about 4 million, among which there were 50,000 foreigners, mostly British and Japanese. Here in Shanghai, the key to power was money. It is here that Big Lin's dream comes true. With the help of a very cunning Fox Gentleman, Big Lin becomes the adopted son of Mr Ba Ha, a childless wealthy man. The power of money in the fantasy world, just like in the real world of Shanghai in the 1930s, is fully displayed at the dinner party that Ba Ha throws to celebrate the arrival of the gift from the heaven – his adopted son. The dinner table is said to be about twenty

kilometres long, and the guests include all the rich people, important government officials, and upper classes and aristocracy. Even the Majesty King himself attends the party. The King is described as always taking Ba Ha's advice very seriously, that is, he basically accepts whatever Ba Ha says.)

B. Group Activities

The teacher divides the class into groups for drama work and improvisation of the following sections of the fairytale. They should then perform their works to the whole class.

(1) *The first group: Little Lin's Life in the Factory*

In his fairytale, Zhang Tianyi relentlessly expresses his concern with the plight of children working in this environment. Although Little Lin's daily routine of work in Sisi Ge's factory is presented in a romanticist exaggeration, the purpose is to demonstrate the reality of the child labourers' wretched life, as shown here in Sisi Ge's instruction to Little Lin on his first day in the factory. Sisi Ge's huge nose makes his speech echo, and it sounds like he stammers:

"You get up at 3.00am and bring my breakfast, bring my breakfast. Then you shave my beard, shave my beard. Then you go to work, go to work. Then you have a rest for a second, for a second. Then work again, work again. Then have another rest for a second, for a second. You go to sleep at 12.00 midnight, at 12.00 midnight. Then you get up at 3.00am and bring my breakfast, bring my breakfast. Then you shave my beard, shave my beard." (pp. 26-27)

Sisi Ge is depicted as someone with atrocious features, who has very fast growing green beard all over his face, which needs shaving daily, and a mammoth appetite that needs to be satisfied with a hundred eggs and a whole cow for breakfast. The whip in his hand symbolizes his tyranny. Sisi Ge uses the whip all the time to make his workers work harder and faster, and he never allows them even a momentary pause, such as even a yawn or a quick look around. After working in the factory for just a few days, Little Lin discovers the secret of how Sisi Ge has accumulated his massive wealth: his children workers vigorously stir black soil in a huge bucket for days, and the drops of their sweat turn into diamonds, each worth $100,000. Little Lin, as symbolic of the emerging proletariat, begins to question: "It is us who dig the soil, it is us who stir the soil, and it is our sweat that turns into diamonds! Why should Sisi Ge pocket all the money?" Little Lin organizes his first anti-capitalist activity – trying to sell *their own* diamonds on the streets in *their own* very inadequate sleeping time. He and his two fellow workers are arrested for "theft" and punished by a policeman who tickles their feet until their laughing becomes crying in the Foot-torture Department. This foot torture is worse than Sisi Ge's whipping, which they are already used to.

(2) *The second group: Little Lin's Struggle for Equality*

The struggle becomes militant when Little Lin and his friends discover another secret of Sisi Ge: the one hundred eggs that Sisi Ge eats each day for breakfast are actually transformed from children who, after working for him for a few years, are exhausted and feeble, and are no longer able to meet his demands. This horrible news spreads among children workers quickly, and they all become terrified. These poor children are forced to choose either to kill Sisi Ge or to wait to be turned into eggs and eaten. Little Lin organizes his second anti-capitalist activity – to kill Sisi Ge! This time, after careful planning, they succeed. As all the children in Sisi Ge's factory are singing and dancing, celebrating Sisi Ge's death, the door opens and, in comes another Sisi Ge, green-bearded with a whip in hand. The new Sisi Ge announces he is Sisi Ge Number Two, asserting that "there will be Sisi Ge Number Three, Number Three, if you kill me, kill me." His speech also echoes. The narrative here is designed to educate children that killing a cruel individual cannot solve problems that need a fundamental solution based on a thorough socio-political transformation. This point is made even clearer as Sisi Ge yells to the Ogre to come to the factory to suppress the insurrection and maintain order. The Ogre is portrayed as the tame servant of the rich, such as the treaty-port foreign capitalists and wealthy Chinese compradors in the real world. He doesn't need to turn poor people into eggs and then eat them. He eats them alive. On this occasion, when the children run for their life, he catches and eats the slow ones, including Little Lin's two best friends, who previously suffered through the foot torture incident together with Little Lin. A fast runner, Little Lin escapes again and eventually becomes a train driver and an activist in the Railway Workers Union.

(3) *The third group: Big Lin's Wedding and Honeymoon*

Ba Ha's good friend, Sisi Ge (Number One, before he is killed) is shown as very happy for Ba Ha's good luck: "Now you have a son, a son. I congratulate you, congratulate you." Ba Ha describes his friendship with Sisi Ge to Big Lin: "We are good friends, because we are both good men and we both love eating eggs. Yes, it is true that we both turn people into eggs, but those are bad people." Even the Ogre is extremely humble to Ba Ha. Big Lin, of course, is very scared, as the Ogre comes in, but soon becomes very fond of him.

It is true both in the land of fantasy and in the real world that when the poor are violent, the rich are frightened. The Ogre used to come to Ba Ha's house once a day to see if anything needed to be done or anyone needed to be eaten, but after Sisi Ge's death, he has to stay in the house to make sure the absolute security provided to the richest man in the world. The power of Ba Ha's money exemplifies, in a parodic exaggeration, snobbery and flattery around Big Lin's new parasitic life. He is described as growing so fat and so lazy that his servants have to help him to eat, to laugh and to cry. He has two hundred servants to take care of even the smallest detail of his life.

After numerous funny and absurd events presented in a flippant and satiric tone by the author, Big Lin eventually marries the ugly, but vain Princess of Rose. The couple are to arrive at a seaside resort for their honeymoon in a train driven by Little Lin, but the Railway Workers Union decides to be on strike when the King refuses to allow the train to carry four truckloads of grain to a famine area. This also means that the honeymooning couple are to leave behind the

bride's four truckloads of accessories, and she sobs and faints at this suggestion. This is the first time in the story that the power of Ba Ha's money fails: it cannot buy the union power. So they bring in their tame servant the Ogre again, but he pushes the train too hard and they all end up in the sea.

Big Lin drifts to Rich Man's Island where there are heaps of gold, diamonds, gems and lots of cash, but no servants, labourers or food. He dies. Facing waves of militant strikes, which demand an immediate release of Little Lin and other union leaders, the government officials sigh, "our good days are numbered." Sisi Ge Number Three – Sisi Ge Number Two has also been killed – adds "Before long, they will overthrow us and not let us be bosses, but before that happens, I am still the boss, and I'll make a day's profit for each passing day, for each passing day."

C. The Whole Class Conference

The whole class is divided into different panels with topics like "Attraction of revolution to Chinese working class in the first half of twentieth century"; "Appeals of Marxism and Leninism to Chinese intellectuals"; and "Zhang Tianyi's style of revolutionary fairytales". Students should be instructed to write an essay based on the group discussion to be delivered at the following week's "conference". To help students, the teacher should provide the following information and comments in Chinese:

Back from the fantasy land to the real world: there were indeed numerous strikes in Shanghai then – 120 in 1928; 111 in 1929; 82 in 1930; 145 in 1931; 104 in 1932; and 79 in 1933. Again both in the land of fantasy and in the real world, when workers are united, the bosses are blighted. But, as long as Sisi Ge Number Three tries to make a day's profit, he eats a hundred children-transformed eggs each day. The story presents a burning sense of urgency. Zhang Tianyi perceives Chinese society as an arena of conflict, clearly displayed in his story. Although the poor are easily identifiable as Chinese and most of their oppressors are foreigners, the conflict in *Big Lin and Little Lin* is not so much of a national struggle between Chinese and foreigners, but a clash between the poor and the rich. Zhang defines his characters solely in terms of the individual's socially meaningful acts and intentions: in other words, their class. They are compelled, as shown in the fairytale, to simply play the role that Marxist theory has cast them. As a consequence, their actions are dictated purely by Marxist social logic (Bi, 2012b).

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a learner's second language ability, at a relatively advanced level (third year and onwards), is understood to be "linguistically and culturally proficient", enabling learners to comprehend and express complicated and abstract ideas in the target language in a given context. This ability consists of knowledge and the capacity for excusing their competence in an appropriate and contextualised communicative language use. It is not just associated with grammatical aspects, but also with the ability to organise one's thoughts through the target language for both culturally-informed and context embedded language utilisation. In conclusion, this paper argues that, at a relatively advanced level in Chinese language instruction, the emphasis has to be placed on the socio-cultural dimension of appropriate language use and texts of children's literature for teaching and learning materials to be valuable and effective. This paper demonstrates some specific strategies to use these texts, including text familiarisation processes, story comprehension processes, theme discussion processes and thought expression processes. Through these stages, students use Chinese creatively through storytelling, debating, role-playing, dramatisation and improvisation of the story, as well as essay writing. All these tasks demand basic grammatical knowledge and vocabulary as well as socio-cultural and historical knowledge.

This paper concludes that culture should not be seen merely as information conveyed by the language, but as a core feature of the language itself, and cultural awareness, as an educational objective, should not be separated from language acquisition. Language should be seen as social practice, and cultural awareness should be viewed as enabling linguistic proficiency, as well as being the outcome of this proficiency. This paper further concludes that cooperative interaction is one of the most important human skills and verbal communication is the first step of such cooperative interaction. This paper points out that, in many Chinese language classrooms, the resource of the students themselves is seriously underutilised. This paper demonstrates how students can help, teach, motivate and encourage one another effectively through cooperative activities through meaningful communication in the target language. Most importantly, this paper shows that using Chinese children's literature to enhance students' linguistic and cultural proficiency through cooperative activities is an exciting endeavour. It also shows that language learning at the advanced level for the purpose of expressing complicated and abstract opinions can be made enjoyable and productive.

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A Corpus-based Study on Chinese EFL Learners' Use of Transitive Constructions with Neutral Participants

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Abstract—**Linguistic studies suggest that transitivity is a prototypical concept which is gradable, and different types of transitive constructions reflect different degrees of transitivity. As such, the flexibility of transitive constructions is difficult for Chinese EFL learners. The author seeks to study how Chinese EFL learners use a particular type of transitive construction, those with neutral participants (TCNP), to reveal Chinese EFL learners' conceptual features in using transitive constructions. The author selected three verbs in the study:** *enter, join* **and** *reach*, **then conducted a series of comparisons of their uses between a Chinese EFL learner corpus and a native learner. The author found that Chinese EFL learners' uses are different in a number of ways: they tend to rely more on the transitive pattern and use less intransitive and passive voice pattern, to use more animate entities as subjects, especially the first person pronouns, but to use more inanimate entities as objects. However, in the comparisons between different levels of Chinese EFL learners, we found that all Chinese EFL learners use these verbs similarly with no regard to their English levels, indicating that Chinese EFL learners have no conceptual change in English. The author argues that the constraining effect of the prototypical transitive construction leads to the different uses of TCNPs by Chinese EFL learners in comparison with native speakers.**

Index Terms—**neutral participants, transitivity, prototype, conceptualization, argument**

I. INTRODUCTION

The relationship between language and conceptualization has fascinated a number of scholars (Chomsky, 2005; Jackendoff, 1992; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999; Pinker, 2007; Putnam, 1979). It has been studied under various names such as language and mind, language and thought, language and cognition. Sapir (1921) and Benjamin (1956) argued that language shaped thought and that people who spoke different languages had different conceptual systems. Their ideas were later summarized as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis with two versions (Kay & Kempton, 1984). While the strong version of absolute linguistic determinism and relativism has been rejected, the soft version has been generally accepted.

The transitive construction is an appropriate case for the study of EFL learners' conceptual systems. Transitive constructions occupy an important place in language. Næss (2007, p. 2) said that transitivity "plays a central role in almost any linguistic theory, and is generally assumed to describe a language-universal phenomenon". The importance of transitivity is also recognized by Hopper and Thompson (1982), "In many languages (and perhaps covertly in all languages) the transitivity relationship lies at the explanatory core of most grammatical processes". The central place of transitive constructions in language is reflected by its links with other constructions in language such as intransitive constructions (Dilin, 2008), the passive voice (Shibatani, 2006), and ergative constructions (Legate, 2012).

It is one of the basic linguistic constructions, and encodes basic human experiences (Goldberg, 1995, 2006), and it is fundamental to human conceptualization of the relationship between human beings and the world. In fact, the relationship between human beings and objects serves as the image-schema for transitivity with human beings as the agent and objects as the patient (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999).

At the same time, transitive constructions prove problematic for EFL learners as most English verbs are not consistent in their usages regarding transitivity (Yuhara, 2011). The current research arises out of the author's general concern with EFL learners' acquisition of transitive constructions, how EFL learners conceptualize transitivity in a

foreign language, and how it is coded into transitive constructions. In the current research the author puts his focus on one special case of transitive constructions: those constructions that take neutral participants (TCNP), for example: *He reached school, we entered college.* The author seeks to study the use of English transitive constructions by Chinese EFL learners, aiming not only at identifying how they use transitive constructions in English, but also revealing the conceptual factors involved in their use of English transitive constructions.

This research aims to examine the use of TCNPs by Chinese EFL learners, and to discover the features in their conceptualization of transitivity. Specifically, there are four research question designed to guide the current research.

1). What are the similarities and differences in the use of TCNPs between Chinese EFL learners and NSs of English?

2). What do the results of RQ 1 reveal about Chinese EFL learners' conceptual features in their uses of transitive constructions?

3). What are the similarities and differences in the use of English TCNPs between different levels of Chinese EFL learners?

4). What do results of RQ 3 reveal about different levels of Chinese EFL learners' conceptual features in their uses of transitive constructions?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Transitivity is argued to be a prototypical concept in that it is degradable, and a construction can be more or less transitive (Hopper, 1985; Hopper & Thompson, 1980, 1982; Langacker, 1987, 2008; Næss, 2007; Rozwadowska, 1988). Prototypical transitivity is expressed with destruction verbs such as *kill*, which causes the loss of life. Næss(Næss, 2007) argue that prototypical transitivity represents maximal distinction between the agent and patient, which can be characterized with three values:

Volitional [VOL]: whether participants volitionally carry out the action.

Instigating [INST]: whether participants instigate the action;

Affected [AFF]: whether participants are affected as a result of the action.

TCNPs are transitive constructions with neutral participants as objects. A patient is affected in a prototypical transitive construction, but there are some cases where the direct object taken by a transitive verb is conceptualized as unaffected, and this lack of affectedness leads to the deviation from the prototype. This kind of object is named as "neutral" by Næss (2007), and it is characterized semantically as [-VOL, -INST, -AFF] in contrast to the prototypical patient characterized as [-VOL, -INST, +AFF]. As can be seen, the only difference between them is whether they are conceptualized as affected or not.

Most neutrals are locations or settings which are conceptualized as participants and take the position of the object in a clause. Langacker (2008) argued that in a canonical transitive event, participants acquired the position of trajector and landmark (focal participants in an event as the primary and secondary focus), while locations and settings are the stage for the event to take place, playing the role of conceptual scope. But when the conceptual scope itself acquires the status of conceptual content, the conceptualization of transitivity deviates from the prototype with the settings being the landmark and the relationship between that of trajector and landmark in transitivity are in essence that between a participant and a setting. In a "archetypal conception" of transitivity, "participants interact with one another but merely occupy locations and settings" (Langacker, 2008, pp. 387-388). But in this deviation, settings are viewed as participants, a different conceptualization from ordinary situations. Langacker gave the following examples (p. 387):

a) *The envelope contained his will.*

b) *The lecturer finally reached the end.*

c) *The train is approaching Chicago.*

In all three sentences above, location is one of the focal elements, namely the landmark, which differs from a prototypical transitive construction in which locations are usually encoded as oblique elements in a sentence, for example, a prepositional phrase. However, they are not affected even though they are landmarks in transitive constructions. Neutrality is a property of participants in an event which is "not directly involved with the event either in terms of participating in its instigation or in registering its effect" (Næss, 2007, p. 102). Their deviation has impact on their syntactic behaviors, i.e., they cannot be passivized.

There are some verbs in English, which can take either a direct object or an oblique element, for example (taken from SUBWECCL),

a) *You are facing challenges every day.*

b) *Many people are facing with the problem of losing job.*

The syntactic difference between the two sentences above implies a difference in conceptualization. It should be noted that the feature of "affectedness" is subjective and gradable; therefore, it is subject to speakers' conceptualization. In the case of Chinese EFL learners, it is subject to them determining whether a patient is affected or not. Mental activities are all unconscious, and the purpose of this research is to reveal those unconscious activities in mind at least in part.

The different usage of "*face*" implies how Chinese EFL learners determine the degree of neutrality of the participants. When "*problem*" is conceptualized as more neutral, it is encoded into an oblique element, i.e., it is conceptualized as not interactive with other participants of the event, and "*problem*" comes as unexpected to the subject without the subject's awareness. This conceptualization conforms to the definition of neutrality, which is "the only category which is entirely

negatively defined; the only thing its members have in common is being neither volitional, nor instigating, nor significantly affected" (Næss, 2007, p. 106).

The words selected for concordancing are: *enter, join, reach.* They are used frequently both by native speakers and Chinese EFL learners, therefore.

III. MATERIALS AND METHOD

A. Corpus-based Method

As the present study is focused on the learners' conceptualization of transitivity, which is revealed in their linguistic productions, the author relies on the data from corpora to induce the conceptualization of transitivity by EFL learners. A comparison of different uses of TCNPs between a native speaker corpus and a Chinese EFL learner corpus, and between different levels of Chinese EFL learners will be performed to identify the conceptual similarities and differences.

Cognitive linguistics assumes an empiricist view committed to generalization, as Lakoff (1990, p. 53) stated, "a commitment to characterize the general principles governing all aspects of human language". Goldberg (2006) is especially concerned with how constructions are created as a result of generalization. In line with this empirical spirit, there are many studies done with a different methodology from mainstream generative linguistics, as Tries (2006, p. 3) observed. When compared to a large body of research in other paradigms within 20th century mainstream theoretical linguistics, much work within cognitive linguistics has already adopted a much broader and more balanced empirical perspective, one that does not rely solely on acceptability judgments of isolated or made-up sentences but also incorporates many other kinds of evidence. Although cognitive linguistics and generative linguistics are similar in their interest in the study of human mind, their views are different, and are often contradictory to each other at the most fundamental level of metaphysics and epistemology. Little wonder then that the methodologies they employ are different.

One problem in current EFL research is that most studies are done in a strictly controlled setting, with a limited number of participants; as a consequence, considering the complexity of reality, such research is limited in generalizability. Gass & Selinker (2008) called attention to this problem, "It is difficult to know with any degree of certainty whether the results obtained are applicable only to the one or two subjects studied, or whether they are indeed characteristic of a wide range of subjects (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 55). Ellis (2008, pp. 912-913) generalized three kinds of language-use data including naturally occurring samples, clinically elicited data and experimentally elicited data. Learner corpora are one kind of naturally occurring samples. As Granger (2009, p. 14) defined, they are "electronic collections of foreign or second language learner texts assembled according to explicit design criteria." Corpus–based research has a higher generalizability than clinically or experimentally elicited data because of its relatively large usage data and its natural usage environment. Granger (2009, p. 16) noted that "One of the main assets of learner corpus research is that it brings to the SLA field a much wider empirical basis than has ever previously been available."

B. The Learner Corpus

Transitivity, as a phenomenon of conceptualization rather than real events in the world, is expected to be encoded into linguistic forms for EFL learners and NSs. Both differences and similarities are expected. The different usages of EFL learners are not to be seen as errors in the current research, but indicating their conceptualizations which are different from those of NSs. To achieve the objectives of the current research, a native speaker corpus is required. A corpus is an inventory of usage events, and to compare an NNS corpus to an NS corpus can identify not only similarities and differences in the use of transitive constructions, it can also show the degree of similarities and differences. Learner language is different from the target language not because it is judged as grammatically incorrect, but because it feels unidiomatic. Granger (2009, p. 19) argued that "Researchers should make full use of this rich diversity rather than restrict themselves to one monolithic and monocultural norm as has all too often been the case in the past and indeed is still the rule where the norm is implicit rather than explicit".

To perform an effective NS (native speaker)-NNS (non-native speaker) corpus comparison, the learner corpus is the first to be determined. Due to rapid development in corpus linguistics, there are many different corpora available. SWECCL 2.0 was published in 2008, and it also contains both spoken data as well as written data, which were collected from both English major students and non-English major students from more than 20 universities between 2003 and 2007. The universities chosen were different from those in SWECCL 1.0.

This research will use the written component of SWECCL 2.0, namely, WECCL. It is a collection of 4,950 compositions written by students from more than 20 universities in China. Students are mostly English majors enrolled between 2003 and 2007, ranging from Level 1 to Level 4. Compositions are mostly argumentative essays, and there are 27 topics in total, one for expositive writing, and all others are for argumentative essays. In total, there are 4,680 argumentative essays with 1,207,968 tokens and 270 expository writings with 40,508 tokens. Both timed and untimed compositions are included with each occupying half the corpus.

So far the most often used targeted NS corpus is the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS), built by the Centre for English Corpus Linguistics at the Catholic University of Louvain, Belgium in 1998. It has been used in a number of studies (Flowerdew, 2010; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Partridge, 2011; Van Rooy & Terbianche, 2009).

Including research done about Chinese EFL learners' use of English (Fang, 2013; Ping, 2009; Xu & Xiaotang, 2011; Zhang, 2010). LOCNESS contains 324,304 words. All compositions are native essays, which are both written in timed examinations and as homework, and cover such topics as social ethics, environment protection, education and arts. The length of each essay is about 500 words.

C.   Building SUBWECCL with Data Drawn from WECCL 2.0

WECCL 2.0 is a comprehensive learner corpus, and researchers can draw data from it and build sub-corpora according to their research purposes. For the present study, the author built a sub-corpus (SUBWECCL) about the same size of LOCNESS with about 0.32 million tokens. SUBWECCL is built in order to have a comparison with the LOCNESS, so the data is drawn from WECCL purposely:

1) The amount of the tokens is about the same as that of LOCNESS;

2) All compositions are argumentative essays, as those of LOCNESS;

3) Compositions written by students at same levels are chosen at random, and nearly the same amount of tokens is drawn from different levels, so that a comparison can be performed among different levels of Chinese EFL learners.

D.   Data Collection

As the author adopts a corpus-based method to examine the use of transitive constructions by Chinese EFL learners, the next issue is to identify the transitive constructions to be examined. Verbs are generally acknowledged to be the determining element in a transitive construction, the "determiner" for other elements (Chomsky, 1957; Goldberg, 1995; Langacker, 2008). Therefore, the identification of transitive constructions with neutral participants can be done through concordancing certain intransitive verbs. This type of transitive constructions take objects which are not affected in the whole event, so they are neutral as if they are not involved in the whole process. They are characterized as [-VOL, -INST, -AFF]. They possess none of the features of the three elements that characterize transitivity, so their position as objects in transitive constructions stands out from other kinds of objects.

We choose three verbs for study: *enter, join* and *reach*. They are selected based as they are among the most frequently used verbs in TCNP both in LOCNESS and SUBWECCL, therefore, their uses can reveal more about Chinese EFL learners' special features in the conceptualization of transitivity. All three verbs are similar in meaning in that they all refer to some kind of movement, and the location is conceptualized as another entity in the moving process, serving as the landmark of action. Landmark is exactly what characterizes the role of object conceptually which is otherwise encoded into language as oblique elements.

The software used for concordance is Antconc. It is a piece of free software that is widely used in corpus related studies. It can be downloaded from its homepage (http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/software.html). Its main functions include concordance, collocates, N-grams, wordlist and keyword list. Sinclair defined a concordance as "a collection of the occurrences of a word-form, each in its own textual environment" (1991, p. 32). All the usages of the node word (the word selected for concordance) can be displayed in vertical forms with its context, through which a word's linguistic behavior can be captured (This is known as Keyword in Context form or KWIC). Regular expressions are used in the searching for keywords so that a verb with all its inflected forms can be concordanced at once. For example, when the author searches for the use of "*kill*", the search expression is "\bkill\b\\bkills\b\\bkilled\b\\bkilling\b\\bKill\b\\bKilling\b", and all usages of "*kill*" will be shown in the concordance window. The display order can be re-sorted with Antconc to show usage patterns of a node word. After re-sorting the result according to the order on each side of node words, the researcher can count the arguments taken by the node word so that they can be classified and their frequency counted.

E.   Data Analysis

For all the three verbs, a series of concordances of different types of transitive constructions can be performed to identify similarities and differences in the use of transitive construction between a NS corpus and a NNS corpus.

The results will be compared between the two corpora of SUBWECCL and LOCNESS to discover the similarities and differences in the use of transitive constructions by Chinese EFL learners. The comparison will also be performed among Chinese EFL learners themselves to examine the conceptual development in a foreign language, as a conceptual system is developing with new experiences, in which language provides the indirect experiences (Lakoff, 1987).

This research is done on the basis of comparison between two corpora, the LOCNESS and the SUBWECCL, and between different levels of Chinese EFL learners. The procedures are summarized below:

Step 1: The selected verbs will be concordanced one by one in the two corpora;

Step 2: The result of concordancing for each verb will be classified into different patterns;

Step 3: For each verb, the frequency of different patterns will be counted in both corpora, and their frequencies will be compared to discover the similarities and differences between them;

Step 4: The arguments of each verbs will be categorized and compared; the shared subjects and objects are identified in blackened forms in each table.

Step 5: the comparison between different levels of Chinese EFL learners will be conducted next in the similar manner.

In a word, the syntactic structures as well as the arguments of the verbs concerned will be compared between the two corpora.

IV. RESULTS

A. Enter

There is no *passive voice* patterns used in both corpora but *intransitive* pattern is used more frequently in LOCNESS, which occurs only for four times in SUBWECCL.

TABLE 1
THE DIFFERENT PATTERNS OF *ENTER*

Patterns	LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
	Frequency	Proportion	Frequency	Proportion
Transitive	37	74%	77	95%
Intransitive	13	26%	4	5%
total	50	100%	81	100%

In the selection of words for subjects, the first person pronoun is used much more frequently in SUBWECCL. Overall, human beings are more likely to be taken as subjects. The six shared words in the two corpora all refer to human beings: *he, man, people, child, who* and *you,* whereas other subject words are more diversified including non-human entities: *dissatificatioin, excrement* and *question* in LOCNESS, which are more peripheral in the category of the subject.

TABLE 2
THE SUBJECTS TAKEN BY ENTER

LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
SUBJECTS	COUNTS	SUBJECTS	COUNTS
he	**4**	we	12
fighter	2	student	6
Hugo	2	they	6
man	**2**	I	5
Oreste	2	**you**	**4**
people	**2**	China	3
female	1	**child**	**2**
bachelor	1	everyone	2
Britain	1	**people**	**2**
Candide	1	all of us	1
car	1	green	1
child	**1**	**he**	**1**
couple	1	internet	1
dissatisfaction	1	**man**	**1**
eighteen	1	population	1
European	1	society	1
excrement	1	somebody	1
mother	1	**who**	**1**
novice	1		
question	1		
recipient	1		
she	1		
those who	**1**		
women	1		
you	**1**		

While all objects in both corpora are inanimate entities referring to locations, the words used are different. The most often used words are *relationship, sport* and *marriage* in LOCNESS, referring to an abstract position that can only be felt, whereas they are *university, college* and *school* (except *society*) in SUBWECCL referring to a concrete location that can be physically touched. The objects taken by *enter* is more likely to be metaphoric, suggested by the bigger amount of abstract object such as *service*, *indifference* and *work*.

TABLE 3
THE OBJECTS TAKEN BY ENTER

LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
OBJECTS	COUNTS	OBJECTS	COUNTS
relationship	3	university	26
sport	3	society	16
marriage	2	**college**	**10**
party	2	school	8
program	2	WTO	4
town	2	century	2
Argos	1	netbar	2
bank	1	**career**	**1**
Britain	1	classroom	1
career	**1**	enterprise	1
city	1	it	1
college	**1**	library	1
coma	1	life	1
community	1	them	1
cycle	1	web club	1
homeland	1	word	1
house	1		
indifference	1		
address name	1		
military	1		
mind	1		
fight	1		
room	1		
service	1		
teen	1		
war	1		
work	1		
world	1		

B. Join

There is no passive voice pattern used in the two corpora and there are more uses of Transitive pattern in SUBWECCL

TABLE 4
THE DIFFERENT PATTERNS OF JOIN

Patterns	LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
	Frequency	Proportion	Frequency	Proportion
Transitive	29	76.3%	15	88.2%
intransitive	9	23.7%	2	11.8%
total	38	100%	17	100%

More words referring to human beings are employed as subjects in SUBWECCL, among which, the 1st person pronouns are more frequently used. There are more inanimate subjects in LOCNESS.

TABLE 5
THE SUBJECTS TAKEN BY JOIN

LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
SUBJECTS	COUNTS	SUBJECTS	COUNTS
Britain	5	**we**	**3**
he	**2**	they	2
Hugo	2	China	1
American	1	**he**	**1**
Candide	1	Hua Mulan	1
it	**1**	**it**	**1**
newspaper	1	manufacturer	1
people	1	**student**	**1**
student	**1**		
tunnel	1		
UK	1		
we	**1**		
woman	1		

Objects are mainly organizations in both corpora, as indicated by the three shared objects: party, army and group. But there are more human beings acting as objects in LOCNESS than in SUBWECCL. All the objects represent the virtual location that a person can locate himself in, including both the human organizations and activities, while the former are conceptually more deviating from locations.

TABLE 6
THE OBJECTS TAKEN BY JOIN

LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
OBJECTS	COUNTS	OBJECTS	COUNTS
party	**8**	activity	3
community	3	association	2
market	3	**army**	**1**
army	**2**	effort	1
Europe	2	game	1
group	**2**	**group**	**1**
America	1	me	1
class	1	**party**	**1**
E.C.	1	practice	1
force	1	ring	1
it	1	school	1
KQED	1	WTO	1
organization	1		
upper end	1		
us	1		

C. Reach

Transitive pattern is the dominant pattern in both corpora, but *passive voice* pattern occurs less often in SUBWECCL than in LOCNESS.

TABLE 7
DIFFERENT PATTERNS OF *REACH*

Patterns	LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
	Frequency	Proportion	Frequency	Proportion
Transitive	45	83.3%	34	87.2%
intransitive	1	1.9%	2	5.1%
passive voice	8	14.8%	3	7.7%
total	54	100%	39	100%

The subjects used are mainly human beings in both corpora, but *we* is used more frequently in SUBWECCL. Table 4.61 indicates that human beings are used more frequently as subjects in SUBWECCL than in LOCNESS, whereas inanimate entities in LOCNESS are used more often than in SUBWECCL.

TABLE 8
THE SUBJECTS TAKEN BY *REACH*

LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
SUBJECTS	COUNTS	SUBJECTS	COUNTS
he	8	**we**	**7**
it	6	**they**	**4**
they	**4**	**child**	**2**
American	1	group	2
Candide	1	**you**	**2**
case	1	company	1
child	**1**	**all of them**	**1**
Clamence	1	feeling	1
country	1	I	1
dog	1	relationship	1
information	1	she	1
literature	1	technology	1
people	1		
quality	1		
reliance	1		
society	1		
student	1		
we	**1**		
you	**1**		

There are both human beings and inanimate entities used as objects in LOCNESS, but there are only inanimate entities as objects in SUBWECCL, among which *goal, conclusion, agreement* and *level* are all idiomatic collocating words for *reach*. Table 10 below shows that human beings are used as objects at 24.4% in LOCNESS, but none appears in SUBWECCL.

TABLE 9
THE OBJECTS TAKEN BY *REACH*

LOCNESS		SUBWECCL	
OBJECTS	COUNTS	OBJECTS	COUNTS
people	4	goal	6
stage	4	conclusion	4
level	**3**	agreement	3
top	**3**	**level**	**3**
age	**2**	**age**	**2**
compromise	2	**top**	**2**
it	**2**	achievement	1
point	2	apartment	1
reader	2	class	1
university	2	decision	1
state	1	destination	1
C	1	end	1
conclusion	1	field	1
court	1	impasse	1
triple digit	1	**it**	**1**
equality	1	potential	1
height	1	standard	1
hell	1	success	1
land	1	virtue	1
love	1	wish	1
many	1		
other	1		
proportion	1		
school	1		
shore	1		
teen	1		
them	1		
us	1		
year	1		

D. Comparison between Different Levels of Chinese EFL Learners

We see the differences in the use of TCNPs between Chinese EFL learners and native speakers, and then we check the uses by different levels of Chinese EFL learners. We find that transitive pattern is the predominant pattern across all three levels, indicating the similarity among them. The other two patterns are used very rarely, indicating their peripheral status for Chinese EFL learners.

TABLE 10
COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT PATTERNS AMONG DIFFERENT LEVELS OF CHINESE EFL LEARNERS

Patterns	Level 1		Level 2		Level 3	
	Frequency	Proportion	Frequency	Proportion	Frequency	Proportion
Transitive	35	95.1%	58	90.6%	33	91.7%
Intransitive	1	2.7%	5	7.8%	2	5.6%
Passive voice	1	2.7%	1	1.6%	1	2.7%
total	37	100%	64	100%	36	100%

We is the most frequently used subject across all three levels. There are four words occurring in all three levels: *we (us), they(them), you, I* and *student*, all referring to human beings and first person pronoun is heavily relied upon across all three levels. Besides, five words occur at two levels: *child, China, everyone, group* and *he*. The three levels are similar in their use of subjects.

TABLE 11
COMPARISON OF SUBJECTS AMONG DIFFERENT LEVELS OF CHINESE EFL LEARNERS

LEVEL 1		LEVEL 2		LEVEL 3	
SUBJECTS	COUNTS	SUBJECTS	COUNTS	SUBJECTS	COUNTS
we	**6**	**we**	**8**	**we**	**8**
they	**4**	**they**	**7**	child	2
you	**4**	**student**	**4**	China	2
I	**3**	China	2	**student**	**2**
child	2	**I**	**2**	he	1
company	1	people	2	**I**	**1**
everyone	1	**all of them**	**1**	internet	1
feeling	1	**all of us**	**1**	it	1
green	1	everyone	1	man	1
group	1	group	1	relationship	1
Hua Mulan	1	he	1	she	1
student	**1**	manufacturers	1	society	1
		population	1	technology	1
		somebody	1	**they**	**1**
		who	1	**you**	**1**
		you	**1**		

For the objects used by Chinese EFL learners, four words are used among all three levels: *university, school, college* and *society*, while the former three words refer to basically the same institution, the latter is a metaphorical use because there is no shape or concrete position of a *society*. Other eight verbs are used in two levels: *activity, agreement, conclusion, goal, it, level, netbar* and *WTO,* which are more metaphorical in meaning.

TABLE 12
COMPARISON OF OBJECTS AMONG DIFFERENT LEVELS OF CHINESE EFL LEARNERS

LEVEL 1		LEVEL 2		LEVEL 3	
OBJECTS	COUNTS	OBJECTS	COUNTS	OBJECTS	COUNTS
society	**5**	**university**	**19**	**society**	**5**
goal	4	**college**	**6**	**school**	**4**
university	**4**	**society**	**6**	conclusion	3
college	**3**	**school**	**3**	**university**	**3**
school	**2**	WTO	3	age	2
top	2	activity	2	century	2
achievement	1	agreement	2	level	2
agreement	1	association	2	WTO	2
apartment	1	goal	2	activity	1
army	1	conclusion	1	**college**	**1**
career	1	effort	1	decision	1
class	1	enterprise	1	destination	1
classroom	1	it	1	group	1
end	1	library	1	impasse	1
field	1	netbar	1	it	1
game	1	parties	1	life	1
level	1	potential	1	me	1
netbar	1	practice	1	ring	1
them	1	standard	1		
virtue	1	success	1		
web club	1	wish	1		
		word	1		

V. DISCUSSIONS

A. Syntactic Patterns

The common semantic feature of TCNP is that the objects usually serve as the context or surroundings rather than a patient, the endpoint of energy transfer.

Passive voice is seldom used, as indicated by the fact that both *enter* and *join* are not used in *passive voice* pattern in both corpora, and it occurs at a relatively smaller percentage with *reach*, which is used even less frequently in SUBWECCL, suggesting some mental effort required for such kind of conceptualization as the default way of conceptualization with TCNP is mainly active rather than passive. The location objectivized in TCNP is usually used as background, oblique element in a syntactic structure, so it is less prominent than trajector and landmark in conceptualization. The passivation is meant to emphasize the role of objects with correspondingly more attention, but to emphasize such an oblique backgrounded element is against the default way of conceptualization. They are naturally rarely used.

In both corpora, transitive use is the predominant form, suggesting the similarity of the conceptualization between Chinese EFL learners and NSs. Chinese EFL learners' such use is interesting because they do not mis-insert a preposition between the verbs and objects, as one might think they are prone to commit such errors. Chinese EFL

learners must have noticed the ungrammaticality of insertion of unnecessary preposition to avoid such errors. Usually the background is placed behind a preposition denoting the position. But TCNU can be used with such preposition.

Also item-based learning factor may be involved, as displayed by the high frequency of e*nter school, join army, and reach goal/conclusion*. These items help learners avoid the error of insert unnecessary prepositions between the verb and its object.

B.   Arguments

Inanimate nouns are used as subjects more frequently in LOCNESS. With human beings subjects, more first person pronouns are used in SUBWECCL. Interestingly, the situation is just the opposite for the choice of objects. Except *enter*, the other two verbs take more human beings as objects in LOCNESS. While the subjects in SUBWECCL are predominantly human beings, the objects are mainly inanimate. Chinese EFL learners stick more to the prototypical role of agents and patients with less deviation from the transitive prototype.
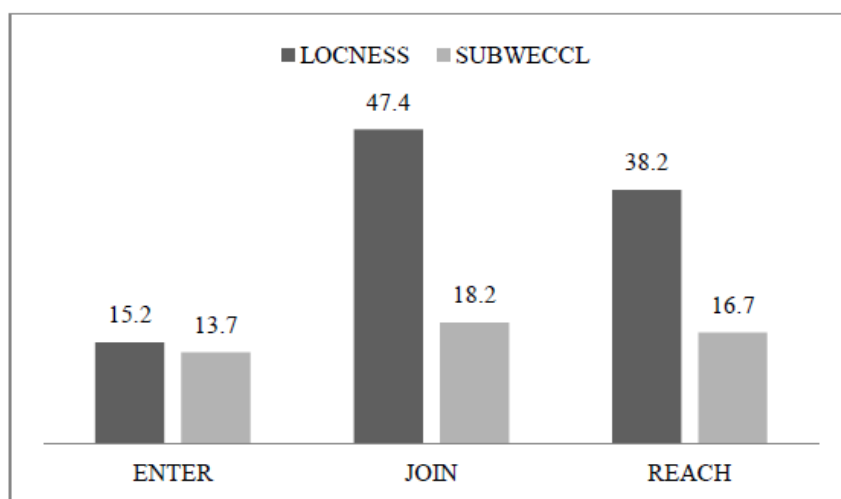

Figure 1 Percentages of the use of inanimate subjects

Obviously, the objects of such verbs are supposed to play the role of surroundings, describing a context or a location, which is either a location literally or metaphorically. Human beings are not the usual choice to fulfill this role. Further, human beings are supposed to be the subject carrying out the action instead of the passive role of object. That's why human beings as object seldom occur in TCNP. To conceptualize human beings as location needs to deviating from the prototypical patient, thus requires more mental effort than, say, words meaning locations literally. The transformation of human beings from an active person to a passive role of positioning cannot be readily used by Chinese EFL learners.

Except for *enter*, the other two verbs in this group have human beings as the object. Figure 2 indicates that Chinese EFL learners are less likely to use volitional entities as objects, fulfilling the role of landmark such as *join the army/army/us*, or *reach us/people/reader*.
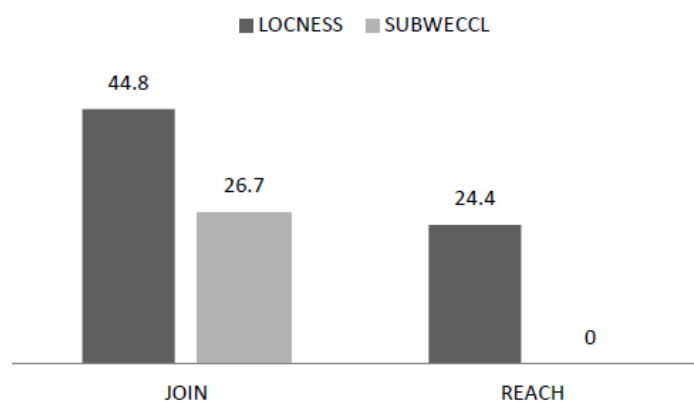
Figure 2 Percentages of the use of volitional objects

The three verbs are supposed to take locations as their objects, but their uses can be metaphorical when the location is conceptual rather than real. *Enter* is followed by two different kinds of objects: those referring to locations such as *university, college,* and those referring to abstract positions such as *relationship, sport, marriage*. The abstract objects can be seen as metaphorical extension from the more basic concrete locations. This kind of metaphorical are used both

in LOCNESS than in SUBWECCL but in different ways than they are used literally, suggesting the diversity of metaphorical conceptualization between Chinese EFL learners and NSs. In fact, the use of human beings as objects can also be considered as metaphorical in the sense that human beings are treated as locations. The diversified nature of metaphorical locations is in comparison with the relatively similar literal locations. It suggests the similar use of literal expressions and different use of metaphorical expressions.

C.   Fossilization in L2 Acquisition of TCNPs

All three levels of Chinese EFL learners rely heavily on transitive pattern, and their choice of subjects is human beings, the prototypical agent. Their rare use of passive voice pattern is understandable as human beings acts as the moving participants in the event, and locations acts as an objectivized entity. The mover is naturally the primary focus and is accorded the status of subjects, whereas the location acts as the background which is the exactly the role of landmark. In passive patterns, the location acts as the trajector given most attention and mover is placed at the backgrounded position. It is against the human conceptual tendency. Therefore, the rare use of *passive voice* pattern is the natural result of L2 conceptualization. More frequent uses by NSs are the result of conceptual distortion of default conceptualization, requiring more mental effort that Chinese EFL learners are not ready to use, indicating the difficulty in acquiring the necessary conceptual competence even for advanced Chinese EFL learners.

Subjects used also show a similar pattern. As the verbs in this group all refers to movement, subjects are naturally all words for human beings, as displayed by the subjects occurring in all three levels: *we, they, you, I* and *students.* Chinese EFL learners tend to construct an event with human beings as the subject, especially with themselves as the starting points, therefore, the subjects are heavily relied on first and second person pronouns and *student* as they are student themselves.

Objects used are also similar, as the most frequently used objects are all words referring to a particular institution that they are familiar with, namely *school* (no matter it is *university, college*). *Society* also acts as kind of a school metaphorically as an extension of schools.

Overall, the three levels are similar in their using of TCNPs regarding both the syntactic patterns and arguments in TCNPs. The similarity of their choice of arguments is indicated by Table 16. The semantic feature of TCNP determines that deviation from it default use of SVO structure (in which human beings as subjects and location as objects) is difficult, which reduces the possibility for Chinese EFL learners' other uses.

TABLE 13
SIMILARITIES OF ARGUMENTS IN TCNP

Levels	subject			object		
	subjects used at three levels	total	percentage	objects used at three levels	total	percentage
Level 1	18	26	69.2%	14	35	40%
Level 2	24	35	68.6	34	58	58.7%
Level 3	13	25	52%	13	33	39.4%

One thing deserving attention is their rare use of *intransitive* pattern. Usually the use of location acts as landmark is followed by prepositions, which means that the Chinese EFL learners might follow this rule and insert preposition between intransitive verbs and their objects unnecessarily. The result indicates that all three levels of Chinese EFL learners use them correctly without intransitivizing them. We guess the reason is Chinese EFL learners' grammar monitor mechanism (Krashen, 1985), which alerts them when any linguistic usage deviates from the traditional conceptualization. As location acting as landmark are usually used with preposition, Chinese EFL learners find this type pf transitive verbs functions differently, therefore paying more attention to their linguistic behavior and avoid the insertion of preposition. The same fact can also explain why Chinese EFL learners use more intransitive pattern with ingestive verbs, as they act prototypically and they get negative feedback.

VI. CONCLUSION

The author argues that the features in Chinese EFL learners' use of TCNPs are the result of prototypical effects. The conceptual systems of both Chinese EFL learners and NSs are based on prototypes. While NSs are more flexible in adapting the transitive prototype to express their unique conceptualizations through conceptual devices such as the attention, profiling and perspective, leading to a flexible use of transitive constructions, Chinese EFL learners are more dependent on prototypes and are bound by them in conceptualization, leading to a more prototypical use of TCNPs. Chinese EFL learners' heavy reliance on prototypes can lead to fossilization in language acquisition. The binding power of prototypes is not just limited to the acquisition of transitive constructions, but has serious impacts on L2 acquisition as a whole. Consciously combating against the conceptual paradigm in L1 can serve to deconstruct existing prototypes and contributes to the goal of native-likeness in L2 acquisition.

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Vocabulary-centered Strategy: Its Effect on Reading Comprehension and Teachers' Opinions Concerning Its Utility

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Abstract—This study was divided into two parts: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative part aimed at investigating the effect of Vocabulary Centered Strategy (VCS), which was developed by the researcher himself, on the reading comprehension of the Saudi intermediate students. The qualitative part attempted to discover how teachers felt and thought this strategy affected their students' vocabulary acquisition. The sample of the study consisted of four ten male students' sections. The first two sections were assigned for the experimental group and were taught the vocabulary following VCS. The second two sections were assigned for the control group and were taught the same vocabulary following the Saudi teacher's book instructions. The experiment under investigation continued for 12 weeks. Ten male volunteer teachers were asked to adopt VCS in their classes and then were interviewed. Data for this study was obtained from two sources: pretest-posttest and interviews. The results of the t-test showed a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on students' reading comprehension in favor of the experimental group. The results of the interview showed that teachers liked VCS. These results were summarized into a set of three main categories: (1) motivation, (2) memorization and (3) self-confidence and autonomy. A comparison between the results of the two parts of the study was made in order to strengthen the results of this study.

Index Terms—vocabulary acquisition, teaching strategies, opinions, reading comprehension, TEFL, intermediate students

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Importance of Vocabulary

Vocabulary is mostly considered to be the main factor for language learning success, essential and central to language acquisition and the most important component for second/foreign language learners (Csomay & Petrovic, 2012; Fazeli, 2012; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Mehta, 2009; O'Loughlin, 2012).Vocabulary competence is considered the most momentous factor of language proficiency, (Putri, 2010) however; it is also recognized by most students to be one of the major difficulties of language acquisition (Dalton & Grisham, 2011).

Lewis (1993 & 1997) introduced the Lexical Approach, which put acquisition of new words on the front position of language learning in two books, *The Lexical Approach* and *Implementing the Lexical Approach*. Lewis (2000) states that vocabulary acquisition plays a major role in language acquisition. Harmon, Wood and Hedrick (2005) emphasize that middle stage teachers understand that vocabulary acquisition is the most important for general language improvement and is, therefore, a significant feature of curriculum in all fields of study at the middle school stage.

The review and recycling of new vocabulary are considered acute to help learners store new words in their long-term memories and make them willingly accessible to support students' language learning (Flanigan, Templeton, & Hayes, 2012; Johnson & Heffernan, 2006; Koprowski, 2006). Folse (2004) emphasizes the significance of several exposures to new vocabulary, so that new words will be stored in the long-term memory. And as a result learners will be able to remember and use these new words easily.

Vocabulary awareness is a major key to reading comprehension because readers cannot comprehend a text without knowing what most of the words mean (Chanier & Selva, 1998; National Reading Panel, 2000). For students in the intermediate grades, the need for vocabulary goes faster as they meet more challenging reading texts in print and on the Internet (Dalton & Grisham, 2011). Vocabulary knowledge, which is a key to reading comprehension, must be a focus for every teacher in today's increasingly diverse schools, including those in the mainstream classroom (Wessels, 2011).

The extensive research on vocabulary learning and teaching provides us with important guidelines that contribute to the field of language acquisition in general and reading comprehension in particular. Such guidelines: considering vocabulary as the most significant factor to language acquisition, identifying vocabulary to be one of the biggest challenges of language learning, demonstrating that recycling of new words can help learners store these words in their long-term memories and considering vocabulary knowledge as a key to reading comprehension helped the researcher develop a new strategy for teaching/learning vocabulary in this study. This strategy is a three-phase one: pre-class, in-class and post-class. It is called "Vocabulary-Centered Strategy (VCS)". VCS, in this case, is used to mean the sensible, measurable and intentional sets of actions, steps or activities done by learners in order to learn, store, recall and retrieve

the second/foreign language vocabulary. It considers vocabulary recycling as the central key strand to second/foreign language vocabulary acquisition. This attempt tries to help students and teachers overcome new vocabulary acquisition difficulties and consequently enhance students' reading comprehension abilities.

In an attempt to examine the practical application of this vocabulary learning/teaching strategy, the researcher investigates its effect on EFL students' reading comprehension as one of the most important academic language skills to students in the intermediate grades (middle school level students) and tries to discover how teachers feel and think this strategy affects their students' vocabulary acquisition. This new strategy is compared to the teacher's book instructions which are criticized by some Saudi school teachers, supervisors and educators in the field.

B. Importance and Aim of the Study

The introduction above and the literature review below shows that studying vocabulary-learning strategies seems to be a neglected area in Saudi Arabia. There is little research evidence demonstrating the effect of vocabulary-learning strategies on EFL acquisition in general and on reading comprehension in particular. A more in depth study to help us explore the effect of vocabulary learning/teaching strategies on reading comprehension and discover how teachers feel and think a new strategy affects their students' vocabulary acquisition would be needed in this context. Thus, the present study might be one of the first empirical and qualitative studies in this field in Saudi Arabia according to the knowledge of the researcher.

Researchers and educationalists these days concur that learners do the majority of their vocabulary forgetting shortly after the lesson. Some suggest that students should be exposed to new words 5 to 16 times so that they can master these new words (Koprowski, 2006). So it is the teacher's responsibility to create such a learning atmosphere to help his/her students keep new vocabulary in their long-term memory. Both recurrence and recovery exercises of new vocabulary are keys to enhance vocabulary acquisition. To offer a solution to vocabulary loss and create an opportunity to store new words in students' long-term memory, this study suggests a new strategy.

Since lexical learning has always been one of the main language learning problems that learners pointed out (Chen, 2004), this study introduces this strategy to facilitate students' second/foreign language vocabulary learning and to help them master using a new strategy of vocabulary acquisition. This attempt tries to help Saudi students and teachers overcome new vocabulary acquisition difficulties and consequently enhance students' reading comprehension abilities.

The main aim of this study is to investigate and come to an insightful understanding of how this strategy affects students' reading comprehension. The world wide literature associated with the topic of vocabulary learning shows the important influence of the subject in second/foreign language acquisition in general and reading comprehension in particular. However, the research field of vocabulary learning strategies has had little about innovative ideas of introducing new vocabulary to students. This is the motivation behind suggesting this vocabulary learning/teaching strategy.

C. Research Questions

To achieve the aims of the study, the following two questions were addressed.

1. Is there any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group who study vocabulary using VCS and the mean scores of the control group who study the same collection of vocabulary following the Saudi teacher's book instructions on reading comprehension at ($\alpha=0.05$)?

2. What are teachers' opinions concerning the utility of VCS?

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension

The following is a short review of related literature that focuses on and explains the relationship between vocabulary teaching/leaning and reading comprehension.

The connection between EFL vocabulary and reading comprehension has been discussed since 1950s. The previous researches indicates that more studies should be done in this part of foreign language acquisition. One areas of interest that should be taken into account is the vocabulary acquisition strategies that can help students develop their reading comprehension. Several specialists agree that vocabulary acquisition is really a particular case of reading comprehension (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998; Nagy & Anderson, 1984). Moreover, implementing an organized strategy to teaching/learning vocabulary is considered a very important aspect in reading comprehension (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; Davis, 1968). As Tozcu and Coady (2004) point out, learning vocabulary is an essential feature of second/foreign language acquisition and educational attainment and is fundamental to reading comprehension and language proficiency.

Several researchers have argued that vocabulary plays a major part in reading proficiency. Thus, Constantinescu (2007) concludes that there is a reciprocal, well-documented relationship between vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. He also points out that reading and vocabulary are interrelated. The better the students' vocabulary knowledge is, the better they perform with reading comprehension tasks and vice versa. The link between vocabulary acquisition and improvement in reading comprehension has been revealed in many studies, such as Bossers (1992) and

Grabe and Stoller (1997). The more vocabulary familiarity with the text is, the more learners' ability to grasp the reading task is.

On the other hand, researchers have stated that vocabulary deficiencies are a primary cause of academic failure (Becker, 1977; Stanovich, 1986). Vocabulary researchers recognize that word learning does not occur easily or quickly (White, Graves & Slater, 1990). Developing sophisticated words needs early, constant and strong vocabulary teaching (Beck & McKeown, 2007). These researchers admit that straight and clear instruction of a number of vocabulary words can help students prevail over comprehension failure. Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) suggest that acquiring 350 words each year may help students improve their learning by as much as 10 to 30%. Examining the acquisition of second/foreign language learners, confronted with unfamiliar words, researchers have noted the central responsibility of vocabulary as a main factor of reading capability (Grabe, 1991; Nation, 1990). In fact, second/foreign language readers often cite "lack of adequate vocabulary is one of the obstacles to text comprehension" (Levine & Reves, 1998, p. 302). As many experts of foreign language acquisition confirm, when their students are faced with an unknown passage, the first challenge appears to be its vocabulary (Grabe & Stoller, 1997). Koren (1999) confirms that when the text has many new words, students quickly despair and are discouraged to continue reading.

Many variables play significant roles in second/foreign language reading comprehension. Among the most important is vocabulary knowledge (Egbert, 2005). None is more imperative than the involvement of vocabulary awareness to reading comprehension to provide students with strategies to build vocabulary. One of the prominent areas of reading comprehension research is relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 2003; Becker, 1977). The National Reading Panel (2000) concludes that comprehension progress cannot be understood without a significant assessment of the role played by vocabulary understanding that equips students with the skills and strategies necessary for lifelong vocabulary development.

Learning activities are needed to support vocabulary progress in order to advocate reading comprehension. Vocabulary involvement needs to start in the beginning and go on repeatedly (Beck & McKeown, 2007; Biemiller, 2003; Foorman, Seals, Anthony & Pollard-Durodola, 2003). Depending on academic and experimental study, there are three elements of vocabulary learning that are needed to improve vocabulary development and develop reading comprehension: (1) both meaning and language information, (2) at least two exposures to new words, and (3) involvement of students in deep understanding of word use (Baumann, Kame'enui & Ash, 2003; Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Mezynski, 1983; Nagy & Scott, 2000; Rupley & Nichols, 2005; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986). "Elements of Reading: Vocabulary " (Beck & McKeown, 2004) is a learning participation that can integrate these three elements and introduce them to teachers to improve reading comprehension. The research addresses this need by examining the effects of a full, one- and two-year performance of "Elements of Reading: Vocabulary" on both vocabulary and reading comprehension. The aim of the suggested presentation is to report evaluations of the proximate effects of "Elements of Reading: Vocabulary" on vocabulary and reading comprehension as estimated at the end of the first year of the two-year intervention. Finally, the intervention looked successful enough to support major differences in attainment in both the comprehension of the target words and the understanding using the target words at both primary and intermediate grade stages. Results verify recommendations for vocabulary learning that offers various contexts and connects learners' understanding of meaning to attain the goals of increased vocabulary awareness and understanding. The results reveal that such recommendations are appropriate to primary and intermediate grades learners.

The above review of related literature shows a positive relationship between vocabulary teaching/learning and reading comprehension. Based on the review of related literature concerning vocabulary learning/teaching, the researcher designed a teaching/learning strategy to teach vocabulary to the Saudi intermediate students to be adopted in this study. Suggesting a new strategy that may actively involve students in learning new vocabulary is a new and practical research idea to be examined regarding reading comprehension.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Third Intermediate Saudi Teacher's Book Introduction of New Vocabulary

Almost very little is explained about how to teach vocabulary in the teacher's book of this grade. These explanations and instructions are not introduced under one title. They are scattered here and there throughout the teacher's book introductions. The researcher believes that this way of introducing this key factor (vocabulary) does not help teachers adopt an obvious and clear strategy to follow. He also notices that the number of times students are exposed to the target vocabulary is not enough to help students add the new words to their long-term memories.

The vocabulary in the teacher's book is introduced as one of six interlinked strands: the four basic skills, functions, grammar, vocabulary, phonics and revision. Revision strand is used as the central key strand to teach the course as stated in the teacher's book. The target lexicon, structures and functions are reviewed and recycled throughout the book in different contexts (Ministry of Education, KSA, 2006).

The topic of the unit is introduced using the target vocabulary and structure. Students are encouraged to guess the meaning of new vocabulary from the context. At the end of the unit, unit vocabulary listed at the back of the student's book is reviewed by giving dictation on target vocabulary. Words are introduced by pointing at them one by one or using pictures in the book, real objects or previously prepared flashcards. The teacher is asked to read the words and

have students repeat chorally. In the phonics part, students are asked to listen and repeat chorally after each word (Ministry of Education, KSA, 2006). Teachers are not directed to make sure that students can individually say and spell the words correctly. Throughout the teacher's book, some suggestions to introduce some words are explained for teachers to follow.

B. The Strategy Suggested for Introducing New Vocabulary in the Study

Since vocabulary can be a key factor for success, essential and central to a language and the most important component for learners (Fazeli, 2012; O'Loughlin, 2012), the key strategy to successful language learning is constant recycling of new vocabulary (as proved in the introduction and review of related literature of this study). VCS is used as the central key strand in this study. The other five strands are introduced to both the experimental group and the control group as stated in the teacher's book. The researcher added something new to vocabulary learning/teaching. He suggested a new strategy that may actively involve students in learning new vocabulary by introducing vocabulary in three phases: pre-class, in-class and post-class. The newest elements in this strategy are the pre-class phase, the post-class phase and the number of times students are exposed to the target vocabulary.

The new vocabulary items are introduced to students in the experimental group according to the following **objective**: At the end of each lesson and unit, the teacher should make sure that students are able to correctly <u>pronounce,</u> <u>spell</u> and <u>use</u> the new vocabulary meaningfully. To achieve this objective, the researcher directed the teacher who teaches the experimental group to adopt the steps of VCS. These specific steps are grouped and divided into three phases: pre-class, in-class and post-class.

The **rationale** behind VCS is that in non-native communities where English is used as a second or foreign language, students should be intentionally exposed to language as much as possible in order to give them ample chances to acquire and use that language. Moreover, it is supposed that this strategy can help students improve their abilities to <u>explore,</u> <u>store</u> and <u>use</u> the new vocabulary items.

　*In **pre-class** phase students should
1- scan each lesson at home and highlight the new words they want to learn.
2- practice the spelling of these words in their vocabulary notebook by writing each word three times.
3- listen to the British pronunciation of these words on the internet. (Their textbook is based on British English.)

It is supposed that implementing the above steps can help students in the experimental group have an idea about these words and as a result can make their minds ready and eager to learn them. It is also assumed that this kind of preparation can assist them not to lose concentration while their teacher is introducing these words in class (the second phase).

　*In **in-class** phase (The new words should be written on the board.) students should
1- guess the meaning of the new words from the context.
2- use the pictures in the book, real objects or flashcards to recognize the meaning of these words.
3- chorally repeat these words three times after their teacher.
4- chorally read out these words three times.
5- read out these words individually.
6- write down these words and their meanings in their vocabulary notebooks.

It is supposed that the above activities can help students try their best to participate in the class discussion and ask about the meanings they do not understand. It is also assumed that their participation helps them emphasize their understanding and be ready to proceed to the next step (post-class phase).

　*In **post-class** phase students should
1- take three minutes to get ready for a dictation and meaning use quiz.
2- take the quiz. (See the assessment part below.)
3- deliberately use some of the new vocabulary in real life situations, i.e. at home, with friends, in the supermarket, etc.

For **Assessment**, a quiz was done after each lesson. Students were dictated five words and were asked to use two of them in meaningful sentences. Students' answers were corrected by the teacher and he listened to some of their sentences in the beginning of the next period. The teacher gave corrections where necessary. A similar but longer quiz of 15 words and five sentences was given after each unit.

C. Participants of the Study

The sample of the study was randomly chosen from the third graders in the intermediate schools in Al-Naseem District in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Those students had a strong desire to improve their English language and registered to study a free tutorial course. Those students are between fourteen and fifteen years old. The sample consisted of four sections. Each section consisted of 10 male students, a total of 40 students. The four sections were taught the third year intermediate Saudi textbook which consisted of 12 units by two teachers. The first two sections were assigned for the experimental group and were taught the vocabulary in this book following the VCS as explained below. The second two sections were assigned for the control group and were taught the same vocabulary following the Saudi teacher's book instructions as explained below. One of the two teachers was randomly assigned for the experimental group and the

other for the control group. The experiment under investigation continued for 12 weeks. During these 12 weeks, 500 words were taught to each group, approximately 40 words a week, 8 words a day.

The researcher randomly asked 10 male volunteer teachers in the same district to adopt the new strategy in the second semester of the scholastic year 2013/2014. At the end of the semester, those 10 teachers were interviewed to try to understand how they feel and think this strategy affected their opinions concerning its utility to teach vocabulary and develop their students' reading comprehension.

D. Research Design and Data Collection

In an attempt to achieve broader and often better results, the researcher used a multi method approach. Data for this study was obtained from two sources: pretest-posttest and interviews. The subjects of the first source were the students, whereas the informants of the second one were teachers. Investigating and comparing both students and teachers results can strengthen the results of this study.

E. The Pretest-posttest Design, Validity and Reliability

The variables of the study were the following: the independent variable was the VCS and the dependent variable was the students' reading comprehension measured by the reading comprehension test designed by the researcher.

To answer the first question of the study, the quasi-experimental design was used. This design had two groups: the experimental group and the control group with a pretest and a posttest. It is worth mentioning that the pretest and the posttest for the two groups were the same and it included 50 multiple-choice items with a total grade of 50.

To establish the validity of the test, the researcher used the method of content validity. He prepared a table of specifications and the test items and gave them to a jury of 7 specialists who were asked to write down their recommendations and comments concerning the feasibility of the reading comprehension components, the reading comprehension objectives, the types of reading comprehension questions, the number of items and the weight each objective had. After taking into account their recommendations and comments, a section of 25 intermediate students were given the test. After correcting their papers and using an item analysis, the researcher deleted the most difficult and the easiest items which were probably above or under the students' level.

To establish the reliability of the test, another section of 25 intermediate students were given the test. After 2 weeks they were given the same test again. After correcting their papers, the reliability of the test was established by finding its internal consistency using Kuder Richardson 20 formula. The overall reliability of the test was (0.91).

After establishing the validity and reliability of the test, it was used as pretest at the beginning of the experiment to control the differences between the two groups.

F. The Interviews

The interview is one of the most common and most powerful techniques researchers use to try to understand the opinions of human beings. The interview questions must be asked person-to-person to be answered completely (Fontana & Frey, 1994). The interview is a special case in interpersonal communication. It can provide a great deal of freedom of inquiry (Al-Karasneh, 2004).There are many types of interviews; they can take the form of structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Fontana & Frey, 1994).

To answer the second question of the study, a semi-structured interview was developed to try to understand how teachers feel and think VCS affects their students' vocabulary acquisition. The 10 male teachers who were asked to adopt this strategy were interviewed. Two interviewers were appointed for this task. The first interviewer tried to investigate why teachers liked VCS. The other interviewer tried to investigate why teachers disliked VCS. The interview included these questions:
-What makes VCS liked? Why?
-What makes VCS disliked? Why?

G. Data Analysis

The pretest-posttest data were analyzed using a t-test. The researcher used the means, percentages, standard deviations and coefficient correlations to analyze the results of the pretest-posttest, which could be quantified. To analyze the interview data, the researcher started with the identification of the themes emerging from the raw data -open coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). As in many other studies, the analysis in this study followed a system of coding and identifying categories based upon patterns and ideas that emerged from the data and collected in the field (Patton, 1990; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

IV. RESULTS

A. Results of the Pretest-posttest

Table 1 represents the results of the two groups on the pretest.

TABLE I:
T-TEST RESULTS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE PRETEST

Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	T	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Experimental	20	25.60	3.733	-1.612	38	.115
Control	20	27.50	3.720			

As it can be easily seen, no statistically significant difference between the two groups in their reading comprehension proficiency on the pretest was found. Therefore, it could be concluded that the two groups were equivalent.

To answer the first question of the study, the results of t-test for the experimental group who were exposed to VCS and the control group who were taught the same vocabulary following the third intermediate Saudi teacher's book instructions are presented in Table 2 below.

TABLE II:
T-TEST RESULTS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE POSTTEST

Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	T	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Experimental	20	33.60	4.160	3.389	38	.002
Control	20	29.40	3.662			

It is evident that the experimental group performed much better than the control group as reflected in their mean scores above. Whereas the analysis of the results of the two groups on the pretest revealed that they were equivalent, the results of the posttest showed a significant difference at α=0.05 between the mean scores of the two groups on students' reading comprehension in favor of the experimental group.

Table 1 and table 2 above also show the amount of growth each group attained. The experimental group obtained a progress of (8) marks in their mean scores on the posttest compared with their mean scores on the pretest. However, the control group got an increase of (1.90) marks only. On the one hand, it is evident that the experimental group performed better on the posttest than on the pretest as reflected in the mean scores above. On the other hand, the control group performed much less than the experimental group as revealed in their mean scores above.

B. Results of the Interview

Regarding the number of teachers who liked and disliked VCS, of the 10 teachers interviewed, 8 teachers liked it. The rest of the teachers (two teachers) liked it, for specific reasons, and disliked it, for another reasons.

Concerning why teachers liked it, the results of the interviews were summarized into a set of main categories (reasons). The three main categories were: (1) motivation, (2) memorization and (3) self-confidence and autonomy. Of these categories, the first one was considered completely different by two teachers, namely lack of motivation. This category could be subcategorized into positive and negative opinions. The other two categories were considered positive.

The first main category referred to **motivation**. This category could be subcategorized into positive and negative opinions.

Development of positive opinions: Of the 10 teachers interviewed, 8 teachers stated that they and their students were highly motivated. The reason behind their motivation, as most of them said, was the practicability of VCS. They liked this new way of teaching vocabulary because it motivated their students to learn more and more words and consequently improve their English language. One teacher said,

"I felt motivated because my students felt so. Most of them used to thank me for concentrating on the new vocabulary and told me that this was the first time they built a solid base for acquiring English language. It was obvious that the students in this class participated much better than their counterparts in the other classes I taught."

Another teacher made this comment,

"I liked this new way of teaching vocabulary because most of my students liked it. I noticed that my students were eager to learn the words they prepared at home. I felt happy when I saw my students got higher grades in the spelling quizzes and used new words in meaningful sentences."

A third teacher said,

"I wish I would have taught vocabulary following this way since I started teaching English. It is a practical way of teaching/learning vocabulary. Now I felt highly motivated to teach more and more words because some of my students told me that this was the first time they succeeded to use English outside the classroom."

Development of negative opinions: For specific reasons, 2 teachers thought that VCS lacks motivation. They felt discouraged and frustrated because they spend a lot of time on teaching one language aspect (vocabulary). Another reason was individualism. Good students already know the highlighted words and weak students complain about not including the words they highlighted in the list the teacher taught. One more reason stated was that the time was not enough to study the flow of words weak students needed. One said,

"Spending a lot of time on teaching vocabulary can be demotivating. Why vocabulary most of the time? We have other language features to concentrate on. I sometimes felt bored. Some of my students also felt so especially those who are excellent because they already know most of the target words."

The other one said,

"I don't like this way of teaching vocabulary because it doesn't take into account the individual differences between students. I think we need to double the time in order to teach all the words weak students used to highlight. And those students feel frustrated because I don't have enough time to accept all their participations."

The second main category revealed by the interviews was **memorization**. Ten out of 10 teachers agreed that VCS helped their students memorized the new words they learned. They felt happy with this way of teaching because it gave their students ample and practical chances to deal with the new words, and as a result to memorize them easily. Most of them considered that the three phases of VCS gave enough chances to students to practice the new words and absorb their meanings. They believed that VCS helped students involved in the learning process and gave them an excellent chance to memorize the new words. One teacher said,

"I think the number of times students are exposed to the new words can help them remember their meanings. They prepare these words at home, study them in class and try to use them outside classroom. I noticed the difference between the students who follow VCS and the other students. Of course, VCS has a clear effect on helping students memorize new words and their meanings."

Another teacher commented,

"Through this strategy students are exposed to new words about ten times: at home, in class and outside class. They practice saying these words, spelling them and also using them meaningfully. This of course can help students memorize these words."

A third one added,

"Our students actually need this kind of focus on learning new words simply because they easily forget meanings. I like VCS because it actively involved my students in learning the new vocabulary and consequently help them keep these words and their meanings in mind for a longer time".

The final main category is **self-confidence and autonomy**. The 10 teachers made positive comments about this category. They said they were certain of their students' abilities of learning new words because VCS positively affected their students' self-confidence. They trusted this way of teaching and they expressed their thanks for it because it helped their students improved their English. They liked it because it helped them introduced the new vocabulary in an organized way. One teacher said,

"VCS is great. It helps my students depend upon themselves. They actually took part in the learning process. Some of them created a personal dictionary to record all new words. Some others liked the idea of using the new words outside the classroom. One of them told me he was full of confidence because he started talking to his father in English."

Another teacher added,

"This way of teaching vocabulary advocates self-confidence and independence because it requires students to participate in the learning process. It asks them to prepare at home, participate in class and follow their vocabulary progress later on. This of course can build a kind of autonomy which I clearly noticed."

A third one commented,

"One difficulty of teaching new words teachers face is pronunciation. Another one is spelling. VCS gives more concentration to these aspects and overcomes those difficulties. Being able to spell and pronounce the new words correctly, my students did not hesitate to use these words and they felt confident."

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Whereas the analysis of the results of the two groups on the pretest revealed that they were equivalent, the results of the posttest showed a significant difference at $\alpha=0.05$ level between the mean scores of the two groups on students' reading comprehension ability in favor of the experimental group. Thus, it could be concluded that the students who studied vocabulary according to VCS outperformed the students who studied vocabulary according to the teacher's book instructions. The better results the students in the experimental group achieved could be related to considering vocabulary as the key factor for language acquisition (Fazeli, 2012; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Mehta, 2009; O'Loughlin, 2012) as used in VCS and to the constant recycling of vocabulary and the multiple exposures to new words (Flanigan, Templeton, & Hayes, 2012; Folse, 2004; Johnson & Heffernan, 2006; Koprowski, 2006) VCS depends upon. It could be also related to dealing with vocabulary as the major key to reading comprehension (Chanier & Selva, 1998; Wessels, 2011).

The clear objective of VCS which concentrates on the three dimensions of vocabulary acquisition (pronunciation, spelling and use) possibly played a positive role in the improvement the students achieved. And the three dimensions of the intentional exposure to new vocabulary (to explore, store and use the new vocabulary items) the rationale focuses on maybe played another positive role in the better achievement the students got. And the regular and immediate assessment done after each lesson and unit that focuses on spelling and meaningfully using new words might had a positive role in that improvement. One more factor that could positively affect the results of the students in the experimental group is the new elements of VCS (the pre-class phase, the post-class phase and the number of times students are exposed to the target vocabulary) that might actively involve students in learning the new vocabulary and assist them not to lose concentration while their teacher is introducing these words in class.

The interview showed that for most teachers this is the first time they had been experienced teaching vocabulary using such an effective strategy and asked how they think and feel about vocabulary acquisition. Some teachers

commented that this interview had made them think about what VCS meant to them; others expressed appreciation that their opinions had actually been considered. Information has been collected with regard to what makes teachers like or dislike VCS and the factors which most influence this way of learning.

The above results clearly indicate that this strategy contributed to the students' improvement in the reading comprehension abilities. This improvement according to the teachers' opinions was likely due to students' motivation (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Williams, 1994), memorization (Kansas University, 2014) and self-confidence and autonomy (Wenden, 1998; Murray, 2011).

The findings of the interview help to interpret and explain the above results. The interview revealed that all teachers liked VCS and some of them (2 teachers) disliked it because of specific issues related to one reason -motivation. The negative opinions developed by these issues were not directly related to the strategy, but to other issues like individualism and time available. Namely, no teachers said they did not like VCS itself. However, to avoid some of the defects in EFL learning/teaching, teachers should concentrate on learning outcomes first not on time availability. They should make use of every minute to achieve their learning objectives. And they should always remember the importance of vocabulary learning which represents the cornerstone of language acquisition. Moreover, they shouldn't teach vocabulary separately, but should know how to introduce this language aspect in a communicative way to enhance the main language skills. Concerning individualism, teachers should have the ability to engage all students in the learning process taking into account the individual differences between them.

The interview revealed three reasons that explained why the teachers liked VCS and as a result why students in the experimental group achieved better results in their reading comprehension than the control group. These three important factors were: (1) motivation, (2) memorization, and (3) self-confidence and autonomy.

Motivation is the driving power by which students achieve their goals. It could be considered the key factor that positively influenced the students' acquisition of new vocabulary and as a result enhanced and improved their reading comprehension proficiency. It seems that motivation positively affected the other two factors: students' memorization and self-confidence and autonomy (Thanasoulas, 2000). Motivation can help students memorize new studied materials and raise their self-confidence and autonomy (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Lowman, 1990). This was clearly reflected by teachers' responses to the interview questions of this study. It is logical to assume that motivation facilitates vocabulary learning. Many studies provided both direct and indirect evidence of the motivation/vocabulary link. Teaching materials that raise learners' motivation lead to better word learning (e.g. Laufer & Hulistijn, 2001; Laufer & Roitblat, 2011).

The relationship between memorization and vocabulary recycling is very obvious. Students can easily memorize new vocabulary because they are exposed to those target words many times. It is simply because the best way to store new words in long term memory is by constant recycling (Fazeli, 2012; O'Loughlin, 2012; Gass and Selinker, 1994). In the present study, the students were actively involved in learning new vocabulary by introducing vocabulary in three phases: pre-class, in-class and post-class. The improvement in students' ability to memorize, understand and use new words was likely due to that active and long learning process they had. Constantinescu (2007) concluded that vocabulary is an essential factor for reading proficiency and extensive reading leads to rich vocabulary mastery. This mutual relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension can provide a good chance of vocabulary recycling and as a result a good chance for vocabulary memorization.

Self-confidence and autonomy are two interrelated pillars of the learning/teaching process. They could be considered an essential cornerstone of language learning in general and vocabulary acquisition in particular (Thanasoulas, 2000; Wenden, 1998). The humanistic sight of learning recommends that pupils must take part in the teaching/learning process, right from the beginning to the end so that they can depend upon themselves and feel confident (Ali, 2000). The present study has strong evidence proving a positive relationship between self-confidence and autonomy and learning language and vocabulary acquisition. As shown in the teachers' responses to the interview, VCS reflected an important positive change in students' self-confidence and autonomy. The more students develop self-confidence and autonomy, the more they will be able to acquire new vocabulary and improve their reading comprehension (Benson, 2001; Rashtchi & Pourmand, 2014).

The above three factors -motivation, memorization and self-confidence and autonomy- are interrelated. They have mutual positive relationship as shown in the above discussion. For example, motivation, which could be considered the main factor, advocates and supports the other two factors -memorization, and self-confidence and autonomy (Thanasoulas, 2000). Another example is memorization which positively influences self-confidence and autonomy (Hussin, Maarof & D'Cruz 2001). In conclusion, these three reasons contributed directly and indirectly to the improvement and enhancement of students' ability to absorb the new vocabulary they learned, and as a result, to positively affect the students' reading comprehension ability.

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Spiritual Intelligence and English Language Learning at a Specific Grade in Secondary Education

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Abstract—This study aimed to explore the relationship between spiritual intelligence and language achievement. To this end, the Persian Spiritual Intelligence Self Report Inventory (SISRI) designed by King (2008) and translated into Persian and validated by Khodadady and Moosavi (2014) was administered to three hundred forty four grade three senior highs school (G3SHS) students in Mashhad, Iran. The students' scores on Grade Three Final English Examination (G3FEE) held nationally by the ministry of education were also employed as indices of their English achievement. The correlation between SISRI and G3FEE did not reveal any significant relationship between spiritual intelligence and English achievement. Three out of seven factors underlying the SISRI, i.e., Transcending, Meta-conscious and Visionary, did, however, correlate significantly with the G3FEE. The results are discussed from empirical and theoretical perspectives and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—intelligence, domain, genera, achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

MacDonald *et al.* (1995), MacDonald, Friedman, and Kuentzel (1999a, 1999b) reviewed the literature on spiritual intelligence and identified thirty instruments which measured the construct. According to MacDonald *et al.* (1999a), most of them dealt with "topics such as non-ordinary states of consciousness (e.g., meditative, hypnotic, dissociative, and the like), coping, health and wellness, and the implications of spiritual and transpersonal phenomena for therapeutic interventions ... (p. 147). Citing scholars such as Maslow (1971), Emmons (2000) and Noble (1987, 2000, 2001), Green and Noble (2010) attributed the diversity of the instruments to the observation that spirituality "defies easy definition or explanation" (p. 29). They do, however, believe that spiritual experiences are precursors to spiritual intelligence (SQ), "a construct that has both theoretical validity and practical implications" (p. 29).

In order to discuss the theory underlying spirituality or the SQ, Green and Noble (2012) referred to Mayer (2000) and Gardner (2000) who believed that spirituality is not an intelligent for two different reasons. Mayer defines intelligence as "an abstract reasoning ability" and believes that spirituality is not an intelligence but heightened consciousness because it involves other abilities. According to Green and Noble (2010), Gardner, however, "disputes the concept of spiritual intelligence in part because it cannot be supported by experimental psychological investigations or psychometric findings" (p. 30). The present authors argue that similar to other types of intelligences, the SQ measures should be approached as a reading comprehension ability whose construct validity can be established by applying schema theory to their validation and assessment.

According to Khodadady and Mousavi (2014), the linguistic phrase "spiritual intelligence", for example, represents a cognitive domain whose existence depends on the single/phrasal words a given person employs to define and operationalize it. King (2008), for example, defined it as

a set of mental capacities which contribute to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one's existence, leading to such outcomes as deep existential reflection, enhancement of meaning, recognition of a transcendent self, and mastery of spiritual states (p. 56).

King's (2008) definition above showed that 44 words or schemata (Khodadady, 2013) represent his cognitive domain of spiritual intelligence. It is linguistically more complex than the definition provided by Amram and Dryer (2007) in 18 schemata, i.e., "the ability to apply, manifest, and embody spiritual resources, values, and qualities to enhance daily functioning and wellbeing" (p. 1). Based on his definition, King designed the 24-statement Spiritual Intelligence Self Report Inventory (SISRI) and validated it factorially with structural equation modelling (SEM) as well as Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax normalized rotation. He extracted four factors from his data, i.e., Critical Existential Thinking (CET), Conscious State Expansion (CSE) Personal Meaning Production (PMP), and Transcendental Awareness (TA).

In order to establish the robustness of the SISRI, King (2008) empirically validated it with the Meaning in Life Questionnaire (MLQ; Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006), Mysticism Scale – Research Form D (MSD; Hood, 1975), Satisfaction with Life Scale (SLS; Diener et al. 1985), Age Universal Intrinsic-Extrinsic Religiosity Scale (AUIE; Gorsuch & Venable,1983), Profile of Mood States Scale – Short Form (POMS-SF; Shacham, 1983), Assessing Emotions Scale (AES; Schutte et al., 1998), Multidimensional Aptitude Battery-II (MAB-II; Jackson, 1998), and Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR; Paulhus, 1984).

Khodadady and Moosavi (2014) [henceforth K&M] employed the Persian version of the SISRI and explored its factorial validity within the religious context of Islamic Republic of Iran. They administered it to 344 female grade three senior high school (G3SHS) students in Mashhad and subjected their responses to Principal Axis Factoring and rotated the extracted factors via Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Their results showed that instead of four, seven factors underlay these students' SQ, i.e., Purposive, Transcending, Contemplative, Meta-conscious, Theo-meditative, Theorizing, and Visionary. In addition to establishing the factorial validity of the SISRI with G3SHS students, K&M employed schema theory to explain the SQ as a linguistic and cognitive ability whose factors or genera depend on a number of variables such as age and educational level.

According to K&M, as a linguistic ability, spiritual intelligence as measured by the SISRI requires its takers to be proficient in the language in which it is presented. It will reveal their SQ if they read its 24 statements and break them into their constituting schemata. In order to relate the schemata to their personal life, the SISRI takers must be able to assign them to three linguistic domains, i.e., semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata. The linguistic classification of schemata into linguistic domains occurs as the takers decide what each schema represents not only by itself but also in combination with other schemata comprising each and all statements. This cognitive process does in fact allow them choose whether the statement they read is not at all, not very, somewhat, very, or completely true of them.

Statement (S) two, for example, reads: "I recognize aspects of myself that are deeper than my physical body". It consists of six syntactic schema *types*, i.e., "I", "of", "myself", "that", "than" and "my" which relate the five semantic schema *types* of "recognize", "aspects, "are', "deeper", "physical" and "body" to create a larger concept called *species* by Khodadady and Bagheri (2014). Khodadady's (2013) microstructural approach of schema theory thus helps place certain schema types within a single but larger concept called *species* in a hierarchical system. King's (2008) Canadian Undergraduate University (CUU) students' performance on the SISRI did in fact show that their spiritual intelligence consists of 24 species whereas that of Iranian G3SHS students comprises 21.

In addition to types and species, schema theory explains another layer of cognition which has alluded being addressed properly within a hierarchical system so far, i.e., genera. The CUU students were, for example, required to decide how true each of the 24 species established by King (2008) was to them. Statistical analyses such as PCA allowed King to decide how related the species were to each other on the basis of his students' responses. Their relationships were in fact determined by the loadings of species on four factors, i.e., CET, CSE, PMP, and TA. Thus schema theory, according to K&M, approaches each factor cognitively by treating it as a genus which embodies certain species as its constituting larger-than schema concepts. The CUU students' genus of TA, for example, consists of seven species.

The identification and classification of concepts under schemata, species and genera within a hierarchical system from the smallest to the broadest concepts measured by the SISRI establishing the CUU students' spiritual intelligence as a cognitive domain which consists of four genera, 24 species and 125 schema types. Schema theory also helps researchers realize that the validity of SISRI depends on the people who take it and the existence of an abstract macro-schema or domain called spiritual intelligence which is fixed in terms of its genera and schemata and therefore can be applied to all people throughout the world is a myth, if not a distortion of reality.

The Iranian G3SHS students' performance on the Persian SISRI, for example, showed that seven genera constitute their spiritual intelligence, i.e., *Purposive*, *Transcending*, *Contemplative*, *Meta-conscious*, *Theo-meditative*, *Theorizing*, and *Visionary*. A G3SHS students is *Purposive* if she makes decisions according to her purpose in life, develops her own techniques for entering higher states of consciousness (HSOC), finds meaning and purpose in her everyday experiences, enters HSOC whenever she likes, moves freely between levels of consciousness, adapts herself to stressful situations, finds meaning in her failures, is aware of a deeper connection between herself and other people and defines a purpose for her life.

Transcending G3SHS students, however, recognize aspects of themselves that are deeper than their physical body. They also recognize the nonmaterial aspects of life which help them feel centered. Through questioning or pondering the nature of reality they define themselves by their deeper, non-physical self. In contrast, *Contemplative* genus consists of only one species requiring female G3SHS students to frequently contemplate the meaning of events in their lives.

As the fourth factor, *Meta-Conscious* genus accrues via four species when G3SHS students deeply contemplate what happens after death while they are highly aware of the nonmaterial aspects of life and enter higher states of consciousness by contemplating the relationship between human beings and the rest of the universe. The fifth factor of the SISRI, i.e., *Theo-Meditative* genus, comprised one species by highlighting the G3SHS students' ability to deeply contemplate whether or not there is some greater power or force (e.g., god, goddess, divine being, higher energy, etc.).

Similar to *Contemplative* and *Theo-Meditative* factors, *Theorizing* and *Visionary* genera extracted as the sixth and seventh factors of the SISRI, respectively, consist of one species. The *Theorizing* genus, however, deals with the G3SHS students' ability to develop their own theories about such things as life, death, reality, and existence while the *Visionary* genus singles out the G3SHS students' ability to see issues and choices more clearly as they experience higher states of consciousness/ awareness. The present study is designed to find out whether the domain of spiritual intelligence measured by the Persian SISRI and its seven genera correlate significantly with G3SHS students' English achievement.

II. Methodology

A. Participants

Three hundred forty four G3SHS students took part voluntarily in this study. Their age ranged between 15 and 20 (mean = 17.19, SD = .58) and thus were far more homogeneous than King's (2008) *original* participants whose mean age was 25.40 years (SD = 10.82; range = 18 to 81). The students had enrolled in 12 schools scattered in the educational districts of one, two, three, four, five, seven and Tabadkan in Mashhad, Iran, in 2013. The majority spoke Persian (n = 331, 96.2%) and a few conversed in Arabic, English, Kurdish and Turkish as their mother language.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were employed in this study: the Persian SISRI and Grade Three Final English Examination.

1. Persian Spiritual Intelligence Self Report Inventory

The Persian Spiritual Intelligence Self Report Inventory (SISRI) validated by K&M was utilized to measure the participants' SQ. It consists of two sections. The first section elicits the demographic information related to participants' age, mother language, field of study, type of school, and educational district. The second section consists of 21 species such as "I frequently contemplate the meaning of events in my life". (Out of 24 species forming the inventory, two, i.e., S3 and S20, did not load acceptably on any genera established by K&M. Statement six had an acceptable but *negative* loading on factor six and was thus removed). G3SHS students were required to read the species one by one and decide whether what the species brought up was not at all, not very, somewhat, very, or completely true of them.

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics as well as reliability estimates of the Persian SISRI and its seven genera, i.e., Transcending, Contemplative, Meta-conscious, Theo-meditative, Theorizing, and Visionary. As can be seen, the SISRI is a highly reliable measure of SQ (α = .85). Its purposive, Contemplative and Meta-conscious genera have acceptable reliability coefficients as well, i.e., α = .76, .64 and .61, respectively. Contemplative, Theo-meditative, Theorizing, and Visionary genera, however, lack reliability because they consist of only one species. The seven species together explain 35.93% of variance in the inventory.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SPECIES AND GENERA COMPRISING THE PERSIAN SISRI

No	Cognitive Genus	Species	Alpha	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
				Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	Purposive	7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 15, 19, 23, 24	.76	2.343	9.764	9.764
2	Transcending	1, 2, 14, 22	.64	1.687	7.029	16.793
3	Contemplative	13	-	1.197	4.988	21.781
4	Meta-conscious	4, 5, 17, 18	.61	1.183	4.930	26.711
5	Theo-meditative	21	-	.798	3.325	30.036
6	Theorizing	9	-	.730	3.040	33.076
7	Visionary	16	-	.684	2.851	35.927
	SISRI		.85			

2. Grade Three Final English Examination

Every year the Education Organization in Iran requires a number of teachers to develop a written examination on the basis of the content of textbook *English Book 3* (Birjandi, Nouroozi, & Mahmoodi, 2010) taught to G3SHS students during the school year. The Grade Three Final English Examination (G3FEE) which was developed and held nationally in 2013 consists of 14 sections. The first section comprises eight sentences in each of which one letter of two words has been removed from their middles. The test takers have to restore the missing letters, e.g., "there are two kinds of illness, ph_sical and m_ntal". The second section contains nine words eight of which have to be chosen in order to be inserted in the eight sentences given below the words. The selection of the appropriate words depends on their meaning as contextualized in the isolated sentences.

Section three of the G3FEE requires changing the syntactic function of six words such as "hot" to complete six isolated sentences such as "the … of the sun makes the earth warm". In section four the test takers have to restore some missing words by themselves in order to complete sentences like "a lab is a suitable place to do some … on acid". Section five requires choosing one of the four syntactic alternatives such as "a. go, b. going, c. to go and d. goes" to complete six sentences such as "I didn't want to take my brother to work, but he insisted on … with me". Section six

calls for making two complete sentences with scrambled words while section seven requires changing two direct sentences to their indirect forms.

Two black and white drawings are given in section eight to provide the context necessary for answering two open ended questions dealing with the drawings. Section nine requires matching eight answers with eight numbered questions whereas two sets of four words are given in section 10 to find out whether the test takers could identity a word with a meaning different from the other three. Similarly, they have to identify two words in a set of four whose stresses are different. Section 11 consisted of four sentences whose meanings are raised as four choices from which the correct one has to be chosen. Section 12 is a six-item cloze multiple choice item test developed on a paragraph and the last section consists of one passage upon which two open ended questions, one multiple choice item and three true and false items have been made. The G3FEE is marked by two teachers and the total score is reported out of 20. The cut off score of 10 and higher determines whether the test takers have passed the English course successfully. The scores on the G3FEE were obtained from the Bureau of Education in Mashhad.

C. Procedures

Being an officially employed teacher of English in Mashhad, Iran, the second researcher of the present study contacted as many colleagues teaching in various schools as she could and asked for their help in talking their G3SHS students into taking the SISRI. Teachers offering English in twelve schools could secure 344 students' agreement and thus certain dates were set for the researcher to administer the inventory in person. As arranged, she attended the classes on the dates specified and explained the purpose of the study in details. To supervise the whole process the researcher walked along aisles and answered whatever questions they raised as she emphasized the importance of answering all the questions. Their main question dealt with higher states of consciousness. They were told that these states were attained when a person meditated and tried to make sense out of reality. They included "self-awareness, environmental awareness, spiritual awareness, or some combination of these" (King, 2008, p. 73). It was further elaborated that lucid dreams were, for example, considered as higher states of awareness (Tart, 1975). The completed inventories were collected after about 10 minutes. To explore the relationship between spiritual intelligence and English achievement the scores of the participants on the G3FEE were also obtained from the Bureau of Education at the end of the school year.

D. Data Analysis

The Persian SISRI and its Purposive, Transcending, Contemplative, Meta-conscious, Theo-meditative, Theorizing, and Visionary genera were correlated with the participants' scores on the G3FEE to find out whether the inventory and its genera relate significantly to G3HS students' achievement. For exploring whether achievement level relates to spiritual intelligence or not, the total scores on the G3FEE were converted to z scores and the participants who scored -1 and below, between -.99 and +.99, and +1 and above were treated as low, middle and high achievers, respectively. The performance of these achievers on the SISRI was then compared with each other by utilizing One-Way ANOVA analysis. All the statistical tests were conducted via IBM SPSS Statistics 20 to test the two hypotheses below.

H1: The SISRI will not correlate significantly with the G3FEE

H2: The seven genera forming the SISRI will not correlate significantly with the G3FEE

III. RESULTS

Table 2 presents the correlation coefficients obtained between the genera forming the SISRI and G3FEE. As can be seen, the inventory does not relate significantly to English achievement and thus confirm the first hypothesis that *the SISRI will not correlate significantly with the G3FEE*. This finding is in line with Khodadady and Mokhtary's (2013) study in which they administered the Persian cultural capital scale (CCS) to 310 G3SHS students. The correlations between the CCS originally designed by Khodadady and Natanzi (2012) did not show any significant relationship between cultural capital and self-reported English achievement.

TABLE 2.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE SISRI AS WELL AS IT GENERA WITH G3FEE

No	Genera	G3FEE	No	Genera	G3FEE
1	Purposive	.028	5	Theo-meditative	.087
2	Transcending	.134[*]	6	Theorizing	-.046
3	Contemplative	-.018	7	Visionary	-.107[*]
4	Meta-conscious	-.170[**]	8	SISRI	-.003

English achievement, however, relates significantly to *Transcending* (r = .134, p<.05), *Meta-conscious* (r = -.170, p<.01) and *Visionary* (r = -.107, p<.05) genera. These results *partially* reject the second hypothesis that *the seven genera forming the SISRI will not correlate significantly with the G3FEE*. The three genera correlating significantly with English achievement, nonetheless, relate to it in different directions which seems to be a distinct characteristic feature of SISRI. While *Transcending* genus helps students achieve more in English, *Meta-conscious* (r = -.170, p<.01) and *Visionary* do the opposite. Several variables contribute to the opposite relationship found between the genera of spiritual intelligence and English achievement as discussed below.

IV. Discussions

Table 3 presents the linguistic analysis of schema tokens and types forming the twelve linguistic genera employed in the SISRI. As can be seen, it contains 302 schema tokens for CUU students which drops to 262 for G3SHS students, indicating that spiritual intelligence as measured by the SISRI provides a narrower cognitive domain for the latter. As it can also be seen in the table, the reduction of schemata shows itself most in semantic tokens, particularly in nouns (76 vs. 65), verbs (43 vs. 38) and adjectives (33 vs 30). Some of these semantic schemata are used just once and therefore have a token of one.

TABLE 3.
SCHEMA TOKEN (O) AND TYPE (Y) FREQUENCY (F) AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHEMA GENERA FORMING THE SISRI

No	Linguistic Schema Genus	G3SHS Students				CUU Students			
		OF	OP	YF	YP	OF	OP	YF	YP
1	Adjectives	30	11.5	14	12.4	33	10.9	16	12.8
2	Adverbs	6	2.3	5	4.4	6	2.0	5	4.0
3	Nouns	65	24.8	38	33.6	76	25.2	43	34.4
4	Verbs	38	14.5	20	17.7	43	14.2	21	16.8
5	Conjunctions	16	6.1	4	3.5	20	6.6	5	4.0
6	Determiners	21	8.0	5	4.4	25	8.3	6	4.8
7	Prepositions	31	11.8	10	8.8	35	11.6	10	8.0
8	Pronouns	30	11.5	7	6.2	36	11.9	9	7.2
9	Syntactic verbs	6	2.3	1	.9	7	2.3	1	.8
10	Abbreviations	2	.8	2	1.8	2	.7	2	1.6
11	Para-adverbs	9	3.4	6	4.8	10	3.3	6	4.8
12	Particles	8	3.1	1	.8	9	3.0	1	.8
	Total	262	100.0	113	100.0	302	100.0	125	100.0

The noun schemata "emotions", "personality" and "sense", for example, have all a token of one. They do represent important and relevant concepts which must bear on the cognitive domain of G3SHS students' spiritual intelligence as they have done to that of CUU students. The statements in which they appear do not, however, load on any of the seven factors extracted from the former's responses. These results show that the SISRI needs to be revised so that it can present spiritually relevant concepts at schema and species levels. The revised SISRI may then relate to English achievement significantly as research results found in similar questionnaires show.

Moafian and Pishghadam (2008), for example, developed and validated the 47-item Characteristics of Successful English Language Teachers (CSELT) to measure teacher success or effectiveness as a cognitive domain. Feizbakhsh (2010) administered the CSELT to 1461 learners and correlated it with their self-reported English achievement scores. She could, however, establish significant relationship neither between teacher effectiveness and English achievement nor between the twelve factors underlying the CSELT and the achievement.

Khodadady, Fakhrabadi and Azar (2012), however, developed the more comprehensive 102-item English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale (ELTAS) as a measure of teacher effectiveness and administered it to 1328 female G3SHS students. Not only did the scale itself ($r = .11$, $p < .01$) but also six out of eight genera constituting the domain correlated significantly with the students' self-reported English achievement scores. The ELTAS revealed even stronger relationship with English achievement when Khodadady and Dastgahian (2016) administered it to 1483 grade four senior high school (G4SHS) students and correlated it with their scores on the grade three final English examination ($r = .15$, $p < .01$).

Although spiritual intelligence does not relate to English achievement as a domain, its *Transcending* genus does, explaining 1.8% of variance in G3SHS students' learning of the language ($r = .134$, $p < .05$). This finding shows that this particular genus of SQ bears more on G3SHS students' English achievement than the *Proficient* genus of teacher effectiveness ($r = .08$, $p < .01$) as reported by Khodadady and Dastgahian (2016) does, explaining only 0.6% in their learning. Since the percentage explained by *Transcending* genus is almost three times more than that of teachers' proficiency as measured by the ELTAS, investing more time and energy on this particular genus of G3SHS students' spiritual intelligence sounds to be more justified than teacher education.

The *Meta-conscious* genus of SQ shows even stronger relationship with English achievement than the *Transcending* does ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$), explaining 2.9% of variance in the learning process. The relationship is, however, negative because low achievers have developed stronger *Meta-conscious* ability in themselves than the middle and high achievers have as shown in Figure 1. The One-Way ANOVA analysis shows that the difference in the mean scores is significant, i.e., $F(2, 341 = 3.25.$ $p < .04)$. Post hoc comparisons using Scheffe test indicated that the mean score for high achievers (M=7.98, SD = 3.315) was significantly different from that of low achievers (M = 9.39, SD =3.20). Middle achievers (M=87.55, SD = 15.34) did not, however, differ significantly from either high or low achievers on *Meta-conscious* genus.
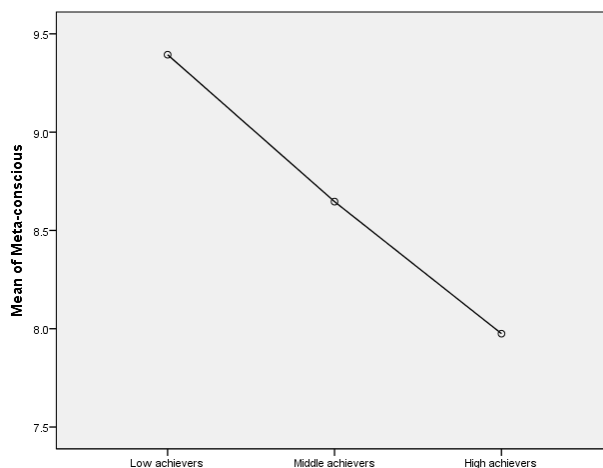
Figure 1. Mean plot for achievers' *Meta-conscious* genus

Similar to *Meta-conscious* genus, the *Visionary* factor underlying the SISRI relates *negatively* but significantly to English achievement as measured by G3FEE. It happens because low achievers employ their spiritual intelligence to "see issues and choices" such as language learning and its relation to the Iranian society "more clearly while in higher states of consciousness/ awareness" than their middle and high achieving classmates do as shown in Figure 2. The One-Way ANOVA analysis, however, does not reveal any significant difference in the mean scores of the three groups of achievers when considered separately because the *Visionary* genus consists of one species only
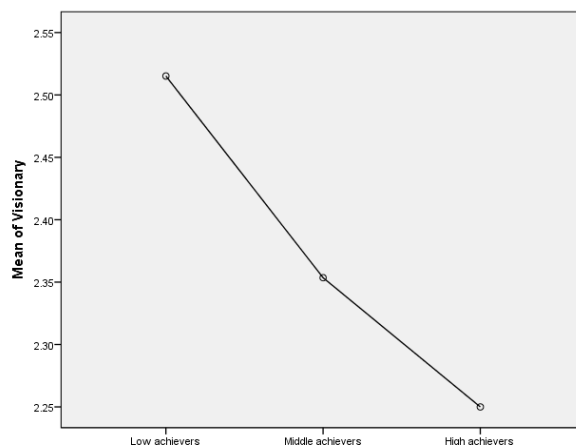

Figure 2. Mean plot for achievers' *Visionary* genus

V. CONCLUSION

The results found in this study are of great importance because they show the *Transcending* genus of spiritual intelligence must be emphasized at grade three senior high schools in order to help learners achieve their educational goals such as passing their courses successfully. As a cognitive domain, the spiritual intelligence itself does not, however, relate to English achievement. Future research must show whether revising the inventory by providing written description of key terms such as "higher conscious" will bring about any changes in the relationship as well as the structure of factors extracted from the Persian SISRI. It is also suggested that other measures of the domain such as the Integrated Spiritual Intelligence Scale (Amram & Dryer, 2008) and Spiritual Intelligence Questionnaire (Zohar & Marshall, 2000) be employed to study the relationship.

Not only different measures of spiritual intelligence but also achievement measures developed on different theories may shed more light on the relationship between spiritual intelligence as a domain and language learning as a learned ability. Khodadady and Dastgahian (2015), for example, showed that the domain of teacher effectiveness relates to English achievement when they are measured by ELTAS and G3FEE, respectively. The domain does not, however, show any significant relationship with the achievement measured by schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Tests). While the G3FEE is a subjective measure of achievement by its very nature and scoring, the S-Tests are objectively developed on all the passages covered during the school year.

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Spirituality and Second Language Education

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Abstract—No doubt any discussion of language learning without taking into consideration the strong influence of social behavior will be in vain. Constructivist theories and methodologies of language learning have firmly refuted many key principles of cognitive theory which reckoned learners as individuals whose process of learning takes place in isolation. By putting accent on communication, the proponents of constructivism endeavor to bring into limelight the significant role the society and environment play in the development of language. No doubt any communication occurs based on shared value systems or spiritual outlooks. The present paper, in an unprecedented study, aims to establish a connection between language pedagogy and spirituality. The study provides ample literature to show how adopting a spiritual outlook towards teaching considerably accelerates the process of learning by raising autonomy, confidence, self-esteem and feelings of empathy and by reducing stress and condescending approaches.

Index Terms—spirituality, second language, education, religion

I. INTRODUCTION

For scholars interested in discussions of spirituality in educational context the book The Heart of Learning; Spirituality and Education (Glazer, 1999) would serve as a good example. Almost all the well-known writers whose essays have been compiled in the book, espouse distinct spiritual approaches which in one way or another seek to establish a connection between spirituality and education as they contend that such liaisons paves the way to unite the individual and occupational aspects of the self and to heighten social justice. Similarly, In Japan, emphasis on what is known to be Kokoro no Kyoiku or "education of the heart" has taken center stage which according to Parmenter (2006) should consist of 35 hours per year of classroom instruction for the nine years of compulsory education which starts from the first grade elementary school and continues until the third year of junior high school. Her proposition, she contends will fulfill the moral targets put forward by Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports and Technology (MEXT) and is in line with "emphasizing continual improvement of oneself and one's group as well as emphasizing responsibilities over rights" (p. 151). She launches a strong tirade against METX due to their failure to promote "identity or citizenship in a transitional arena" (p. 151). As Palmer (1999) argued:

teaching and learning is not just about information or getting a job. Education is about healing and wholeness. It is about empowerment, liberation, transcendence, about renewing the vitality of life. It is about finding and claiming ourselves and our place in the world. (pp. 18-19)

Paolo Freire (1970), who is known as the founder of critical pedagogy, sought to empower learners by considering education as the practice of freedom_ as opposed to educations the practice of domination_ where the adults are encouraged to apply their new found literacy as a means to resist against the social forces which have made them subject to oppression and poverty. His resisting approach in favor of emancipation soon transgressed beyond his native Brazil.

II. DISCUSSION

Liberation theology, as Kristjansson (2007) has pointed out, seeks to interpret "Christian faith out of the suffering, struggle and hope of the poor" (Hiller, 1993, p.35). There is no shadow of a doubt that the readers will be immediately struck by the dominance of spiritual language applied in Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1970). He, accordingly, necessitates instructors to approach learners from oppressed group with a spirit of humility and modesty and warns them not to treat them like all-knowing masters. He famously chants that "Revolutionary leaders cannot speak *without* the people nor *for* the people, but only *with* the people" (1970, p. 131). She firmly stands by the idea that moral education's primary purpose must be to cultivate relations to the self, other people, nature and society by young Japanese learners. This emphasis on the value of adherence to one's social groups is completely parallel to Palmer's (2003) theory that spirituality implies reading beyond the self.

Education of the heart, nonetheless, has been mistakenly interpreted as imposing instructor's diehard religious or political ideologies on educators. Contrary to the mentioned stereotype, in Noddings's (2002) opinion, the chief aim of moral education is "the maintenance and enhancement of caring" (p. 172). In line with Palmer's (2003) definition of spiritualty which denotes forging relationships beyond the level of ego, Noddings believes that schools must be founded

as institutions which enhance a mutual relationship of caring between educators and instructors and this principle of caring needs to pervade all facets of school life, such as, grading, curriculum design and just enforcement of regulations. She and other scholars suggest that familiarizing students with the basic tenets of the world's major religion will help us enhance caring and tolerance for difference among them (Noddings, 2002; Postman, 1995). Ably attempting to take a conciliatory position between the above-mentioned camps, Varghese and Johnston (2007) held that the motivation of Christian professionals who teach English in missionary contexts is often complex and contradictory. They thus called for less essentialism and more dialogue between Christian ELT missionaries and those who call some of their actions into question. The dialogue that some have encouraged (Varghese & Johnston, 2007) was to some extent fostered in an interesting edited volume (Wong & Canagarajah, 2009). Unfortunately, with a few exceptions (e.g., Bradley, 2009; Morgan, 2009; Vandrick, 2009), the bulk of these discussions were limited to attempts at dialogue between evangelical Christians (e.g., Smith, 2009) and self-proclaimed atheists or agnostics (e.g., Johnston, 2009). Moreover, very few of the contributing authors to this tome discussed the importance of an exploration of spirituality outside of evangelical Christian contexts.

Nash (2002) citing Bruner (1996) firmly believes that telling stories play a crucial role in constructing meaning. He, therefore, suggests that spirituality, religion and ethics should be taught in the mold of stories to graduate students in order to promote open-minded dialogue amongst learners. This approach, according to him, will be based on their diverse religious and spiritual narratives rather than upon doctrinal issues. He argues that:

Stories help us to shift perspective more easily, to assume the vantage point of the other. The Greek root for stories or narratives is mythoi, the root of "myths." For example, in the study of religion, narratives, like myths, are neither true nor false; instead, they function more neutrally to remind us that people construct religious stories to explain the nature of life, and to provide a sense of cosmic purpose, personal identity, and morality (p. 155).

In children, spiritual capacities are sometimes recognized, valued, and cultivated or given the space in which the child might cultivate them, but at other times, they are not recognized and therefore not valued as essential to being human. In some instances, these capacities are recognized but not valued, or perhaps even seen as troublesome or threatening. In more sinister instances, these capacities are used as a means of exploitation, such as in the indoctrination of children into belief systems that are harmful to them. After recognition of the value—perhaps even the sacred value—of the spiritual nature of children, the next most important role of the adult in the spiritual life of the child is to engage with the child in these capacities. This speaks to the relational nature of spirituality—it is dependent on relational context for its development (Myers, 1997). In addition to conceptualizing spirituality or the spiritual as a particular type of experience it is also helpful to conceptualize it as integral to all experience, whether it is the specific focus of the experience or not. If our spiritual nature is that which makes us most fully human then our entire existence is infused with this quality of being. In children, spirituality and spiritual development are then seen as integral to growth and development, but spirituality also serves an integrating function. The meaning making involved in spirituality helps the child to put together a working model of (or perspective on) life that serves the purpose of furthering her development.

Spirituality is relational in that it is the bond of connection with oneself, others, and the transcendent or the transpersonal Self. Clearly, all human beings who survive infancy have had a base of relational experience, whether this was fully engaged, attuned parenting or being left in a crib in an orphanage. Being left in a crib would be a base of experience notable for the absence of engagement rather than the quality of engagement. Nonetheless, this base of experience sets the stage for future intrapsychic, interpersonal, and transpersonal relations and sets the stage for the process of spiritual development. It seems to me that when the self is taken into consideration from the point of view of the person as subject, not object, spirituality has to do with the person's orientation to self, others, and the world. The sense of self is infused with the person's spirituality—it is not a separate aspect of being, it is beingness itself. It is true there may be some people who take an active interest in spirituality itself, but that which "propels the search for connectedness, meaning, purpose, and contribution" (Benson et al., 2003, pp. 205-206) can be discussed as spiritual in nature regardless of whether these meanings, purposes, and sense of connectedness are attributed to the divine or the sacred. The capacities for wonder, awe, and wisdom, or the sensitivities such as awareness sensing or mystery sensing are spiritual.

Proponents of language socialization theory and critical Applied Linguistics (e.g., Atkinson, 2002, 2010; Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 2001; Simon-Maeda, 2011; Watson-Gegeo, 2004) firmly insist that the learners acquire a second or foreign language in interaction with others. This view stands in sheer contrast with the mainstream cognitive paradigm that has dominated Applied Linguistics, based on which the learner in viewed as acquiring the language in relative isolation. According to socio-cognitive theorists, thus, learners bring into classroom their various personae, be these political, spiritual or religious in nature. Concerning language education as a moral enterprise, some useful moderate Christian perspectives have also come to light. For example, definitions of missionary work as an endeavor that goes beyond the gaining of converts have been advanced by a few (Smith, 2009; Smith & Carvill, 2000; Snow, 2001). These scholars have held that an ethic of service to others must be the primary motivation of Christian English language teachers who work in a missionary capacity overseas, and that professional development must be an honorable and important end in and of itself (not merely a tool with which to spread the Christian faith). Finally, Smith and Osborn (2007) released an edited volume in which the contributing authors, all Christians, critically examined

various intersections of spirituality, social justice, and language learning and teaching from both theoretical and practical standpoints.

Even Johnson (2003) who vocally introduces himself as an atheist and expresses suspicion towards organized religion in general contends that "there is a profoundly spiritual dimension to human life" (p. 112). Watson-Gegeo (2004), too believes the vital role played by spirituality in language pedagogy and language socialization has been taken for granted but anticipates that this pattern will change stating that spiritualty "will become a significant dimension of the paradigm shift in the human and social sciences that revolutionizes the way we view mind, language, epistemology and learning" (p.343). She reckons this possible paradigm shift in part due to growing pessimism towards the modernist view that spiritual experiences must at best be viewed through the lens of empiricist objectivity and at worst totally dismissed. She argues that as a result of the modernist approach towards language acquisition, the spiritual process of learning has been de-sanctified among third and fourth world peoples.

Borg (2003) in a comprehensive review of sixty-four teacher studies on the pedagogical knowledge of L2 teachers and trainees worldwide came to the conclusion that teachers cognition which is shaped by their prior beliefs about learning, in-service training and other contextual factors inevitably influenced their classroom practices. There are also many instances of prominent individuals in the field of SLE (e.g., Cummins, 1997; Foster, 1997; Vandrick, 1999, 2001). who have delineated how their religious backgrounds and occupations considerably affected their pedagogical practices as language teachers later and their pedagogical practices. Cummins (1997) and Foster (1997) for instance, recount how their education in parochial Catholic schools affected almost unconsciously their teaching approach in L2 classrooms. Similarly, Vandrick, who was grown up in India as the child of missionaries, relates how this experience made her later as an ESL teacher in America adopt unconsciously the well-meaning yet condescending view of someone who was "ministering to the natives all over again" (p.35) by "graciously dispensing the gifts, prizes, wisdom made available through the English language" (p. 35). Bradley's (2005) transformation from a diehard devout Christian to a broader spirituality has galvanized him into trying to practice composition and open-mindedness when teaching his L2 classes.

Duff and Uchida (1997) relate the observation made by a Japanese ESL teacher named Danny. Danny, by symbolically acting as a talkshow host which was modeled after U.S television shows made his students position themselves as talkshow guests. By doing so, not only did he attempt to become more empathetic to her students' needs and interests but also aimed to connect with his learners both with himself and the world beyond his classroom and to bring up issues associated with Japanese culture in order to make her classes timely and relevant. Carol, another teacher, had her learners bring to classroom their own narratives about extra-curricular activities and positioned herself in the role of a counselor. She could, whereby connect with her students by learning as much as she could from them about contemporary Japanese life and pop culture and by discussing international current events with them.

It should be noted that English have been the tool for preaching many religious trends such as Jesuits and Mormons. But as Varghese and Johnson (2007) have truly pointed out Christian missionaries have adhered to a sort of imperialism in order to convince people to convert to Christianity as the superior school of thought. English itself is also an imperialist sovereignty due to its acceptability as the international language. This imperialist nature completely contradicts the spiritual tenets of TESOL which has as its primary goal the value of the oppressed. If spirituality is to shatter the condescending presence of teachers and is to establish modesty, humility and tolerance of all ideologies and worldviews then effective measures should be taken in order to confront this imperialist approach. Furthermore, many scholars who mostly adhere to postmodern discussions of discourse have proposed that English is mostly a worldly materialist language which incapable of incorporating many metaphysical notions present in many religions especially Eastern ones. Baurain (2007) for example believes that many Quranic Islamic concepts could not be reliably interpreted in the mold of English language. English therefore, is sometimes pessimistically regarded as a discourse for disseminating imperialist and capitalist and colonial ideologies of the western power to dominate the East. In addition, the content incorporated in TESL books is believed to be creating a value-system which is spirituality-free or presents a quality of spirituality which is in line with the ideologies of Christians or the figures of authority.

Through the examination of the factors that play a role in the development and expression of empathy, it appears that empathic behaviors are unconsciously practiced on a daily basis, as children interact with other people, sometimes during times of need. In order to encourage this expression of empathy, children are often reminded to follow the *Golden Rule*, which is a biblical ideal (Coles, 1997). The Golden Rule to "Do unto others, as you would have others do unto you" (p. 10), or variations of these words, have been used by several religious figures within diverse cultures, from the philosophies of Plato and Socrates, to the divinity of Jesus Christ, in order to summarize their ethical teachings (Terry, 2006). Although this *rule* of ethics and ethical conduct "appears to have originated in England, around the 17th century" (p. 10), the ethic of reciprocity has been found to appear in written format over 5,000 years ago (Terry, 2006). Despite its ancient origination, it appears that psychologists have been slow in recognizing that spirituality may be related to human development (Holden, 2001). For example, Benson, Roehlkepartain, and Rude (2003) searched two databases, seeking articles that addressed spirituality in childhood or adolescence, and found less than 1% of articles discussed such spirituality. When the researchers narrowed their search to six leading developmental journals, they found only one such article.

Although spirituality is beginning to be more often addressed in research on children and adolescents, Mills (2002) notes that until the 1980s, the term spirituality had not even been used in the MedLine database. Despite the relatively

small sample of previous research, there is a growing awareness and interest in spiritual and moral influences in general (Benson et al., 2003; Smith, Faris, Lundquist-Denton, & Regnerus, 2003). In addition, these researchers explain that historical evidence from several cultures has shown that humans demonstrate a tendency toward spirituality in order to establish their existence. Thus, another variable that may be related to children's levels of empathy is their level of spirituality.

As researchers' interest in both spirituality and religiosity has increased over the past few decades, they have attempted to define, study, and theorize about these two constructs (Zinnbauer et al., 1997). As several definitions and meanings are attributed to the constructs, researchers continue to struggle to come to a consensus regarding a comprehensive and accepted definition for *spirituality* and *religiosity* (Compton, 2001; Hackney, 2003; Smith et al., 2003; Zinnbauer et al., 1999). By reviewing previous research regarding these constructs, this researcher views a notable difference between the two constructs. Specifically, this researcher views religiosity as the expression, practice of, or search for the significance of the connection between oneself and some larger, usually supernatural reality, or "ritual from the head" (Marler & Hadaway, 2002, p. 296). This connection is usually accomplished through using a combination of both personal and institutional belief systems. On the other hand, spirituality is viewed by this researcher as addressing the actual connection, the path, the search for, or an overall awareness of the sacred through a more personal, internal, non-traditional, independent, or experiential manner. More specifically, this could be explained as "what you feel from the heart" (Marler & Hadaway, 2002, p. 296). Since the focus of the current study is about one's personal connection or relationship with a Higher Power, the term spirituality will be utilized. Despite the difficulty in coming to a consensus regarding the definition of spirituality, and although there are relatively few research studies examining the actual levels of spirituality within individuals, there have been some important findings. Specifically, spirituality has been found to be related to positive mental health of adults and children (Doolittle & Farrell, 2004; Hackney, 2003; Houskamp, Fisher, & Stuber, 2004), along with positive social functioning and higher reported levels of empathy (Berger, 2002; Lickona, 1983; Maton & Wells, 1995; Smith, 2006). Smith (2006) also found that praying was highly related to empathy within Americans.

III. Conclusion

The present study aimed to put forward a comprehensive literature on the relationship between spirituality and second language pedagogy. Though most of the studies have in one way or another acknowledged the obstacles, they unanimously convince us that careful measures should be taken to integrate pedagogy and spirituality in educational contexts. By spirituality we never mean the imperialist imposition of fixed doctrines and ideologies on the learners. On the contrary we should aim to foster modesty, humility and a tolerance for all worldviews. By doing so, it is aimed to shatter the idol-like figure of an all-knowing instructor and to go beyond self by integrating learners with their social groups and to raise their awareness about the world surrounding them and to make them confident enough to resist imperial and colonial ideologies imposed on them. The adoption of this approach will be unquestionably in line with constructivist theories of language which unlike congnitivism take into consideration interaction, communication and community as the most important factors contributing to one's linguistic development.

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Morality in Victorian Period[*]

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Abstract—**Morality is a significant element in literary works throughout history. In Victorian England, it gained unprecedented concern because of the loss of religious belief and material progress. Matthew Arnold, the most influential critic of his time, attaches great significance to morality in literature. The major reason for Victorian's morality concern is presented and the religious background of that time is introduced. Matthew Arnold's belief in poetry's religious function is stated and analyzed.**

Index Terms—**Matthew Arnold, morality, poetry**

The significance of morality in literary works has been in dispute for centuries. From Plato on, moral concern, through ups and downs, however, is more or less indispensable in literary production and criticism. Victorian England is much noted for its strong attachment to moral concern. Under the influence of the Victorian environment, many literary men, in their search for a solution to the inner conflict have constituted from the beginning a strong ethical and moral element in their literary works.

I. NECESSITY OF MORALITY IN A TRANSITIONAL AGE

The concern of morality is an indispensable element in literature. The unity of the Greek ethos guarantees the unity of Greek drama, from which Aristotle extracts the assertion of "Catharsis." At that time, men were still comparatively simple in their thinking in their assumption that, for their experience, the most powerful of instruments was poetry. Morality, or more specifically, morality in religion, had provided a stay for human soul in the Middle Ages. Then moral prepossession which had dominated antique centuries passed on to the Renaissance. In that spirit and faith Sidney wrote about function of literature; and that spirit and faith is to be found in Spencer and Milton. And the tradition passes to the great romantics: Wordsworth, Coleridge, and many other obvious names we may leave aside. We even find Byron, a seeming dandy, who appears less a palpable member among other moralists, claims that the highest of all Poetry is the ethical and the highest of all objects should be moral truth; and Shelley, an atheist himself, shared with Byron the same judgment.

Writers on controversial topics are only too prone to see the years of their own as epoch-making, especially when religious issue, an essential one both in literature and reality, is in question, and Victorian literary men belong to this category in a particular way. Victorians and literary in Victorian period are much noted for the concern of morality. According to M. H. Abrams, the term "'Victorian,' and still more Victorianism, is frequently used in a derogatory way, to connote narrow-mindedness, sexual priggishness, the determination to maintain feminine 'innocence' (that is, sexual ignorance), narrow-mindedness, and an emphasis on social respectability" (1999, p.329). That is certainly a representative opinion prevailing in modern age. However, a moment's thought should propel us to realize how partial and unsatisfactory such generalizations are likely to be. Though it has been in constant debate whether or not literature and morality are two distinct spheres with no inherent connection, this "problem" is "less a philosophical problem than a problem arising from the ingrained attitudes in most of our minds" (Buckley, 1959, p.14).

To understand their moral concern, we have to have a close look at their religious condition. By the time of Protestant Movement, life was still conceived primarily in theological terms, and to its problems, religion alone held the answer or was to find the answer there. Fundamental unity of Christian thought remained unimpaired until late part of the eighteenth century, because as the products of the Middle Ages, Protestantism, were still at one with Catholicism, and shared most of the presuppositions with the opponents. Catholicism then was forced to find compromise unavoidable in the nineteenth century because rationalism of the eighteenth century already made divine revelation difficult. Together with many subdivisions within English Anglican, there are good grounds for accepting contemporary views on the decades in the early nineteenth century in England as a time of crisis in religion.

Victorian England was co-perverted by both optimistic and pessimistic air resulting from material prosperity and spiritual decaying. In 1870, Disraeli noted the current "disturbance of mind" and "ascendant materialism," which were caused, "Firstly, by the powerful assault on the divinity of Semitic literature by the Germans; and secondly, by recent discoveries of science, which are hastily supposed to be inconsistent with our long-received convictions as to the relations between the Creator and the created" (Robbins, 1959, p.6). The desire to seize a new faith under emotional stress, or to cling to the old Christianity and accept it for all its superstition for the sake of social order and personal

need, had found both in its tensions the readiness to abandon private judgment for embracing some external authority. But which authority to accept is the question. When whether to choose The Old or the New religion was still unsettled, minor branches of the new already in dispute. What is worse, in that high period, the commercial prosperity and general expansion around the mid age left the educated reader freer to observe and take sides in the religious ritual controversy as in Oxford Movement and the debate on the relations between the Church and State. Cheerful optimism or serene tolerance was hardly the only distinguishing sentiment over Biblical criticism, Ritual practices, and the claims of physical science. Even the Oxford Movement was, on the whole, doctrinal or ritual without much metaphysical appealing. For all its width and tense in the scope, the Oxford Movement left the controversy unsolved. The eventual result is, as Matthew Arnold wrote to his French correspondent, M. Fonanès in 1881:

Religious disputes… still attract great attention, and create passions and parties; but certainly they have not the significance which they once had. The moral is that whoever treats religion, religious discussions, questions of churches and sects, as absorbing, is not in vital sympathy with the movement of men's minds at present… The great centre-current of our time is a *lay* current. (Russell, 1895, p.1:5)

For all its force, the effect did not last long in a time when an external authority still imperative.

Oxford Movement died out, but the religious crisis remained unsettled. When the faith wavered, when God seemed remote and the dignity of man merely hypothetical, the artist lost his capacity to feel at rest and his assurance that the higher self actually exists. Arnold laments that his "Scholar-Gipsy" at Oxford could to less extent "animate" or "ennoble" the despairing soul. Yet the melancholy of the poem remained comprehensible to many "light half-believers of their causal creeds," who were unable to make for righteousness consciously. As the Sea of Faith ebbed, the intellect lay naked to all the winds of doubt with nowhere to stand firm. In an age overpowered the will to believe; and the mind was left, without ethical sanction, to its own divided aims. Without a hard heart, man may easily go astray to inner bewilderment, just as Empedocles did. It was under such mind state that Arnold wrote his famous lines: "Wandering between two worlds, one dead, / The other powerless to be born…" ("Stanzas from the Grande Chartreuse" ll.85-86).

The dead world being the world of orthodox beliefs and certainties, the one not yet born may come from the world of scientific truths and demythologized religion. Arnold's reinterpretation of the Bible and Christianity in an effort to establish their unique claim to permanence as moral and spiritual guides is one of the endeavors to restore their sense of wholeness of his contemporaries. The disintegration of the unity of man, nature, and God which Empedocles experienced in his time, and which Arnold experiences in modern world, is not an isolated event. The moment of Empedocles' death is "a true turning point or pivot of history," because it is the instant, as J. Hillis Miller sees it, "when God withdraws from the world," and only at such a time does man experience himself as "complete emptiness" (1963, p.261). All Arnold's frustrated attempts to escape back to the epoch when man could participate in the divine life have led him inexorably to the discovery of the truth about man's present condition: "vacuity and distance" are what man, in these bad times, really is. And this "vacuity and distance", "the void which in our breasts we bear," can in no way be escaped (Ibid).

In 1861 Jowett prophesied that "in a few years there will be no religion among young men, *unless religions is shown to be consistent with criticism*" (qtd. in Robbins, 1959, p.8). The important implication is that intellectual men could not find satisfaction within the Church to meet both their emotional and spiritual needs and their critical intelligences. It was of prime urgency to reconstruct a spiritual holder, because when faith could no longer sustain its former spiritual condolence and sustain. It was an age as in which the opinion that religious belief was necessary for moral and social purposes was universal, and yet real belief was feeble and precarious.

II. The Function of Literature in a Transitional Epoch

Under the influence of the Victorian environment, and more particularly of his father Thomas Arnold, Matthew Arnold's search for a solution to his inner conflict had constituted from the beginning a strong ethical element. Beginning in the nineteenth century, literature itself began unmistakably to play the role, or at least was intended to play the role, that religion once had. Victorian men of letters resorted even more to morality than their predecessors, which manifests itself in their highlighting exploration of morality in the literary works. For one thing, a set of rigid religious ritual and "miracles," already under severe suspicion in itself, could not match the scientific exploration of a nation prospering at an unprecedented speed. Meanwhile, the prevailing anxiety that religion was fast losing its power would kindle man's aspire for a moral sustainment to defend from the fear of unbelief. Such anxious uncertainty was to be relieved by the accentuated moral attachment to literature, which was beginning to be endowed with religious bearing outdoing its task, as Sir Sidney preaches, to teach and to delight.

In the nineteen century, there emerged "the belief that the aesthetic consciousness was capable of organizing and transfiguring the whole of human experience" (Madden, 1967, p.v). Despite a marked shift from idealist to empirical attitudes in philosophy generally, the tendency to endow poetry and art with an unprecedentedly grandeur power gained in clarity and precision as the nineteenth century progressed. "Though few could explain the exact process by which art was to accomplish its religious mission, none questioned its ultimate relevance to the ethical needs of an aspiring people" (J. H. Buckley, 1981, p.144). At the time of Hegel and Goethe, art has already begun to take on a function analogous to religion, and even to some extent replacing it (Honan, 1981, p.299). Schiller's belief in art, under whose spell Arnold was also influenced, helps to explain such phenomenon by describing the aesthetic impulse as going

beyond the individual and as capable of binding the whole of society together in a new and higher form of culture. In England, Thomas Carlyle claims, "Literature is but a branch of Religion, and always participates in its character: however, in our time, it is the only branch that still shows any greenness; and, as some think, must one day become the main stem" (Abram, *Norton Anthology*, 2006, p.926). In *Arnold and the Romantics* (1977), W. A. Jamison explored Victorian definition and their moral concern of poetry. He cites from Carlyle, Mill, Ruskin, Leigh Hunt to illustrate their preponderance on content to metrical composition, and poetic "healing" function felt by Mill, Newman, Keble, who regard poetry as "medicine,""solace for the mind" to free them from disappointments and sufferings of actual life. (p.11-13). So Matthew Arnold, when making his claims for the religious function of literature, was only stating a phenomenon that had become, in many instances, a *fait accompli*. As a practicing poet, Arnold, like Goethe and Schiller before him, found the idea of harmonizing and ennobling human experience through poetry had an enormous appeal. Religion for them is often a goal arrived at by the way of literature; and in the last two centuries, "in agnostic or convert alike, literature and religion unmistakably overlap" (Raleigh, 1957, p.263-64). It was in this way and for this purpose that such writers as Carlyle, Mill, Arnold and GeorgeEliot became literary critics, and all the more, moralists.

In 1881 publication of Arnold's "The Study of Poetry" made a great stir which threw him into incessant depreciation:

The future of poetry is immense, because in poetry, where it is worthy of its high destinies, our race, as time goes on, will find an ever surer and surer stay. There is not a creed which is not shaken, not an accredited dogma which is not shown to be questionable, not a received tradition which does not threaten to dissolve. Our religion has materialized itself in the fact, in the supposed fact; it has attached its emotion to the fact, and now the fact is failing it. But for poetry the idea is everything; the rest is a world of illusion, of divine illusion. Poetry attaches its emotion to the idea; the idea *is* the fact. The strongest part of our religion today is its unconscious poetry. (Super, 1973, p.9: 161)

It is from this declaration that T. S. Eliot fires the severe attack on of Arnold's attempt "to affirm that the emotions of Christianity can and must be preserved without the belief," and he strongly scolds that "Arnold dismisses altogether the intellectual element in religion, and leaves only art and morals; ... and truly moral art is all that Arnold leaves us in the place of religious faith" (1928, p.66). "From this proposition," Eliot continues to draw his conclusion, "two different types of man can extract two different types of conclusion: i) that Religion is Morals, ii) that Religion is Art" (1932, p.434).

There is a tradition of interpretation associated with T. S. Eliot, I.A. Richards, and Lionel Trilling on charging Arnold with religious aestheticism, with having reduced religion to poetry, to a moral subjectivism. It is presented in Trilling's biography of Arnold, for instance, the charge of religious dilettantism that Arnold is but "a connoisseur of Christianity" (1939, p.363).In the analysis of the origins of Arnold's religious belief, DeLaura suggests, "the conflation of all these disparate men, Edmund Copleston, John and Thomas Keble, Edward Hawkins, and Newman," as well as the grounds for his admiration, suggest "the complexity, and perhaps the confusion" of Matthew Arnold's religious position (1969, p.10). Such confusion can be explained in the context of larger social background. W. O. Raymond, in a survey of the Higher Criticism in England during the nineteenth century, concludes that the typical attitude of the English mind to questions of philosophy and religion, similar to the views of Nature, is marked by "individualism, subjectivity, lack of systematic development, absence of radicalism" (qtd. in Robbins, 1959, p.11). Under such circumstances, something universal, objective and systematic is imperative.

Arnold's distinction as a propagandist for ethical criticism, Leavis also claims, cannot be questioned, yet it must be also apparent, he continues to argue, the propaganda could hardly have had its virtue if the pamphleteer had not had notable qualifications in criticism. The value of this essay, Leavis defends that, does not "depend on our accepting without reservation the particular terms in which Arnold stresses the importance of poetry in these introductory sentences, and he is not disposed of as a literary critic by pointing out he was not theologian or philosopher; nor is it probed that he was incapable of consistency and vigour of thought." (1968, p.261)The value lies in instead, if we deplore Arnold's way with religion, Leavis continues, that "as the other traditions relax and social forms disintegrate, it becomes correspondingly more important to preserve the literary tradition" (ibid). As was the case with so many of his views, the seed of the idea was Victorian anxiety and had its nurture from the Victorian moral climate. When things are as already they were in Arnold's time, it is necessary, as what Arnold has undertaken for "Culture," to do the work by a theologian as such if he could do it better. One could not construct an Arnoldian "theology" on such judgment as Professor Lowry's reasonable but guarded statement that Arnold "probably knew more philosophy than he is generally given credit for" (Lowry ed., 1932, p.5). Perhaps there is no happier term to apply to him than ethical idealist. With a clearer view and a more balanced estimate than prevailed in the first half of this century, Arnold's view on religion, if not fully right, is stimulating. As Barzun's cool concession puts it, "compared with some of the religious enthusiasts of today...Matthew Arnold would be accounted a precisian" (qtd. in Robbins viii). It is more to the point to examine what he had to say, and why he felt he had to say it, in the light of his reading, his life and times, and his considerable influence. When this is done, the conviction emerges that in a broadly human context, morality is one of the eternal human problems, and his approach is again synthesis. Arnold was, in Mrs. Humphry Ward's words, "A Modernist before the time" (Machhann, 1988, p.31). He was ahead of his time in foreshadowing in philosophical and theological thinking what are characteristic of our own day. What he offers is a Christianity reduced to its essential values by the eliminating of an obsolete incredible supernaturalism. He appeals to basic fact of Christian experience, but his approach is that of literary critic.

The key to this liberal tradition is the experiential and the moral foundations of religious belief. Arnold explicitly asserts that "The paramount virtue of religion is that it has *lighted up* morality" (Super, 1962, 3:134).God must be envisioned as the ground of moral values and, therefore, conceived essentially as a moral influence, rather than in abstract metaphysical sense. God is known neither by intellectual demonstration nor by mystical vision but rather by the exercise of conscience and the moral will. Arnold's religious position must not be viewed simply as that of a maverick or a dilettante but rather that it must be seen as standing squarely in a tradition of liberal-modernist theology, when to be interpreted in a more broad way. Arnold claims in some way a moral purpose for literature. Why he should have to say such things is a question rarely asked within a discipline so concerned to examine its own history. Eliot has always been at pains to reject the legacy of nineteenth-century critical thought, and at the same time to establish an adequate notion of the reality of poetry. The interest arises out of his sense of the interior order both of a poem and of the poet. In both, his thought centers on the idea of impersonality. For Arnold, however, it is an internal and external need combined. Whatever moral reality poetry possesses, then, is intimately connected with the question of order. Arnold did see poetry and the poet as interrelated, but poetry means far more than a mere utterance of the author's mind, rather, he is against using poetry as an expression. For him, poetry is making something, i.e., the utility of poetry. There are traces of Utilitarianism's influences, but Arnold is cautious of vulgarizing poetry in practical application.

III. ARNOLD'S MORAL CONCERN IN POETRY

All through his life, Arnold has been searching for the Idea behind the concrete form in poetry. What he concerns in religion is also the organizing Idea, which for him has been waning and becoming materialized. "But moral rules, apprehended as ideas first, and then rigorously followed as laws, are, and must be, for the sage only. The mass of mankind have neither force of intellect enough to apprehend them clearly as ideas, nor force of character enough to follow them strictly as laws" (Super, 1962, 3: 134). Arnold tries to redefine religion so to reestablish the connection between God and man by endow morality the religious function.

He does not want, however, a narrowly didactic poetry and considers preaching a debasement of the poet's function, instead, he revolts against it. Arnold believes passionately in the beneficent influence of "culture," urgently needful in an age whose civilization had become increasingly "mechanical and external" and whose religious tradition in decline. His writings in later years are mainly centering on religious concern, and some criticism advanced against him that Arnold had forsaken Hellenism for Hebraism, had reversed the stand taken in *Culture and Anarchy*. Such criticism missed the obvious fact that religion was an integral part of culture, as Arnold saw it. His definitions of culture, embracing reason and the will of God as the marks of that perfection which is man's goal, reveal clearly that the Hellenistic emphasis aimed at the English Philistine was not intended to be made at the expense of religion. Arnold's religious writings were a deepening and modifying of his plea for culture, not a retreat from Greece to Israel. The touchstone method used in his literary criticism comes into play, to distinguish between mere morality and that which is "morality touched with emotion," or religion.

Hebraism and Christianity, then, have that heightened insight and feeling about morality which constitutes religion. The Hebraic virtue of self-conquest and the stoic virtue of resignation, coupled with the intellectual virtue of disinterestedness, prepared for that simple, intuitive, spontaneous apprehension of the whole of experience which characterized great poetry. Arnold developed his aesthetic position and solved the religious problem within an epistemological framework which placed the imaginative reason at the summit, connecting morality (religion's ethical element) with the Hellenic ideal of total perfection, dogma (the intellectual element) with the free play of dialectical reason, and ritual or liturgy with that visitation of creative energy which organized man's noblest moral and intellectual experiences so as to make them beautiful. Here again it is his reconciliation habit at work.

Life itself, as Coleridge taught, is a tension between opposite forces and the life of faith subsists in a tension between two poles of experience: between the head, which finds no sufficient evidence, and the heart, which bids us trust the larger hope. "The moral and intellectual are always dividing, yet they must be reunited, and in the highest conception of them are inseparable" (Super, 1977, n11: 179). Arnold's fear is that once the intellect has gained control, it not only destroys the wholeness of the world but dissolved the union between man, Nature and God. Arnold noted "I cannot conceal from myself the objection which really wounds & perplexes me from the religious side is that the service of reason is freezing to feeling, chilling to the religious mood. & feeling & the religious mood are eternally the deepest being of man, the ground of all joy& greatness for him. (Ullmann, 1989, p.160)

For him the essentials are dignity of thought and sentiment and distinction of manner and utterance. In modern man, a martyr to thought, insight and mystery—necessities for a poet, which lies beyond reason, has been blotted out by the blighting light of intellect. Mind and spirit no longer form a unity－for this there must be faith in something beyond what can be known by the rational mind. The age was uncongenial, the state of knowledge uncertain, and the struggle too lonely, not because the poetic gift and the ambitions it inspired were unworthy, but the disillusionments and anxiety caused by the division between the mind and heart. For Arnold morality is feeling and emotion attachment as against the intellect and reason which will frozen emotion, for which he is torturing in their split.

In the early fifties he turned to morality and "character" in order to escape the dialogue of the mind, with its disillusionments and ennui. Yet, as "Empedocles on Etna" makes clear, the moral life, so far as it was characterized by mere endurance and stoic resistance, was to Arnold a second best.   For Empedocles "the wisdom of his race" has

ceased to have any cogency. Consequently, he rests on the light of the independent intelligence. He counsels Pausanias against a superstitious credulity in the gods and urges on him the practical necessity of intellectual faculty. "Mind is the spell which governs earth and heaven" (l.27).Yet he knows—and this is the essential source of his grief—that the mind can attain to no complete and certain knowledge:

    Hither and thither spins
    The wind-borne, mirroring soul,
    A thousand glimpses wins,
    And never sees a whole;
    Looks once, and drives elsewhere, and leaves its last employ.
    The Gods laugh in their sleeve
    To watch man doubt and fear,
    Who knows not what to believe
    Since he sees nothing clear,
    And dares stamp nothing false where he finds nothing sure. (ll. 82-91)

The primary thing, to Arnold, is the feeling of peace and spiritual well-being at the triumph of the higher rational self over the lower self, not the literal interpretation emerging in a stock theological image like that of the clay and the potter. It is, in this sense, life is the visible victory of the higher self. Despair meant the refusal to realize the true self by devotion to the Eternal. And "the most dangerous form of despair," said Kierkegaard, was "man's unawareness of his spiritual essence, his blind absorption in material values. The troubled soul beset with a liberating 'despair', a genuine weariness of the ego, and a passionate desire to find some new center of life which might renovate the springs and purify the aims of the social and exhausted nature"; And "the dark night of the soul," or the "spiritual dryness of medieval mysticism," could be experienced only by one who "recognized the loss which his inability to 'die' unto the old self, by one who could cry aloud for succor "in a dry and thirsty land where no water is" (qtd. in J. H. Buckley, 1981, p.92).

Our "materializing" theology must realize that on intellectual grounds it cannot cope with modern science. The one thing needful is to "restore the intuition."Starting with Arnold's assumption that a broad culture and literary insight－ what remained powerful part in religion at the time was poetry－are indispensable for restoring the intuition, for basing the permanent truth of the Bible on psychological experience rather than on dogmatic authority or systematic theorizing, we may notice here the critical "tact" at work. "Moral culture [is] so intimately allied to, nay incorporated with aesthetic culture,… that to their mutual perfection the one cannot be conceived without the other" (qtd. in Robbins, 1959, p.55).

Arnold suggests that society is "controlled by the actual instincts and forces," so that "it must seek to penetrate and then check with other "instincts and forces. It is on this basis he calls for a transformation of the "dominant idea of religion through the re-energizing stimuli of culture and poetry (Madden, 1967, p.169). Religion, however, is not abandoned. The whole book of *Culture and Anarchy* indeed is a collection of articles nearly indecipherable without understanding of the religious expressions at the time. Arnold desires to shift the trend of doing into inner self thinking as his terminology of the categories of "Hebraism" and "Hellenism". "The Hebraic virtue of self-conquest and the stoic virtue of resignation, coupled with the intellectual virtue of disinterestedness, prepared for that simple, intuitive, spontaneous apprehension of the whole of experience which characterized great poetry" (Madden, 1967, p.169). Here again his sense of unity is at work, endeavoring to embrace two spheres of human mind activities in a harmonious entity of the self and the state.

Arnold's poetical work may be seen to have as one of its significant nexus the apprehensions that are achieved by his persistent attempts to discover what poetry in his age could be. His method is indirect. Two dominant topics of Arnold's investigation are the question of the artist's attitude toward external experience, a problem that is usually approached through the opposition of those antitheses. Underlying these speculations—and inseparable from them—is an attempt to define the attitudes the wise poet should take toward his own age and toward the past and the future alike. For Arnold aesthetic and ethical ideals are ultimately the same, so that the way of the wise poet, which involves a paradoxical detachment with participation, the achieving of a passionate sincerity, is also the way by which the thoughtful man may be reconciled to life."In best art," Arnold thus explicitly claims, "poetry and morality are one"(Super, 1964, 4: 161, 1965, 5:100).

Arnold's claims for poetry, as defined by Leavis, are "religious claims; and they are intimately connected with his expectations of poetry as a moral force" (1968, p.263). "The best of Arnold's criticism is an illustration of his ethical views, and contributes to his discrimination of the values and relations of the components of the good life" (ibid). His moral obsession with poetry is in accordance with his interpretation of poetry as criticism of life, composed with ideas. "The noble and profound application of ideas to life is the most essential part of poetic greatness"(Super, 1973, 9: 337). The evaluation of poetry as "criticism of life" is inseparable from its evaluation as poetry; that the moral judgment that concerns us as critics must be at the same time a delicately relevant response of sensibility.

Whenever there is some question, he tends to resort to the effects of poetry and combining the religious and aesthetic power into one. This is consistent, in a way, since he is almost a sort of "pragmatist." One may measure the seriousness with which Arnold embraces his classical standards by noting that in judging his own poetry he elevates 'Sohrab and Rustum" above 'The Scholar-Gipsy." This ranking, with which very few readers would agree, gives evidence of how far

spiritual anxiety could impel Arnold into aesthetic moralist. He would "judge the truth of poetry, just as he would judge the truth of Christianity, by its inward effects, its power to stabilize man and fit him for his moral action" (Vincent Buckley, 1959, p.53). Such a view is obviously unsatisfactory beyond a certain point, and it is too subjective. But he is an odd critic: "a great critic whose chief terms run over into one another, and persuade by their confusion" (ibid). We cannot agree with him in his solution, but we cannot help feeling the same with him in questioning.

In all its operations this principle of redress and restraint, of balance and flexibility, is "in a tradition of humanistic writing which looks back to Erasmus and forward to Edmund Wilson" (Robbins, 1959, p.163). His own critical principles reflect "a philosophy that reveals, not logic and system, but rather a set of attitudes that are eclectic in allegiance and tolerant in application" (ibid 162). It is the reciprocal relation of the intellect and emotion that has made up what there is of our civilization, the two polarities of "the imaginative reason," which Arnold strives as the climax of his endeavour, the completion of his critical doctrine. The synthesis has been achieved, the dialectic successfully resolved. The phrase is persuasive and challenging. Yet it is a phrase, as many of his other catchwords, which defies precise definition. So Arnold became the most influential critic of the Victorian era because he assimilated the views of his age, corrected their eccentricities and excesses, and states them in a more coherent and consistent form. Arnold agreed that poetry should teach moral truth; but he recognized the complexity of the assignment more clearly than most of his contemporaries, and insisted that in fulfilling it poetry must retain its peculiar identity.

IV. Conclusion

Arnold's theory of poetry, at first designed to combat romantic melancholy, has its intrinsic limitations which can be accounts for by the situation it was devised to correct; while its strength lies in its reassertion of the humanistic value of poetry in an age of aesthetic confusion- diversity in interest can be seen, in a sense, as a state of confusion. Arnold's effort, however, was bound to fail; for he tried to "impose upon the post from outside a form of discipline and an attitude of mind without sufficient consideration for the idiosyncrasy of the individual poetic temperament and for the necessary genuineness of the poetic impulse" (Jamison, 1977, p.23).He intended to construct a set of principles from by building a best self from inside, but the order, once established, has to be qualified by an outside measurement. His effort turns to fail in the end. But Arnold tried to invert the generally accepted relationship between poetry and the morality by asking the poet to supply the deficiencies of his age. His theory is important however not only as a corrective to the spiritual dilemma of his age, but as a reminder that we have not yet solved the problem with which he had struggled. The absence of an abiding faith as a center for moral action has continued to haunt thinking men in modern society.   He faced the central issues of his day and of ours.

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Methods of Translating Different Cultural Categories and Elements in Nahj ul Balagheh

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Abstract—One of the challenges and difficulties of translation, especially literary and religious texts is finding their equivalent because to make a translation understandable, both the interpreter and the audience must have access to presuppositions prior to entering the text. Vladimir Imir is among the scholars suggesting seven approaches for translating cultural categories through which and after a survey of other examples of Nahj ul Balagheh, definition, literal translation, substitution, lexical creation, omission, addition, borrowing and on occasions substitution are considered among favorable approaches. As regards to the translation of Nahj ul Balagheh, interpreters such as Shahidi, Faghihi, and above all Faiz ul Islam come first, followed by Ayati and Dashti; Allameh Jaffari's translation has not been as successful.

Index Terms—Nahj ul Balagheh, cultural categories, translation, literal translation, omission, deletion

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of translation as a means to overcome language and cultural boundaries especially when it comes to religious texts such as Quran and Nahj ul Balagheh is a fact known to everyone. Because of their spiritual values and the lessons they give, these sorts of books play in important role in dialogue between cultures and civilizations.

Translation is not just limited to translating lexicons or grammatical junctions. The primary purpose of any translation is conveying the message or idea; so, this very objective must not be forsaken for grammaticality or word by word translation. Syntax, eloquence, grammar and equilibrium come next (Gholizadeh, 2004, 84).

Regarding translating religious text some believe that the source language is just like a flourishing flower whose translation into a target language makes it wither (Anis, 1958, 172). Actually translating a religious text to any other language is similar to walking on the edge.

Undoubtedly, Nahj ul Balagheh which is beyond human words is of great spiritual importance for all religions. For the spread of Islam, its translation seems of grave importance. If its translation is not based on prevalent and accepted translation theories, its outcome would be catastrophic and in its worst, it would lead to ignoring or misunderstanding the notions and teachings given in Nahj ul Balagheh. Among the most excruciating tasks in translating holy texts is finding exact equivalent for cultural elements and categories. However, up to now there are many weaknesses and gaps in the translations available.

Based on Vladimir Ivir approaches for translating cultural categories from source language, this paper tries to present the most appropriate methods for translating Nahj ul Balagheh cultural categories and elements. It is worth mentioning that after careful analysis of weaknesses and gaps, the only literary and invaluable work was "Finding Cultural Categories Equivalents in Translation of Nahj ul Balagheh" by Amini. Other texts in English were also used such as "Theories of Translation' by Nader Haghani and "Procedures and Strategies for the Translation of Cultural Categories" by Vladimir Ivir.

In this paper, first it has been tried to find the best approach or approaches for translating cultural categories for Nahj ul Balaghe. Secondly, this paper focuses on the translation of cultural categories in Nahj ul Balaghe by different interpreters; however, the focus still would be on finding the best way for translating cultural categories and finally, it would try to introduce the most practical approach for translating cultural categories and elements.

II. THE CONCEPT OF TRANSLATION

Translation is the process of translating words or text from one language into another (Ibn Manzoor, 1978, 66). Nida believes translation consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style (Shams Abadi, 2001, 29).

III. TYPES OF TRANSLATION

Newmark divides translation into semantic and communicative. Although he states that the majority of texts require communicative rather than semantic translation, communicative translation is strictly functional and usually the work of a team. Semantic translation is linguistic and encyclopedic and is generally the work of one translator. It also takes into account the aesthetic value of the source language text (Nazemin, 2002, 25).

The difference between communicative and semantic translation is the difference between message and meaning. Meaning deals with context, while message deals with the effect.

In translation process, some have taken into account hyper-textual elements such as context, and cultural categories and elements. Translation consists of studying the lexicon, grammatical structure communication situation, and cultural context of source language text, analyzing it in order to determine its meaning and then reconstructing this same meaning using the lexicon and grammatical structure that are appropriate in the receptor language (Larsen, 2008,7).

Regardless of mastering syntactic structure such as linguistic and nonlinguistic context of the source language, interpreters are expected to excel in linguistic and nonlinguistic semiotics of target language. Therefore on translating a text, especially a meticulous and intricate religious one such as Nahj ul Balaghe, not only the lexicon but also nonlinguistic elements such as cultural elements and categories, denotations and connotations are important (Amani, 2012, 85).

IV. Religious Texts and Translation

A part of translation theories is limited to the text being translated (Munday, 2005, 88) according to which each text demands a different approach. If religion is to be considered as set of rules and orders set by God, religious texts include ethics, beliefs, laws and … for the happiness of man. These texts include ideologies and religious beliefs of societies whose observance would safeguard the survival of the societies. Religious texts are divided into two groups: those based on testaments scripture and those based on the reading and interpretation of the testaments each of which demands different principles and approaches for translation.

A. Translation of the Scripture and Testaments

These revelations, words of God, have been handed down through prophets for the men. Not only is the sacredness of the texts in their original language, but also their source of great importance (Fakhr Roohani, 2000, 201). Because they are considered God's words, they are different from normal language used by man; however, they follow the structure used by men, so they can be analyzed according to the rules governing this language (Mansoori, 2001, 59). The significance of the words which have metaphysical source and the truth lying behind them which is beyond time and space as we know them, are among their unique characteristics which make rendering them into another language almost impossible. However, because of their universality, their translation is inevitable. Therefore, revelations are translatable under certain presuppositions. Actually, the translation is an interpretation of the source language and lexical substitution and juxtaposition demand careful selection of connotations and denotations. To have a better understanding, while translating these texts, special consideration must be given to the translation of figures of speech and literary devices used. Another point to remember is the style used. If the interpreter does not mimic the style, much of the connotative meaning might be lost and the sacredness of the text be questioned.

Since these texts are pedantically literary and full of connotative lexicons, they must be translated as literary as possible, in a way that all the senses are transferred to the reader of the translation. On the other hand, the interpretation must be a truthful one. Sometimes, translation of these texts demands innovations on the part of the interpreter to the extent that it does not give a distorted version of the original (Soltani, 2005, 407). However, not all languages come from the same family, and the presence of different lexicons, figures of speech, figurative language, literary devices and cultures demands an interpretation of the scripture (Khoramshahi, 2005, 297). Another difficulty is finding equivalents for the terms which are deeply rooted in the history and the culture of the source language. Besides, scriptures are sacred texts whose holiness must be conserved by the inerpretor as much as possible if it has to leave the same impression on the reader. To do so, he has to resort to any tool among which ancient styles are the best examples to follow.

B. Human-based Religious Texts

These texts, which are the findings of men based on the scriptures and aim at spiritual happiness of man, are themselves divided into two categories: a. Texts ascribed to the men of God and text ascribed to researchers and interpreters. The translation of the former which are the products of men do not bring about as much dispute and controversy as the scripture. However, compared wth the latter is still demands being more faithful to the original. Nahj u lbalagheh, first compiled by Sayyed Razi about a thousand years ago, is a combination of Imam Ali's speeches and letters and after Quran and Hadith ranks the third among the sacred texts. Texts written by scholars and clererics aiming at interpreting, explaining, training and spreading the religious lessons can be translated following the rules governing scientific texts.

V. Translation Methods for Cultural Elements and Categories

Newmark defines culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression thus acknowledging that each language group has its own culturally specific features (Newmark, 2011, 85). According to Amani "cultural categories are culture-bound items related to concepts, phenomena, tools, and physical and structural aspects of a specific society" (ibid, 133).

Therefore, in this paper the reader faces terms and lexicons deeply rooted in culture of the source language. Actually, it could be claimed that a text forms in the cultural context of a source society and one cannot separate the cultural categories from a language. Therefore, the interpreter is the link between the source and the target culture. He must not only master both cultures, but also have full command of both languages, and cultures (Haghani, 2007, 185).

Vladimir Ivir is among the scholars suggesting seven approaches for translating cultural categories through which and after a survey of other examples of Nahj ul Balagheh, definition, literal translation, substitution, lexical creation, omission, addition, borrowing and on occasions substitution are considered among favorable approaches. However, it is the cultural gap; second, to convey the cultural meaning thoroughly, a combination of the above-mentioned approaches seems necessary. The approaches proposed by Ivir are given in details here:

1. Borrowing means that the translator imports a SL expression into the TL. For instance, Allah, Quran, Haj, Mufti, Intifada, Jihad, radio, television, computer. Borrowing should be used when there is a need for it and it will only succeed if the borrowed term is frequently repeated. In addition, the borrowed expression should easily integrate into the TL, both phonologically and morphologically. This procedure is often combined with definition or substitution. However, the translator must not borrow too much in one text because this will impede communication. Using borrowing per se is not better or worse than mother tongue terms. Their selection depends on the familiarity of the target language audience with the source language realities.

2. Definition means that the translator defines a new term or concept and explains it in detail. This depends on the translator's knowledge about (what the target readers know and what they do not know). For example, Mufti is an Islamic scholar who is an interpreter of Islamic law (Sharia). Definition can be either within the text itself or as a footnote. Also, it is usually combined with borrowing. However, definition lengthens the text and this will lead to over-translation. Therefore, translators must focus on what is relevant to the context only.

3. Literal translation is the most common strategy used when it is combined with borrowing. The main value of this procedure is its faithfulness to SL expression and its transparency in TL. For instance, "Gone with the wind: بر باد رفته", 'the cold war جنگ سرد', 'the black market: بازار سياه. However, translators do not use literal translation when it would clash with some expressions in the TL, or if the translation leads to problems in the grammatical structure in TL.

4. Substitution is used when there is an overlap rather than a clear-cut presence vs. absence of a particular element of culture. Therefore, translators use something similar to it, but not exactly the same. For examples, cool vs. سرد, veil vs. حجاب, chapter vs. سوره. This method could be combined with addition. Here, the receptor has no difficulty to understand and identify the term and concepts. However, substitution removes the strangeness of the foreign culture. Therefore, substitution is easier if the terms have something in common, for example, tax vs. زکات or if the terms are functionally similar, for example, chapter and سوره. Other examples can be found in proverbs in both languages. For example, in English we have proverbs "a cat has nine lives, he who steals an egg steals an ox and diamond cut diamond". These have Persian equivalents with some substitutions. These Persian proverbs are:

مثل سگ هفت تا جون داره: تخم مرغ دزد شتر دزد می‌شود

However, to decide to use this technique is not easy and depends on the cultural compatibility of both categories.

5. Lexical creation means that the translator produces a new vocabulary, for instance, mobile: تلفن همراه, computer: رایانه, and helicopter: چرخبال. There is no restriction on how translators invent these new words as long as they are acceptable. However, this procedure is used less than the other procedures because it taxes the brain of both the inventor and the reader.

6. Omission is necessitated not by the nature of the cultural element, but by the nature of the communicative situation in which such a cultural element appears. For example, Iranians sometimes greet each other in the morning by saying "صبح عالی به خیر", so when we translate it into English it is enough to say "good morning" because English culture prefers simple greetings.

7. Addition of cultural information is used when translating implicit elements of culture. It is combined with lexical creation, borrowing or substitution. For example, if an English text has the abbreviation of MOD, then when we translate it into Persian; we simply add this explanation وزارت دفاع بریتانیا, as a Farsi reader may not recognise its meaning.

To sum up, Ivir provides the translators with helpful procedures in order to bridge the cultural gaps and achieve a communicative translation. However, no one procedure could be used fully for each single text. For an optimum transfer of message, a combination of procedures is better than single use. Therefore, a translator decides on the optimum strategy of translation depending on each individual text s/he is faced with. Now, the problem which faces any translator is how to deal with cultural references when they are only in the text as background. If the translator omits these references, then s/he will lose the faithfulness. At the same time, if the translator translates them, then s/he will give them more importance than what was originally intended. This is a no-win situation; translators can only use compromise and relativity (Ivir, 1987, 11).

VI. FINDING CULTURAL EQUIVALENTS IN NAHJ UL BALAGHEH

In this section parts of Nahj ul Balagheh with cultural categories and elements are presented. Then by providing some famous translations, it has been tried to find the best equivalents.

۱-«فإنَّ المرأةَ ريحانةٌ وليست بقهرمانةٍ »Shahdi, (2001, 307).

Rayhanhe is actually an aromatic plant (Ibn Manzoor, 458). Ghahramaneh means heroin and worrier. Its other meaning is someone with authority in whose commands works are done (ibid, 496). Both words are culture bound and are among cultural categories of Nahj ul Balagheh.

- Because women are delicate like flowers and not rough like worriers (Ayati, 2007, 679).
- Because women are flower not worriers (Jafari, 2007,849).
- Women are like spring flowers and not hard-working worriers (Dashti, 2010, 383).
- That women like spring flowers are delicate and fragile, and not authoritative and brave (Shahidi, 2001, 307).
- Women are actually similar to aromatic flowers and not employers and lords (Faghihi, 2010, 296).
- Because women are like aromatic plants and not employers (Faiz ul Islam, 1996, 940).

Analysis: Among the above translations, Dashti, Shahidi and Ayati use substitution and borrowing in translating Rayhaneh and ghahremaneh respectively. However, besides literal translation, by adding the words *delicate* and *fragile*, Shahidi tries to give a comprehensive translation. On the other hand, Ayati and Dashti have added the words *rough* and *hard-working*.

For translating both words, Jafari uses borrowing and gives no definition. Undoubtedly, the reader would not understand the real meaning. Both Faiz ul Islam and Faghihi use literal translation, but in its true sense.

It is worth mentioning that translating Ghahremaneh as hero and worrier is wrong. In Arabic language it means employer, and tax collector, but many interpreters have taken it wrong and given wrong equivalents. Among the translations, Faghihi and Shahidi's are among the preferred ones.

«حتّى إذا نَعرَ الباطلُ نجمتَ نُجومَ قرنِ الماعز»-2 .(Shahidi, 2001, 196)

Nojemat Nojuma Garn el Maez is a simile in which the appearance of goat's horn indicates cowardice and dastardness, since a goat's horn grows regardless of its strength (Gharshi, 2008, 858). It also indicates the mean and humiliating position (Ibn Abi Hadid, 2007, 130).

- And when the unrightful yelled, it was as though the goat's horn appears (Ayati, 2007, 443).
- Until the unjust screamed and you showed up like a goat's horn (Jafari, 2007, 559).
- And when the unrightful screamed, you came out of nowhere like a goat's horn (Dashti, 2010, 255).
- Then the unjust yelled and you sprang up out of nowhere like a goat's horn (Shahidi, 2001, 196).
- And when the unjust yelled, you grew up and rose just like a goat's horn which grows and rises (Faghihi, 2010, 196).

And when the unjust roared (you gained courage), you showed up like a goat's horn (As common among Arabs, Imam Ali compares his meanness and humility to goat's horn) (Faiz ul Islam, 1996, 610).

Analysis: All interpreters but Faiz ul Islam use literal translation. Shahidi uses addition when he used the term sprang up. To make the text more approachable to the target language reader, only Feiz ul Islam combines literal translation and definition which is quite effective. At the same time, he has remained faithful to the original text.

«إِيهٍ أبا وذَحَـةَ»-3(Shahidi, 2001, 116)

Wazhah is dung stuck to a sheep fleece and Imam Ali uses the term to indicate the filthiness and meanness of Hojaj because of his cruelty and sins. As said earlier, to praise or denounce someone, Arabs use titles and epithets. Aba Wazhah is a culture-bound term that only through its connotative meaning the reader can understand what it means.

- stop it Abu Wazhah (Ayati, 2007, 273).
- Bring forward what you have, Oh father of every faked thing (Jafari, 2007, 355).
- Abu Wazhah stop it (Dashti, 2010, 159).
- Abu Wazhah! Stop it (Shahidi, 2001, 116).
- Oh, owner of the dung, put forward what you have in stock (Faghihi, 2010, 124).
- Bring forth what you have, oh, Aba Wazhah (Wazhah means a dung attached to the lamb tail docking. Imam Ali wants to indicate his resentment and predict the advent of Hojaj (Faiz ul Islam, 1996, 366).

Analysis: A study of the above translations indicates that most of the interpreters used borrowing technique; however, their difference is that they take advantage of other methods too. Faiz ul Islam and Faghihi also use definition (the former in the context and the latter in the footnote). Jafari uses substitution for his translation and uses beetle instead of Wazhah. As already said a combination of methods seems to be the best approach.

«لَقَدحنَّ قدحٌ لَيسَ منها»-4.(Shahidi, 2001, 291)

- A glassware which was of different material made a sound and revealed itself (Ayati, 2007, 647).
- A glass made a sound not belonging to it (Jafari, 2007, 805).
- You put yourself in something you know nothing of (Dashti, 2010, 365).
- A terrible tongue in a terrible head (Shahidi, 2001, 291).
-Time and time again the glass made a sound different from that of the others (implying you should not meddle in what you have no knowledge about (Faghihi, 2010, 281).

A marble which was not of the same material made a sound is a proverb because when gambling, the Arabs covered their marbles and then hit them to each other. If any of them made a different sound, they realized that it is different (Faiz ul Islam, 1996, 895).

Analysis:

Dashti and Shahidi have used terms which by no means convey the cultural load of the source language, although Shahidi in his footnotes has defined the term, and Ayati, Faghihi and Faiz ul Islam have used both literal translation and

definition (Faiz ul Islam and Faghihi in the context and Ayati in the footnote). And Jafari has just sufficed to literal translation.

«فكُنتَ فى ذَلک کناقِلِ التَّمرِ إلى هَجَر» ۵- (Shahidi, 2001, 291)

To carry coal to Newcastle means doing something unprofitable.

-You are like the one who carries coal to Newcastle (Ayati, 2007, 647).

- You are like the ignorant one who carries coal to Newcastle (Jafari, 2007,805).

- Your story is like the one who carries coal to Newcastle (Dashti, 2010, 365).

- You remind others of the one who carried coal Newcastle (Shahidi, 2001,291).

- You are like the one who carries coal to Newcastle (Faghihi, 2010, 280).

- In doing so you are like the one who carried coal to Newcastle (Faiz ul Islam, 1996, 895).

Analysis: All the translators have used borrowing. The only difference is that they have used other techniques along with borrowing. Faghihi, Faiz ul Islam and Ayati have also used definition (Faiz ul Islam in the context and Faghihi and Ayati in the footnote). Besides definition, Shahidi uses substitution in the footnote and Dashti uses addition in the context and uses definition and substitution in the context.

VII. Conclusion

After a close study of examples of cultural categories in Nahj ul Balagheh and the methods of finding equivalents, it could be said that literal translation along with definition are among the most widely used methods in translating cultural categories and elements. However, in cases like the fifth example, along with other methods, substitution seems to be of much more importance.

In the methods proposed which comply with the application and meaning of translation, besides faithfulness to the original text and conveying the message and style, the interpreters have tried to describe the cultural categories (in footnotes and out of context) to convey the message. Based on the studies on translations of cultural categories and what was mentioned before, it could be said that Faiz ul Islam, Shahidi and Faghihi's are among the best ones. Dashti and Ayati's have somehow been successful, but Jafari's has not been that successful.

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The Relationship between Iranian EFL Institutes Teachers' Beliefs and Their Instructional Practices regarding Writing Strategies

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Abstract—Understanding the L2 teachers' attitudes and beliefs toward writing practices, on the one hand, and applying those beliefs in actual teaching activities, on the other hand, can uncover the real reasons of Iranian language learners' difficulty in dealing with writing skill and tasks. The present study was an attempt, first, to examine and investigate the construct of teachers' belief systems about writing strategies among EFL institute teachers, then to investigate and explore the extent of discrepancies or consistencies between teachers' beliefs about writing strategies and their practical teaching activities in the context of English teaching as a foreign language in different institutes of Najaf Abad, Tiran and Goldasht in Iran. To these ends, 60 EFL institute teachers teaching at different language institutes in Najaf Abad, Tiran and Goldasht participated in this research. The teachers were both male and female with teaching experience ranging from 5 to 25 years. Using a validated researcher- made questionnaire, the obtained data revealed that most Iranian teachers had positive beliefs and attitudes toward most of the mentioned English writing strategies in the research questionnaire. Also, Iranian teachers considered the compensational and social aspects of writing strategies more significant than the other aspects in their actual class practices. However, Conversely, they did not pay attention to the implementation of Meta cognitive, cognitive and affective writing strategies which are very essential in facilitating the task of writing for the language learners.The findings of the study will contribute to L2 both teachers and learners.

Index Terms—instructional practices, Iranian teachers, writing strategies, English language institutes

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is a practical and effective way for learners to express their thoughts, creativity, and uniqueness. It is also a fundamental way in which students learn to organize ideas, and it is a task that requires the individuals to activate different skills simultaneously. This skill is seen as a process of discovery because the writers try to find their way while they are struggling to think, compose and put their ideas together, therefore, it is not a static process but a cognitive, social and dynamic one. (Ahmed Ismail, 2011).Writing in a second language is a challenging, complicated and complex process. This complexity and difficulty comes from the fact that this skill includes finding a thesis, developing support for it, organizing, revising, and finally editing it to make sure a useful and effective errorless piece of writing. These L2 problems usually overwhelm lower proficiency L2 writers, sometimes to the point of a complete failure in the writing process. What can worsen the problem of learning for these language learners might be the lack of an organized and systematic procedure followed by EFL/ESL writing teachers in their actual class activities.

However, most studies tried to focus on mostly the same steps to writing at different levels of proficiency. It is, finally, the teachers who consciously or subconsciously bring or neglect the systematic procedures of writing into the actual class practices. One of the factors affecting this choice made by writing teachers is assumed by this study to be their beliefs towards teaching writing and the degree to which the teachers apply those beliefs in their teaching activities.

The relation between teachers, attitudes about the way writing occur and how teachers foster writing skills in their classroom has been studied by a lot of scholars. However, empirical studies on this are not only a relatively recent development but also are limited in many ways (Pace & Powers, 1981). Although, as Chou (2008, p192) asserts, "the few number of studies on exploring teachers' beliefs in the area of L2 writing instruction have shown an unclear picture of teachers' idea construct in teaching writing".

Thus researchers need to study and investigate more on the attitudes and actual instructional practices considering writing. Beliefs have been reported by a number of scholars as being very hard to define, despite they are described as the most valuable psychological construct to teacher education among which is Pajares (1992, p.2) labeling them a "messy construct [that] travels in disguise and often under alias." These aliases include "personal theories" (Borg, 1999), "untested assumptions" (Calderhead, 1996) "teachers' subjectively reasonable beliefs" (Harootunian&Yarger, 1981), "implicit theories" (Clark & Peterson 1986), "conceptions" (Ekeblad& Bond, 1994), "personal pedagogical systems"

(Borg ,1990), "explicit propositions" (Nisbett& Ross ,1980), "judgments" (Yero, 2002) and "maxims" (Richards, 1996, cited in Mohamed, 2006).

Teachers' Beliefs may be based on their actual practices, personality factors, educational rules, experimental evidences, and principles elicited from a method or an approach (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). By Looking at the researches on teacher beliefs we find that teachers have beliefs about all aspects of their work. As Calderhead (1996) believes, there are five basic areas about which teachers have significant including beliefs about teaching learners and learning, curriculum or subjects, learning how to teach, and about the self and the nature of teaching. These five areas are stated that are closely well related. The structure of teachers' beliefs is by no means uniform or simple.

since a belief "does not lend itself to empirical investigations" , they are very hard to define (Pajares, 1992, p. 308). Related to this issue, beliefs are considered as a "messy construct" by Pajares which have not been dealt with precisely:

…travels in disguise and often under an alias of values, attitudes, judgments, axioms, ideas, ideology, conceptions, perceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, personal theories, action strategies, internal mental processes, practical principles, rules of practice, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature (p. 309).

As Loucks-Horsley (1998) states, "beliefs are more than opinions: they may be less than ideal truth, but we are committed to them" (P. 27). Pajares (1992) has also declared the difficulty in studying teachers beliefs has raised from different views in defining beliefs, differing understandings of beliefs structures, and poor conceptualization" (P.307). some researchers in other fields have pointed out, "belief" is not an easily defined concept (Cantu, 2001).As Pajares (1992) expresses studying educational beliefs is in danger of becoming what an' entangled domain' as called by Nespor (1987). she explains that the entangled domain concept deals with examples or instances or entities which can be recognized by some criteria as belonging to a given domain, but which simultaneously do not all share some basic sets of criteria and do not fall into relationships of dominance and subsumption with each other. Thematic features overlap only incompletely and partially across domains (p. 325).

To achieve the goal of the present study, we used the concept of belief to characterize teachers' idiosyncratic unity of thought about events, people, objects and their characteristic relationships that influence on their planning and interactive thoughts and decisions. If we want to comprehend thoroughly what is meant by 'belief', understanding its nature is necessary, as will be discussed in the review of the literature section.

In the following parts of this chapter first the problem under this study will be clarified. Then research questions and hypotheses are illustrated. After that, the significance of the study is explained. Finally, the operational and conceptual definitions of some key terms are presented.

II. METHODOLOGY

The first aim of the present study is to explore the construct of teachers' beliefs towards writing strategies among EFL institute teachers, then to investigate the degree of discrepancies or consistencies between teachers' practical teaching activities and their beliefs about writing strategies in the context of English teaching as a foreign language in institutes of Najaf Abad, Tiran and Goldasht in Iran.

The objectives of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. To explore Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes and beliefs toward writing strategy instruction.
2. To learn about actual practices of writing instruction in the above mentioned language institutes.
3. To compare teachers' self-reported practices with actual practices in institutes.
4. To determine the relationship between teachers' degrees of qualification and their attitudes toward writing strategy instruction.

A. Participants

The participants included 60 EFL institute teachers teaching at different language institutes in Najaf Abad, Tiran and Goldasht. The teachers were both male and female (39 and 21, respectively) with a range of teaching experience from 1 to 25 years, degrees of B.A, M.A and PhD, and with majors like TEFL, Linguistics, English Literature, and English Translation. There were 2 Ph. Ds, 7 PHD students, 16 MAs, 11 MA students, and 24 BAs.

B. Instrument

In order to answer the first research question, a Writing Strategies Questionnaire was used with reference to Oxford's (1990) classification of language leaning strategies types in order to gain information on the writing strategies adopted by language teachers. Oxford's classification of language learning strategies was viewed as a comprehensive and efficient classification and thus has been used and adapted for research in particular task settings (Ellis, 1994; Oxford, Cho, Leung, & Kim, 2004).

The validity of the questionnaire was determined through a detailed review, revision and edition by 6 University lecturers at university of Isfahan and Sheikhbahaee. In order to reach the reliability for our questionnaire, we asked 20 undergraduate and graduate students not included in the sample, to fill it out prior to the research. The Reliability was established using this pilot test. Data collected from pilot test was analyzed using SPSS .Cronbach᾿s Alpha method was used. A reliability of 0.87 proved the reliability of our questionnaire.

C. Procedures

The participants were 60 EFL institute teachers teaching at different institutes in Najaf Abad, Tiran and Goldasht. After selecting the participants, a Writing Strategies Questionnaire that was developed in English with reference to Oxford's (1990) classification of language leaning strategies types was piloted and the reliability and validity of the questionnaire were determined. Then it was given to the teachers and they were asked to respond to each strategy item.

The same questionnaire is used by the researcher as a checklist during her classroom observations. In each visit, the researcher using a 5-point scale of *never*, *occasionally*, *sometimes*, *often*, and *always* marked how often teachers teach students in each writing strategy. Every teacher was visited 6 times. Each visit lasted 40 minutes during which the teacher teaching was observed carefully to see which strategies are being taught. If a strategy was practiced by one teacher during all visits, it was considered as an always-practice. If 4 or 5 times the strategy was mentioned by the teacher, it was scaled as often, if in half the sessions the teacher worked on that strategy, the observer marked it as sometimes, and if it was once or twice observed, it was considered as occasionally.

To answer the third question of the research about the possible relation between the qualifications and the beliefs of teachers about teaching writing strategies, according to their years of teaching experience and educational level, the teachers were divided into three main groups. The first group included the PhD and MA teachers with an average teaching period of 12 years. Group 2 included graduate students and BA teachers with an average teaching period of 5 years, and the last group included undergraduate teachers with less than 3 years of teaching experience. The data was categorized accordingly into three groups and were analyzed to find the answer.

III. RESULTS

To reply the first research question ("What are the most common attitudes and beliefs of EFL teachers toward the explicit teaching of writing strategies in Iranian institutes?"), using SPSS software the researcher calculated descriptive statistics. Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show the percentage of importance and necessity of each strategy mentioned in the questionnaire.

TABLE 1
THE IMPORTANCE OF WRITING STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING WRITING

The Importance of writing strategies for improving writing in percentage					
Strategies	Very important	important	Neutral (do not know)	Less important	Not important at all
Strategy 1	46.66	23.33	6.66	11.66	11.66
Strategy 2	33.33	30	5	21.66	10
Strategy 3	53.33	28.33	3.33	10	5
Strategy 4	26.66	38.33	6.66	20	8.33
Strategy 5	26.66	35	5	16.66	16.66
Strategy 6	31.66	31.66	3.33	20	13.33
Strategy 7	48.33	20	5	15	11.66
Strategy 8	35	25	3.33	23.33	13.33
Strategy 9	33.33	23.33	8.33	13.33	21.66
Strategy 10	25	25	3.33	18.33	28.33
Strategy 11	21.66	35	6.66	21.66	15
Strategy 12	33.33	23.33	10	13.33	20
Strategy 13	53.33	23.33	3.33	16.66	3.33
Strategy 14	26.66	20	5	35	13.33
Strategy 15	13.33	8.33	8.33	38.33	31.66
Strategy 16	33.33	23.33	3.33	23.33	16.66
Strategy 17	11.66	20	3.33	16.66	48.33
Strategy 18	21.66	15	6.66	38.33	18.33
Strategy 19	61.66	20	3.33	10	5
Strategy 20	45	30	6.66	13.33	5
Strategy 21	21.66	35	5	28.33	10
Strategy 22	51.66	36.66	3.33	8.33	0
Strategy 23	36.66	20	6.66	25	11.66
Strategy 24	25	20	6.66	36.66	11.66
Strategy 25	33.33	23.33	5	18.33	20
Strategy 26	50	26.66	3.33	11.66	8.33
Strategy 27	68.33	20	3.33	6.66	1.66
Strategy 28	53.33	31.66	5	8.33	1.66
Strategy 29	38.33	30	3.33	21.66	6.66
Strategy 30	40	31.66	5	16.66	6.66
Strategy 31	65	21.66	3.333333	5	5
Strategy 32	38.33	33.33	5	13.33	10
Strategy 33	50	20	3.333333	18.33	8.33
Strategy 34	26.66	18.33	8.33	38.33	8.33
Strategy 35	56.66	23.33	3.33	15	1.66
Strategy 36	41.66	30	5	18.33333	5
Strategy 37	36.66	30	6.66	15	11.66
Strategy 38	40	30	8.33	18.33	3.33
Strategy 39	16.66	28.33	3.33	30	21.66
Strategy 40	46.66	28.33	5	15	5
Strategy 41	41.66	23.33	3.33	15	16.66
Strategy 42	35	21.66	5	26.66	11.66
Strategy 43	50	23.33	6.66	16.66	3.33
Strategy 44	43.33	33.33	3.33	20	0
Strategy 45	30	26.66	5	25	13.33

TABLE 2
THE NECESSITY OF WRITING STRATEGIES IN TEACHING PRACTICES

	The Necessity of writing Strategies in Teaching Practices in percentage				
Strategies	Very important	important	Neutral (do not know)	Less important	Not important at all
Strategy 1	43.33	23.33	5	13.33	15
Strategy 2	36.66	30	3.33	16.66	13.33
Strategy 3	58.33	23.33	1.66	10	6.66
Strategy 4	30	35	3.33	20	11.66
Strategy 5	26.66	33.33	5	11.66	23.33
Strategy 6	33.33	25	1.66	23.33	16.66
Strategy 7	46.66	25	3.33	13.33	11.66
Strategy 8	38.33	25	3.33	18.33	15
Strategy 9	33.33	28.33	3.33	10	25
Strategy 10	26.66	30	1.66	11.66	30
Strategy 11	25	31.66	3.33	21.66	18.33
Strategy 12	36.66	23.33	5	10	25
Strategy 13	56.66	18.33	3.33	15	6.66
Strategy 14	25	23.33	3.33	31.66	16.66
Strategy 15	16.66	8.33	5	35	35
Strategy 16	35	23.33	1.66	20	20
Strategy 17	16.66	21.66	3.33	11.66	46.66
Strategy 18	21.66	18.33	5	33.33	21.66
Strategy 19	58.33	21.66	3.33	6.66	10
Strategy 20	46.66	26.66	5	13.33	8.33
Strategy 21	21.66	33.33	3.33	26.66	15
Strategy 22	56.66	30	1.66	6.66	5
Strategy 23	40	20	1.66	18.33	20
Strategy 24	28.33	20	5	30	16.66
Strategy 25	40	21.66	3.33	11.66	23.33
Strategy 26	50	26.66	1.66	10	11.66
Strategy 27	56.66	25	1.66	11.66	5
Strategy 28	48.33	36.66	3.33	6.66	5
Strategy 29	36.66	33.33	1.66	18.33	10
Strategy 30	48.33	30	3.33	6.66	11.66
Strategy 31	61.66	21.66	1.66	6.66	8.33
Strategy 32	35	36.66	3.33	13.33	11.66
Strategy 33	53.33	20	1.66	13.33	11.66
Strategy 34	31.66	18.33	3.33	35	11.66
Strategy 35	55	23.33	1.66	15	5
Strategy 36	36.66	33.33	3.33	16.66	10
Strategy 37	48.33	25	5	13.33	8.33
Strategy 38	43.33	26.66	5	16.66	8.33
Strategy 39	26.66	20	3.33	25	25
Strategy 40	43.33	31.66	3.33	10	11.66
Strategy 41	48.33	20	3.33	8.33	20
Strategy 42	41.66	23.33	3.33	15	16.66
Strategy 43	48.33	21.66	5	13.33	11.66
Strategy 44	48.33	28.33	1.66	15	6.66
Strategy 45	36.66	20	3.33	20	20

It is clear from Tables 3.1 and 3.2 that Iranian teachers have positive attitudes towards writing strategy instruction. Almost all participants agreed on the significance and necessity of the following explicit teaching of all strategies except numbers 15, 17, 18, 39, 34, 24, 14. The agreed and confirmed strategies were:

The second research question which was proposed in a null hypothesis format was: Is there any mismatch between teachers' self-reported practices and the actual practices in writing classes of institutes? In order to answer this question, the researcher qualitative data was collected by observing 10 Iranian English teachers teaching writing at Language Institutes. We visited each teacher 6 times for 40 minutes, during which the frequency was noted by researcher, at which each teacher trained/taught students in one of the writing strategies included in the questionnaire. The researcher used a 5-point scale of always, often, sometimes, occasionally and never. Table 3 shows the frequencies of each writing strategy.

TABLE 3.3:
FREQUENCY OF WRITING STRATEGIES

Strategies	Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Strategy1	0%	70%	10%	10%	10%
Strategy 2	0%	10%	0%	0%	90%
Strategy 3	0%	10%	20%	60%	10%
Strategy 4	0%	0%	10%	80%	10%
Strategy 5	0%	0%	0%	90%	10%
Strategy 6	0%	20%	40%	30%	10%
Strategy 7	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
Strategy8	10%	70%	20%	0%	0%
Strategy 9	0%	10%	0%	80%	10%
Strategy10	0%	0%	10%	80%	10%
Strategy11	10%	60%	10%	10%	10%
Strategy12	0%	10%	0%	90%	0%
Strategy13	0%	10%	10%	80%	0%
Strategy14	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
Strategy15	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
Strategy16	0%	80%	10%	0%	10%
Strategy17	10%	0%	0%	0%	90%
Strategy18	0%	10%	10%	80%	0%
Strategy19	0%	10%	40%	40%	10%
Strategy20	10%	0%	10%	70%	10%
Strategy21	0%	10%	40%	40%	10%
Strategy22	10%	70%	10%	10%	0%
Strategy23	10%	10%	10%	60%	10%
Strategy24	10%	0%	0%	0%	90%
Strategy25	0%	60%	10%	20%	10%
Strategy26	10%	0%	0%	80%	10%
Strategy27	10%	80%	10%	0%	0%
Strategy28	0%	10%	70%	10%	10%
Strategy29	60%	20%	10%	10%	0%
Strategy30	10%	10%	40%	20%	20%
Strategy31	60%	10%	20%	10%	0%
Strategy32	0%	0%	0%	70%	30%
Strategy33	10%	10%	50%	20%	10%
Strategy34	10%	0%	0%	80%	10%
Strategy35	0%	0%	0%	90%	10%
Strategy36	0%	10%	20%	70%	0%
Strategy37	10%	10%	50%	20%	10%
Strategy38	0%	0%	10%	80%	10%
Strategy39	0%	90%	0%	0%	10%
Strategy40	0%	0%	20%	70%	10%
Strategy41	0%	30%	30%	30%	10%
Strategy42	0%	10%	10%	60%	20%
Strategy43	0%	10%	50%	30%	10%
Strategy44	0%	60%	20%	0%	10%
Strategy45	0%	10%	0%	0%	90%

Test Statistics

		Frequency of actual practice in class	Necessity of writing strategies
Chi-Square	a,b	38.378	9.889
df		7	25
Asymp. Sig.		.000	.997

a. 0 cells (.0%) include expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 5.6.
b. 26 cells (100.0%) include expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 1.7.

Using a frequency of 50% as a cutoff point and the P value got from running a Chi-Squre between the results obtained about the necessity of teaching writing strategies and the actual practice by the observed teachers, tables 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5 show that most teachers always or often used strategies 1, 8,11, 16,22,25, 27, 29,31,39, 44.This result is only consistent with this part of the results of quantitative data in which strategies 22,28, 31 were ranked as the most important strategies to teach, with the exception that strategy 28 was just sometimes practiced by 70% of the teachers.

The third research question was: "Is there a significant relationship between the qualifications of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching writing strategies?" The null hypothesis was:

Ho: There is no significant relationship between the qualifications of teachers and their attitudes toward writing strategy instruction.

Using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, the relationship between the degree of teachers' qualifications and their attitudes toward teaching writing strategies was investigated. The first questionnaire which asked the teachers about their educational degree and their experiment in teaching revealed that the higher degree they had, the more experience in teaching they had. Therefore, out of two variables of degree and years of experience, just one variable, years of experience, was included in our analysis. According to their years of teaching experience and educational level, the teachers were divided into three main groups. The first group included the PhD and MA teachers with an average teaching period of 12 years. Group 2 included graduate students and BA teachers with an average teaching period of 5 years, and the last group included undergraduate teachers with less than 3 years of teaching experience. The data obtained from the questionnaire about the necessity of writing was grouped according to the mentioned categories into three groups. Because our two variables (years of experience and attitude toward writing strategies) weren't of the same measurement, we had to use Pearson-Production Correlation test to find the nature of relation between these two variables.

TABLE 3.6:
PEARSON-PRODUCT CORRELATION

		years of experience	necessity of writing strategies
years of experience	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 .066 60	.239 60
necessity of writing strategies	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.239 .066 60	1 60

The results in table 3.6 show that the Pearson correlation coefficient, r, is 0.066, therefore it isn't statistically significant ($p < 0.0005$). Thus, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between teachers' qualifications and their attitudes toward writing strategy instruction is not rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As the results of data analysis run in pervious sections, a number of findings emerged: First, most Iranian teachers had positive beliefs and attitude toward most of the mentioned English writing strategies in the research questionnaire. It seems the teacher training programs in Iran have successfully transferred and is transferring the theoretical aspects of teaching and practicing writing strategies in English classes. However, bringing these theories into practice is apparently not met by most teachers.

Next, the results showed that Iranian teachers consider the compensational and social aspects of writing strategies more than the other aspects in their actual class practices. Conversely, they do not pay attention to the implementation of Meta cognitive, cognitive and affective writing strategies which are very essential in easing the task of writing for the language learners.

And finally, it is concluded that whatever beliefs and strategies the teachers have, has no relation to their qualifications. It seems they acquire their beliefs in the early stages of education rather than later stages.

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Rethinking the Cognitive Study of Metonymy

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Abstract—In traditional studies, metonymy is defined as pure figure of speech. But from cognitive approach, metonymy is believed to be a general conceptual phenomenon as metaphor and gradually promoted to the same status of metaphor. As the philosophical basis, embodied philosophy can clearly reveal the operation of metonymy. There are two significant characteristics of metonymy: contiguity and prominence. Metonymy has also been studied on its interaction with metaphor.

Index Terms—metonymy, embodied philosophy, contiguity, prominence, interaction

I. Introduction

In the early 1980s, Lakoff & Johnson put forward the conceptual metaphor in *Metaphor We Live by* (1980) for the first time, and elucidating the nature of metaphor comprehensively and systematically from the perspective of cognition, which contributed to a metaphor revolution in cognitive linguistics. By contrast, metonymy, as the cognitive way of thinking as metaphor, played a minor role in a long time. The research on metonymy is always covered under the wave of metaphor study. Since the 1990s, people began to realize that the cognitive value of metonymy. Some scholars attempt to promote metonymy to the same status as the metaphor. They suggest that metonymy is the human basic way of thinking and behavior, and plays an important role in the formation of the concept and understanding (Goossens, 1990; Croft, 1993; Dirven, 1993; Radden& Koveeses, 1999; Koeh, 1999; Barcelona, 2000). Taylor (1995) proposed that metonymy is a meaning expansion mode more basic than metaphor; Barcelona (2003a) proposed the universality of metonymy characteristic; On this basis, Radden (2005) further reveals the conceptuality and universality of metonymy, and argues that metonymy in all aspects of the language structure has a rich form of expression, including the phoneme, word meaning, lexicon, morphology, syntax and pragmatics, etc.. It is an important mean of human conceptual system organization and operation. Wen Xu and Ye Kuang (2006) pointed out that "language is metonymy in nature and originated from metonymy. We should say that what we live in is metonymy rather than metaphor." (p.13). Wang Yin (2007) even asserted that we have every reason to say "metonymy we live by"(p.236).

II. Traditional Study of Metonymy

The term "metonymy" first appeared in Plato's debates about the icon arbitrariness. From the perspective of etymology, metonymy comes from ancient Greece and means "change of meaning" (Ruizde Mendoza & Otal, 2002, p.6). The definition of metonymy is from the book "rhetoric and explanation" by the anonymous author: "metonymy is one kind of figures of speech which obtain form of language from adjacent and connected things, through which we can manage the things unnamed by words." Metonymy is regarded by traditional research as rhetorical means, that is to replace the name of one thing with the name of the adjacent object. Therefore, metonymy as a special language phenomenon is a kind of deviation from normal language structure and the ornament of language. Metonymy involving the alternative relations between two things or two expressions, is considered to be the transfer of referential meaning. The research of metonymy at this stage is known as "substitution theory of metonymy" (Panther&Thomburg, 2007, p.237), namely the source and the target of metonymy in the same alleged object with the same referential effects. Panther & Thomburg (2007) argues that substitution theory of metonymy exists the shortage from the following two aspects: one is that substitution theory only pays attention to referential metonymy, while ignoring metonymy in predication level and speech act level; the second is metonymy is not only a kind of replace operation, it also contributes to understanding. The metonymy research at this stage mainly is limited in vocabulary level, and metonymy is considered a substitute for particular rhetorical effect.

III. Cognitive Study on Metonymy

With the development of cognitive science and cognitive linguistics, metonymy is considered to be no longer the figures of speech in the traditional sense. Lakoff & Johnson (1980) first discusses the nature of metonymy, proposes that metonymy is based a cognitive process of conceptual contiguity. It is not only a linguistic phenomenon, but also a conceptual phenomenon. Lakoff (1987) demonstrates the cognitive features of metonymy through the typical effect, and regards metonymy as a form of Idealized Cognitive Model. Langacker (1999) regards metonymy as a cognitive reference point phenomenon, that is, a cognitive process of a conceptual entity providing mental channel for another conceptual entity. Radden & Koveeses (1999) discusses the three essential characteristics of conceptual metonymy: metonymy is a conceptual phenomenon; metonymy is a cognitive process; metonymy is operated in the Idealized

Cognitive Model (ICM). Radden (2005) stressed that metonymy is one of the ways of thinking in which people understand the objective world, rooting in human cognition. Panther & Thomburg (2007) summarizes the qualitative characteristics of conceptual metonymy as follows: 1) conceptual metonymy is the psychological and cognitive process providing mental access from the source to the target in the same cognitive domain. 2) the relationship between the source and target is accidental, namely it is not a must in concept. 3) target is in the status of profiling, and the source of backgrounding. 4) metonymy connection strength between the source and target depends on the conceptual distance between source and target, and also the degree of profiling of the source. The results of the study mentioned have difference in expression, but they are consistent in terms of the essential features of metonymy, namely, metonymy is a conceptual phenomenon, and the means for people to understand the world.

Conceptual metonymy as an important way of thinking and human cognitive mechanism penetrates into all aspects of language. Gibbs (1994) pointed out that metonymy reasoning is a common phenomenon. Dirven (1999) deals with the universality of metonymy: "metonymy may play a role in all language levels". Radden (2005) demonstrates the general characteristics of metonymy through the example analysis from the aspects of phonetics, meaning, lexicon, morphology, syntax, pragmatics, etc. In the field of cognitive linguistics, initial research of metonymy focused on the definition of metonymy, the classification of metonymy, the relationship between metonymy and metaphor, the conceptual nature of metonymy, and so on. In recent years, the study on metonymy as a conceptual phenomenon shows the trend of diversification. Metonymy in pragmatic study (Gibbs, 1994; Panther & Thomburg, 1998, 2003b, 2003 e; Ruizde Mendoza & Otal, 2002; Barcelona, 2003 b; Radden & Seto, 2003; Ruizde Mendoza, 2007), metonymy in textual study (Ungerer, 2000; AI Sharafi, 2004; Otaletal. J, 2005; Bareelona, 2005), metonymy in the literature study (Jakobson & Halle, 1971; Pankhurst asserts, 1999; Jakel, 1999; Lakoff &Turner, 1989), metonymy in translation research (Jiang Li, 2009; Gao Yuan, 2010; Tan Yesheng, 2010), cause more and more attention in linguistics, which have created a new field of vision in the research of conceptual metonymy.

A. Embodied Philosophy---The Philosophical Basis of Metonymy

There has the close relationship between language and philosophy. As deconstruction critic Paul DE Man (1978) said all forms of philosophy are in the blame, because they rely on the figurative expression to achieve the effect of the literature. Due to this issue, all literary form to a certain extent is philosophical, including metonymy. Therefore, metonymy and philosophy are inseparable. As a stage of development of philosophy, embodied philosophy can clearly reveal the operation of metonymy, as metonymy comes from our practice and experience. Humans have some basic concepts in the direct experience which might become the source domains of metonymy by which humans tend to understand the indirectly objective world and concepts. The basis of forming category and establishment in the process of the experience of the objective world is the generalization of the relevant properties of things often assembling together. Experience, in short, is an important source of metonymy. Metonymy provides a new experience for cognitive subject through the adjustment of cognitive domain, highlighting the one side and conversing cognitive point of view. Therefore, metonymy reflects one kinds of experience of people. It is the experience of people that shapes their cognitive conceptual system of the objective world. Embodied philosophy believes that the true interpretation of the world depends on people's understanding and experience. Therefore, experience is of great significance for people's understanding of the objective world and the pursuit of truth. Cognitive linguistics holds that language gradually formed based on people's experience of interaction with the world based on their sensory organs through cognitive processing gradually formed, is the result of multiple objective and subjective interaction, which comes to the conclusion inevitably that language is experiential basis (Wang Yin, 2008). In fact, metonymy has experiential characteristics.

Generally speaking, the word "embodied philosophy" first appeared in Lakoff and Johnson in 1999 published "Philosophy in the Flesh: The Embodied Mind and its Challenge to Western Thought". Embodied experience is very rich in content, and its core idea is summarized as three basic principles: mental embodiment, cognitive unconsciousness and metaphorical thinking. Lakoff and Johnson pointed out that each kind of experience (late tend to use the word "embodiment") happens under the background of cultural default ... we experience the world in this way, so that our culture has been experienced in the experience itself." (Qin Shengyong, Zhang Changjie, 2004, p.6) Based on Lakoff and Johnson's point of view, embodiment philosophy is the second generation cognitive science, and also the philosophical foundation of cognitive linguistics (Wang Yin, 2002). Lakoff and Johnson believe that human language depends on experience and perception which to a large extent restricts the language structure and meaning. Concept and meaning cannot be isolated from people's experience and perception to the outside world through the human body including human sense and mind through which human beings get a correct understanding of the outside world in the process of experience, and determines the corresponding concept and meaning of the concept and meaning on the basis of fully understanding the objective world, and form language by expressing using particular symbols as sounds and words (Yang Huiyuan, 2009).

B. Contiguity in Metonymy

The traditional rhetoric and cognitive linguistics both admit that metonymy is based on contiguity. But the differences are obvious for what is contiguity. Traditional rhetoric view thinks that contiguous relationship can take place in language, such as Jakobson says contiguity exists between language symbols. It is regarded contiguous relationship as the adjacency between the meanings of two words, between which metonymy occurs. Metonymy is

based on three kinds of contiguity: spatial contiguity, time contiguity and causal contiguity. Contiguity in cognitive view is first proposed by Lakoff and Johnson who believe that the basis of the concept of metonymy involves physical or causal link (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). This definition is broad, including the contiguous inter- and intra- relationship among language, reality and concept. Lakoff (1987) proposed the idealized cognitive model, and its characteristics are: 1) humans organize the knowledge structure through ICM each of which is a complicated structure as a whole and has a gestalt structure; 2) ICM does not necessarily faithfully reflect the reality, but it is the highly simplification of some hypothesis of the background; 3) ICM includes not only the knowledge of specific areas, also the culture, customs, etc. On this basis, we believe that there are two kinds of contiguity: one is the contiguity between the overall ICM and its parts; the second is between the parts of the ICM. In ICM, contiguity is not the adjacent relation inside the language structure, but the proximity between the concepts. On the basis of the two contiguous relations, we can find the generation of metonymy has two integrated configurations: whole for part or part for whole, and part for part. These two comprehensive configurations can summarize all the relations of metonymy.

1. Accidental contiguity

Metaphor depends on the relations of similarity that generally have stable reasonable basis with variable degrees. However, the contiguity in metonymy can be built on the reasonable basis, such as the composition of the relationship between part and whole, specific causal proximity, etc., at the same time, it can be completely determined by an accidental encounter. The feelings experienced together produce a single result in the sense due to being close to each other are easy to be experienced again. The proximity of "experience" can be composed of two completely different things meeting by chance in the same time and space, such as a person walking through a park has contiguous relationship with the park. Both traditional rhetoric study of metonymy and cognitive study just focus on the stable adjacent relation, but without involving accidental neighboring relationship. According to different degree of stability, the stable adjacent relations can be further divided into two categories: one is the inherent relationship between things, mainly as the relationship between the whole and parts, the thing and its compositions, tools, materials, characteristics, such as the adjacent relations between "people" and the composition of body parts as "hand" "feet" "mouth" "tongue" which are the most stable, and in all cases cannot be cancelled. Another stability of the contiguity is less stable, such as the relationship between one thing and its associated characteristics, illustrated as humans and their spoken language, clothes, personality, etc., with the relative stability and the relative variability. The degree of stability of this kind exists between integral and part and accidental adjacent relations. Three kinds of degree of the stability of the contiguity can be expressed as: relationship between the whole and the parts > > relationship between things and the associated characteristics > > accidental neighboring relationship. From left to right, the stability of the adjacent relation in turn reduces.

2. Coordination of objective contiguity and cognitive subjective motivation

Contiguity exists everywhere, but not all of the contiguity can lead to the generation of metonymy. Contiguity is the coordination of the objective adjacent relation and the subjective motivation. The contiguity, either stable or accidental, which is realized and used by the subject of cognition in specific cognitive activities, may become the foundation of metonymy. The stable adjacent relation without the subject's realization cannot constitute a metonymy, such as if the obvious contiguity between "face" and "nose" does not make sense to specific cognitive activity, the subject won't be aware of the existence of the relationship. Likewise, if in a certain communicative activities two adjacent objects without stable relationship in the objective physical world are endowed with contiguous relations by cognitive activities, there is also contiguity between them. Therefore, the contiguity in metonymy is not a general objective relation, but the coordination of objective adjacent relation with subjective factors, that is, for the importance of a specific cognitive activity.

C. Prominence in Metonymy

The analysis above showed that contiguity embodied in each level with a variety of types. However, will the two contiguous objects with alternative relations definitely lead to the generation of metonymy? The answer is no. two contiguous objects may not be able to understand one object by the other. As for "people" as a whole, face, hands, feet, arms, legs, torso, etc. are the compositions which hold relationship with "people" as whole and parts. These parts belong to the category of "people". There is no doubt that these components themselves are also exist contiguity. But why can we use the "face", "hand" and "foot" refers to "man" as in "old face", "new hand" and "national foot" and rarely use "hand" to refer to "feet", or use the "mouth" to refer to the "nose"? We will not put "I hit him in the eye" into "I hit his ears", although "eyes" and "ears" with contiguity. Therefore, we believe that the establishment of metonymy should be on the basis of contiguity plus another condition: two objects with contiguity also have significant differences in prominence at the same time, that is, an object, compared with another object, has greater prominence in cognition. With this condition, we will be able to explain why some examples with contiguity do not occur to replace each other. In some cases, we can use "eyes" to stand for "person", as the characteristics of a person can be focused on the "eyes" which in turn have cognitive prominence; we cannot use "eyes" to stand for the "ears", as it is hardly to imagine that there exists significant difference in prominence between them in any circumstances. That cognitive linguists say "to understand one thing by another thing" or" one thing provides mental access to another thing " should be further explained as " to understand one thing with lower degree of prominence by another thing with higher degree of prominence" or " one thing with higher degree of prominence provides mental access to another lower degree of

prominence."

IV. INTERACTION BETWEEN METAPHOR AND METONYMY

Jacobson's (1956) brief paper "The metaphoric and metonymic poles" was the first linguistic light signal in an age of objectivist structuralism and oncoming formalism. What is most remarkable is that Jacobson was the first to pay equal attention to both metonymy and metaphor, which was even impossible at the time of the metaphor revolution started by Lakoff&Johnson's canon shot known as Metaphor We Live By (1980). It took almost another twenty years to wholly correct the balance between metaphor and metonymy, and culminated in Panther & Radden's Metonymy in Language and Thought (1999) and Barcelona's Metaphor and Metonymy at the Crossroads (2000).

A recent tendency in cognitive linguistics which subsumes metaphor and metonymy as special cases of more general mental mapping mechanisms is the theory of "blending" or conceptual integration, which is an extension of Gilles Fauconnier's earlier work on mental space (Fauconnier, 1994) and has been developed by him and Mark Turner (Fauconnier 1997, Turner and Fauconnier 1995). This new theory seeks to explain how speakers and hears keep track of referential values and build new inferences throughout discourse, often by construction provisional conceptual domains or "blends".

A.   John Taylor's Model

John Taylor is the first, in the cognitive linguistic world, to develop the idea of metonymy-based metaphors. He takes the concept of metonymy in a very broad sense, comprising, as a prototypical member, referential metonymy, either conventionalized cases or else conversationally relevant references. But Taylor also links these metonymic cases with pre-metonymic phenomena. Pre-metonymic phrases are expressions denoting activities to an object's part by naming the whole object as in *Could you fill, wash, vacuum-clean, and service the car?* These are instances of conceptual "modulation" (Cruse) or "active zone highlighting" (Langacker). In his view on metaphor, Taylor mainly explores an original avenue, i.e. to what extent metonymy forms a basis for metaphor. John and Lakoff (1987) suggest that most metaphors are based on image schemas such as containment, motion, proximity and distance, linkage and separation, front-back orientation, part-whole relations, linear order, up-down orientation, etc. Taylor's thesis is that in many cases there is a metonymic relation between the notion of verticality and the metaphoric extensions into notions of quantity, evaluation, and power. Taylor wonders to what extent metaphors are based on metonymies more general. This question was systematically discussed by Goossens.

B.   Patterns of Interaction in Linguistic Action

At the same time that Taylor (1989) developed his view of a strong interaction between metonymy and metaphor. Louis Goossens (1990) built up the aptly named concept metaphtonymy, which is entirely based on the conceptual structuring of the domain of communication, or in Goossens' terminology, linguistic action. He proposes four different types of interaction: metaphor from metonymy, metonymy within metaphor, metaphor within metonymy, and de-metonymisation.

C.   Nick Riemer's Model

Nick Riemer concentrates, just as Barcelona, Taylor, Radden, Goossense, and Geeraerts, on the demarcation problem between metaphor and metonymy. Whereas Warren concentrates on the differences between metaphor and metonymy, and Goossens on their interwining, Riemer is, just like Barcelona, more interested in the ambiguities, overlapping and uncertainties of metaphor and metonymy status. For this purpose he concentrates on an area of great doubt, i.e. dead metonymies and dead metaphors, or in the terminology he proposes post-metonymies and post-metaphors. A post-metonymy is found in expressions such as to kick someone out of his flat, where the literal action kicking could, in extreme cases, lead to expulsion. This is a dead metonymy in which it is not a real act of kicking, but psychologically or juridically forceful action that causes the effect of expulsion. In spite of this uncertain metonymic status, the notion of metonymy remains valid, since the action stands for the effect.

D.   Gunter Radden's Model

Gunter Radden sees four different types of metonymic basis for metaphor: a common experiential basis, an implicature basis, a category structure basis, and a cultural model basis.

A common experiential basis of the two domains involved can consist of either a correlation between two domains or the complementarity of two counterparts. Correlational metaphors which have a metonymic basis are, for instance, MORE IS UP, FUNCTIONAL IS UP, IMPORTANT IS BIG, ACTIVE IS ALIVE, SIMILARITY IS CLOSENESS, etc. Complementary elements like lovers or body and mind form a strong unity, which is at the basis of conceptual metaphors such as LOVE IS A UNITY or THE MIND IS A BODY, as found in expressions such as *have a strong will* or *handle a situation.*

Implicature, as is well known, accounts for many historical changes and extensions. Thus, the meaning extension of *go* to the sense of futurity as in *It is going to rain* has been shown to involve stages of context-induced reinterpretations arrived at by implicature. Implicture may be based on sequential events as in seeing something and then knowing it, which gives rise to the metaphor KNOWING IS SEEING. Another type of implicature is based on the relation between

events and their results, which gives rise to the metaphor HOLDING IS POSSESSION as in *to hold power*. The most common type of implicature may well be the metonymic link between a place and an activity performed at the place as in *to go to the church* or *to go to the bed*, which gives rise to the metonymy-based metaphor PURPOSES ARE DESTINATIONS.

Category structure is the relation between a category and in-members. This relationship of inclusion is often exploited in metonymy so that a member of a category may stand for the whole category or vice versa. This relationship is further exploited as metaphorisation process as in to have a say in something, in which one specific form of communication stands for the communication of one's opinion.

Cultural models are understood as widely shared models of the world and relations in it, which influence members of a society in their understanding of the world and their behavior. These cultural models are manifest, first of all, in physical forms, which are seen as an internal force or impetus in objects. Thus FORCE is metaphorically seen as A SUBSTANCE CONTAINED IN CAUSE, e.g. *His punches carry a lot of force.*

E. *Dirk Geeraerts's Model*

Whereas Dirven, in the wake of Jakobson's ideas, linked the metaphoric pole to paradigmatic relations and metonymic pole to syntagmatic ones, Geeraerts analyses both metaphor and metonymy in composite expressions along both their paradigmatic and syntagmatic axes. According to Geeraerts, the interaction between metaphor and metonymy can occur in three different ways: in consecutive order, in parallel order, or interchangeably. Geeraerts compares his prismatic model to Goossens' metaphtonymy concept. The main difference is that Goossens sees mainly one path, i.e. from metonymy to metaphor, whereas Geeraerts exploits their interaction in all possible directions.

F. *Barcelona's Patterns of Interaction*

Barcelona (1996) proposes that the patterns discussed by Lakoff &Turner (1989) and more systematically by Goossens (1990) can be classified into these two main types: interaction at the conceptual level and purely textual co-instantiation of a metaphor and a metonymy in the same linguistic expression.

The most important type is the first one, which is the interaction at the conceptual level. There are two subtypes of metaphor-metonymy interaction at this level: the metonymic conceptual motivation of metaphor and the metaphorical conceptual motivation of metonymy.

V. CONCLUSION

Metonymy is traditionally viewed as a figure of speech that involves a process of substituting one linguistic expression for another. It was basically thought of as a matter of language, especially literary or figurative language. In the last decades, with the advent of cognitive linguistics, it is generally believed that metonymy as well as metaphor in more than a linguistic device. Contemporary cognitive linguistics generally views both metaphor and metonymy as fundamental to the structuring of our conceptual knowledge. As the basis of metonymy, embodied philosophy makes contribution to the operation of metonymy. Both contiguity and prominence are believed to be the necessary characteristics for determining metonymy. In addition, the interaction between metaphor and metonymy has got great attention from cognitive linguists who propose different patterns of interaction.

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The Effect of Focus on Form on the Acquisition of English Middle Voice by Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—**This study aimed to investigate the effect of focus on form on the acquisition of English middle voice by Iranian EFL learners. Forty participants were assigned to two groups with learners in the experimental group receiving formal instructions on middle voice structure in English. An independent t-test was run to compare the two groups. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups. The results are discussed with respect to the promising effect of focus-on-form instruction.**

Index Terms—**middle voice, focus on form, passive voice**

I. INTRODUCTION

Middle voice is defined as a construction between transitive and intransitive one (Minsky, 1977). Middle voice is actually the equivalent of what is called anti-passive in other languages. The fact that a middle verb sometimes has a corresponding transitive verb seems to support this similarity. Middle construction is semantically different from passive and anti-passive structures (Chung, 1978). This study aims to investigate the learning of English middle voice by Iranian EFL learners. The motivation behind running this research is inadequate attention of both researchers and practitioners to middle voice.

II. MIDDLE VOICE

Middle voice is believed to have existed in Sanskrit, but the history of voice is mainly speculative. Sanskrit has a complete category of middle for all of the grammatical tenses, although this is not used for all the modes, each verb has its own extension, so that is by no means uniform (Robertson, 2006).

Middle voice is a generic statement, and the genericity of the surface subject may be either generic as in (a), or specific as in (b):

a) Mined food does not freeze well.

b) Your new hair dryer stares away neatly.

Perlmutter and Paul (1984) argued that the single argument of an intransitive verb may either be generated as an object of the verb (unaccusative verb) or as a subject (unergative). Despite various linguistic views on middle construction, there seem to be arguments concerning its properties. First, it takes the patient as its subject and implies the agent, which is never expressed explicitly. The meaning here is nearly the same as in the passive of the same verb, yet there are certain differences. The middle has the meaning of possibility involved in the construction as seen in the following examples:

a) This flight-light plugs in easily.

There are other examples for showing the difference between active, middle and passive voices:

1) I read this book. (active)

2) This book reads easily. (middle)

3) This book was read (by me). (passive)

Voice is a feature of verb that shows how the subject of the sentence is related to the state, expressed by the verb. In general voice of the verb indicates that subject is doing the action and is active, receiving the action (passive), or both of them (middle), which means both doing and receiving the action (Wallace, 2000, P.179).

Transitiveness refers to the action of a verb to an object, but voice is related to the action of a verb. It is the grammatical categorization of the verb that indicates the direction of the process regarding the subject. In active sentences, the process results from the subject, but in passive ones, the process results from the agent and subject; in middle construction, the subject works directly or indirectly upon itself (Valeika & Buitkiene, 2003, P.91-97).

III. FOCUS ON FORM

Focus on form has been variously defined by different researchers. Long (1983) defines it as drawing learners' attention to linguistic elements, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose focus is on meaning or communicative (Long, 1983, p.45-6). Long and Robinson (1998) defined focus on form as follows:

Focus on Form often consists of occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features by the teacher or one or more students triggered by perceived problem with comprehension or production (Long & Robinson, 1998, P. 23).

In traditional language classrooms, learners receive formal instruction in the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of the target language, together with tightly controlled opportunities for practicing them systematically. With the advent of more communicative approaches, the PPP approach (*Presentation-Practice-Production*), was introduced; and materials, organized around a grammatical syllabus, allowed for more meaningful practice in communicative situations. But the problem is that often learners complete activities without having a clear understanding of the form-meaning relationship (Crivos & Luchini, 2012).

Batstone (1994, cited in Crivos & Luchini, 2012) claims that there are three approaches to teaching grammar: as *product; as process*; and as *skill*. Product teaching is concerned with grammatical forms and with the learners' noticing of them in the input. In order to be noticeable, a grammar item has to be significant to the learner, and teachers should do their best to design activities that aim at making it as salient as possible. *Noticing* the new items of language is just the first phase in learning. After the new item has been noticed, learners are prepared for the second one, during which, they make their own *hypotheses* on how language works and then, they *structure* their knowledge of the language system. These processes are facilitated by consciousness raising, which involves active manipulation of the language under focus and provides conditions for noticing and emphasis on re-noticing (Batstone, 1994; Schmidt, 1990, cited in Crivos & Luchini, 2012). These mental processes of *noticing*, *structuring* and *restructuring* allow learners to organize language flexibly, combining elements from grammar and lexis productively.

Ellis (1993, cited in Crivos & Luchini, 2012) distinguishes two kinds of knowledge: *explicit* and *implicit*. Explicit grammar instruction refers to those instructional strategies used to raise learners' conscious awareness of the form or structure of the target language. Through explicit instruction learners are able to notice features in the input data. Implicit knowledge, on the other hand, is a non-conscious and automatic abstraction of the structural nature of the material arrived at from experience of instances.

Consciousness-raising is a psycholinguistic concept related to the widely debated question of how second languages are learned and is specifically concerned with the cognitive question of how students' minds work. Rutherford (1987, P.151, cited in Jeffrey, 2009) makes the following observation about second language learning:

It is incontestable that one cannot learn a language without direct contact with that language. No one could ever learn English, for example, given a vocabulary list and set of rules for syntax, morphology, phonology, etc., no matter how accurate and comprehensive (Jeffrey, 2009).

Similarly, Skehan (1998) sees consciousness-raising as tasks that draw attention to a particular form, but give no explicit information, and Ellis (1992, 138) defines it as a type of form-focused instruction designed to make learners aware of a specific feature (Jeffrey, 2009).

Consciousness-raising occurs when students are encouraged to notice particular features of the language, to draw conclusions from what they notice and to organize their view of language in the light of the conclusions they have drawn (Jeffrey, 2009).

The essence of consciousness-raising can be found in the interplay between learning and acquisition. Whilst language learning refers to the conscious internalization of rules and formulas, language acquisition tends to be unconscious and spontaneous (Krashen, 1987, 1988, cited in Jeffrey, 2009). Acquisition is similar to the way children learn their mother tongue (however, consciousness-raising refers more specifically to second language students). Krashen believed that no transfer could happen between the learned and the acquired because of their different inputs, but Ellis (1982, P.76) drawing on Stevick (1980) points out that it may be that communicative opportunity is necessary as the *switch* that starts the flow of learnt to acquired knowledge (Jeffrey, 2009).

Consciousness-raising assists in both learning and acquisition in that it relies on some explicit teaching, but uses explicit teaching merely as a foundation to help students understand and use language features by subtly drawing their attention to them. In this way, consciousness-raising makes teaching effective, but by no means should the explicit side of teaching dominate. Doing so would hinder the automatization of acquisition, as Cavour (2002, 27, cited in Jeffrey, 2009) explains:

While it is true that teaching explicitly certain strategies could strengthen learners' weak areas, it may also hinder the automatization of language acquisition and, in turn, slow down communication, the ultimate purpose of foreign language classes (Jeffrey, 2009).

IV. RESEARCH QUESTION

This study aims to answer the following question:
• Does focus on form have any significant effect on the acquisition of Iranian EFL learners' English middle voice?

V. PARTICIPANTS

Participants in this study were 40 male and female learners of English as a foreign language, aged from 18 to 30 in different private language institutes. Based on an Oxford placement test the participants were observed to be at the upper intermediate level. Participants were placed in two groups and each class had two administrations. The first time

before any treatment the pretest was given and after the instructions the posttest was given to test their improvement in the understandingof middle voice structure in both groups.

VI. MATERIALS

Two tests were devised in order to let the researcher provide an answer to the research question: a pre-test and a post-test. For both the pre-test and the post-test, fill in the blanks and completion items were used for measuring the participants' knowledge of middle voice structures. The purpose of the pretest was to determine the participants' knowledge of English middle voice and the purpose of the posttest was to test the participants' improvement in comprehending middle voice. The test materials were prepared by the researcher and checked for their validity with experts.

VII. PROCEDURE

The participants were first given an exam to determine their knowledge of middle voice. Secondly during the course learners were taught middle voice through focus on form instruction method. Finally the second exam was given to evaluate achievement of learners.

Before the treatment, an independent samples t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pretest of knowledge of middle voices in order to examined that the two groups had the same level of knowledge of middle voices prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 1 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on pretest of knowledge of middle voices are 2.30 and 2, respectively.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRETEST OF KNOWLEDGE OF MIDDLE VOICES BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Strength of association
Experimental	40	2.300	.9661	.1528	0.02
Control	40	2.000	.9337	.1476	0.7

The results of the independent t-test (t (78) = 1.41, P = .16 > .05, T^2 = .02 it represents a weak effect size) (Table 2) indicate that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pretest of knowledge of middle voices. Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of knowledge of middle voices prior to the main study.

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR THE PRETEST OF KNOWLEDGE OF MIDDLE VOICES BY GROUPS

	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
Equal variances assumed	.827	.366	1.412	78	.162	.3000	.2124	-.1229	.7229
Equal variances not assumed			1.412	77.909	.162	.3000	.2124	-.1229	.7229

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met (Levene's F = .82, P = .36 > .05). That is why the first row of Table 2, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" is reported.

A. Results

An independent t-test was run to compare the students' mean scores on the posttest of knowledge of structures of middle voices in English. On average, as shown in Table 3, the experimental group shows a higher mean score on the posttest (M = 9.40, SD = .67) compared with the control group (M = 6, SD = 1.43).

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	40	9.400	.6718	.1062
Control	40	6.000	1.4322	.2265

The results of the independent t-test (t (78) = 13.59, P = .000 < .05, T^2 = .7, summarized in Table 4 indicate that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' means on the posttest of knowledge of middle voices in English. Thus the null-hypothesis that middle voice instruction does not have any significant effect on the Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of structures of middle voices in English **is rejected**. The experimental groups - after receiving treatment on middle voices - outperformed the control group on the posttest.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	8.079	.006	13.593	78	.000	3.4000	.2501	2.9020	3.8980
Equal variances not assumed			13.593	55.368	.000	3.4000	.2501	2.8988	3.9012

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met (Levene's F = 8.07, P = .006 < .05). As it was mentioned above, in case the sample sizes are equal, this assumption can be ignored.
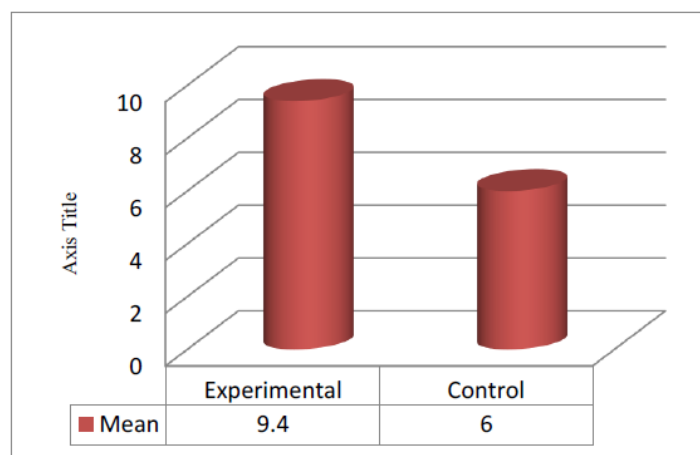

Figure 3: Posttest of Knowledge of Middle Voice by Groups

B. Discussion

The results of the study showed that focus on form instruction had a significant effect on the Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of English middle voice. This finding agrees with the body of research which shows that grammatical instruction and noticing have a positive effect on second language learning.

In line with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (2001), Skehan (1996) supports the role of focus on form in assisting learners to link declarative to their procedural and communicative use of the structure. He suggests that learners benefit from some type of explicit instruction prior to the activity to help them activate their knowledge of TL structures and facilitate awareness of the forms they will encounter (Skehan, 1996, p.46). Schmidt (2001) also argues that L2 learners must efficiently notice and be aware of the features of input in order for intake and learning to be possible. He also considers attention as a necessary construct for understanding every aspect of SLA (Rahimpour et al., 2012).

The findings of the study corroborate Howkins' (1984) belief that language awareness is needed to develop skills as a prerequisite for efficient foreign language learning, what Donmall (1985) regards as "a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of language" (p. 7).

Recently, a few studies, conducted in the L2 classroom setting (Rosa & O'Neill, 1999), have reported overall positive effects of awareness on learners' subsequent post-exposure performance. Schmidt (1995) views the role of awareness as a necessary and sufficient condition before any L2 data can be taken in. Consciousness raising techniques are used as a means to an end, rather than an end for itself (Smith, 1981). Second language learners cannot begin to acquire a language feature until they have become aware of it in the input.

The findings of this study are in disagreement with the ideas of Krashen (1981, cited in Crivos & Luchini, 2012), who suggests that teaching grammar results in conscious knowledge, which is only available for monitoring utterances that learners produce using their acquired subconscious, knowledge and that it is of very limited value. He recommends that teachers abandon grammar teaching, and concentrate instead onproviding lots of comprehensible input so that learners can acquire a second language naturally, inthe same way they have acquired their mother tongue.Other researchers do not agree with the notion that learners seem to master thegrammar of a second language simply by being exposed to plenty of comprehensible input (Ellis, 1984; Scmidth, 1995). Krashen's theoretical claims also seem to be contrary to the personal experiences andbeliefs of numerous language teachers who find that this theory does not include those students whoperform slowly and consciously in a way that develops into automatic behavior (Smith, 1981, cited in Crivos & Luchini, 2012).

Corder (1967, cited in Crivos & Luchini, 2012) claims that learners possess a built-in syllabus that determine when theyare ready to acquire a new grammatical structure independently of how much practice they may havebeen exposed to. This learnabilityproblem has been the focus of debate for many years and mightpartly explain why not all learners

are able to learn what they are taught. But the findings of this study support the belief that focus on form can assist all learners in learning English voice structures (Crivos & Luchini, 2012).

Teachers should aim at designing and implementing tasks in the classroom which encouragelearners to focus on form and language use and to raise their awareness of processes of language use. Considerable exposure to meaningful samples of languageand plenty of opportunities for practicing it freely may not guarantee native-likeoutput.

SLA research suggests that new grammatical features are more likely to be acquired whenlearners notice and comprehend them through input. However, some attention to form is also necessary (Ellis, 1994).Ellis (1994) argues that formal instruction is central in second language learning only if it is given aspart of meaning-based activities.

The findings of this study are in line with those which support the positive role of consciousness raising in second language learning. As Jeffrey (2009) believes, teachers should draw students' attention to prominent characteristics of the target language and let this learning process facilitate acquisition. It is the cognitive capacity of the students that is most important in this respect, rather than mere memorization and regurgitation as in realistic English. Consciousness-raising requires second language acquisition to not be simply the accumulation of one isolated grammatical entity upon another, but rather the acquisition of new language skills upon pre-existing knowledge, through attention to form rather than merely on memorizing details (Jeffrey, 2009).

VIII. Conclusion

This research was an attempt to investigate, in particular, the effect of receiving instruction on English middle voice by Iranian EFL learners and to see if focus on form in general affects second language learning or not. The results pointed to the positive effect of instructed language learning in general and receiving instruction on English middle voice in particular. The results corroborate research findings which emphasize the role of attending to form, i.e., grammar, in second language teaching classes.

Based on the results of the study it can be concluded that focus on form is a facilitative strategy in second language learning. This conclusion is in line with previous research which has reported a positive effect for focus on form. For example, Al-Hejin (2012) (undated) is against the idea of unattended language learning and uses the term learning with residual attention. Taking the necessity of attention for language learning, defined as alertness, orientation, and detection, to be obvious by definition, he further asserts that children in unattended language learning contexts "must surely pay attention to the L2 input, but they are unlikely to be preoccupied with noticing the linguistic surface structure of the input, nor are they necessarily aware of the complex grammatical rules underlying their inter-language."

Education should be used to help a person grow and develop in many aspects such as intellectual, emotional, and social aspects. Education should also create awareness (Khatib, Sarem, & Hamidi, 2013). Along similar lines, Radwan (2005) delineates the importance of awareness in language learning and states the association of awareness and learning. He takes noticing as a process leading to awareness and further adds that the degree of success in language learning and the recognition and accurate production depends on the meta-awareness.

In line with the findings of this study, Nassaji (2000) provides support for focus on form through two influential theoretical perspectives: the interactive perspective and the cognitive prospect. Interactive perspective holds language learning to be realized through interaction and negotiation of meaning, using different communicative strategies, and thus make the input comprehensible. Resorting to focus on and use of form can help these strategies acquire higher levels of likelihood to succeed.

The results support claims made by Francis (2002) that research findings from "focus on form" research have led language teachers to employing learning activities that direct students' attention to language patterns and contrasts between target forms and incomplete learner-language forms, which are considered as inter-language forms.

IX. Pedagogical Implications

The result of the present has research the following implications:

1. Teaching middle voice construction is a great way which has to be included in education and language learning syllabuses, for improving speaking and writing.

2. It is evident that whit out the proper education and instruction of middle , passive and active ,students can got confused about the using these constructions. Therefore during training classes, students will be familiar with active, passive and middle voice.

3. The research clearly showed that teaching middle voice is the best way of solving its problematic areas.

4. Teaching middle construction can occur in different levels of English classes as well, that helps students and teachers to be consciously engaged with it.

5. Teaching middle voice is a great way to enhance fluency and accuracy for different skills specially speaking and writing.

X. Suggestions for Further Research

In this research the focus of attention was on Learning English middle voice constructions by Iranian EFL learners, however, other researchers can investigate the following:

1. Investigating Learning English middle voice constructions by Iranian EFL learners with different proficiency levels and in all other areas.
2. Considering this research for all skills special speaking and writing.
3. Learning English middle voice constructions by Iranian EFL learners of different sex and age groups.
4. Comparing middle construction with other voices.

APPENDIX

A. First Session Lesson

Description of Active and Passive voice
- In active voice sentences the subject **does** the action.
  Example: Liz played the piano.
- In passive voice sentences the subject **receives** the action.
  Example: The piano was played by Liz.

B. Second Session Lesson

What is active and passive construction?
In the active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action:
I   aced   the exam.
Subject/actor   verb   object/thing acted on
In the passive voice, the object of the action becomes the subject of the sentence, and the actor appears in a prepositional phrase, or is absent from the sentence:
The exam was aced (by me).

C. Third Session Lesson

WHAT is the difference?
The active voice tells you what the subject of the sentence does or is.
The children broke the window.
The passive voice tells you what happens to or is done to the subject.
The window was broken (by the children).
In the first sentence, the children are the subject of the sentence. In the second, the window is the subject.

D. Forth Session Lesson

Middle voice
Someone broke the window.   (active)
The window was broken.   (passive)
The window broke.   (middle)
All the above sentences are correct. The third sentence, written in the middle voice, contains an ergative verb. This ergative verb can change an object into a subject without needing to use a passive.
An ergative verb is a kind of intransitive verb. It is different from an ordinary intransitive verb (such as cough, die and sneeze) because it can be made passive. For example, we can say:
The window broke.   (middle)
Or   The window was broken.   (passive)
Ordinary intransitive verbs cannot appear in the passive voice.
For example, we can say:
Janet sneezed.   (active)
But we cannot say:
Janet was sneezed.
The passive voice allows an agent:
The ball broke the window.   (active)
The window was broken *by the ball*.   (passive – agent given)
The window was broken.   (passive – agent not given)
The middle voice does not allow an agent:
The ball broke the window.   (active)
The window broke.   (middle)
We cannot say:
The window broke by the ball.

E. Fifth Session Lesson

What are middle voice verbs?

It is said English has about 600 ergative verbs. Examples are : alter, balance, beat, begin, bend, bleed, boil, burn, burst, change, circulate, close, commence, dash, decrease, increase, diminish, drop, dry, embark, end, explode, fade, fill, form, freeze, gather, grow, harden, improve, increase, issue, melt, open, pass, roll, separate, shake, shine, shiver, shoot, slip, spread, start, stir, stop, split, spread, start, tear, thaw, thicken, turn, twist, upset, etc..

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EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Ability in the Light of Metadiscourse Awareness

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Abstract—Nowadays, many researchers or teachers of a second or foreign language believe that reading is one of the most important skills for ESL/EFL learners, so they pay special attention to the activity of reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2001; Lynch & Hudson, 1991).Recent studies of written texts show a growing interest in interaction between readers and writers. This interaction is called metadiscourse. This study examined the effect of metadiscourse awareness on reading comprehension of EFL intermediate students by using metadiscoursal taxonomies proposed by Hyland (2005). The participants included sixty intermediate female learners at a language institute in Urmia. They were randomly assigned to two groups. A pre-test of reading comprehension was given to both the experimental and control groups to check their initial performance in reading comprehension. Then the experimental group was exposed to instruction of metadiscourse markers for five sessions. The control group received no specific instructions in metadiscourse. Finally, both groups were given a post-test to measure their reading ability. The findings revealed that explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers improves EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. These findings have some implications for language teachers and material developers. They should pay more attention to metadiscourse markers in making EFL curricula and try to raise the learners' awareness toward MD markers to improve their reading comprehension ability.

Index Terms—metadiscourse awareness, interactive resources, interactional resources, reading comprehension

I. Introduction

The acquisition of reading skills in an L2 is a priority for millions of learners around the world. It is vital for academic achievement and is an important and necessary skill for most forms of personal learning and educational attainment in today's society. Eskey (2005) stated that most of the students who study English as a foreign language (EFL) hardly need to speak the language in their daily lives but they might need to read it in order to "access the wealth of information recorded exclusively in the language" (p. 563). However, because of complex nature of reading process, developing effective reading habits can be very difficult. As Rivers (1988) stated, reading is a problem-solving activity that engages the reader in the process of deriving and assigning meaning. During this problem-solving activity readers should use their contextual information such as syntactic, semantic, and discourse constraints. These pieces of information affect their interpretation of the passage.

Reading was traditionally considered as a passive process. However, it is recently recognized as an active and interactive process. Nunan (2001) believes that reading is an interactive process in which the reader has to combine bottom-up and top-down processes. In this view, besides an interaction between the reader and the content, there is also an interaction between the reader and the writer. This latter interaction, which involves conveying of attitudes and assumptions, is called metadiscourse (MD). Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993) defined MD as "linguistic material in texts, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content, but that is intended to help the listener or reader organize, interpret, and evaluate the information given" (p. 40). Therefore, as Nemati & Parvaresh (2008) stated, the process of writing involves working upon two levels: on the first level, writers focus on what they want to communicate to the readers, and on the second level, they focus on how they communicate with the readers. Vande Kopple (1997) pointed out that the first level is called primary, or discourse, level, whereas the second is called metadiscourse level.

Hyland and Tse (2004) claimed that through metadiscourse markers (e.g., with some surprise, I suspect that, in simple terms, we all know that), the writer is able to not only bring coherence and reader-friendliness to the text but also associate it with a given context and express his or her personality, credibility, and relationship to the message. As a result, these markers are used to organize the writer's position towards the reader or the content (Hyland, 2005). Thus, metadiscourse markers help both the writer and the reader in two ways. On one level, they help the writer organize the propositional content and his or her ideas, and they help the reader interpret the writer's message through indicating the

organization of the text. On the other level, they build an interaction between the reader and the writer and bring reader-friendliness to the text (Jalilifar & Alipour, 2007).

Zellig Harris coined the term metadiscourse in 1959 to show a writer's /speaker's effort to guide a receiver's perception of a text (Hyland, 2005). The concept was later developed by Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore (1989) and Hyland (2004, 2005). As Hyland (2005) mentioned "metadiscourse stresses that as we speak or write we negotiate with others, making decisions about the kind of effects we are having on our listeners or readers" (p. 3).

Since MD markers have different meanings, there are several taxonomies for these markers in the literature. Vande Kopple (1997) defined MD as discourse that writers use to help readers connect, organize, interpret, evaluate, and develop attitudes toward the informational material. Using Lautamatti's (1978) taxonomy and Williams' (1981) work, Vande Kopple (1985) identified two main types of MD markers: textual and interpersonal. He divided them into seven subcategories: text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, validity markers, narrators, attitude markers, commentaries. Table 1 illustrates the classification system as suggested by Vande Kopple (1985).

TABLE 1
VANDE KOPPLE'S CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM FOR METADISCOURSE (1985)

Textural Metadiscourse
Text connectives
Used to help readers recognize how texts are organized and how different parts of a text are connected to one another functionally or semantically. They include sequencers (first, next, however, but), reminders (as mentioned in Chapter 1), and topicalizers (with regards to, in connection with). Logical and temporal relationship markers are also included (consequently, at the same time).
Code glosses
Used to help readers grasp the writer's intended meaning. Often they are based on the writer's perception of the reader's knowledge of the topic. These devices reword, explain or clarify semantic relationships (x means y).
Validity markers
Used to express the writer's commitment to the probability of or truth of a statement. Hedges (perhaps, may, might), emphatics (clearly, obviously), and attributors (according to Willett) are included here.
Narrators
Used to inform readers of the source of the information presented- who said or wrote something (according to Scott).
Interpersonal Metadiscourse
Illocution markers
Used to explicitly target the speech act being performed at specific points in the text (to sum up, I hypothesize, we predict).
Attitude markers
Used to reveal the writer's attitude toward the propositional content (unfortunately, interestingly, and surprisingly).
Commentaries
Used to communicate with readers in an implicit dialogue (dear reader, you may not agree).

Crismore et al. (1993) tried to improve Vande Kopple's (1985) MD taxonomy. They defined metadiscourse as the linguistic material intended to help the reader or listener organize and interpret information in texts, but does not add any information to the propositional content. Table 2 shows the revised categories of MD according to Crismore et al. (1993).

TABLE 2
METADISCOURSE CATEGORIZATION BY CRISMORE ET AL. (1993)

Textural Metadiscourse
1. Textual markers
Logical connectives Show connections between ideas (in addition, therefore, so)
Sequencers Indicate sequence/ordering (first, next, finally)
Reminders References to previous information (as we saw previously)
Topicalizers Indicate a shift in topic (now, I will discuss)
2. Interpretive markers
Code Glosses Further explain text material (for example, that is)
Illocution markers Name the act performed (in sum, to conclude)
Announcements Announce upcoming information (in the next chapter)
Interpersonal Metadiscourse
Hedges Show uncertainty to truth of claim (might, possible, likely)
Certainly markers Express commitment to claim (certainly, shows, know)
Attributors Give source or support of claim (Scott claims that…)
Attitude markers Display writer values (surprisingly, I hope)
Commentary Build Relationship with reader (dear reader, please consider)

Hyland (2005) proposed a new model for classification of MD markers. According to him "metadiscourse is an umbrella term for the self-reflective expressions that are used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text and help the writer/speaker express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community" (Hyland, 2005, p.37). He has divided MD expressions into two main categories: interactive and interactional. Table 3 summarizes MD, according to Hyland (2005).

TABLE 3
AN INTERPERSONAL MODEL OF METADISCOURSE (HYLAND, 2005, P.49)

Interactive: Help to guide reader through the text
Transitions Express relations between main clauses (in addition/but/thus/and)
Frame markers Refer to discourse acts, sequences and stages (Finally/to conclude)
Endophoric markers Refer to information in other parts of the text (Noted above/see Fig.
Evidentials Refer to information from other sources (According to X/ Z states)
Code glosses Elaborate definitions of words or phrases (Namely/e.g./such as)
Interactional : Involve the reader in the argument
Hedges Withhold commitment and open dialogue (might, perhaps possible)
Boosters Indicate certainty or close dialogue (in fact, definitely)
Attitude markers Express writer's attitude to proposition (arguably, unfortunately)
Self-mentions Explicit reference to author (I, we, my, me, our)
Engagement markers Explicitly build relationship with reader (you can see that, note,)

Hyland (2005) stated that interactive devices help the writer deal with the information flow and establish his or her intended meaning. They focus on ways of organizing discourse to predict readers' knowledge and show the writer's assessment of what needs to be made explicit to limit and guide what can be recovered from the text. On the other hand, by using interpersonal devices, the writer interacts with the readers, expresses his/her views, supports or rejects an idea or informs the reader of his/her own personal interpretation and reaction about the content.

Interactional devices are concerned with the participants of the interaction and show the writer's voice or personality based on the norms of the community. Hyland (2010) states that in this case, "MD concerns the writer's efforts to control the level of personality in a text and establish a suitable relationship with his/ her data, arguments, and audience,

marking the degree of intimacy, the expression of attitude, the communication of commitments, and the extent of reader involvement" (p.128).

Hyland (2005) believes that an awareness of metadiscourse offers three main advantages to students. First, it helps them better understand the cognitive demands that texts make on readers and the ways writers can help them to process information. Second, it gives them enough resources to take a stance toward their ideas. Third, it enables them to negotiate that stance, and engage with their readers. Crismore et al. (1993) also state that students should be given metacognitive awareness of MD and strategies to use it, so that they might know how to consider the author, connect sentences to maintain schemas, change topics, notice an introduction, transition, and a conclusion, identify the author's attitudes and whether he/she is being subjective or objective, and realize the relevant signals and circumstances, which define the rhetorical situation of the text.

Different scholars have investigated both the role and presence/absence of metadiscourse instruction in different skills of the language (Steffensen & Cheng, 1996; Martinez, 2004; Jalalifar & Alipour, 2007; Sa, 2008; Dastjerdi & shirzad, 2010). However, they have revealed diverse and sometimes interesting results. For example, some researchers (e.g. Crawford Camiciottoli, 2003) stated that some metadiscourse items do not always result in higher reading comprehension, because other factors may interact with metadiscourse and affect comprehension.

Steffensen and Cheng (1996) investigated the effect of targeted instruction on metadiscourse on the writing abilities of native-speaker university students. An experimental group that had been taught the form, function and purpose of metadiscourse learned to use it effectively and produce compositions that earned significantly higher scores than those of a control group, which had received no instruction on metadiscourse.

Martinez (2004) investigated the use of discourse markers in the expository compositions of Spanish undergraduates. The main findings were that students employed a variety of discourse markers with some types used more frequently than others.

A study by Jalilifar and Alipour (2007) attempted to determine the effect of MD presence and instruction on TOEFL reading passages for three groups of students with pre- to intermediate reading proficiency. Ninety students were selected and given three versions of the same test, original, modified and unmodified metadiscourse-free texts. The significant result was that the omission of metadiscourse markers from a text does not hinder the comprehensibility of the propositional content presented in the text, when enough structural modifications are made in the text. The explicit MD instruction was argued to have helped participants notice and become aware of these language forms and their functions while reading. The removal of these markers broke the propositional chains in the texts and thus made them confusing.

Sa (2008) investigated the effect of inclusion and exclusion (absence/presence) of MD markers on listening comprehension of EFL learners. The study aimed at exploring the role of metadiscourse in listening comprehension. Two groups of participants listened to different versions of the same TEM8 mini-lecture, one with metadiscourse while the other without, and both of the groups were required to finish the same tasks and questionnaire after listening. Statistical results showed that metadiscourse plays a vital role in listening comprehension, with significant differences.

Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010) investigated the impact of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on advanced, intermediate, and elementary English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' writing performance. The participants of their study were undergraduate students majoring in English Literature at the University of Isfahan. Their findings indicated generally that explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers significantly improves EFL learners' writing ability, however, in their study the learners at the intermediate level improved significantly greater than those at the advanced and elementary levels that shows that the practitioners should pay more serious attention to metadiscourse markers in making EFL curricula.

Following what was mentioned above, this study aimed at investigating the impact of explicit instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance.

The study poses the following research question and null hypothesis:

RQ: Does explicit instruction of MD markers affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

H0: Explicit instruction of MD markers doesn't affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study was conducted with 60 female Iranian learners. They were intermediate EFL learners of English at Iran Language Institute in Urmia. Two intact classes were selected and randomly assigned into experimental or control groups. The participants were between 16 and 22 years of age. The initial homogeneity of the participants was further assessed via a Preliminary English Test (PET). The researcher ran an independent samples t-test to obtain a meaningful guarantee for the homogeneity of the participants' proficiency level (t (17) = 1.13 ρ=.27> .05).

B. Design

The study employed a quasi-experimental design to examine the effect of explicit instruction of MD markers as an independent variable on the reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners as a dependent variable.

C. Instrumentations

Three instruments were used in this study. The Preliminary English Test (PET), a second level Cambridge ESOL exam for intermediate level learners, was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of language proficiency. The test included four sections of Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking. Speaking and Writing sections were removed for practical and administrative reasons. To check the initial performance of both the experimental and control groups in reading comprehension, the researchers gave them a pretest of reading comprehension. After the treatment stage, both groups were given a posttest of reading comprehension to check whether there was any significant difference between their performances.

D. Procedure

First, the Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered to learners to ascertain the homogeneity of participants in terms of language proficiency. Then, before the treatment, the pretest of reading comprehension was given to both the experimental and the control groups to check their initial performance in reading comprehension. It included four reading comprehension passages followed by twenty multiple-choice items. The participants received one point for each correct response. The time allocated for this test was forty minutes. The experimental group (EG) was then exposed to explicit instruction of MD markers for five sessions. In each session, they were familiarized with definitions and examples of some types of MD markers proposed by Hyland (2005). The learners were asked to give synonyms for different types of MD markers and use them in sentences. They were given some sentences and asked to complete them with correct MD markers. Some passages with MD markers were also given to them. They had to read the passages, underline MD markers, write them down and explain the function of each marker clearly. The treatment was conducted on two days a week which included roughly thirty minutes of MD markers instruction at the end of each session. Since this study aimed at determining the effects of MD markers instruction on the learner's performance, the control group (CG) received no specific instructions in MD markers. After the treatment, in order to see the effect of MD awareness on the learners' reading comprehension, learners in both groups were given a posttest of reading comprehension. Like the reading comprehension pre-test, it included four reading comprehension passages followed by twenty multiple-choice items. The time allocated for this test was forty minutes, too. The participants' scores on the pre-test and posttest were then compared to find the degree of improvement of each group.

E. Data Analysis

To answer the research question regarding the impact of explicit instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance, the researcher ran an independent samples t-test on the pre- and post-test scores of the experimental and control group.

III. RESULTS

The research question in this study addressed the effect of explicit instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance. Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics for the participants' pre- and post-test of reading comprehension.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE- AND POST-TEST OF READING COMPREHENSION BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	std	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test Experimental group	30	16.48	1.62	.35
Control group	30	16	1.56	.31
			2.24	.68
Control group	30	16.25	1.96	.50

First, equality of variances was investigated using Levene's test of. The results of the test, p= .73, indicated that an independent t-test could be run. Then, to compare the reading comprehension scores for experimental and control groups in pretest, the researchers ran an independent samples t-test. As Table 5 demonstrates there was no significant difference for experimental group (M = 16.48, SD = 1.62) and control group (M = 16.00, SD = 1.56; t (22) = 1.350, P>.05). This indicates that the performance of the two groups did not differ in the pretest of reading comprehension.

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRE- AND POST-TEST OF READING COMPREHENSION BY GROUPS

	Levense's Test for Equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean differences	Std. error differences
	F	Sig.	t	df			
Pre-test Equal variance assumed	1.183	.737	1 .350	22	.880	.48	.04
Equal variance not assumed			1.350	20.876	.880	.48	.04
Post-test Equal variance assumed	.253	.650	4.302	22	.000	2.12	.18
Equal variance not assumed			4.302	21.54	.000	2.12	.18

In order to see whether the treatment procedure implemented to the experimental group had any significant effect on this group and to see whether the experimental groups' mean was significantly different from that of the control group, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare their mean scores on posttest of reading comprehension. As it is shown in Table 4, the mean score for the experimental group (M = 18.37) is higher than that for the control group (M= 16.25). The results of the independent t-test (t (22) = 4.302, P = .000 < .05) imply that there is a significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the posttest of reading comprehension (Table 4). Thus the null-hypothesis that explicit instruction of MD markers does not affect the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners is rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of MD awareness on reading comprehension of EFL intermediate students by using metadiscoursal taxonomies proposed by Hyland (2005). The findings reveal that explicit instruction of MD markers in Iranian EFL courses is quite successful for improving learners' reading comprehension ability. This result supports Crismore's (1985) claim that MD awareness has been very effective in foreign/ second language teaching classrooms and with various parts of language skills and components. These results confirm some previous studies (Tavakoli, Dabaghi, & Khorvash, 2010; Nemati & Parvaresh, 2008) which revealed that explicit instructions in metadiscourse improved learners' reading comprehension.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of explicit instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. The results of this research indicated that learners in MD instruction group outperformed control group. The findings of this study have some implications for second language teachers. Teachers should try to raise the learners' awareness toward MD markers and help them become better readers and more insightful writers. Moreover, the results of this research can have implications for material developers. They should develop suitable texts that contain MD markers for learners of various language proficiency levels. The findings help them design more coherent texts to enhance EFL learners' ability to understand and remember information.

Nevertheless, this study has some delimitations. First, it is constrained to intermediate level. Learners of different levels of proficiency such as elementary and advanced levels can be investigated to make some generalizations. Second the participants were Iranian and from Iran Language Institute, so the results cannot be generalized to learners of other nationalities.

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On Expectancy Norms in E-C Translation of Trade Names of Drugs in Light of Chesterman's Theory of Translation Norms[*]

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Abstract—**Based on Chesterman's theory of translation norms, this research analyses the Database of Imported Drugs (DID) of State Food and Drug Administration (SFDA) to explore the expectancy norms in E-C translation of trade names of drugs. It is found that there are four expectancy norms in E-C translations of trade names of drugs: mental expectancy norms, cultural tradition norms, translation tradition norms, and law norms. The translators should obey the norms to make the translated versions accepted in the target culture.**

Index Terms—**expectancy norms, E-C translation, trade names of drugs**

I. INTRODUCTION

With the advancing of reforming and opening to the world, there are more and more imported drugs pouring into Chinese market. And the increasing number of English trade names of drugs has been translated into Chinese. To some degree, the translation of trade names of drugs is related with the patients' health and lives. It is very necessary to standardize E-C translation of trade names of drugs.

Expectancy norms as the standards of appropriate translated versions are put forward by Chesterman in 1993. Only following the expectancy norms are the translated versions accepted by the readership in the target culture. Thus, it is essential for the translators to know and follow the expectancy norms.

This paper analyses the Database of Imported Drugs (DID) which is established by State Food and Drug Administration (SFDA) and explore the expectancy norms in E-C translation of trade names of drugs. It is helpful to improve the quality of translation of trade names of drugs.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Norms function in a community as standards or models of correct or appropriate behavior and of correct or appropriate behavioral products (Sch äffner, 1999, p. 5). But what is the concept of norms in translation? Toury defines the translation norms as "the translation of general values or ideas shared by a certain community—as to what is right and wrong, adequate and inadequate into specific performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to specifying what is proscribed and forbidden as well as what is tolerated and permitted in certain behavioral dimension" (Toury, 1995, p. 55). Translational behavior is contextualized as a social behavior, and translational norms are understood as internalized behavioral constraints which embody the values shared by a community. All decisions in the translation process are thus primarily governed by such norms, and not by the two language systems involved (Sch äffner, 1999, p. 5).

Hermans (1985, p. 11) claims that translation implies "a degree of manipulation of the source text for a certain purpose". Hermans uses the concept of norms to inquire into the translator's choices. He argues that the choices which a translator makes simultaneously highlight the excluded alternatives and that in this way light can shed on the interplay between the translator's responses to expectations, constrains and pressures in a social context (Sch äffner, 1999, p. 6).

Translation norms prevail at a certain period and within a particular society, and they determine the selection, the production and the reception of translations. Based on the research results of Toury and Hermans, Chesterman (1993, 1997) gives the classification of translation norms — expectancy norms and professional norms. Expectancy norms reflect the expectations of readers of a translation (of a given type) concerning what a translation (of this type) should be like (Chesterman, 1993, p. 17). Professional norms operate at a lower level than expectancy norms, govern the accepted methods and strategies of the translation process, and the can be subdivided into three types: a) the accountability norm, b) the communication norm and c) the relation norm (Chesterman, 1997, p. 69).

Expectancy norms are partly governed by the prevalent translation tradition in the target culture, and are partly by the form of a similar text-type in the target language. They can also be influenced by economic or ideological factors,

power relations within and between cultures and the like (Chesterman, 1997, p. 64). These expectations include the readers' requirements for translation: text-type, discourse conventions, style and so on. These expectations help readers to judge translation being "appropriate" or "acceptable" or the like.

Expectancy norms allow us to make evaluative judgments about translations. Facing expectancy norms, the translators have two choices: to obey or to break. Because of normative power, violation of norms usually arouses disagreement with the translation which would be considered "inappropriate". If the translators want their translation to be acceptable, they tend to choose to obey the norms.

What is a translation expected to be? One argues that it is validated by a norm authority, and the other argues that it is validated by its very existence. In other words, if a translation is acknowledged to exist, it is automatically acknowledged to be some kind of norm.

Expectancy norms are mainly validated in terms of their very existence in the target language community: people do have these expectations about some kind of text. Furthermore, different text type has different expectancy norms. For example, the expectations of the translation of an advertisement are impossible as same as a novel. Meanwhile, expectancy norms may also vary with time. Translators prefer obeying the prevalent norms in their time to make their translation more accepted by contemporary readers. This research is to find out what the translated versions of English trade names of drugs should be like after analyzing the translated version of trade names of drugs.

What are the expectancy norms in E-C translation of trade names of drugs? Because the expectancy norms are very hard to be observed directly, we must reveal it according to the translated versions. Based on the analysis of DID and the elements which can influence the norms, this research explores and describes the expectancy norms in E-C translation of trade names of drugs in detail.

III. DATA COLLECTION

In China, State Food and Drug Administration (SFDA) takes charge of registration and supervision of drugs and medical devices. SFDA is the most authoritative administration in the medicine field. All the imported drugs are required by the law to be translated into Chinese and registered in SFDA. All the information of imported drugs including the English names and their translated versions are collected into the Database of Imported Drugs (DID). DID is considered to be the most authoritative database of imported drugs in China.

According to the criteria for classification in DID, the names of drugs are classified into four categories: Chinese generic name, English generic name, English trade name, and Chinese trade name. Generic name is the medical legal name with uniqueness. Trade names of drugs are the registered trade-marks and created by drug manufacturers in order to distinguish it from others and play a role as an advertisement. For example,

[1] "Ceftazidime for Injection" (generic name) is used to treat the sepsis, LRTI, and soft tissue infection caused by sensitive gram-negative bacilli. But because of the different manufacturers, the same drug with same generic name is registered with three different trade names in DID: "Fortum" – "复达欣 (Fu Da Xin)" (made in Italy), "Kefadim" – "凯复定 (Kai Fu Ding)" (made in Brazil and Taiwang), and "Tazime" – "泰得欣 (Tai De Xin)" (made in Korea).

The same drug owns a Chinese generic name and an English generic name, but several English trade names and the translated versions. The expectancy norms exited in the translation of trade names are the object of study in this paper.

IV. EXPECTANCY NORMS IN E-C TRANSLATION OF TRADE NAMES OF DRUGS

What are readers' expectations for the translated versions of English trade names of drugs? The manufacturers of drugs expect the translated trade names to catch the customers' attention, inspire their interests, meet their mental desire and make them buy the products. The customers pay more attention to health, the indications and functions of drugs, and expect the treatment of disease. Their expectations influence what a translation (of this type) should be like. In addition, expectancy norms in E-C translation of trade names of drugs are, in a way, validated by a norm authority of some kind, such as the related law norms, some translation tradition norms, some experts' ideas, and so on. These authorities may be accepted and conformed to in the target culture at large.

Facing the expectancy norms, the translator has two choices: to obey or to disobey. If a translation obeys the expectancy norms more than another, it is considered to be "more appropriate". So the translator prefers obeying it. For example,

[2] To conform to their expectations, "Kantaike", a kind of cold medicine, is translated into "康泰克 (Kang Tai Ke)" which means "cure your cold immediately and regain you health" in Chinese.

[3] "Singulair", a drug of prevention and treatment of asthma, is translated into "顺尔宁(Shun Er Ning)". "顺(Shun)" means "make somebody comfortable", "尔(Er)"means "you", and "宁(Ning)" means "calm down". So "顺尔宁(Shun Er Ning)" means "make you comfortable and calm down:".

The translators make their translations satisfy the readers' expectations to conform to the expectancy norms. But the expectancy norms are not only established by readers' expectations, but also "are governed by the prevalent translation tradition, by the form of other texts of the same genre, and by various other factors" (Chesterman, 1997, p. 64). The cultural traditions, the prevalent translation traditions including text-type and translation method, etc. in the target

language society are governing the expectancy norms.

Based on the analysis of the data in DID, it is found out that there are some factors governing the readers' expectations for translation of trade names of drugs. At first, the reader's mental expectations are sure to influence translation. And whether a translation is appropriate or not is dependent partly on the cultural tradition in the target language society. Meanwhile, the prevalent translation traditions are also influencing acceptance of the translation of trade names of drugs. In addition, as a linguistic symbol and a part of a product, the trade name is sure to be bound by the related laws and regulations. These factors are involved in expectancy norms in E-C translation of trade names of drugs. And they reflect in such expectancy norms in E-C translations of trade names of drugs as follows: mental expectancy norms, cultural tradition norms, translation tradition norms including text-type and translation method, and law norms.

A.   Mental Expectancy Norms

These product norms are ultimately constituted by the expectancies of the target language readership (Chesterman, 1997, p. 64). After analyzing the translated versions in DID, the research argues that the mental expectancies of readers (the manufacturer and the potential customers) of the target language are main parts of expectancy norms in E-C translation of trade names of drugs.

The research explores the mental expectancy norms by analyzing the translated versions. According to the statistical analysis of translated versions, it is found that the morphemes used with supreme frequency are as follows:

TABLE I
THE PERCENTAGE OF FREQUENCY OF THE MORPHEMES

Morpheme	"美"	"克"	"力"	"乐"	"利"	"安"	"复"	"立"	"通"	"优"
Percentage	13.5%	7.5%	5.5%	5.1%	5.1%	4.7%	3.1%	3.1%	3.1%	2.7%

Table I indicates that "美(wonderful)", "乐(happy)" and "优(good)" with information of emotional appeal reflect the reader's pursuit of happiness and wonderful things."力(powerful)", "利(beneficial)", "立(immediately)", "克 (overcome)", "复(recovery)","安(calm)"and "通(fluent)" with information of rational appeal such as efficiency and function of drugs reflect human's pursuit of health. The pursuit of happiness and health is rooted in human's mind. All trade names must conform to the metal expectancies including the translated versions. These morphemes not only reflect human's mental expectancies but also the translators' choices of conformance to the mental expectancies.

Furthermore, we must make it clear that the readership of translation of trade names of drugs is different from that of ordinary ones. There are two kinds of readers: the manufacturers and the potential customers. So there are also some differences between their mental expectancies. The manufacturers expect the translated trade names to catch the customers' attention, meet their mental desire and make customers buy the products. The potential customers pay more attention to health, the function of drugs and expect the cure for disease. They expect that the translated trade names, in some way, can satisfy their mental expectancies of health. The manufacturers' and the potential customers' mental expectancies are sure to influence the translation and be reflected in the translated versions. For example,

[4] "MENINGO A+C" – "美宁安 (Mei Ning An)A+C" is a kind of meningococcal polysaccharide vaccine. "MENINGO" means "脑膜" in Chinese , and "美宁安" means "a wonderful feeling of calm and safety".

[5] "Venofer" – "维乐福" is to treat iron deficiency anemia (IDA), "维(Wei)" means "维护(to keep)", so "维乐福 (Wei Le Fu) (Wei Le Fu)"in Chinese means " to keep you happy".

[6] "Zofran" – "枢复宁(Shu Fu Ning)" is used to prevent or treat vomiting after chemo-treatment and operation. "枢复宁" means "nervous system calms down again".

[7] "Essentiale N"- "易善复(Yi Shan Fu)" can correctly revive the damaged function and normal activity of enzyme of liver. "易善复(Yi Shan Fu)" means "good at reviving".

In Example [4] and [5], "美宁安 A+C" and "维乐福" are emotional appeal versions which show the subject feeling. And they conform to manufacturers' mental expectancies and attempt to arouse the consumer's mental response. In Example [6] and [7], "枢复宁" and "易善复" are rational appeal versions. They provide information about the drugs such as functions and efficiency to comply with the potential consumers' mental expectancies.

In E-C translation of trade names of drugs, the readers' mental expectancies are not only reflected in translation but also conformed to by the translators. They are called **mental expectancy norms.**

B.   Cultural Tradition Norms

Chesterman (1997, p. 68) argues that whether a translation is expected to be overt or covert will also depend partly on the cultural tradition in the target language. To make their translation more acceptable, the translators often choose to conform to the cultural traditions in the target language society. According to the statistical analysis of translated versions, it is explored that there are some Chinese cultural traditions in E-C translation of trade names of drugs such as national psychology, value orientation, and aesthetic, etc. which influence the acceptance for final translation products. For example,

[8] In Chinese people's mind, the best drugs are "神仙赠与的灵丹" (the most effective drugs from God). So If the

translated versions include "仙(Xian)" which means "God" and "灵(Ling)" which means "effective" in Chinese such as "ZADAXIN" – "日达仙", "Amoxycillin" – "阿莫灵", etc., they are easier to be accepted by the customers in China and arouse their responses.

[9] "Dragon(龙)" is the most representative of differences between western and Chinese value orientation, and aesthetic. In western culture, "dragon" is regard as symbol of evil. But in Chinese culture, "龙（Long）" is a commendatory term, a traditional auspicious symbol with magic. In "Cordarone" – "可达龙", "Betaferon" – "倍泰龙", "Sandostatin LAR" – "善龙", and "Gaslon N" – "盖世龙", "龙"（Long），as a linguistic symbol with magic, is easier to catch the customers' attention and make them accept the translation.

When readers speak of translations being more or less "appropriate" or "acceptable" or the like, they usually make the judgment depending partly on the cultural traditions in the target culture. And the translators choose to follow these cultural traditions shared by the target language community to make their translation more "appropriate". These cultural traditions which influence the acceptance of E-C translation of trade names of drugs are called **cultural tradition norms.**

C. Translation Tradition Norms

Chesterman argues that expectations of readers of a translation are partly governed by the prevalent translation tradition in the target culture, and are partly by the form of a similar text-type in the target language (Chesterman, 1997, p. 64). These prevalent translation traditions and the form of a similar text-type in the target culture affect the evaluating of the translated versions. They are some kind of expectancy norms. But what are the prevalent translation traditions in the target culture in E-C translation of trade names of drugs? What's the form of a similar text-type? When people get used to something about translation and take it for the traditions, we call it **translation traditions.**

Take translation methods for example. According to the statistics of translation methods, it is found that transliteration is mainly employed at 95 % in E-C translation of trade names of drugs. Transliteration is the prevalent traditional translation method. The readers are used to these translation methods and the translators tend to transliterate the names of drugs.

Secondly, take the form of text-type for example. After comparing the pronunciation of English trade names of drugs and their Chinese versions, we find that the translators tend to choose the Chinese characters with similar pronunciation of English trade names of drugs to constitute the translated version, and determine the number of Chinese characters according to the English syllables.

TABLE II
THE CONTRAST BETWEEN ENGLISH SYLLABLES AND THE NUMBER OF CHINESE CHARACTERS

Contrast	increased	equal	decreased
Percentage	0.5%	65%	34.5%

According to table II, the translators mainly use the equal number of Chinese characters to English syllables in E-C translation of trade names of drugs. For example,

[10] "Bayaspirin"–"拜阿司匹灵(Bai A Si Pi Ling)"   "Pregnyl"–"波热尼乐(Bo Re Ni Le)"
       "Losec" – "洛赛克(Luo Sai Ke)"   "Gutron" – "管通(Guan Tong)"
       "Atock" – "安通克(An Tong Ke)"   "Alkeran" – "爱克兰(Ai Ke Lan)"

And if the English syllables are more than three, the translators tend to simplify and decrease the number of Chinese characters in the translated versions, and some English syllables are omitted. For example,

[11] "Norditropin" – "诺泽(Ruo Ze)"   "MultiHance" – "莫迪司(Mo Di Si)"
       "Vivonex" – "维沃(Wei Wo)"   "Depakine Chrono" – "德巴金(De Ba Jin)"
       "Wartec Solution" – "华特(Hua Te)"   "Contractubex" – "康瑞保(Kan Rui Bao)"

Only a few translated versions increase the numbers of Chinese characters when the English syllables are less than three, for example,

[12] "Gran" – "惠尔血(Hui Er Xue)" improved the recovery of neutrophil which is the largest number of cells of blood with phagocytosis, and play an important role in anti-infection. "惠" means "beneficial", "尔" means "your", and "血" means "blood". The Chinese drug name means "be beneficial to your blood" that is the function and indication of the drug.

There exists a fact that the number of Chinese characters is less than 3. The statistical results of the number of Chinese characters in Chinese translated versions as follows.

TABLE III
THE PERCENTAGE OF THE NUMBER OF CHARACTERS IN THE CHINESE VERSIONS IN DID

The number of Chinese characters	5	4	3	2	1
Percentage	1.5%	9%	69.5%	20%	0

Table III shows that the number of characters in the Chinese versions in DID is mainly between 4 and 2 characters.

These prevalent translation traditions and the form of translated version give the reader an idea that a translation (of

this type) should be like in this manner. In E-C translation of trade names of drugs, the readers think that the translators had done a better job in the above ways and the translated versions in the above manner seems to be more acceptable. If a translation conformed closer to the idea, the translation would be considered more "appropriate". These prevalent translation traditions and the form of translated version which are accepted as criteria for judgment by the readers in target language society at large are called **translation tradition norms.**

D.   Law Norms

Trade name is a component part and a linguistic symbol of drugs. It is a registered trade-mark and created by drug manufacturers in order to distinguish it from others and plays a role as an advertisement. Undoubtedly, it must respect the related laws and regulations of drugs and advertisements. The translated versions of trade names are also the trade names which are governed by the related laws. In this sense, the laws tell the people what the translation of trade names should be like.

In some cases, expectancy norms are working because of some authority norm. In any society, there are some people who are considered to have the right to establish this kind of norm. The related laws of trade names are made by the authorities. The related laws represent the requirements of the whole society for the trade names of drugs and it can be regarded as some kind of translation norms. They are called **law norms**. For example,

[13] According to article 50 in *Drug Administration Law of the People's Republic of China,* a drug name listed in the national drug standard is an adopted name in China. Such an adopted name may not be used as a trademark. The adopted name is the generic name of drug which may not be used as a trade name. And it means that the English trade name can't be translated into the generic name. Take "Nitrolingual" – "保欣宁" (Bao Xin Ning) for example. It is a drug used to prevent attacks of angina. The generic name is "Nitroglycerin Spray"(硝酸甘油喷雾剂), and the English trade name "Nitrolingual" means "硝酸甘油". Usually, if the translator translates "Nitrolingual" into "硝酸甘油喷雾剂", it's no problem. But in fact, it is illegal and not allowed to be registered because it is listed in the national drug standard.

Law norms are very special and compulsory. Generally, the translators have the choice to obey or to disobey the norms when they are facing the expectancy norms. But it is impossible to disobey the law norms. Otherwise, the translated trade names are not allowed to be registered in China. It means that the translated versions are prohibited entering the target language community. As a result, there are by no means such translations in China.

V.   CONCLUSION

To sum up, these expectancy norms become the translational standard for evaluation and determine the translation products. The translators mostly choose to obey them to make their translation acceptable in the target culture. Mental expectancy norms, cultural tradition norms, translation tradition norms and law norms are not contradicted in E-C translations of trade names of drugs. In fact, they work together to determine the translation products. And they influence each other and transform themselves into each other under given conditions.

For example, law norms are legally enforceable. Law norms make the translators know what they can do and what they can't do, and also make the readers know what they can't expect or obtain. In fact, law norms influence mental expectancy norms. When people is used to following the law norms and regards it as the translation norms, in some way, the law norms become a part of traditional translation norms. And when some traditional norm is accepted by the authorities in the form of legislation, it becomes the law norms. Certainly, when some other translation norms are powerful to be accepted by the authorities in the form of legislation, they also become the law norms. After realizing the expectancy norms, it is beneficial to translate the trade names of drugs.

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The Relationship among Iranian EFL Learners' Creativity, Emotional Intelligence, and Language Learning Strategies

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Abstract—The present study was carried out in an attempt to investigate the relationship among EFL learners' creativity, emotional intelligence, and language learning strategies. To achieve the objective of the research, a group of 120 male and female learners, between the ages of 18 and 35 majoring in English Literature, English Translation, and English Language Teaching, both at B.A. and M.A. levels were non-randomly selected. To obtain the required data, the following questionnaires were utilized: Persian validated Creativity Test, Persian validated Bar-On Emotional Intelligence questionnaire, and Persian validated Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The results of correlation analyses revealed that there was no significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and emotional intelligence. Moreover, a positive medium relationship between EFL learners' creativity and their language learning strategies was observed. In addition, a positive significant correlation was revealed between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their language learning strategies. This study also demonstrated that EFL learners' creativity was a better predictor about their language learning strategies compared with their emotional intelligence.

Index Terms—creativity, emotional intelligence, language learning strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Current pedagogical concerns seem to highlight the major role which individual differences play in language learning (Fahim & Zaker, 2014); these individual traits are believed to significantly influence the rate of learning and learners' achievements. Among these individual factors, according to GU (2003), intelligence is often thought to be one of the most significant predictors of language learning success.

Students who receive higher Intelligence Quotient (IQ) scores are usually considered more intelligent. Intelligence as a general concept encompasses social and emotional factors besides the cognitive factors (Cantor & Kihlstorm, 1987; Sternberg, 1985). According to Goleman (1995), IQ is a factor which can significantly contribute to life success, both directly and indirectly. However, he further argues that other factors, e.g. Emotional Intelligence (EQ), can also determine how an individual achieves his/her desired goals. Goleman (ibid) argues that the term EQ refers to the specific features which enable one to identify and adjust their emotions as well as other people's emotions. He also adds that EI has the potential to predict success in different stages of life, as powerfully and significantly as IQ.

By development of the concept of EQ, different issues and variables are attributed to it. Sternberg (1997) believed that academic achievement and intelligence are not measured only by academic scores, and we should consider peo/ple skills and attitudes. Sternberg (1997) researches on intelligence resulted into a new theory called "successful intelligence" and he points that to achieve success in life, successful intelligent is required, and this theory is remarkably broader than conventional theories of intelligence.

Regarding success in education and in life, it is believed that creativity, as another mental factor, can play a major role (Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014). Therefore, some recent integrative attempts have been made to describe and study creativity in different domains (Sa ńchez-Ruiz et al, 2011). Recently, researchers have focused more on the social, emotional, and environmental dimensions of creativity. These studies have made it clear that it is essential for human society to move in creativity and innovation road in order to make progress and take stronger steps towards a better future and solving the existing problems of the society. In a similar vein, Runco (2004) argues that creativity is a factor which is drawing more and more attention among scholars and scientists because creativity can affect a wide range of human activities.

Psychologically, the concept of creativity is believed to be a very important factor due to the fact that the study of creativity can offer a basic principle for describing human beings and might provide some justifications for the existing differences among different individuals. Achieving such a level of understanding about human factors can be highly advantageous in an educational context, especially when it comes to predicting academic success (Naderi, Abdullah, Aizan, Sharir, & Kumar, 2009).

Regarding the existence of creativity among different age groups, Fisher (2005) argues that all learners have the inner ability of thinking creatively, irrespective of the degree of IQ they have. However, there are certain needs to be met in the learning context. Guilford (1950) was one of the pioneers to argue in favor of the advantages of creativity for language learning. Some of the basic components of creativity are believed to be sensitivity to problems, creative fluency of production, the capability to come up with original ideas, mental flexibility, the ability to synthesize ideas, the ability to analyze, being able to reorganize and redefine an organized entity, and evaluation (Hajhashemi, Parasteh Ghombavani, & Yazdi Amirkhiz, 2011).

Regarding the factors which affect the quality and quantity of learning, Dansereau (1985) believed that the way learners participate in the process of learning would be highly dependent upon the way they think, i.e.the cognitive processes. Language learning strategies are believed to be directly related to the quality of cognitive processes and second language learning (Oxford, 1990). These strategies are believed to determine the way learners would process the new information and how they understand or remember.

It is believed that language learning strategies can be quite different and numerous. According to Chamot and Kupper (1989), different language learners might employ different kinds of language learning strategies with different frequencies. However, in order to succeed in language learning, a learner should make use of suitable language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). In other words, language learning strategies play a key role in learning and the way pedagogical goals are achieved (Nosratinia, Saveiy, & Zaker, 2014). Therefore, considering the abovementioned points, it seems reasonable to systematically inspect the association among EFL learners' creativity, EQ, and language learning strategies.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Creativity

In an attempt to define creativity, Piirto (2004) found that the root of the words "create" and "creativity" comes from the Latin creâtus and creâre, meaning "to make or produce". As researchers like Amabile (1996), Sternberg & Lubart (1999) put it, creativity refers to the generation of ideas or products that are original, valuable, or useful. Agars, Kaufman, and Locke (2008, p. 6) agree that "Most early definitions of creativity implied that creativity was a singular entity. These initial conceptualizations, although meaningful, were somewhat limited in their application. "A commonly held definition by researchers who believed in creativity as a single concept is that "creativity boiled down to two components. First, creativity must represent something different, new, or innovative. Second, it also must be useful, relevant, and appropriate to the task" (Clauss-Ehlers, 2010, p. 270). However, limitation of this kind of definition is that it is very much dependent on the context, setting, and number of people involved in the activity. In fact, in real condition, ideas that are considered new or creative in one context may be old or disruptive in another or something creative done by one person may be impossible for a group.

Rhodes (1961) cited in Sarsani (2005) described the multifaceted construct of creativity by analyzing 56 different definitions of creativity. He came to conclusion that all these definitions linked in four overlapping themes, and introduce the concept of "the four P's of creativity" as follows:
- Person: personality characteristics of the creative individual
- Process: stages of thinking that resulted in producing something creative
- Product: characteristics of the end products or outcomes of new ideas, thoughts, or inventions
- Press: environment that influence the performance of creative people

As argued by Kaufman (2009, p. 21), later, two other P's were added to this framework. One of them is "Persuasion" proposed by Simonton, and the other is "Potential" offered by Runco. The definition of Rhodes is not the only framework we have to understand creativity, but it is a valuable one because it conceptually organizes creativity research (Murdock, Isaksen, Vosburg, & Lugo, 1993).

Arnold (as cited in Proctor, 2010, p. 31) identified some barriers to creativity as follows:
- Perceptual barriers: resulted from factors that inhibit true identification of the world
- Emotional barriers: resulted from factors like fear of risk taking or making a mistake, stress, and feeling unsafe.
- Cultural barriers: resulted from the impact of society on the individual. Later, Adams (1979) cited in Sarsani (2006, p. 158) made the list more complete by adding the following factors to it:
- Environmental blocks: resulted from the impact of the immediate environment
- Intellectual blocks: resulted from lack of flexibility in using problem-solving strategies.
- Expressive blocks: resulted from lack of language skills to express ideas. Soliman (2005) classified barriers to creativity in a broader categorization: historical, biological, physiological, sociological, and psychological Barriers. He confirmed that psychological barriers, that block creativity from inside, are the most important ones. Malone (2003) identified some major psychological barriers: self-imposed barriers, conformity to one expected pattern, not trying to challenge the obvious, rush in evaluation or judgment, fear of looking stupid, lack of willingness to challenge, anxiety, and lack of faith in your own abilities.

Agars et al. (2008) described divergent thinking as the analysis of various responses to questions when no clear single answer is available. Guilford (as cited in Kaufman, 2009) identified the main components of divergent production as follows:

■ Fluency: number of ideas comes to the mind
■ Flexibility: number of categories one can name
■ Originality: uncommon ideas one can produce
■ Elaboration: the potential to expand those ideas

Kaufman (2009) pointed to the fact that, "creativity doesn't necessarily just divergent thinking" (p. 18). As mentioned earlier, transformation abilities constitute another category of abilities important in creativity. These abilities enable the individual to understand the information, think out of the box, break a set, and transform the known patterns into the unknown new ones (Russ & Fiorelli, 2010).

B. Emotional Intelligence

According to Goleman (1998), social intelligence is the actual origin of EI. Thorndike, in 1920s, argued that EI is strongly related to social intelligence. As he stated, social intelligence enables one to sympathize with other people and behave appropriately. Later studies in 1948 argued that there is a link between intelligence and emotions (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009). Goleman (1995) argued that EQ is another demonstration of smartness. He later argued that, generally, EQ addresses the ability to notice and adjust emotions in ourselves and in other people (Goleman, 1998).

EQ or El (Üngür & Karagözoğlu, 2013) has also been defined as being able to observe one's own as well as other people's feelings, to differentiate them, and to employ this data for guiding one's thinking and deeds (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Different models of EQ are briefly mentioned below.

1. Salovey and Mayer: An Ability Model of EI

Salovey & Mayer (1990) coined the term EI. They have conducted many studies on EI. These scholars' theory of EQ makes use of different important factors from the fields of intelligence and the field of emotion. Regarding the domain of intelligence, they argue that intelligence is the ability to do reasoning abstractly. From the domain of emotion, according to As Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002), it has been stated that emotions are means to transferring usual and comprehensible meanings about relationships. According to this view, a number of fundamental emotions are universal; however, individuals can vary in their ability to analyze emotional information and in their ability to make a link between emotional processing and a wider cognition.

2. Bar-On: A Mixed Model of EI

Reuven Bar-On was the person who managed to develop one of the initial measures of EQ (Syts & L.Brown, 2004). Bar-On's model of EQ revolves around the potential for success and performance, not the performance and success itself. This model is believed to be a process-oriented model, not outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2002). According to Bar-On (1997), this model highlights a group of emotional and social abilities which include: a) the ability to be cognizant of, comprehend, and voice oneself as well as others, b) the ability to handle deep emotions, and c) the ability to get used to changes and solve social and personal problems. Bar-On (2000) states that EQ would develop over time, as a result of training, and with therapy.

3. Goleman's Model of EI

Goleman, a psychologist and science writer, is believed to have based his ideas about EQ on the findings of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990s. After conducting his own studies, he finally wrote EI in 1995, known to be a remarkable book which could shed light on EI. His 1998 model introduces four principal EI constructs: a) self-awareness which enables one to notice one's emotions and identify their effect; b) self-management which addresses the ability to control one's emotions and impulses as well as the ability to adapt to new conditions; c) social awareness which deals with being able to feel, comprehend, and react to other people's emotions in comprehended social networks; and d) relationship management which addresses the capacity to inspire, influence, and develop other individuals while taking care of acconflict (Syts & L.Brown, 2004).

C. Language Learning Strategies

The word strategy originates from the ancient Greek word strategia, meaning whatever one might do to win a war. However, nowadays, the war-related part of its meaning has become obsolete. According to Dansereau (1985) and Rigney (1978), language learning strategies is a term used to address those operations which are employed by a learner in order to assist in the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Oxford (1990) argues that language learning strategies are steps taken by learners to enhance their own learning, to enhance the chance of success in language learning, and make the process more self-centered and enjoyable. In a similar vein, Griffiths (2007) argues that language learning strategies are those activities which are consciously chosen by learners in order to regulate language learning.

It is believed that progress in studying language learning strategies has been contemporaneous with development of cognitive psychology (Williams & Burden, 1997). Influenced by the ideas of Oxford (1990), Bialystok (1981), O'Malley, et al. (1985), Willing (1988), Stern (1992), and Ellis (1994), language learning strategies have been studied and classified by many researchers. According to Wenden (1986), introducing the strategies of successful language learners might help other students in bettering their own learning processes. Therefore, it seems to be reasonable to study the main taxonomies of language learning strategies.

1. Taxonomies of Language Learning Strategies
1.1. O'Malley's (1985) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

A. Metacognitive Strategies: The term metacognitive is used to emphasize that these strategies would be based on higher levels of cognition, e.g. planning for learning, thinking about the process of learning, monitoring one's language use and comprehension, dealing with mistakes, and the act of evaluating learning (O'Malley et al., 1985).

B. Cognitive Strategies: These strategies are more specific in a way that they might be related to special tasks. Mostly, they might necessitate manipulating the learning material directly. (Brown, 2007).

C. Socioaffective Strategies: as Brown (2007) puts is, these strategies are closely related to social-mediating activities. Two major socioaffective strategies are question for clarification and cooperation.

1.2. Rubin's (1987) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Based on this model, language learning strategies are categorized into three categories. These categories are: a) Learning Strategies, b) Communication Strategies, and c) Social Strategies.

A. Learning Strategies: These strategies include two basic groups, i.e. Cognitive Learning Strategies and Metacognitive Learning Strategies. They are believed to directly assist language learning. Cognitive strategies are defined as the learning steps which involve direct study, modification, or synthesis of the learning material. They might include: Clarification, Verification, Guessing, Inductive Inferencing, Deductive Reasoning, Practice, Memorization, and Monitoring.

B. Communication Strategies: They emphasize communication through conversation. These strategies are usually employed when the speaker is faced with challenges or problems in communication and misunderstanding by an interlocutor.

C. Social Strategies: They enable learners to put into practice what they know. It is believed that these strategies expose learners to L2; therefore, they indirectly contribute to learning. This is due to the fact that they do not directly lead to internalizing, retrieving, and using the language.

1.3. Oxford's (1990) classification of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford divided language learning strategies into two main categories, direct and indirect strategies. She, then, are subdivided them into six classes. The outline of Oxford's classification of language learning strategies is presented below:

■ **DIRECT STRATEGIES**

I. Memory
   a) Creating mental linkages, Grouping, Associating/elaborating, Contextualizing words
   b) Applying images and sounds, Imagery, Semantic Mapping, Keywords, Sounds in Memory
   c) Reviewing well, Reviewing after increasingly longer intervals of time
   d) Employing action, Physical response or sensation, mechanical techniques

II. Cognitive
   a) Practicing, Repeating, Formally, Formulaic, Recombining, Naturalistically
   b) Receiving and sending messages, Getting the idea quickly, Using resources
   c) Analyzing and reasoning, Deductive, Expression analyzing, Contrastively across languages, Translating, Transferring
   d) Creating structure for input and output, Taking notes, Summarizing, Highlighting

III. Compensation strategies
   a) Guessing intelligently; Using linguistic and other clues
   b) Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing Mother tongue, Help!, Gesture, Avoidance, Topic Selection, Approximating, Coining words, Circumlocution

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Metacognitive Strategies
   a) Centering your learning Overviewing and linking, Paying attention, Just listening
   b) Arranging and planning your learning, Meta-linguistics, Organizing, Setting goals, Identifying purposes, Planning for a task, Seeking times to practice
   c) Evaluating your learning, Self-monitoring, Self-evaluating

II. Affective Strategies
   a) Lowering your anxiety, Relaxation/meditation, Music, Laughter
   b) Encouraging yourself , Positive statements, Wise risk-taking, Rewarding yourself
   c) Taking your emotional temperature, Body awareness, Emotion checklist, Diary, Sharing feelings

III. Social Strategies
   a) Asking questions, Clarification/verification, Correction
   b) Cooperating with others, Peer support, Interaction with native speakers
   c) Empathizing with others, Developing cultural understanding, Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

1.4. Stern's (1992) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

According to Stern (1992), language learning strategies have been classified into the following five groups:

1. Management and Planning Strategies which are related to learner's attempts to control their learning.

2. Cognitive Strategies which addresses those specific learning activities which learners employ to complete specific tasks.

3. Communicative-Experiential Strategies are those strategies which help learners keep the flow of communication, e.g. gesturing, paraphrasing, and circumlocution.

4. Interpersonal Strategies which would make possible monitoring learners' development, L2 cultural awareness, and communication with native speakers.

5. Affective Strategies which are various. They may include frustrating to learn or having a positive perspective towards native speakers (Stern, 1992).

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In the educational domain, creativity teaching includes the development of a combination of abilities, skills, attitudes, motivation, knowledge, and other attributes (Kaufman, 2009; Runco, 2004, 2007; Starko, 2010). However, recently, the development of creative potentials of students is emphasized instead of their immediate creative achievements or performance. NACCCE (1999) set out proposals to support the development of creativity in education and in EFL contexts, claiming that creativity in education is not just an opportunity but a necessity. Nowadays, the international trend seems to integrate creativity in curriculum frameworks. With this increasing global concern, reforming the structure of education to include much greater focus on developing creative skills is happening across the world. Universities can be the center of learning and developing creative thoughts. Recently, researchers and physiologists are more concerned about social, emotional, and environmental dimensions of creativity and believe that the emotional aspect is as important as the cognitive dimension in creating creativity.

Different students learn a second language differently because they have different personal characteristics. Research on learning strategies will provide EFL teachers and students with a different view of learning and teaching within the classroom. Furthermore, it can help EFL instructors to identify their students' learning preferences and creativity and then teach in a way that is appealing to most of students. This way, they will be on a more direct path towards achieving their goals. It also aids syllabus planners and material designers to prepare language learning syllabi and materials in line with students' emotions and experiences.

Doing this research is of great importance since the researchers try to inform the managers of English language schools and high ranking managers of education organizations about the role of EQ, creativity, and language learning strategy use in learning as well as the relationship among these three variables.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study was designed to investigate the relationship among Iranian EFL learners' creativity, emotional intelligence and language learning strategies. There was an attempt to find answers to the following research questions:

Q_1: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and emotional intelligence?

Q_2: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and language learning strategies?

Q_3: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and language learning strategies?

Q_4: Is there any difference between predictability of EFL learners' creativity and emotional intelligence about their language learning strategies?

V. MATERIAL AND METHOD

A. Participants

One hundred and twenty students majoring in English translation and English literature at B.A. level and English teaching at M.A. level at Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran were the participants of this study. These participants who were both female and male, between the ages 18-35, filled out the intended questionnaires for the purpose of this research.

B. Instrumentation

In order to achieve the purpose of this study the following instruments were employed:
1. Persian Creativity Test validated by Zaker (2013),
2. Persian version of Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Test validated by Samooee (2003), &
3. Persian version of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning validated by Tahmasebi (1999).

C. Procedure

In order to conduct this study, the following sequence was followed and the following tests were administered to the participants. As the first step, a Bar-On EQ test was distributed among 120 participants. It included 90 items in the form of short sentences and 15 factorial components. The questionnaire took nearly 20 minutes to complete and employed a five-point response scale ranging from 'very seldom' or 'not true of me' to 'very often' or 'true of me'. The highest and lowest values for items are five and one.

In the next stage, the Persian Creativity Test by Zaker (2013) which consists of 50 multiple choice items with 3 choices was administered among the participants, and for the next step, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

(SILL) including 50 items was administered. After the completion of the data collection phase, the data analysis process was carried out.

D. Design

The design of this study is descriptive as the researchers did not manipulate the variables and no treatment was given to the participants (Best & Kahn, as cited in Zaker, 2013). In fact, the degree of relationship among the variables is the major concern here. In this study, emotional intelligence and creativity were considered as the predictor variables and language learning strategy was considered as the predicted variable. Furthermore, age and gender were categorized as intervening variables.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

Firstly, the normality of the distribution of the three sets of scores obtained from the three questionnaires was checked as the first assumption for the parametric Pearson correlation, and it was revealed that all the distributions turned out to be normal by virtue of the sig values on Kolmogorov-Smirnov which came to be larger than .05 critical level. Therefore, the first assumption for a parametric correlation analysis was met.

The second assumption, linearity of the relations, was visually checked for each pair of variables and it was observed that the points did not form a curvilinear or any non-linear shape. Also, by a visual inspection, homoscedasticity was virtually verified due to the fact that the points scattered almost equally across the plot. The shape of the distribution was not curvilinear, but rather the points were scattered around a straight line. Besides, by virtue of the fact that the distribution was almost equal from the bottom left to the top right, homoscedasticity was claimed to be met.

The relationship between language learning strategies and EQ turned out to be linear. Furthermore, the equality of this distribution across the plot was virtually observed, hence homoscedasticity.

Testing the Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses, the researchers correlated the variables two by two. With all the assumptions of parametric Pearson correlation being met, the following table can legitimately be drawn upon to test the hypotheses.

TABLE 1.
CORRELATION BETWEEN EQ, LEARNING STRATEGIES, AND CREATIVITY

		EQ	Creativity	Learning strategies
EQ	Pearson Correlation	1	.170	.188[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.063	.040
	N	120	120	120
Creativity	Pearson Correlation	.170	1	.330[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.063		.000
	N	120	120	120
Learning strategies	Pearson Correlation	.188[*]	.330[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.040	.000	
	N	120	120	120

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As depicted in the above table, the relationship between creativity and EQ of learners turned out to be non-significant (r=.17, p=.063). *Hence, the first null hypothesis fails to be rejected.*

Also shown in the table, the correlation between creativity and learning strategies came to be significant (r=.33, p=.000) and positive. *Therefore, the second null hypothesis is rejected.* The strength of the correlation is medium (.33) according to Cohen (1988), and the coefficient of determination (.108, the R squared value) suggests that the two variables share only 10.8 percent of their variance.

Likewise, the correlation between EQ and learning strategies turned out to be significant (r=.180, p=.04) and positive. *As a result, the third null hypothesis is also rejected.* The strength of the relationship, however, is small (.180) according to Cohen (1988), and the two variables have only 3.24 percent of variance in common given the R squared value, which is a weak coefficient of determination.

To test the fourth hypothesis, a multiple regression was needed but firstly the assumptions had to be checked. The assumption of multicollinearity which refers to the relationship between the two independent variables is met by virtue of the correlation coefficient between creativity and EQ which is much less than 0.9, as reported in table 4.2 above. The assumption of normality, that residuals should be normally distributed about the predicted DV scores, was checked visually through the Normal P-P plot below:

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
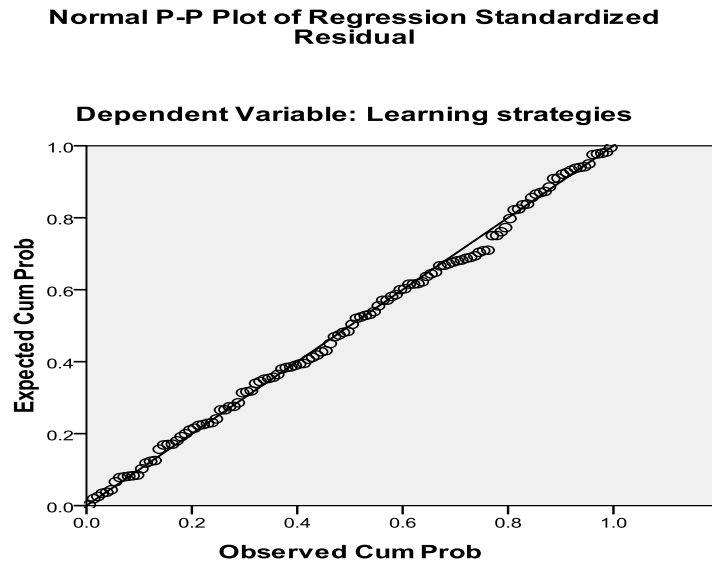
Dependent Variable: Learning strategies

Figure 1: P-P plot representing the distribution of the residuals about the DV

As depicted in the above plot, all of the points in the figure are on an almost straight diagonal line which goes from bottom left to top right. This point suggests that there is no serious deviation from normality. Homoscedasticity condition was also checked. It illustrates that the residuals are roughly rectangularly distributed with most of the values clustered in the center. Hence homoscedasticity is met.

The assumption of outliers was checked through the following table:

TABLE 2.
RESIDUALS STATISTICS[A]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	143.8084	190.4649	173.4417	8.19397	120
Std. Predicted Value	-3.616	2.078	.000	1.000	120
Standard Error of Predicted Value	1.995	7.711	3.284	.984	120
Adjusted Predicted Value	146.8225	191.3223	173.4780	8.21059	120
Residual	-61.83928	55.78482	.00000	21.49493	120
Std. Residual	-2.853	2.573	.000	.992	120
Stud. Residual	-2.941	2.678	.000	1.006	120
Deleted Residual	-65.74403	60.41687	-.03630	22.14953	120
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.043	2.752	.000	1.016	120
Mahal. Distance	.016	14.065	1.983	1.958	120
Cook's Distance	.000	.199	.010	.026	120
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.118	.017	.016	120

a. Dependent Variable: Learning strategies

Since there are two independent variables in this study (EQ and creativity as the predictor variables), the critical value for Mahal. Distance should be 13.82. As depicted in the above table, the maximum value of 14.06 slightly exceeds the critical value which signifies the presence of an outlier. Observing and sorting the cases by SPSS program, the researchers found only one case exceeding the critical value that was 14.06. Given the large sample size, the researchers considered it not unusual for an outlier to appear which is slightly outside the critical value. The Cook's Distance values do not exceed 1, indicating that there was no case exceeding the standardized residual value (-.3 to .3).

With all the assumptions met, the researchers safely used the regression analyses to test the hypothesis.

TABLE 3.
MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.356[a]	.127	.112	21.67786

a. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity, EQ

b. Dependent Variable: Learning strategies

Displayed in Table 3, the R Square value (.356) indicates that 35.6 percent of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the model (the two independent variables). The following table shows the significance of the model.

TABLE 4.
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MODEL ANOVA[B]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7989.804	2	3994.902	8.501	.000[a]
	Residual	54981.788	117	469.930		
	Total	62971.592	119			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity, EQ

b. Dependent Variable: Learning strategies

As Table 4 shows, the model is significant (F=8.5, p=.000<.05). The following table shows which of the independent variables contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable.

TABLE 5.
THE PREDICTION TABLE COEFFICIENTS[A]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	42.909	59.598		.720	.473	-75.121	160.938					
	EQ	.339	.218	.136	1.551	.124	-.094	.771	.188	.142	.134	.971	1.030
	Creativity	.584	.167	.307	3.501	.001	.254	.914	.330	.308	.302	.971	1.030

a. Dependent Variable: Learning strategies

Given the Beta values under Standardized coefficients, it was concluded that EQ does not significantly predict LS (B=.136, p=.124>.05), while Creativity significantly predicts the dependent variable LS (B=.307, p=.001<.05). *Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected*, implying that there was a significant difference in the predictability of EQ and Creativity about the learners' LS. And, by virtue of the weak correlation (though significant) between EQ and LS (.188), the non significant predictability of the former about the latter is justified.

VII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overall, the analyses of data yielded that there was no significant relationship between the EFL learners' creativity and emotional intelligence, but both variables significantly correlated with language learning strategies, and, on the basis of the analyses, the strength of the correlation between creativity and language learning strategies was medium while it was small in the case of emotional intelligence and language learning strategies.

Another finding proved that when it comes to the predictability of the predictor variables, there was a significant difference in the predictability of creativity and emotional intelligence about the learners' language learning strategies which was assumed as predicted variable and creativity was the better predictor of language learning strategies.

Observing no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and creativity among EFL learners is supported by some studies conducted to analyze the relationship between creativity and emotional intelligence in the literature. Hashemi (2009) in her study analyzed the relationship between emotional intelligence, emotional creativity, and creativity and the obtained results indicated that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and creativity among the students of different majors.

Regarding the outcomes of the scores obtained from creativity and language learning strategies and consequently rejection of the second hypothesis of the study and in accordance with Ehrman & Oxford (1995) claims, in educational context, those second language learners who are considered more successful select and mix some strategies which are appropriate for every specific language task based in line with their own learning style preferences. On the other hand, Abraham and Vann (1987) and Vann and Abraham (1990) argue that those second language learners who are not very successful employ different strategies desperately and randomly and do not consider the relevance of an employed strategy to the learning task.

Since in the present study no cause and effect relationship was implied, it can be inferred that students with higher levels of creativity use strategies more extensively and thus are better learners of English. It seems that those students who are more creative are more successful in finding and adapting strategies while learning English. Results obtained from testing the third null hypothesis of the current research were in line with the findings of previous studies. The studies empirically support the positive relationship between EQ and language learning strategy use (Aghasafari, 2006).

In his study of emotional intelligence and learning strategies, Aghasafari (as cited in Rastegar & Karami, 2013) found a considerable relationship between emotional intelligence and language learning strategies.

Based on the analysis of the data, it was concluded that there was a significant difference in the predictability of EQ and creativity about the learners' language learning strategies. By virtue of the weak correlation (though significant) between EQ and language learning strategies, the non-significant predictability of the former about the latter is justified. Furthermore, between creativity and EI, creativity was a better predictor of language learning strategies among EFL learners in this study as the correlation between language learning strategies and creativity was stronger.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

First, in order to investigate the probable relationship between the variables of this study, the following null hypotheses were posed:

H_{01}: *There is no significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and Emotional Intelligence.*

H_{02}: *There is no significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and Language learning strategies.*

H_{03}: *There is no significant relationship between EFL learners' Emotional Intelligence and language learning strategies.*

H_{04}: *There is no difference between predictability of EFL learners' creativity and emotional intelligence about their language learning strategies.*

■ The first null hypothesis of the research failed to be rejected (r=.17, p=.063) implying that there was no significant relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and creativity among EFL learners.

■ The second null hypothesis of the research was rejected (r=.33, p=.000) on the grounds that there existed a positive significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and their language learning strategies.

■ The third null hypothesis of the research was rejected (r=.180, p=.04) showing that a positive significant correlation, though small in size, existed between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their language learning strategies.

■ The fourth null hypothesis of the research was rejected as well (Beta=.307, p=.001<.05) indicating that EFL learners' creativity was a better predictor of their language learning strategies rather than emotional intelligence (Beta=.136, p=.124>.05).

All the findings summed up, it was shown in this study that creativity and EQ of the learners were not significantly correlated, but that creativity and language learning strategies were significantly correlated (with medium strength). The relationship between EQ and language learning strategies of the learners turned out to be significant, though the strength was shown to be small. Also, it was revealed in this study that EQ could not predict learning strategies of the learners, while creativity came out to be a significant predictor of the learners' learning strategies.

IX. IMPLICATIONS

It seems necessary to do research about the type of language learning strategies used by weak and strong students. It should be brought into teachers' consideration why some students are more successful when it comes to learning a language as a second language. Moreover, the type of strategies as well as frequency of activities they employ in order to improve their comprehension and meet the learning goals.

Actually, findings of the present study have this potential to help teachers promote and adjust their instruction to meet the needs of their students as much as they can. This is based on the belief that when teachers have a reasonable degree of understanding about learners' intellectual strengths and weaknesses, they might be able to assist learners in developing their intellectual abilities. On the other hand, as far as Oxford and Ehrman (1995) state, L2 learners employ a bigger number of learning strategies in an environment in which the language is used for basic communication and survival. By knowing language learning strategies and their relationship with creativity, learners can expand increase their strength in overcoming the obstacles they may encounter during the language learning efforts and mitigating the negative aspects of some variables.

Regarding implications concerned with curriculum developers and syllabus designers, it can be stated that they should cooperate with English teachers. So in collaboration with teachers, they can allot appropriate time in the curriculum for teachers to work on strategies and creativity in EFL/ESL classes. Also, material designers and curriculum developers should work cooperatively with teachers so that they can produce materials which are congruent with students' level of creativity, emotional intelligence, and language learning strategies.

X. SUGGESTIONS

While the researchers were carrying out this study, they came across some questions that can be investigated by those who are interested:

1. Future studies could explore qualitative approaches such as interviews, diaries, case studies, and observations by which creativity, emotional intelligence, and strategy use nurture in the classroom context.

2. Further research can investigate the impact of factors such as social background and academic achievements on the development of the constructs embedded in this study.

3. This study can be replicated considering different age groups. In other words other researchers may investigate the correlation between age and learners' creativity, EQ and language learning strategies.

4. Since in this research the number of male and female participants was not equal, it can be a good idea to conduct a new research with the equal number of male and female participants to investigate the effect of gender on these variables.

5. Further research can be conducted on the correlation between creativity and/or emotional intelligence of English teachers and their learners' course achievement.

6. Other interested researchers may reveal through an experimental study the effect of creativity instruction on the use of language learning strategies. Moderator variables such as gender and proficiency level may be incorporated as well.

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Relevant Researches on Tolerance of Ambiguity

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Abstract—**Stemming from the study on Intolerance of Ambiguity in psychological field, the study towards Tolerance of Ambiguity (TOA) has become a topic which more and more researchers take interest in. Great efforts have been made on the theoretical and practical development of this research focus from both the psychological field and the second / foreign language acquisition field. As the theoretical framework has been constructed so as to explore the connotation of TOA, a lot of empirical researches have been made either to find out the appropriate measurement instrument or to detect the correlation between TOA and other variables in both psychological and linguistic area. A thorough review of relevant researches about TOA will help us to be aware of the current tendencies as well as the potentials for further study in the future.**

Index Terms—**tolerance of ambiguity (TOA), second / foreign language learning, measurement of TOA**

I. INTRODUCTION

Studies towards Tolerance of Ambiguity (TOA) stemmed from the study on Intolerance of Ambiguity in psychological field. Ever since McDougall (1926) made one of the earliest attempts to relate personality traits to an ambiguity variable, a good number of researchers have contributed a lot on both theoretical and practical development of this focus not only in psychological field but also in second / foreign language acquisition field. At the same time when great efforts from great amounts of researchers have been made to construct the theoretical framework about tolerance of ambiguity by exploring its definition, efforts have never been stopped towards designing an appropriate instrument with great validity and reliability to measure tolerance of ambiguity by researchers from the very pioneer stage initiating this research focus up till now, as the scales "may reinforce and illuminate their parent theories", by firstly showing "evidence of containing the elements defined by their theories" and secondly showing "the expected relationships with the correlates adduced from the theory" (Kirton, 1981, p. 413).

II. MEASUREMENT OF TOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY

The earliest attempt towards such kind of paper-and-pencil measurement of tolerance of ambiguity construction is Walk's "intolerance of ambiguity" Scale made by Richard D. Walk in 1950s. This unpublished instrument, in which 8 items are designed with the possible answer from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree", was frequently used by the early psychologists or psychoanalysts as a reliable measurement towards intolerance of ambiguity. However, even the author of this scale advised that the reliability of the instrument was unknown and that the scale was not successful as a measure when related to perceptual stimulus. Later, through personal communication with the author and further statistical study, Ehrlich (1965) concluded that "Walk's A Scale is not homogeneous and cannot, therefore, be legitimately viewed as a pure measure of the postulated attribute" (Ehrlich, 1965, p. 593). Martin & Westie (1959) and Child (1965) also tried to develop such tests, only to end up with the lack of internal consistency.

On the more positive side, the Budner (1962) Scale of Tolerance-Intolerance of Ambiguity has shown fairly good internal consistency and is therefore used as instrument more often. Budner's scale, including 16 items with half positive and half negative statement, is a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1-7 (strong disagreement to strong agreement) for positively worded items and the reverse for negative items. The possible scores for the scale extend from 1-16 for strong disagreement to 96-112 for strong agreement, with varying ranges between. Based on this scoring system, the higher the score obtained, the more intolerant the person is. Items are designed to tap at least one postulated indicator of perceived threat, namely, phenomenological submission or denial and operative submission or denial and to refer to three types of ambiguous situations: novelty, complexity and insolubility. Reliabilities (alpha coefficients) reported for 13 of his 17 samples ranged from .39 to .62, with a mean of approximately .49.

Rydell & Rosen's (1966) tolerance of ambiguity scale is another measurement construct, which is commonly used. This scale consists of 16 true-false items that assess tolerance of ambiguity with a split-half reliability of .86 and retest reliability of .63. Later, MacDonald (1970) modified Rydell & Rosen's instrument by adding four additional items: two from the California Personality Inventory and two from Barron's conformity scale to increase the reliability. Accordingly, MacDonald developed the AT-20 scale with the high construct validity and internal consistency. Through MacDonald's practical research, the AT-20 "shows promise of being a useful instrument for the measurement and further investigation of ambiguity tolerance" (MacDonald, 1970, p. 797).

Budner's 16-item scale and Rydell & Rosen and MacDonald's AT-20 scale was later analyzed by Kirton (1981), together with their correlations with Rokeach's D Scale for dogmatism, Gough's sub-scale from the CPI for inflexibility and Wilson & Patterson's Conservatism Scale for conservatism. On the basis of detailed research, Kirton developed a

shortened scale from Budner and Rydell & Rosen and MacDonald's scales, with 7 items left from Budner's 16-item scale and 11 items left from Rydell & Rosen and MacDonald's AT-20 scale. The shortened scale with these surviving intolerance of ambiguity items was proved to be with improved psychometric characteristics, better internal reliabilities and more consistent relationship with other tests, to achieve a final purpose of refining theoretical definition supported by data.

Another widely used scale was designed by Norton (1975). Norton's Measurement of Ambiguity Tolerance(MAT-50) is a 7-point scale containing 61 items that correspond to eight different categories: philosophy, interpersonal communication, public image, anything that is job-related, problem solving, social, habit, and art forms. Each item reflects a potentially ambiguous situation and incorporates some function of tolerance (7 items) or intolerance(54 items) of this situation. The possible scores for the scale extend from 1-61 for very strong disagreement to 367-427 for very strong agreement, with varying ranges in between. The higher score indicates higher ambiguity intolerance. After the validity studies from three aspects of content validity, criteria-related validity and construct validity, the scale is proved to have an internal reliability of .88 and high test-retest reliability of .86 when compared with other scales.

Then, Nutt (1988) modified Budner's version and made Nutt's scale of tolerance / intolerance ambiguity, which contains 15 questions about personal and work situations with ambiguity. The answer to each question is based on a scale from 1 to 7, with the total score of 15 as a perfectly tolerant person and 105 as a perfectly intolerant person. Nutt's study has the report of scores ranging from 20 to 80, with a mean of 45.

Another instrument reported use by researchers is Hartmann Boundary Questionnaire (HBQ) made by Hartmann (1991). But this scale, which contains twelve priori categories, is much more oriented to the concept of ego boundary.

McLain (1993) has developed the Multiple Stimulus Types Ambiguity Tolerance Scale (MSTAT-I) by updating the cognitive constructs of prior scales. This 22-item Likert response instrument addresses characteristics of ambiguous stimuli and reactions to perceived ambiguity. A .86 Alpha reliability and significant positive correlations with the Budner and MacDonald scales are presented in support of psychometric quality.

All of the above scales discussed bear great importance in the research work having been done, yet, none of those is specifically designed for the research in second or foreign language learning framework. In 1989, Ely designed a situation-specific tolerance of ambiguity scale in the research of extending second language learning approach to the consideration of tolerance of ambiguity. This Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale (SLTAS), which consists of 12 self-report items, presenting in a 6-point Likert scale, with possible responses of "strongly disagree", "moderately disagree", "slightly disagree", "slightly agree", "moderately agree", or "strongly agree", was developed for measuring individual differences in the specific environment faced by the second language learner. Various aspects of language learning and use, including pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading comprehension, lexical development, grammar learning and writing, are included in the scale. The possible scores for the scale extend from 1-12, for strong disagreement, to 61-72 for strong agreement, with varying ranges in between. The higher the score obtained, the more intolerant the person is. Since this scale has been proved to have a high internal consistency of .84 and is specially designed to measure the construct of tolerance of ambiguity in the specific context of second language learning, it has been frequently used by researchers in linguistic domain.

Chinese researcher Wen Qiufang (2003) also devoted to the instrument towards tolerance of ambiguity by developing a self-testing pencil-and-paper scale. On reference of Brown's *Breaking the Language Barriers* (1991), Wen designed an 8-item Likert scale in Chinese language, for the purpose of self-examining for English as foreign language learners in China. The higher the score obtained, the less tolerant the learner is. Yet, the validity and reliability of the scale is not elaborated and need further exploration.

One thing necessary to be noticed is that when using these various scales to conduct practical researches, several issues need to be taken into consideration. The first issue is the student level. Each item in the scale needs to be carefully examined to make sure that it is grammatically and lexically appropriate for the students' English level. Often it may be necessary to simplify or totally rewrite an item to make it comprehensible to a particular group of EFL students. Second, if we are using a scale designed for a specific situation, such as the tolerance of ambiguity scale by Ely, it is important to have the items really represent the types of language learning that the students are experiencing. Finally, if we have a group of students who all speak the same first language, we can use a translated form of an instrument-noting, though, an accurate and faithful translation is needed to be guaranteed through certain procedures carefully followed.

III. Related Researches towards Tolerance of Ambiguity in Psychological Domain

Tolerance of ambiguity, as a key element in psychological field, ever since being proposed, numerous studies have been taken towards its relationship with various variables by either psychologists or psychoanalysts. Those which are most influential and worth of attention will be summarized here.

Tolerance of ambiguity in the psychological field is at the very beginning identified as a personality trait. Frenkel-Brunswik (1949) associated intolerance of ambiguity with authoritarianism, prejudice and mental rigidity and described it as characterized by resistance to reversal of apparent fluctuating stimuli, the early selection and maintenance of one solution in an ambiguous situation, disinclination to allow for good and bad traits in the same person, acceptance of attitudes representing a black-and-white view of life, seeking of certainty, rigid dichotomizing

into fixed categories, premature closure, and remaining closed to familiar characteristics of stimuli. According to Furnham (1995), O'Connor attempted a similar study by looking at the relationship between tolerance of ambiguity, ethnocentrism, and abstract reasoning in 1952. Results showed that tolerance of ambiguity and ethnocentrism are positively correlated and that tolerance of ambiguity and abstract reasoning are not related, apart from their common tendency to vary with ethnocentrism.

According to Malaska (1997), Ellsberg moved in a different direction with tolerance of ambiguity theory, relating it to rational decision-making and ambiguity aversion effects. Ellsberg suggested that conservative-minded individuals make decision by calculating the expected utility of the ambiguous prospects and the expected utility from the least favorable among all probable probabilities. If the individual is optimistic-minded, then decisions were made based on the most favorable prospects possible. Bowen believes Ellsberg's study is convincing and keeps on research on regarding topic.

Tolerance of ambiguity has also shown to have strong relationship with career choices, career satisfaction together with academic major choices. Budner (1962) found that in their selection of a preferred field of practice, medical students who were tolerant of ambiguity tended to choose relatively unstructured field such as psychiatry, while those intolerant of ambiguity tended to select relatively structured fields such as surgery. According to Malaska (1997), during an investigation of tolerance of ambiguity in adult college students, Tatzal discovered in 1980 that students in the arts scored significantly higher in tolerance for ambiguity than students in business. In addition, creativeness has been found correlated with the ability to withstand the lack of structure, the lack of predictability, the lack of control and tolerance of ambiguity by Irwin in 1996, supporting the hypothesis that students within the arts should score higher for tolerance of ambiguity. Stoycheva (1998) also found that students from art school were more tolerant than those from medical and technical universities. Ehrman (1993) found that thick ego boundary people, who are intolerant of ambiguity, are more likely to take up engineering, certain branches of medicine, law enforcement and business as their professions, whereas people with thin boundary, who are more tolerant of ambiguity, tend to be engaged in arts, social service work, and the teaching of literature. Frone (1990) attempted to integrate several studies on the relationships among tolerance of ambiguity, role stress, and job satisfaction. In his meta-analysis of 13 empirical studies, he found that TOA was a valuable predictor of job satisfaction when there was a role ambiguity. More specifically, those people who were more tolerant of ambiguity showed higher job satisfaction than those who were less tolerant of ambiguity.

What's more, the role of intelligence and creativity as related to tolerance of ambiguity is also taken as a research focus. As Malaska (1997) indicated, administering Budner's measure of intolerance of ambiguity and Karlin's Wonderlic Personnel Test, Raphael, Moss & Cross demonstrated a high relationship of intolerance of ambiguity and measures of intelligence. The authors called for further investigations of indentifying intelligence in the construct of intolerance of ambiguity, especially using Budner's scale. Furthermore, increasing amounts of research have indicated that tolerance of ambiguity is closely related to creativity. Tegano (1990) found a significant and positive relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and creativity. Furnham (1995) noted that open-mindedness, which has been equated with tolerance of ambiguity, may be a predisposition to critical thinking. Stoycheva (2003) argues that tolerance of ambiguity is an important source of creativity. Firstly, creative work puts high demands on one's ability to tolerate ambiguities. In the process of creating something new, individuals need to accept and learn to cope with the concomitant feelings of anxiety and psychological discomfort. Secondly, tolerance of ambiguity integrates the basic qualities of creativity such as risk-taking, non-conformism, openness to experiences and humor so that it keeps a balance between resistance and adaptation that characterize creativity. Thirdly, when faced with ambiguous situations, it is important to control the tendency to jump directly to easy, simple, and unambiguous solutions. "Resistance to premature closure and psychological openness are beneficial to the creative process, allowing time and space for a free and flexible exploration of the incoming information". Finally, ambiguity tolerance is also important in making decisions. Decision-making is required at crucial moments in the process of generating, evaluating, selecting and implementing solutions. Tolerating ambiguity helps remain open to various alternatives and avoid premature closure on a single option. In addition, ambiguity tolerance helps sustain creative motivation. However, Stoycheva points out that tolerance of ambiguity is necessary for creativity but not enough. Intellectual competencies, domain-specific knowledge and skills, creativity-relevant abilities, task commitment, motivation and other personality traits are also important.

Tolerance of ambiguity is also found closely related to need for precision and course structure. A study by Madhubalan Viswanathan (1997) showed that need for precision is negatively related to tolerance for ambiguity. In other words, people with a high need for precision will have a low tolerance for ambiguity, while people with a low need for precision will have a high tolerance of ambiguity. DeRoma, Martin & Kessler (2003) investigated the relationship between ambiguity tolerance and need for course structure, with 101 students including 52 undergraduates and 49 graduates participating in their study. Results show that for the undergraduates, significant correlation was noted between tolerance of ambiguity scores and importance ratings for having a clear schedule of assigned readings and anxiety related to either having no test dates or test dates provided rescheduled; for the graduates, a significant correlation was found for the tolerance of ambiguity score and importance ratings for exams having a single, correct answer. Significant correlations were also found between the score for tolerance of ambiguity and several anxiety scores, including not having a test date initially given or a test date being rescheduled, grading criteria not specifically outlined, exams that required applied knowledge, and testing situations in which there was no single, correct answer.

IV. RELATED RESEARCHES TOWARDS TOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY IN THE FRAMEWORK OF SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE
LEARNING

A.   Researches Oversea

In terms of significant researches about tolerance of ambiguity as related to second or foreign language learning, Naiman's research comes to be one of great importance at the early stage. Using Budner's (1962) scale of tolerance of ambiguity, Naiman et al. (1978) conducted a study among 72 English-speaking students who studied French in Toronto, Canada. The results showed that tolerance of ambiguity scores were positively correlated with their performance of French listening comprehension task, but no significant correlation was found with their oral French imitation task. Thus, Naiman found that tolerance of ambiguity, though a concept in psychological field, can work as a significant element predicting the success of foreign language learning under the condition that the measurement is reliable and valid.

Chapelle (1983) later investigated the relationship between ambiguity tolerance and success in acquiring English as a second language in adult learners. Combining Budner and Norton's definition of ITOA, she analyzed the various ambiguous situations existing in second language learning and acquisition and found that ambiguity could have impacts on learning context, good learner characteristics and learning strategies. She also pointed out that the relationship between TOA, good language learners and learning strategies deserved our attention.

Another important related study is the one made by Chapelle & Roberts (1986). Employing Norton's MAT-50 (1975), a 61-item Likert type scale, as the measurement of tolerance of ambiguity, they put this scale into practical research for the first time. In this research, the MAT-50 scale was distributed to the subjects --- 61 adult speakers of Arabic, Japanese or Spanish students who were learning English as a second language at the University of Illinois during the course of a fall semester under the researchers' administration. Students were also arranged to take several English proficiency tests at the beginning of the semester as well as the end of the semester. No significant correlations between tolerance of ambiguity and language proficiency scores were found at the beginning of the semester, however, significantly positive correlations were found between scores on the MAT-50 and proficiency scores at the end of the semester. Chapelle & Roberts's study not only proved the high reliability and validity of Norton's MAT-50 scale, but also indicated that tolerance of ambiguity is a very important factor related with learners' performance of language learning, and learners with higher tolerance of ambiguity tend to be more proficient in language learning, especially for the study of grammar, structure and listening comprehension. Reiss (1985) also found a positive relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and university students' ratings of themselves as foreign language learners. Ely (1989; 1995) also conducted a study on the tolerance of ambiguity of South Korean students in the process of English learning, and indicated that it is crucial for the students to understand the uncertainty of the language phenomenon. Later, in testing the level of ambiguity tolerance of Greek civil servants when learning English as a foreign language, Kazamia (1999) found that tolerance of ambiguity varies, depending on skills and language learning situations, and learners cannot tolerate the ambiguities produced by their failure to express adequately their ideas in writing and speaking. This situation triggers a considerable amount of intolerance that might impede their progress in these skills.

Some attention is also attached to the link between tolerance of ambiguity and risk-taking. According to Rubin (1975), good language learners are characterized by a willingness to guess; to appear foolish in order to communicate and to use whatever knowledge they have of the target language in order to create novel utterances. All these could be regarded as risk-taking behaviors (Beebe, 1983). Ely (1989) further studied the risk-taking behavior of university students enrolled in Spanish courses during the first two quarters of the academic year. Ely described risk-takers as characterized by "a lack of hesitancy about using a newly encountered linguistic element; a willingness to use linguistic elements perceived to be complex or difficult; a tolerance of possible incorrectness or inexactitude in using the language; and an inclination to rehearse a new element silently before attempting to use it aloud" (Ely, 1989, p. 438). He added that decreases in risk-taking frequently occur when students feel extreme discomfort in the language classrooms and students' intolerance of ambiguity may "inhibit students' risk taking and interfere with their acquisition of new learning strategies" (Ely, 1995. p. 87). Oxford (1999) later proved students who have low TOA often avoid taking risks and their language practice becomes restricted.

Other researches have also been done towards tolerance of ambiguity and second language learning strategy use ever since Ely (1989) found tolerance of ambiguity was one of the factors that influenced L2 learners' use of various second language learning strategies. According to Ely (1989), tolerance of ambiguity was found to be a significant negative predictor of various strategies which involve focusing on individual language elements such as planning out what to say ahead of time, thinking carefully about grammar when writing, looking up words in English right away when reading; and not a predictor of strategies as focusing on grammar or vocabulary when reading, or trying to understand every word when listening. Meanwhile, tolerance of ambiguity was found to positively predict proofreading one's written work for spelling and accent marks, and not significantly positively predict strategies as looking for overall meaning in reading, listening and guessing meaning from context. He also found that students with high tolerance of ambiguity favored those more creative techniques of constructing mental images to help them memorize new words. Through this study, Ely not only developed a situation-specific scale for measuring the tolerance of ambiguity level of second language learners, which consists of 12 items, representing various aspects of language learning and use, but also laid a solid foundation for his later study, in which Ely (1995) further complemented that tolerance of ambiguity may

influence at least three areas of language learning: 1) learning individual linguistic elements (phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, etc.) 2) practicing language learning skills; and 3) adopting those skills as permanent strategies. Oxford (1990), Rubin & Thompson (1994) also found that students who were more tolerant of ambiguity—able to reconcile and accommodate ideas or information that may be contradictory or inconsistent—used significantly different strategies in some instances than students who were less tolerant even though they failed to find out what strategies tolerant or intolerant learners would prefer. Lee (1998) finds that there are no significant differences between science students and arts students in the use of language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity. Griffiths (2004) found that higher level students reported highly frequent use of learning strategies relating to the tolerance of ambiguity in a study involving 348 students in a private language school in New Zealand.

Great amount of research work has also been done to connect tolerance of ambiguity to ego boundary in second language learning domain. Ego boundary is first defined by Hartman (1991) as the "system of mental operations, cognitive and affective, that constitute an individual's sense of self". After giving another try to define it operationally as the "degree to which individuals tend to compartmentalize their experience" (Ehrman, 1999. p. 68), Ehrman related ego boundary with tolerance of ambiguity in the situation of second language learning. According to Ehrman (1993), people with thick ego boundaries tend to distinguish their experiences and to separate themselves from the outside world. They are unreceptive to outside influences such as new languages and cultures. They have little flexibility and adaptability. They dislike open-ended activities and have a strong preference for clear categories. They are characterized by "an inability to learn by osmosis, to make use of teachers and other native speakers as models with which to identify, to permit development of a target language persona, and above all to tolerate ambiguity" (Ehrman, 1999, p. 68). Thick boundary students are likely to be motivated by task accomplishment and achievement of control, whether of their time use or of learned material. They usually seek a sense of order and can find too much open-endedness disruptive to their sense of security. In contrast, people with thin ego boundaries are inclined to rely on strategies of receptivity to outside influences. They are more open and flexible to new information and are more likely to be creative. They are free to entertain a number of innovative and creative possibilities and not be cognitively or affectively disturbed by ambiguity and uncertainty. They can not only tolerate but also embrace ambiguity. They tend to perform better in oral production, interactive comprehension and reading ability. Thin boundary students tend to be motivated by establishing relationships --- with people, with a new culture or among concepts. They like the freedom to make a wide range of associations between concepts and experiences, even if some of the associations may seem strange to their thicker boundary classmates. However, just as thick boundaries alone are not predictive of learning difficulties; thin ego boundaries alone can not guarantee the success of language learning. It is people with flexible ego boundaries and with a certain degree of ambiguity tolerance that are more likely to succeed in second language learning. Ehrman (1993) further reinforced the theoretical framework of tolerance of ambiguity in linguistic domain by developing three levels of tolerance of ambiguity, which are "intake": letting information enter one's conceptual schema, "tolerance of ambiguity proper": accepting contradictory and incomplete information, and "accommodation": making distinctions, setting priorities and restructuring cognitive schemata.

Some researchers also related tolerance of ambiguity with the acquisition of specific aspects of second/foreign language learning, such as vocabulary retention and reading comprehension. Grace (1998) studied the effects of lexical ambiguity in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) on beginning second language learners, attempting to determine whether learners' personality types had any effect on the retention of second language vocabulary independently of the translation issue and in an ambiguous CALL context. Analyses of vocabulary retention tests showed that students of all personality types learned and retained a significant amount of vocabulary regardless of their level of tolerance of ambiguity. Although no effect of tolerance of ambiguity seemed to be found on vocabulary retention, yet the need for beginning vocabulary learning software which rendered meaning clearly while promoting deep processing is greatly supported. Using the MAT-50 (Norton, 1975) and a reading comprehension subtest, El-Koumy (2000), examined the differences in foreign language reading comprehension among high, middle, and low ambiguity tolerance students. 150 English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) university students randomly drawn from Egypt participated in the study. Results showed a significant variance in the mean scores among the high, middle, and low ambiguity tolerance groups. The t-test showed that the moderate ambiguity tolerance group scored significantly higher than the low and high groups, and the low and the high groups were not found to be significantly different. This finding somehow suggests that moderate level of tolerance of ambiguity facilitates foreign language learning.

Studies are also being conducted to explore the relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and gender. Although Senfeld (1996) states that the gender shows no difference in tolerance of ambiguity, most studies in this area seem to have reported a greater tolerance of ambiguity in women. For example, Brougher (1984) reveals that females are more tolerant than males. Reporting on a study at the University of Alabama, Saleh (1998) concludes that there are significant gender differences in the level of tolerance of ambiguity. Clack (1999) discovers that the men feel better equipped with "tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty" compared to the women who feel more confident in their "open-mindedness". It seems that both of the male and female subjects claim themselves with a high level of tolerance of ambiguity.

B. Researches in China

Great attention has been drawn on tolerance of ambiguity as a variable in language learning domain in recent few years in China ever since Wen & Wang (1996), in their study to find a relationship of learner variables to CET-4 scores,

first identified tolerance of ambiguity as one of the six variables that had direct effects on EFL achievement, which has directly brought about lots of researches concerning various aspects about tolerance of ambiguity of Chinese learners who are learning English as a foreign language.

The first category of these researches is about the theoretical review of the concept of tolerance of ambiguity into English language learning field, focusing on introducing tolerance of ambiguity as an important learners' variable in English language teaching environment. Researches of Wang (2004), Yin (2005), Zeng & Ye (2005), Shu (2005), Jin (2006), Zhao & Yang (2007), Lai (2009) fall into this category.

Researches are also being done towards the correlation between tolerance of ambiguity and English language proficiency. In these researches, attention is put not only to detect the global level of English language learners' tolerance of ambiguity in China, but also on the relationship between this level and students' English learning performances, as indicated in the researches of Chen (2004), Xu (2005), Shao (2005), Liu (2006) and Bu (2007). Through all these empirical studies, students' tolerance of ambiguity has been found to be a significant predictor of their English learning performances, and a positive correlation has been found between students' TOA and their English proficiency.

The relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and students' learning anxiety has at the same time aroused much attention. According to the researches of Zhang & Wang (2006), Zhang (2007) and Yang & Wang (2009), students' tolerance of ambiguity is closely related to their learning anxieties. Yet, students with different level of tolerance of ambiguity varied in their degree of language learning anxiety, and students with higher level of tolerance of ambiguity and lower level of anxiety tended to perform better in English language learning, compared with those with lower level of tolerance of ambiguity and higher level of anxiety.

As for the influence of tolerance of ambiguity on foreign language learning strategy choice, one research made by Zhang Qingzong is of influential importance. Using Ely's (1995) SLTAS and Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Zhang (2004) studied the effects of tolerance of ambiguity of English majors on their strategy use. Results showed that tolerance of ambiguity correlated positively with learners' strategy use and that the degree of tolerance of ambiguity determined how learners selected and used learning strategies. Learners with high level of tolerance of ambiguity could selectively and flexibly use their strategies whereas learners with low level of tolerance of ambiguity used their learning strategies blindly and inflexibly.

More researches come about the tolerance of ambiguity with specific aspects of English learning. Zhou (2000), Du Z. M. (2006), Yu (2007), Tang (2009), Ba (2012) and Wang (2013) conducted studies towards tolerance of ambiguity in relation with English listening comprehension, investigating how tolerance of ambiguity affected Chinese learners' listening comprehension of English. It was found that students with high tolerance of ambiguity tended to perform significantly better in the overall listening skill and the sub-skills of listening for retrospective tasks, inference and main ideas than students with low tolerance of ambiguity. Yu (2007) also found students' tolerance of ambiguity has a significantly positive correlation with their use of listening comprehension strategies, especially with their use of cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. There is a positive correlation between metacognitive strategies and social/affective strategies of students with high tolerance of ambiguity, and significantly positive correlation between cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies, and metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies, which indicates that students with high tolerance of ambiguity tend to choose learning strategies of listening comprehension selectively when facing with different learning materials and tasks. At the same time, there exists a significantly positive correlation among strategies when students with low tolerance of ambiguity use learning strategies, which indicates that these students choose strategies blindly and optionally. Ba (2012) found that students with high tolerance of ambiguity are more likely to choose and take advantage of different skills to complete relevant tasks in listening comprehension. Wang (2013) indicated that students with high tolerance of ambiguity tend to use compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies and affective strategies in listening process. Du & Yang (2006) correlated tolerance of ambiguity with English speaking teaching, suggesting including the consideration of students' tolerance of ambiguity while teachers were designing and organizing in-class English speaking activities. Useful and practical suggestions about classroom activities for teaching speaking English were provided in their study as well. Great concern has also been shown regarding tolerance of ambiguity and reading comprehension. Li (2004), Liu & Sun (2005), Li (2010) and Liu (2011) found a positive correlation between tolerance of ambiguity and students' overall reading comprehension proficiency, besides, students with higher level of reading proficiency and those with lower level of reading proficiency varied significantly in their tolerance of ambiguity. After conducting a research on students' tolerance of ambiguity and reading anxiety, Huang (2006) and Wu (2009) came to the conclusion that both tolerance of ambiguity and learning anxiety have great impact on students' English reading comprehension ability and students' tolerance of ambiguity negatively correlate with anxiety in reading. Thus, Shi (2007) suggested improving students' ability to tolerate ambiguity while cultivating students' reading ability.

Some research interest in this field also exists in detecting gender differences towards Chinese students' tolerance of ambiguity in English learning. With the major concern of gender differences as the study focus, Li Erlong (2006; 2007) found that there are statistically significant differences by gender in tolerance of ambiguity. Females are significantly more tolerant of ambiguity than males on the whole. Females are much more tolerant of ambiguity than males in reading, writing, pronunciation and speaking. However, in terms of listening, grammar, vocabulary learning, translation

and guessing of lexical meaning, there are no significant differences between the two genders. Both females and males have intermediate tolerance of ambiguity. The main gender differences towards students' tolerance of ambiguity found here was thought by the author to come from the gender differences in learning style and personality traits. However, Li (2004), Bu (2007), Liu (2006), Yu (2007) and Zhang (2007) failed to find any statistically significant differences between tolerance of ambiguity and gender. Yet, Zhang (2007) found district-related differences of tolerance of ambiguity, i.e. students from cities have shown lower level of tolerance of ambiguity compared with those from countryside.

V. CONCLUSION

Tolerance of ambiguity has become a research topic which more and more researchers take interest in. Compared with other variables, such as anxiety, empathy, self-esteem, motivation which have been well discussed and investigated by researchers and theorists, the study of tolerance of ambiguity is a relatively under-cultivated area, although it seems to bear no less importance. On the basis of all the above review of relative literature, researches about tolerance of ambiguity up till now mainly concentrate on detecting the correlation on learners' overall language learning performance and their TOA, the differences of learners' level of TOA by gender and the relationship between TOA and learners' second language learning strategies, discussing the great influence that tolerance of ambiguity has made on the second language learning process. Yet, further studies in related field are still desirable, such as the relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and the specific language skills, especially the productive ones as speaking and writing, tolerance of ambiguity and the use of various strategies relating with specific skills in language learning, as well as the training of learners' tolerance of ambiguity so as to help facilitate in-class language learning efficiency as well as that of after-class self-directed language learning.

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Visiting Involvement Load Hypothesis and Vocabulary Acquisition in Similar Task Types

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Abstract—"Involvement load hypothesis" in second language literature in spite of its inclusiveness has not yet provided a definite answer to vocabulary acquisition. This study investigated *task-induced involvement* suggested first by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) in similar task types. In order to better examine the involvement hypothesis in incidental learning, applying Nelson Proficiency Test, 70 high proficiency EFL learners from two different English institutes in Isfahan, Iran, were randomly assigned to two experimental groups: gap-filling task completion and reading comprehension task completion. The two input task types had two and one involvement indexes, respectively. The results of repeated measures *ANOVA* considering the performance of the two homogeneous groups in pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest confirmed Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) involvement hypothesis in similar task types. The study suggests that teachers and language learners can use tasks with higher involvement indexes regardless of their type in order to improve their vocabulary acquisition.

Index Terms—involvement load hypothesis, input task type, output task type, vocabulary acquisition, involvement index

I. INTRODUCTION

There can be found many theories in the literature that strengthened the cognitive approach to learning. *Noticing hypothesis* (Schmidt, 1990, 1994), limited processing ability (VanPatten, 1990), and "pushed output" (Swain, 1985) can be regarded as the most important findings in this field. Among them the theory which induced Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) to develop their innovative and influential *involvement load hypothesis* was Craik and Lockhart's (1972) *depth of processing hypothesis*. Craik and Lockhart (1972) believe that a stimulus can be processed at a deeper level rapidly for a better retention if it is in coordination with the previously-existent information. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) claim that manipulating tasks in terms of their building blocks of *need*, *search*, and *evaluation* affects the retention of unfamiliar vocabulary items. Although involvement load hypothesis is in line with many previous theories in the literature, it has many ambiguous points and in effect in need of further consideration. Task type can be enumerated as one these challenging points which even though Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) believed in their neutral parts; some researchers (e.g., Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001; Xu, 2009; Walsh, 2009) found the superiority of output over input ones when the two input and output task types were investigated. This study is determined to investigate involvement load hypothesis in tasks with similar types (i.e., input task type) to see if the predictions of Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) can come true.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Craik and Lockhart's (1972) depth of processing hypothesis hold memory as a cluster of perceptual processing levels which can be classified into sensory analyses (passing outcomes), pattern recognition, stimulus elaborations (more stable outcomes), and so forth. To put it simply attention, time of processing, and coordination with long-held information can lead to deep processing which, in turn, better retention will be resulted. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) introduced their innovative construct considering these processing stages that "starting with shallow sensory analysis, and proceeding to deeper, more complex, abstract, semantic analysis" (Solso, 1988, p.133). Their hypothesis holds that we can have better vocabulary retention if more values are devoted to a task in terms of its building blocks. To put it simply need, search, and evaluation components of a task can be of three degrees, that is zero, "moderate", and "strong" which are for their absence, one, and two involvement indexes, respectively. Understandably they state that the more the involvement indexes, the better the retention.

If a task induces learners to put their minds up to select a more appropriate word for a given context moderate evaluation, and if it induces them to compose a sentence strong evaluation occurs. Similarly, the need component can be regarded as moderate (i.e., external driving force) and strong (i.e., internal driving force) in order for a task to be done. Search, on the other hand, deals with finding out different dimensions of a new word consulting a dictionary or teacher.

Although Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) *task-induced involvement* was proposed to connect the abstract concepts of noticing, elaboration, motivation, or need in tasks, it was the first attempt in this field which also has given existence to

some subsequent researches. Let us point out some empirical evidences which have studied this hypothesis more deeply and can be added to the group of studies that support Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) theory.

Hulstijn and Laufer's (2001) two parallel experiments were conducted to test their hypothesis. Advanced adult Dutch and Hebrew students did three different kinds of tasks (i.e., reading comprehension with marginal glosses, gap-filling, and composing original sentences with the unfamiliar words). These three tasks have different involvement load indexes since the three components of involvement load have been divided unequally between them. The third task as an output type with an involvement load of three proved to be of higher retention in comparison with the other two input task types with one and two involvement indexes, respectively.

In another paper by Jianping Xu (2009), who worked on 152 freshman university students, three tasks (multiple-choice comprehension questions, blank-filling, and sentence making) were designed. He tried to see his results in the light of time, that is the more the time passage, the less the retention. As a matter of fact, Xu's analyses give us an understanding of Laufer and Hulstijn's theory. Along the same lines, Using 223 high school learners with different levels of second language (L2) vocabulary knowledge, Walsh (2009) compared moderate and strong evaluation. Participants took a delayed test and it was revealed that composing original sentences as an output type with higher involvement index helped in better retention compared to gap-filling as an input one with lower involvement index.

As can be observed, most of the studies which have been done in the area of task-induced involvement deal with different task types with different involvement indexes; however, rare studies have been done with similar task types to see if they can confirm this rooted and comprehensive theory. In the present study we will consider this aspect of Laufer and Hulstijn's hypothesis.

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were designed in order to unravel this point of the involvement load hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 1: Using gap-filling task as an input type has no effect on enhancing vocabulary acquisition of Iranian EFL students.

Null Hypothesis 2: Using reading comprehension task as an input type has no effect on enhancing vocabulary acquisition of Iranian EFL students.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A hundred and forty male and female Iranian English as foreign language (EFL) students with a mean age of 22 years were selected. Since these intermediate students were from two branches of English language institutes in Isfahan, Iran, they used the same materials. The experiment was done in June-August, 2013 in a six week period during the participants' class time. Nelson Placement Test helped us to have more homogeneous sample groups. In other words, our 140 students were given a placement test in order to let us assign them into two major high and low proficiency groups. Then, randomly, the first 70 students of the high proficiency group were assigned to two different tasks, that is gap-filling and reading comprehension tasks. Therefore, our two experimental groups each containing 35 participants completed a gap-filling task and a reading comprehension task, respectively.

B. Instruments

The materials which were utilized in order to let us conduct our experiment were: Nelson Placement Test and a reading passage with five reading comprehension questions.

1. Nelson Placement Test:

The second version (intermediate) 200 A of Nelson Placement Test consisting of 50 multiple-choice grammar questions was used in order to help us have two homogeneous sample groups from the 140 students of the two English institutes. The K-S normality index in Nelson Placement Test demonstrated the normal distribution of the data ($p = .128$, $p < .05$). As a result, the parametric independent-sample *t-test* was applied. Levene Test of equality of variances unraveled the homogeneity of the variances between the two groups ($p = .538$, 2-tailed at $p < .05$). Consequently, no difference was observed between the means of the groups before the treatment.

2. Reading Passage:

Our sample population teachers and some intermediate students of our considered institutes who were not among the participants of our study were given three intermediate reading texts which were of similar readability index, of the participants' general knowledge and vocabulary domain. Furthermore, the reading passages had the single occurrence of target words in order to use Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) statements for the results explanation and not multiple exposures.

These persons not only selected Walsh (2009) *Child Labor* reading text with 326 words and 7.73 Gunning Fog index readability operating an on-line utility system, but also selected the unknown words of Walsh reading passage for our participants in order to let us administer our pretest. The pretest had 36 vocabulary items and a reliability coefficient of .62 that caused the selection of these ten target words from the passage as two verbs, six nouns, one adjective, and one adverb: *plantation*, *fair*, *demonstrations*, *crops*, *sweatshop*, *fiber*, *partly*, *blame*, *march*, and *shrimp*.

C. Data Collection Procedure

Thanks to Nelson Placement Test, we had two homogeneous major groups regarding their level of proficiency. Afterwards, 70 students of the high proficiency group were randomly assigned to two input task types, that is gap-filing task and reading comprehension task. As their proficiency level, age, and used materials were the same, it was assumed that we had a homogeneous sample.

A pretest was administered one week before the treatment (i.e., task completion) in order to be sure that the participants had no prior knowledge concerning the target unknown vocabulary items. Since this experiment was conducted to investigate incidental vocabulary acquisition more profoundly, "learners … typically required to perform a task involving the processing of some information without being told in advance that they will be tested afterwards on the recall of all the words in the list" (Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001, p. 10). Then, the researchers brought the two groups up with two different guidelines in order to help them with completing the tasks. In following the principles of incidental learning the researchers did not provide the participants with any explanation about the meaning of the target words and introduced the treatment or task completion as a reading practice. Afterwards, the first and the second groups were given the gap-filling (Task A) and reading comprehension (Task B) tasks respectively as the treatment in order to make the effect of task on vocabulary acquisition clear.

Walsh reading text with its omitted target lexical items was prepared for the first group in order to do Task A. The participants had to complete the blank spaces using ten L2 glossed words and answer the comprehension questions. The moderate need (extrinsic motivation of filling the gaps of the reading passage), no search (no looking the words up in the dictionary), and moderate evaluation (judging the most appropriate words for the gaps) composed an involvement index of two for this input task type. In accordance with Hulstijn and Laufer's (2001) formulation, we can have (1) need, + (0) search, + (1) evaluation.

The same reading comprehension passage was prepared with the first language (L1) translation of the target vocabulary items. The participants of this task had to answer the multiple-choice questions at the end of the passage. Like the previous task this text contained ten target words in bold print to catch the participants' attention (Schmidt, 1994). The current task was in accordance with involvement load hypothesis, that is its components were manipulated in order to reveal its influence on vocabulary retention. The involvement index for this task was one since it had a moderate need (participants had to know the target words to answer the reading passage comprehension questions), no search, and no evaluation on the part of participants (i.e., (1) need, + (0) search, + (0) evaluation).

The solution which was applied in order to make the values of the need, search, and evaluation components of each task stable was asking the participants not to talk about the target words after the task administration (Walsh, 2009). In addition, their papers were collected after the treatment to prevent them from committing the words to memory or searching the target words after completing the tasks. As time-on-task was not given so much prominence in the present study, a normal time period was devoted to each one, that is fifteen and ten minutes for the first and second tasks. Therefore, the treatment was merely the time when the groups were exposed to the reading passage (i.e. tasks). In other words, they were not provided with the full text of the reading passage at any other time.

Two days and two weeks after the treatment of tasks, immediate and delayed posttests were administered in five minutes. Albeit each of them had the ten target vocabularies, they had the difference of the order of the words. The scoring procedure of zero to one was used for incorrect and correct answers, respectively. In addition, half a score was regarded for semantically close translations of the vocabulary items in order to make a more precise data collection. The experiences of other teachers were also used for approximate answers.

D. Data Analysis

Graphical and statistical tests were applied to reveal if our distribution of data was normal. Upon K-S normality index, the type of statistical tests to be conducted was decided on using their posttest scores. K-S normality index for the first experimental group unraveled that at the p < .05 level the assumption of normality was not rejected: $p = .09$ and as a result the parametric repeated measure *ANOVA* was run. Similarly, K-S normality index for the second experimental group showed normal distribution of the data and in effect the parametric repeated measure *ANOVA* was conducted (p<.05, $p = .120$).

IV. RESULTS

A. Homogeneity Test Results

The K-S normality index of the students in Nelson Placement Test let us know if our two sample groups were homogeneous. The significant statistic ($p =.128$, p < .05) revealed the normal distribution of the data. Hence, the parametric independent-sample *t-test* was utilized. Levene Test of equality of variances demonstrated that the variances of scores across the groups were homogeneous ($p = .538$, 2-tailed at p < .05). Therefore, no difference could be observed between the means of the groups before conducting the experiment.

B. Findings of the Study

1. Testing the First Null Hypothesis:

RH0 1: Using gap-filling task as an input type has no effect on enhancing vocabulary acquisition of Iranian EFL students.

The effect of gap-filling task with an involvement load index of two was investigated to see if there was a statistically significant effect on the amount of the acquisition of new vocabulary items. K-S normality index for the first experimental group (i.e. 35 participants of the high proficiency group doing a gap-filing task) revealed that at the $p < .05$ level the assumption of normality was not rejected: $p = .09$. Therefore, the parametric statistic test repeated measure of *ANOVA* was run. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the immediate and delayed posttest scores of the gap-filling group. In general, the descriptive statistics indicated that the gap-filling group obtained the highest mean scores on completing a gap-filling task in the immediate posttest ($M = 7.14$) in comparison with the pretest ($M = 2.22$) and the delayed posttests ($M = 7.05$). In other words, this group containing 35 participants worked better in the immediate posttest than the other two time points of pretest and delayed posttest.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE GAP-FILLING GROUP WITH L2 GLOSS

	M	SD	N
pretest	2.22	1.35	35
immediate posttest	7.14	1.39	35
delayed posttest	7.05	1.60	35

A one-way repeated measures *ANOVA* (Table 2) revealed that there was a significant difference at the $p < .05$ level among the vocabulary mean score of the three tests, Wilks' Lambda = .06, $F (2, 33) = 240.45$, $p = .000$, with a large effect size ($d = .93$) in accordance with Cohen (1988) criteria.

Therefore, it is implied that the first null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, there was a statistically significant difference in vocabulary mean scores of the gap-filing group with L2 glossing who did three tests at different points of time. This finding could reveal that tasks with an involvement load of two created a difference in the vocabulary acquisition of the participants. In order to pinpoint the location of the differences, the *Scheffé* post hoc test was conducted (Table 3) which demonstrated that each of the differences was significant except the differences between posttest and delayed posttest.

TABLE 2.
REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA OF THE GAP-FILLING GROUP WITH L2 GLOSS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Cohen's d
Task B	Pillai's Trace	.93	240.45[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.93
	Wilks' Lambda	.06	240.45[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.93
	Hotelling's Trace	14.57	240.45[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.93
	Roy's Largest Root	14.57	240.45[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.93

Note. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: Task B.
[a] Exact statistic.

TABLE 3.
SCHEFFÉ POST HOC FOR THE GAP-FILLING GROUP WITH L2 GLOSS

(I) Task B		(J) Task B		Mean Difference (I-J)	S E	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
di	1	on2	2	-4.91[*]	.25	.000	-5.54	-4.28
			3	-4.82[*]	.27	.000	-5.51	-4.14
	2	D2	1	4.91[*]	.25	.000	4.28	5.54
			3	.08	.04	.249	-.03	.20
	3	dim	1	4.82[*]	.27	.000	4.14	5.51
			2	-.08	.04	.249	-.20	.03

Note. Based on estimated marginal means.
[a] Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.
* $p < .05$ level.

2. Testing the Second Null Hypothesis:

RH0 2: Using reading comprehension task as an input type has no effect on enhancing vocabulary acquisition of Iranian EFL students.

In accordance with Laufer and Hulstijn, (2001), Task B had an involvement index of one (moderate need, no search, and no evaluation). K-S normality index for the second experimental group (i.e. 35 participants of the high proficiency group completing a reading comprehension task) revealed that at the $p < .05$ level the assumption of normality was not rejected: $p = .120$. Since the obtained data were normal and other assumptions of parametric techniques were met, the parametric statistic test repeated measure of *ANOVA* was conducted. Table 4 demonstrates the descriptive statistics for the immediate and delayed posttest scores of reading comprehension group. It can be seen that the descriptive statistics for the reading comprehension group had the highest mean score value in the immediate posttest ($M = 3.94$) rather than

the pretest (M = 2.28) and the delayed posttests (M = 2.82). To put it simply, this group containing 35 participants unraveled better results in the immediate posttest than the other two points of time (pretest and delayed posttest).

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE READING COMPREHENSION GROUP WITH L1 GLOSS

	M	SD	N
pretest	2.28	1.04	35
immediate posttest	3.94	.80	35
delayed posttest	2.82	1.01	35

The results of one-way repeated measures *ANOVA* (Table 5) revealed a statistically significant difference at the p < .05 level across the three tests, Wilks' Lambda = .12, F (2, 33) = 116.73, p = .000. Moreover, a large effect size (d = .87) was unraveled upon Cohen (1988) criteria.

Consequently, the second null hypothesis was rejected since there was a statistically significant difference in vocabulary means scores of the reading comprehension group with L1 glossing. It can be claimed that tasks with an involvement load of one could bring about a difference in the vocabulary acquisition of the participants. Table 6 which demonstrates the location of the differences applying the *Scheffé* post hoc test indicates that each of the differences was significant except the differences between pretest and delayed posttest.

TABLE 5.
REPEATED MEASURES *ANOVA* OF THE READING COMPREHENSION GROUP WITH L1 GLOSS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Cohen's d
Task B	Pillai's Trace	.87	116.73[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.87
	Wilks' Lambda	.12	116.73[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.87
	Hotelling's Trace	7.07	116.73[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.87
	Roy's Largest Root	7.07	116.73[a]	2.00	33.00	.000	.87

Note. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: Task B.
[a] Exact statistic.

TABLE 6.
SCHEFFÉ POST HOC FOR THE READING COMPREHENSION GROUP WITH L1 GLOSS

(I) TaskB		(J) TaskB		Mean Difference (I-J)	S E	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
di	1	on2	2	-1.65*	.14	.000	-2.02	-1.28
			3	-.54	.21	.054	-1.09	.00
	2	Di	1	1.65*	.14	.000	1.28	2.02
			3	1.11*	.13	.000	.77	1.45
	3		1	.54	.21	.054	-.00	1.09
			2	-1.11*	.13	.000	-1.45	-.77

Note. Based on estimated marginal means.
[a] Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.
* p < .05 level.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The research hypotheses examined similar task types to investigate involvement load hypothesis more deeply. Two days and two weeks after the tasks administration, the participants' behaviors were investigated. As can be observed significant differences were found from the treatment of tasks considering the participants' initial learning and long-term retention.

The first research hypothesis that was an input type with an involvement index of two revealed no significant difference between initial and long-term retention (i.e., the two posttests). To put it simply, Task A which induces participants to compare their already known knowledge to the new ones (i.e., moderate evaluation) is superior in initial learning. However, in long-term retention we can see a stable vocabulary acquisition. It seems that the principles of incidental learning did not come true for gap-filling task since there was the persistent effect of Task A with L2 glossing in spite of the interval between the two posttests. In order to explain these contradictory results, Watanabe (1997) mentions repeated exposure which can be in the form of some following confirmatory activities. As these activities can not be seen here, another ambiguous point is added to the field of incidental learning.

On the other hand, the second research hypothesis considered Task B in order to see the differences which it could have on the participants' vocabulary acquisition. Task B which had an involvement index of one induced the participants to read the reading passage and answer its comprehension questions at its end. Initial learning and long-term retention of the target words through the immediate and delayed posttests were investigated. As can be seen a significant decline was resulted between the immediate and delayed posttests in administering Task B. Contrary to the

previous hypothesis, poor vocabulary acquisition was observed which was in line with previous researches in incidental vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001; Keating, 2008; Watanabe, 1997, Herman et al., 1987; as cited in Hui-Fang Tu, 2003). The present study like most of the previous researches (e.g., Xu, 2009; Walsh, 2009) confirmed Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) claim, that is better retention of target words were found for Task A with a higher involvement index.

Even though Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) state that involvement index of the target words is the determinant factor in long-term retention and not its task type, most of the studies, as far as we found in the literature, had worked on input and output type of tasks with different involvement indexes to see the superiority of output types. Task type is a tentative aspect of task-induced involvement that there can not be found many studies in the L2 field about it. Unless we can not bring this hypothesis true for different task types, other explanations (e.g., Swain, 1985) can be resorted to about the superiority of output types. Swain (1995) holds that the output task types can have more cognitive effort on the part of the students and better retention can be resulted. Here, we could state that two tasks with different involvement indexes but of the same type can be in line with the involvement load hypothesis predictions.

Implications and Limitations of the Study

It can be inferred from the current study that regardless of task type, the involvement index is the important factor in determining the better acquisition of the target words. To put it simply, teachers or language learners can use tasks with higher involvement indexes in order to have a more positive impact on the students in terms of vocabulary retention.

This study is exposed to some limitations. First, teachers' attitude, students' psychology (Lee, 2003), and type of teachers' reinforcement (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001) can be enumerated which we can attribute our results to. Time is another factor which can explain the results. Although Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) know it as an inherent feature of tasks, we did not take it in to account. Some researchers (e.g., Swanborn and de Glopper, 2002) argue that in order for the tasks to be compared, the same time length should be devoted to each. Therefore, more researches need to be done to reveal the impact of task-induced involvement on vocabulary retention especially with regard to the type of tasks.

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Some Knotty and Intriguing Oral Mistakes by Cantonese and Other Chinese Speakers of English

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Abstract—In the English speech production of some Chinese speakers of English, gender confusions are likely to occur regarding 3rd person singular nominative, possessive, objective cases and their reflexive pronouns. What's more, some mispronunciations tend to take place somewhat regularly by Cantonese and some non-Cantonese speakers of English. The causes of such spoken gender anomalies and pronunciation errors are tentatively probed into and some suggestions are proposed. Ultimately, some corrective measures are suggested to rectify these oral slips and mispronunciations.

Index Terms—oral slip, gender confusions, 3rd person singulars mispronunciations, language transfer

I. Gender Confusions of 3RD Person Singulars

In my long-term English teaching career, I have found that some Chinese speakers of English, not rarely in their speeches but seldom or never in their writings, commit such errors as *He's tapping her fingers clumsily on the piano keyboard.* Or, they might say: *The little girl was playing with his own toys.* Moreover, such phrases as *"He hurt herself."* or *"She drew a painting of himself."* also incidentally occur in their speech productions. Quite self-evidently, the errors in the first two sentences arise from the violation of gender correspondences between the nominative and possessive cases of the 3rd person singulars; and the mistakes in the other two sentences result from inconsistencies in gender between the 3rd person singular personal pronouns and the 3rd person singular reflexive pronouns.

In order to further explore and clarify certain underlying causes and performative features concerning this particular phenomenon, I have delivered a small-scale questionnaire among my students who are English majors. As a matter of fact, I designed a simple list of questions and spread the questionnaires to one class of undergraduates and two classes of graduates. In order to be devoid of human factors, the students surveyed are not supposed to sign their names on the questionnaire sheets. The contents of the questionnaire are as follows:

1) Have you ever violated gender correspondence regarding the 3rd person singulars in your speech production?
Examples: She had his breakfast at 7:30 this morning.
          She drew a painting of himself.
2) What are your frequencies of such mistakes?
   Often_____;
   Rarely_____;
   Never_____.
3) What are supposed to be your causes of such mistakes?

The statistical figures obtained from the responses to the first two questionnaire items seem to suggest that all the students surveyed, almost without exception, commit mistakes mentioned above, and to a greater or lesser degree. What's interesting about the investigation is when asked about their causes for such errors, none of the students could offer a quite reasonable explanation, simply passing it as an oral slip, or for no reason at all. This coincidence occurred presumably due to lack of in—depth thinking on the part of the students investigated.

In order to acquire some empirical evidences to further discuss the issue, I made a small-scale survey among fifteen boy students and the same number girl students who had been selected randomly in my English classes. To begin with, I divided these thirty subjects into fifteen pairs which comprise two males, two females or a male with a female for each pairing. To be sure, these groupings were also made arbitrarily in the pursuit of experimental objectivity. Then, each pair was supposed to retell a short story that they had read some time before by engaging in a dialogue. The two interlocutors were asked to address the two characters in the story in 3rd person singulars and to use as many 3rd person singular collocations as possible in their conversations.

For the purpose of bringing about a dynamic demonstration of the interlocutor's natural utterances featuring their relative likelihood of the violation of gender agreement between different cases of 3rd person singulars, I deliberately prefabricated a mini-story which runs like this:

Joe Made an Exhibition of Himself
Maria-- a rather capable and hardworking housewife, suddenly fell sick one evening and was physically unfit for any

more manual work. While she was worrying about who to prepare the supper, Joe, her husband, who was idle and lazy and always uncaring to his wife, surprisingly and unexpectedly offered to cook the meal himself. He reassured Maria that he would relieve her of any more work that night and asked her to enjoy the hard won leisure to recover from her sickness sooner. Maria's extreme surprise and joy at her husband's sudden and virtually unbelievable kindness were justifiably beyond description. What's more incredible was that Joe told Maria he would cook the meal according to his own recipe and boasted to her that he would cook an abundant banquet. While busy about his cuisine, Joe was bragging about his much expected delicacies to his half believing half doubting wife. Eventually, you can imagine what's to be expected of this flashy and superficial lazybones? In spite of all his good intentions and endeavours, the raw mediocre "chef" finally made a mockery of himself by adding too much oil and salt into his dishes, thus making his would be feast simply inedible! Apparently, Joe's unworthy vainglory and uselessness greatly annoyed and despaired of poor Maria.

In order to obtain highly natural and interference free conversations, the students selected, one pair after another, in time sequence, entered into a quiet cozy lounge and stayed there all alone until they finished their conversation and left and then, the next pair went into and performed the same task. All the work was done in a pressure-free and leisurely milieu without a time limit. Moreover, a hi-fi tape recorder had been concealed beforehand in an inconspicuous corner in the lounge and all the students' dialogues were secretly recorded, totally without their knowledge. Obviously, the reason why all these were done was to reduce the nervousness factors to minimum.

When all had been said and done, an intriguing issue arose: what was supposed to be the subjects' performance concerning the violation of gender correspondences between different cases of 3rd person singulars in their conversations?

The tape recorded the fifteen consecutive conversations authentically. The dialogues, in comparison with one another, are more or less similar, all around the same topic.(i.e. the short story above) each containing much employment of 3rd person singular collocations.

What follows are two typical examples of the students' dialogues.

Sample One

Student A: Hey! Have you heard about Joe recently?

Student B: Oh, no.......anything interesting?

Student A: He just made an exhibition of herself by cooking an extremely poor dish last night.

Student B: Aha...,That sounds funny! Anything more interesting?

Student A: As a matter of fact, he'd never done any cooking before and it's her wife who always cooked for him.

Student B: Then how did it come that he cooked for her?

Student A: She fell ill last night, so he volunteered to cook for her.

Student B: Oh, he's so good to her! Then what did he do so as to ruin the whole affair?

Student A: He meant well and offered to use her own special menu.

Student B: Then what happened?

Student A: Well, you know, he's so raw that he put too much salt and oil into his dishes and made them inedible.

Student B: Oh la la...... I see in spite of all his good intentions he made a mockery of herself!

Student A and B: That's a really amusing story! Don't you think so?

Sample Two

Student A: Hi! Ha! Ha! I just can't wait to tell you an extremely funny affair about Joe, you know, that big guy living next to you.

Student B: Yes? Of course I know him. Please don't keep me in suspense! Tell me directly what's the matter with him?

Student A: You know he is idle and lazy all day long and good for nothing. But last night… it's said last night he changed into quite another person. That's it… surprisingly good to her poor wife, Maria.

Student B: Oh, no! It sounds incredible! I'm wondering how can that be possible?!

Student A: It's absolutely true! You know, for the first time in her lifetime he cooked a meal for poor Maria.

Student B: Really? But why?... How comes…?

Student A: Yes, like you, at first I was also puzzled about his sudden change. But what's more dramatic is I don't whether to laugh or cry…

Student B: (more bewildered and wordless)…?

Student A: That is, in spite of all his good intentions and all his boasting about her sumptuous dishes, his rather poor cuisine skill brought an awful end to the whole affair. You can imagine his sorry state saddened her sick wife even more!

Student B: I see, a leopard cannot change its spot, can he?

As you can see, in these two conversations there are quite a few instances of incorrect gender correspondence of 3rd person singulars. As a matter of fact, nearly all of the subjects in the experiment committed oral mistakes here or there concerning the gender agreement. Only one or two samples, according to the transcripts, were mostly error-free or almost sound.

From this sample survey we can see that the failure in keeping gender agreement of 3rd person singulars takes place

haphazardly, with no forewarnings or predictors, just like the passing whims of a capricious person. In other words, this oral anomaly can be justifiably defined and characterized as an oral slip for a considerable number of Chinese speakers of English.

Then what is the case with native speakers? In regard to the two instances mentioned in the first paragraph, native speakers would behave properly and their utterances would instead conform to the gender consistency in the specific positions in these two sentences. However, when the mistakes are unintentionally committed by Chinese speakers of English concerning the examples afore-mentioned, they are supposed to be made spontaneously or randomly, without their second thought, on a par with their other slips of tongue, and are naturally uttered in their flow of speech. The same characteristics are also manifest in native speakers' manner of such utterances. What's more interesting, such oral gender confusions seem only to occur with the 3rd person singulars and seldom or never occur in the categories of the 3rd person plurals or the 1st and the 2nd personal pronouns (singulars or plurals).

Now the issue arises as to whether there would be some difference in occurrence and frequency in relation to this kind of oral slips committed in a relatively stressful situation?

Accordingly, the above experiment was done again, this time with some important changes in experimental conditions. The fifteen pairs of subjects, one pair after another, were asked to conduct their dialogues on a platform with some audience sitting below observing their performances. And the short story was only allowed to be read immediately before their conversation impromptu. Moreover, a five--minute time limit was set on each dialogue improvised on the spot. Besides, all the subjects had been told beforehand that their conversations would be recorded for later review. Evidently, all these were done in order to magnify the nervousness factors in the experiment and to see if they would exert any negative influence on the subjects' performance.

Quite surprisingly, the review of the experimental results seem to indicate that, in spite of all the artificial interferences applied, the occurrence and the frequency of oral slips of the kind committed did not increase significantly; that's to say, the index focused upon in the two experiments remained more or less the same. So from this we can assert that, broadly speaking, stress constitutes no key factor in affecting gender confusion regarding 3rd person singulars.

II. CAUSES UNDERLYING GENDER CONFUSION

What should be emphasized here is that such oral slips are only made by some Chinese speakers of English sometimes instead of by everyone every time. The occurrence is haphazard and at random. Moreover, such lapses are often committed by some Chinese speakers while seldom or never by native speakers. What causes lie behind this intriguing oral linguistic phenomenon? So far as the 3rd person singulars are concerned, their either masculinity or femininity in their nominative, possessive and objective cases and reflexive pronouns are signified in the following two grammatical collocations: 1) he-his-him-himself2) she-her-her-herself

In order to demonstrate their respective collocation inevitability in some specific situations, we cite again the above-mentioned two sentences, that is, *He's tapping his fingers clumsily on the piano keyboard.* And, *The little girl was playing with her own toys.* For native speakers, these collocations and other collocations of the kind have become something formulaic and naturalistic in their speech production. In other words, these oral expressions are more ordinary and familiar for them to produce than for Chinese speakers of English. This reasoning can be supported by the following two expositions on SLA (Second Language Acquisition).

Argument One

For a great deal of the time anyway, language production consists of piecing together the ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation and …omprehension relies on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these situations. Our teaching therefore would centre on these patterns and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur. (Nattinger,1980:)

Argument Two

For native speakers, speech production does not all have to be traced back to the elemental phonetic features, since a considerable amount of language chunks or grammatical or lexical collocations are straightforwardly stored in the mental lexicon.(Kormos,2006)

Thus we can assume that native speakers execute native selection and exhibit native fluency when they make correct collocations in their oral speech. Whereas for some Chinese speakers, their knowledge and awareness of the English 3rd person singulars are mechanical, superficial, fragmentary and incoherent, as something imposed upon them artificially, so they are without a native-like control of the English 3rd person singulars, which gives rise to their confusion in gender collocations.

Besides the reasons mentioned above, there seems to be some subliminal constraint or regulating mechanism implicit in the mind of the native speakers of English to keep them from such oral lapses. What's more, native speakers might be mentally, cognitively and linguistically conditioned so as to be immune from such "viruses" as early as from their childhood, or even from their birth. If the above assumptions could be proved valid, we could conclude that such oral expressions as uttered in the right way in terms of gender have become something subconscious, automatic, natural, instinctive, instantaneous and error-free on the part of the native speakers.

So far as the Chinese language is concerned, its pronunciation system is called "pinyin (拼音)".According to this

system, Chinese people vocalize the Chinese 3rd person singular pairs, i.e. 他 ("ta"; masculine, equivalent of "he" or "him") and 她 ("ta"; feminine, equivalent of "she" or "hers") the same or in some gender-free way.

Such being the case, we may assume that, for the Chinese ESL learners, the seemingly gender-free utterance of the Chinese 3rd person singulars might have prepossessed them subtly and suggestively. Sometimes, they tend to err during the speech production of English 3rd person singular gender collocations, partly due to the adverse influence of the Chinese genderless oral representations of the Chinese 3rd person singulars; i.e. negative impact on their thinking or speaking habits regarding this very issue.(some predisposition towards such errors)

Now it can be concluded that, regarding the oral gender correspondence of the English 3rd person singulars, confusions are likely to occur to Chinese speakers of English. Both the occurrence and the frequency of these oral slips, or a specific category of Chinese speakers of English involved in such cases, are not determinable or consistent, with no foreseeable track to be followed. Instead, these oral errors take place incoherently and arbitrarily, with no regularity or consistency discerned. However, for native speakers of English, in their utterance, gender collocations of the 3rd person singulars would naturally take care of themselves.

III. MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS IN PRONUNCIATION

Besides the gender confusion phenomena in the oral speeches of Chinese speakers of English, pronunciation errors committed by Cantonese and non-Cantonese Chinese speakers of English also arise quite frequently.

Negatively influenced by the Cantonese dialect, there exist in Cantonese English many pronunciation mistakes. The mispronunciations are represented by vowel errors and consonant errors.

1. Vowel mispronunciations

Vowels are sounds in which there is no obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips (Hu Zhuangling, 2002).English and Cantonese belong to two different language systems, therefore there are some dissimilarities in their vowel sounds.

(1) English vowels, especially short vowels, possess some distinguishing features from the simple vowels in Cantonese, e.g. length, tense and lax, etc. So it is not hard to understand that most Cantonese speakers of English tend to mispronounce a series of English short vowels, e.g. the mispronunciation of [hit] as [hi:t] and [ful]/ as [fu:l], which naturally cause confusion in oral communication.

(2) There are two short vowels which are unique in English, i.e. [æ] and [ʌ]. [æ] is a front vowel, when pronounced, the lips are slightly spread (O'CONNOR J D, 1967). But Cantonese speakers of English often wrongly utter [æ] as [e]. e.g. bag [bæg] as beg[beg]. The main cause for this error is that the mouth is opened too slightly and the tongue is raised too high. As for the utterance of the short vowel [ʌ], Cantonese speakers of English tend to replace it with the utterance of the long vowel [ɑ:], resulting from opening the mouth too wide, the back of the tongue being raised too high and the tongue muscle being slightly over-strung.

2. Consonantal mispronunciations

Consonants are sounds in which there is obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips, no matter whether the vocal cords vibrate or not. English consonants are where Cantonese speakers of English make the most mistakes.

(1)The addition of vowel sounds

English words consist of syllables and each syllable comprises rhyme and onset, and each rhyme includes peak and coda. If the first syllable of the word in question begins with a vowel, we say that this initial syllable has a zero onset. An onset can at most hold a three-consonant cluster, whereas a coda may accommodate at most four consonants(Peter Roach, 2000).

Some Cantonese students are liable to add a vowel sound into a consonant cluster at the position of onset and coda. For example, the mispronunciation of "please" as similarly as police", inserting a vowel sound [ə] into the consonant cluster /pl/. Likewise, as for the word "script", Cantonese students tend to pronounce it as [skəripət].

(2)Level-tongue phenomenon

Level-tongue phenomenon is the most common mispronunciation instance for Cantonese speakers of English. The post-alveolar sounds[r],[ʃ]，[ʒ],[tʃ]and [dʒ] are comparatively easily confusable for them. Since [r] is non-existent in Cantonese, Cantonese students, more often than not, confuse [r] with [l].Likewise, they tend to mistake[s] and [z] for fricatives [ʃ] and [ʒ] and affricates [ts] and [dz] for [tʃ] and [dʒ]. e.g. "China ['tʃainə]" is pronounced as [tsainə], and "shrine [ʃrain]" is pronounced as [srain].

Above-mentioned are common errors in oral English made by Cantonese. In addition, these errors are seen most often in the midst of overseas Chinese throughout the world, among whom quite a number of them are of Cantonese stock. That is just why I've accorded particular importance to and devoted a special case study of how Cantonese speakers of English make so many mistakes orally.

The following are typical errors committed by both Cantonese and non-Cantonese Chinese speakers of English.

(1) Plosive consonants are added with the vowel [ə] when pronounced.

e.g. This is a desk[ə].I'm a student[ə].

(2) Ignore the incomplete explosion of plosives when followed by other plosives, fricatives, nasal consonants or

affricates.

    e.g.   Top Ten   a good student

          Good night.   a hard lesson

          Good morning.   Goodbye.

    Note: The underlined letters above should be pronounced with incomplete explosion.

    (3) Plosives when preceded by [s] should be pronounced with less explosion. Please note the underlined letters:

        e.g. sky   stop   sport   style

    (4) There are no such sounds as [ʃ] and [θ] in Chinese mandarin, causing a lot of Chinese speakers of English to pronounce:

        e.g. "she[ʃi:]"   is often mispronounced as he[hi:]."Thank you ['θæŋkju:]" is mispronounced as ['sæŋkju:]

    (5) Diphthongs are pronounced as single vowel(Zhang Jinsheng,2001).

        e.g.   Okay[əu'kei] as [ək]

          I[ai] as [e]   Time [taim] as [tem]

    (6) In some southern Chinese dialects, there does not exist the sound [k], so people there tend to substitute [h] for [k]. Therefore, "He gave her a kiss." is changed into "He gave her a hiss."

    (7) The nasal sound [m] does not last long enough when some Chinese pronounce words ended with [m]. They just shut up their mouths, but there's no [m] sound coming out.

        e.g. team   dream   swim

    (8) People from some locations in Southern China cannot pronounce the sound [r], they simply pronounce it as [l]. e.g. "three [θri:]" is pronounced as [θli:].

    (9)What is also worth mentioning is that some people, especially southerners of China such as Cantonese, Hunanese, etc. frequently confuse the nasal sound [n] with the lateral [l], because there is a fuzzy boundary between [n] and [l] in Cantonese and Hunanese. e.g. "Hunan ['hu'næn]" is pronounced as ['hu'læn]. "nation" is pronounced as ['leiʃən].

IV. PROBING INTO THE CAUSE OF MISPRONUNCIATIONS

    There began in as early as 1940's and 1950's in the American linguistic circle the discussions about "language transfer". Charles Fries and Robert Lado are the pioneers in this domain. "Transfer" is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired. (ODLIN T., 2001)

    The impact of one's mother tongue on the second language is immense and widespread. Language learners tend to transfer the traits of their mother language onto the second language. If the traits of the two languages are similar, then positive transfer or facility can be accessed; on the contrary, if the structures of the two languages are disproportionate, then negative transfer or interference will emerge, causing the language practitioners commit mistakes (ibid).

    The methodology drawn upon to analyze the errors committed in the Second Language Acquisition should, first of all, be "contrastive analysis". It was first put forward by Charles Fries and ever since gained widespread access in foreign language teaching. The connotation of contrastive analysis is to make a comparison between one's mother language and target language, conducting a detailed analysis of each other's structures and characteristics. Self-evidently, during the acquisition of English phonetics, Cantonese and non-Cantonese Chinese speakers of English, under the negative influence of Chinese pronunciation and dialect, would unconsciously use their mother tongue's way of utterance to replace similar English pronunciations, (Li Xinkui, 1988) i.e. a paradigm of negative language transfer.

V. THE WAYS TO COUNTERACT GENDER CONFUSION AND PRONUNCIATION ERRORS WITH EFFICACY IN A CLASSROOM SETTING

    In regard to the mispronunciations committed by Cantonese students, language teachers should direct and motivate their students according to the following guidelines.

    1. Engage students in a great deal of listening and imitation pronunciation activities.

    2. In answer to some particular knotty pronunciations, explain some pronouncing theories to their students.

    3. Regarding the pronunciation knots listed above, language teachers may adopt consolidated and concentrated training strategies and construct specific pronunciation schemes. (KELLY G., 2001)

    4. Given the addition-of-vowels phenomenon, the following exercises are recommended.

    (1) Constant practice of onset consonant clusters

        break   please   screen   spring

        [br-]   [pl-]   [skr-]   [spr-]

    (2) Pronunciation exercises of coda consonant clusters

        Sixth   slept   claspt   desks

        [siksθ]   [slept] [klæspt]   [desks]

    5. Relinquish traditional monotonous instruction formulas, and try to diversify and implement imaginative teaching methodology.

    6. As for the gender confusion of the 3rd person singulars, in light of the discussions above, rote learning or repetitive

oral exercises can be applied in order to proactively reduce or preempt such oral errors. Just as the English proverb goes, "Practice makes perfect."

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Paul Auster's *The New York Trilogy*: Revisiting Self in the Merging Boundaries of Gothic and the Postmodern

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Abstract—Inevitably wrought by the socio-historical context in which they occur, literary genres transform in the course of history, and gothic is not an exception. Since its rise in the late eighteenth century, the gothic genre has significantly evolved: from ruins, graveyards, and vampires to echoes of romantic imagination and towards gothic science-fiction. This study argues that gothic has renewed itself in the postmodern context, in the sense that the characteristic features of the genre as materialized in the supernatural are replaced with mysteries, terrors, and ghosts that haunt the contemporary self's inner mind. Thus a proliferation of vampires, doubles and ghosts has given way to the haunted vaults and obscure shadows within the characters' inner worlds. In particular, this paper addresses the concept of self and the postmodern gothic as reincarnated in Paul Austers' *The New York Trilogy* by relating the notion of 'self' to space, self-reflexivity, the uncanny, and doubles.

Index Terms—postmodernism, gothic, postmodern self, space, self-reflexivity, the uncanny, doubles

I. INTRODUCTION

Gothic and history are closely associated; in *The History of Gothic Fiction*, Markman Ellis elaborates on "how history is adopted and recycled in the gothic novel", while also considering "how 'the gothic' is itself a theory of history" and "a mode for the apprehension and consumption of history." Ellis uses the term 'history' in its current sense in the English studies, as something more than a context or record of events: here history is a methodology in which the reader is encouraged to focus on the "mutability of ideas and language" (Ellis, 2003, p. 11). To offer a re-conceptualization of the notion of self, this study sets *The New York Trilogy* against the postmodern socio-historical background.

Postmodernism, on the other hand, as Christopher Butler argues, "is not particularly unified" as a doctrine, and "even those who have most significantly contributed ideas to its manifestos sometimes indignantly deny membership […]. The postmodern paradigm, however, "is certain of its uncertainty", and has therefore "grasped the 'real' nature of the cultural and political institutions which surround us" (Butler, 2002, p. 2). This is to say that postmodernism characteristically evades definition, being more a set of perspectives than a concrete set of theories.

Appropriate to our gothic discourse, Ihab Hassan uses *ghost* as a metaphor to describe the often elusive nature of postmodernism; According to Hassan, postmodernism "is a revenant, the return of the irrepressible; every time we are rid of it, its ghost rises back. And like a ghost, it eludes definition" (Hassan, 2001, p. 1). This said, however, Hassan maintains that the mutability of an idea in the course of time is inevitable, and not necessarily a discouraging concern. From this perspective, Hassan argues that, "this is only to confirm Nietzsche's insight, that if an idea has a history, it is already an interpretation, subject to future revision. What escapes interpretation and reinterpretation is a Platonic Idea or an abstract analytical concept, like a circle or a triangle" and that various paradigms will accordingly "shift and slide continually with time, particularly in an age of ideological conflict and media hype"(Hassan, 2001, p. 1).

Clearly, certain characteristic attributes of the postmodern paradigm such as a challenging of claims to universal, absolute truth, an incredulity towards grand narratives (as suggested by Lyotard), or the disintegration of a unified self, may provide a vista to the postmodern gothic as it features multiple blurring between reality and madness, the real and the paranormal, the accurate and the neurotic. In such a matrix, we encounter characters whose identities are derived from multiple, fluid, changeable discourses. In Gothic fiction, Fred Botting argues,

[T]his ambivalence and duplicity […] has emerged as a distinctly reflexive form of narrative anxiety. It involves a pervasive cultural concern—characterised as postmodernist—that things are not only not what they seem: what they seem is what they are, not a unity of word or image and thing, but words and images without things or as things themselves, effects of narrative form and nothing else. (Botting, 2005, p. 111)

Examining Paul Auster's *The New York Trilogy* as an insight to the evolution of gothic in the postmodern context, this paper argues that the gothic terror in the contemporary context incarnates in the contemporary encounter with self,

as manifest in the inner struggles of the main characters in *City of Glass*, *Ghosts*, and *The Locked Room*. A logical, coherent account of self is replaced with the fragmentary, instable and complex shadows appropriate to both paradigms of gothic and the postmodern.

II. A BACKGROUND ON GOTHIC

In its original sense, earlier gothic fiction featured exotic settings (e.g. medieval period, with the locale often being a "gloomy castle furnished with dungeons, subterranean passages, and sliding panels") – inaugurated by Horace Walpole's *The Castle of Otranto* (Abrams and Harpham, 2009, p. 137). In this regard, gothic can be viewed as the genre which first introduced to literature the uncanny realm of chaos, terror and decay, confidently merging the boundaries of passion/reason and rational/irrationality. As Abrams and Harpham observe, early novels endeavored to "evoke chilling terror by exploiting mystery and a variety of horrors [… and opened up] to fiction the realm of the irrational and of the perverse impulses and nightmarish terrors that lie beneath the orderly surface of the civilized mind (Abrams and Harpham, 2009, p. 137). On the other hand, and in its other sense, the term "Gothic" was later "extended to a type of fiction which lack[ed] the exotic setting of the earlier romances, but develop[ed] a brooding atmosphere of gloom and terror, represent[ing] events that [were] uncanny or macabre or melodramatically violent, and often deal[t] with aberrant psychological states (ibid.).

Thus, works of gothic which "initially conjured up visions of a medieval world, of dark passions enacted against the massive and sinister architecture of the gothic castle", triggered "by the end of the century [… a] whole paraphernalia of evil forces and ghostly apparitions" (Childs and Fowler, 2006, p. 100). More recent studies of gothic, however, tend to establish a critical distance – so as to approach the gothic fiction from a psychological, philosophical, or historical standpoint. As Wolfreys et al. suggest, contemporary studies of gothic are inclined to accentuate:

the role of the reader, questions of gender, the gothic interest in the abject body and corporealisation in general, and the inner feelings or phenomenological perceptions of the gothic terrain on the part of its principal protagonists. Distinctions have been made between the gothic narratives of the eighteenth century, with their emphasis on mystery, and those of the nineteenth century, which explore the inner condition of the protagonist. (Wolfreys et al., 2006, p. 47)

Steven Bruhm also suggests that the contemporary revival of the Gothic genre as a literary mode can articulate the fragmentation of self and identity – and by implication the loss of meaning and truth; therefore, regarded as a means of narrating the lingering trauma experienced in the postmodern framework, gothic is called upon because,

[…] the twentieth century has so forcefully taken away from us that which we once thought constituted us – a coherent psyche, a social order to which we can pledge allegiance in good faith, a sense of justice in the universe – and that wrenching withdrawal, that traumatic experience, is vividly dramatized in the Gothic (Bruhm, 2002, p. 273).

Thus, not only the gothic genre has not been exhausted, but also it is resurrected in the postmodern paradigm to articulate the enduring sense of terror resulted by loss of truth, self, and identity. A novel apparition appropriate to our contemporary times, gothic haunts realms of both postmodernism and postmodernity. Maria Beville declares that, defining the genre *Gothic-postmodernism* highlights "the intrinsic links that tie the Gothic and the postmodern in literary and cultural terms and declare the Gothic as the clearest mode of expression in literature for voicing the terrors of postmodernity; a mode that is far from dead and in fact rejuvenated in the present context of increased global terrorism" (Beville, 2009, pp. 7-8). This is to say that terror potently connects gothic and postmodernism.

Beville also argues that some common issues are explored both in gothic and postmodern fiction, including, "crises of identity, fragmentation of the self, the darkness of the human psyche, and the philosophy of being and knowing" (Beville, 2009, p. 53). While gothic fiction primarily animated "our lack of access to reality" as presented by echoes of the "supernatural", "surreal" and the "ghosts", "the postmodernist imagination" also favors fantasy over a narrow conception of reality (ibid.). Subsequently, gothic plays an essential role in conveying the postmodern experience of "darkness, confusion, and lack of meaning and authority" (ibid.)

On the other hand, Paul Auster's *The New York Trilogy* "has been read as a typical example of postmodern literature" (Berge, 2005, p. 101), while it is also replete with the terrifying elements of Gothic, heralding the advance of the gothic genre and the way it addresses the problems of self to convey its intrinsic tales of horror. Here self is studied within a spectrum of contemporary concepts, including space, self-reflexivity, the uncanny, and doubles.

III. POSTMODERNISM AND THE SELF

According to Charles Baxter, "the achievement of Paul Auster's fiction […] is to combine an American obsession with gaining an identity with the European ability to ask how, and under what conditions, identity is stolen or lost […] *The New York Trilogy* gives us a set of wondrous mazes of identity, peopled with mysterious observers, authorial surrogates, mirrors facing mirrors, and persons missing to one degree or another (Baxter, 1994, pp. 41-2).

The notion of self in the postmodern paradigm is not a unified, bounded and stable whole, but it offers a new account of who we are. In *The Future of the Self: Inventing the Postmodern Person*, Walter Truett Anderson refers to the terminology used by some postmodernists to address the problem of the shifting, multiple identities. These include *multiphrenia*, or the many voices in the postmodern culture who tell us who we are; the *protean* self, which keeps changing in order to adapt to the present circumstances; the *de-centered* self, which implies that there is no self at all;

and *self-in-relation* – which is often discussed in feminist studies. Clearly, any of these concepts elaborate on the various aspects of the decentralized postmodern self. As in gothic, in postmodernism the long-established absolutes of self and reality are also undermined. Petra Eckhard declares that "Postmodern subjectivities and realities, indeed, seem to be uncontrollable and indefinable." She argues that "Self-reflexivity, pastiche, intertextuality or the blurring of fact and fiction not only can serve the purpose of metafictional play or stylistic radicalization […] but can also generate highly uncanny effects (Eckhard, 2011, pp. 12 & 13).

Dennis Barone refers to the concept of fragmented, destabilized self when he observes: "In postmodern investigations of human subjectivities the self can be split into selves to probe the peculiarities of self. […] Instead of a unified self we have then a self that can radiate toward infinite possible relations. As it radiates, it questions those relations" (Barone, 1995, p. 15). Barone's argument is particularly relevant for the postmodern self as a social construction that has no essence, partly because it is saturated being exposed to the multiplicity and incoherence of images from the media.

IV. SELF AND SPACE

In search of their urban selves, Auster's characters in *The New York Trilogy* change their spaces, but as the impossibility of communication and the failure of language bids, Auster illustrates, the characters undergo "ghostification". As Quinn, the main character of *City of Glass*, declares: "Wherever I am not is the place where I am myself" (Auster, 1990, p. 111). The sentence seems to establish a connection between self and space. On the other hand, the multiplication of settings and selves makes it increasingly impossible for Aster's characters to negotiate their true identities within the framework of shifting urban spaces. According to Daniela Rogobete, "At the core of Auster's fictional universe, fragmentary and alienating, lies a continuous search for identity…. Identity always reveals its shifting and dislocated nature in his novels and is most often marred by a sense of incompleteness and failure." Rogobete argues that "the deceiving concreteness of the metropolis, the overlapping labyrinthine fictional and metafictional spaces and the subtle connections Auster establishes between identity, space and language" are remarkable. (Rogobete, 2014, pp. 36-38).

In *City of Glass*, Quinn leads a normal life before beginning to wander in streets of New York, consciously attempting to lose himself. His wandering through unfamiliar spaces has echoes of postmodernity as the coming together of public and private spaces is chosen and cannot be helped. As he wanders in the city, Quinn becomes more alienated from his older, more unified self. He ends up a homeless who is struggling to meet his basic needs. It is ironic that, the protagonist's intellectual quest turns to a terrifying psychological ordeal in the urban-gothic space. Quinn's struggle becomes further morbid as he not only fails to find his true self, but also finds it increasingly difficult to remember himself.

V. SELF-REFLEXIVITY, THE UNCANNY, DOUBLES

Jacques Lacan's conceptualization of "the mirror stage" explains the formation of the ego through identification with an image of the self. Lacan declares a primary loss at the heart of human subjectivity, suggesting that we have lost an original sense of unity – a loss which is in turn constitutive of subjectivity itself. Thus, "the imaginary is a realm of identification and mirror-reflection; a realm of distortion and illusion." Therefore, the ego's struggle in order to regain the imaginary coherence or unity is futile (Sean Homer, 2005, p. 31). The multiplication of mirrors can be seen in *Ghosts*, in which Blue, a private detective, is trained by Brown; Brown, on the other hand, is spying on a man named Black for a client called White. Blue writes reports to White and is paid for his work. As he becomes immersed Black's life, Blue becomes frustrated and loses himself. It seems that in Auster's fictional universe, the "realm of identification and mirror-reflection" can only lead to more "distortion and illusion."

In *City of Glass*, a detective-fiction writer is also a private investigator who ascends to madness as he becomes involved in a case. The novel examines multiple levels of identity, drawing on multiple Paul Auster and Peter Stillman characters. When Stillman discovers Quinn's multiple identities, he says: "I like your name enormously, Mr. Quinn: it flies off in so many little directions at once." Quinn confirms Stillman's remark as he says: "Yes, I often noticed that myself" (Auster, 1990, p. 90). In their next encounters, Quinn takes on other identities, which is yet another of Auster's triplet of identities. In a seemingly unending process, the protagonist transforms from self to other, without ever reaching a state of coherence or unity. These doubles/triplets can be seen as the embodiment of the repressed or the uncanny. In her article "Doubling, Intertextuality, and the Postmodern Uncanny: Paul Auster's New York Trilogy," Roberta Rubenstein comments on doubling and repetition in Auster's trilogy, regarding Freud's *The Uncanny* as an influential intertext. Auster's "overlapping tales", she declares, are interconnected because each "thematically mirrors", and "narratively doubles" the other (Rubenstein, 1998, p. 246). The protagonist "seeks, discovers, swaps places with, disappears into, or struggles physically with an antagonist who is in fact his double (ibid.). Clearly, a sense of confusion, chaos and horror is conveyed as the characters and their doubles continue to take on each other in all three stories of *The New York Trilogy*. The subject of the "uncanny," according to Freud, "belongs to all that is terrible – to all that arouses dread and creeping horror. The uncanny is everything within the boundaries of "fearful". The uncanny is nothing new, foreign or alien, but something familiar and old-established which has become estranged through the process of repression (Freud, 1959, pp. 12-13). The appearance of uncanny doubles in Auster's *The New York Trilogy* is

a compelling source of terror. In *Ghosts*, while watching Black with binoculars from the opposite apartment, Blue realizes that Black exactly mirrors him. When spying on Black from across the street, Blue feels as though he is looking into a mirror. The uncanny feeling Blue experiences, is particularly alarming – as he watches another and it occurs to him that he is looking at himself (*Ghosts*, 1968, p.172). He thinks that there is a "paradoxical connection" between him and Black and feels that he has seen him before, but cannot remember where (*Ghosts*, 1968, p. 181). Blue then steals pages from Black's notebook when he is not home – only to discover that these are in fact, his own reports written about Black. Blue's uncanny encounter with Black creates an air of anxiety, horror and terror. In the last scene the uncanny reaches its peak as Blue disappears into the text after killing Black.

In *The Locked Room,* the mirroring effect of doubling is taken a step ahead, as there is a complex confusion of selves between the protagonist and his former best friend, Fanshawe. While the protagonist has felt close to his friend since early childhood, he also has an uneasy feeling of distance between them: "I see now that I also held back from Fanshawe, that a part of me always resisted him" (*The Locked Room*, 1986, p. 211). This resistance alludes to the uncanny experience Freud regards as a consequence of the act of repression. On the one hand, the narrator thinks that he can never truly get to know Fanshawe. On the other hand, he thinks that he knows him better than anyone else (*The Locked Room*, 1986, p. 211). The two characters endeavor to cancel each other out. Ultimately, the confusion of selves is fully realized when the protagonist seemingly takes over Fanshawe's life. The internal conflict of the narrator and his repressed other eventually leads to a confrontation, which, in turn, results in an ambiguous state for the main character, similar to the ending of the two previous stories. The total assimilation of the various "selves" accentuates the postmodern phenomenon of the fluid and merging identities.

In *City of Glass*, Quinn is drawn to strongly identify with the fictional characters created by himself. As the novel plays with notions of fragmentary self and multiple identities, the protagonist increasingly gets lost in his multiple roles. In the end, Quinn is portrayed as a totally dissolved self. The literary technique Auster employs in characterization provides a context in which the problems of fragmented, contradictory, incoherent identity may be explored. *The New York Trilogy* addresses the complexity of self as a means of exploring the veiled struggles of the contemporary man. As Berge notes, "The literary play Auster employs in characterization, provides an arena in which it is possible to deal with the complexity of narration as a means of forming identities, while the postmodern techniques of narrative self-reflexivity create a possible literary form for these ideas" (Berge, 2005, pp. 118-119).

VI. Conclusion

The postmodern doctrine of uncertainty and the gothic code of chilling terror are reconciled in *The New York Trilogy* to set forth narratives of shifting, merging identities and describe a problem characteristic of our contemporary socio-historical context. *The New York Trilogy* can be seen as an elaborate, postmodern display of ghostification of characters and spaces. In a game of unnerving proliferations and relentless identifications between different selves and spaces, the ultimate horror is the confusion and psychological chaos experienced by the reader. In other words, the terror of the postmodern gothic manifests in an encounter with the 'self,' an apparition that haunts the characters' inner world. Indeed, the crisis of the postmodern self is the deep skepticism of the subject. Some postmodern critiques have challenged the belief in the integrated reality of selfhood. The terror of the Gothic, often inherent in it monsters and other bodies, functions as a deconstructive counter-narrative which presents the darker side of subjectivity, the ghost of otherness that haunt our fragile selves. The psychological twists Auster uses add a new dimension to his novels. The real mystery is what is the inner struggles that is taking place within the characters' (and hence the readers') minds.

Auster applies a gothic perspective to questions of the postmodern 'self' and its identity crises. a new literary sensibility to show how the new account of gothic can strike its own terror in the postmodern matrix. Quinn in *City of Glass*, Blue in *Ghosts* and the unnamed narrator of *The Locked Room* relentlessly try different spaces, narrating their lives to themselves and looking to the 'others' to find their own 'self', in order to evade their identity crises. Auster's protagonists are haunted and constantly revisited by the uncanny doubles – which is in turn a representation of the return of the repressed.

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A Comparative Investigation into Response Types in Listening Comprehension Test

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Abstract—There are two response types, multiple-choice response and constructed response, in testing the communicative language ability. This paper discusses the differences between them, and investigates which type of response proves to be closer to the testees' actual language proficiency level in the listening comprehension test. The research data were collected through the listening comprehension test, and cloze test. The results indicated that constructed response type was more valid in testing the students' language proficiency level.

Index Terms—response type, multiple-choice response questions, constructed response questions, listening comprehension test

I. INTRODUCTION

Language testing has long been a focus of study for its educational and social importance. It may screen testees in their academic and career life; it may offer a ranking of testees based on which further decisions can be made; it may provide empirical evidences for bettering teaching. Some researchers see testing method as "an aspect of content" and claims "format and content are deeply intertwined (Bennet, 1993, p.23)". Due to its powerful educational and social consequences, researchers have been working on this field to ever perfect language testing theories and operations.

In order to provide an appropriate and fair basis for decisions and inferences as to testees' language proficiency, language testing researchers have embarked on an effort in examining factors affecting test performance. It is found that not only the testee's language ability, but also the test method used to measure it and characteristics of testees' have their due impact on test performance (Bachman, 1990, p.111).

In this light, test method has become a research concern. It is regarded as a vehicle that represents test designers' conception of language abilities to be tested, as well as an interface through which testees demonstrate their language proficiency. If test content deals with "what" to test, test method concerns "how" to test (Bachman, 1990, p.111).

With more and more teachers and scholars realize the significant role listening comprehension plays in language learning and communication, they recognize the importance of listening comprehension research, which resulted in an increase in the number of listening activities in students' textbooks and even in methodology texts designed specially for listening.

As for this background, this paper aims to explore the differences between the two response types, i.e. multiple-choice response questions (selected response) and constructed response questions in the context of communicative language testing of listening comprehension, from the perspectives of test validity, reliability, authenticity, and impact on language teaching and learning, and find out which response type could reflect the testees' actual language proficiency level. Thus, future test designers may have a deeper insight as to which response type can better reflect testee's language ability in real language use.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Language Testing

Language testing is basically a sampling of testee's performance on language related activities, from which language ability is judged and assumptions of future language performance are made. There are four parameters essential to the quality of a test, i.e. reliability, validity, authenticity and impact on language teaching and learning, which will be used as main considerations in exploring the two response types.

1. Reliability and validity

Reliability and validity are two major measurement concerns, which are essential to interpretation and use of language tests, thus "the primary qualities to be considered in developing and using tests" (Bachman, 1990, p.24).

Reliability is a major concern in the field of language testing, and educational and psychological measurement in a broader sense. It means the results of a test should be stable and consistent. In other words, no matter who or how to score the test, the results should be stable. If the standards and monitory of test can be well organized, such as the consistent standards of evaluating, the good conditions of the testing environment and the well-chosen testers, the reliability of a test will be convincing. It refers to "the degree to which test scores are free from errors of measurement" (American Psychological Association, 1985, p.19). It is the consistency of results of a test on a particular occasion with

those which would have been obtained if the test had been administrated to the same students with same ability, but at a different time and rated again by the same rater or another one (Hughes, 1989, p.19). High reliability is a premise of validity.

By nature, validity concerns "specific use of a test", not "the test itself" (American Psychological Association, 1985, p.9). Bachman (1990:238) claims in the same vein: "in test validation we are not examining the validity of the test content or of even the test scores themselves, but rather the validity of the way we interpret or use the information gathered through the testing procedure." Linking validity to use of tests, American Psychological Association (1985, p.9) has laid out the definition as "the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the specific inferences made from test scores". In other words, it refers to the appropriateness of a given test or any of its component parts as a measure of what it purported to measure. A test is said to be valid to the extent that it measures what it supposed to measure. Any test then may be valid for some purposes, but not for others. Therefore, the validity is the centrality of a test.

Therefore, reliability and validity are two major criteria in evaluating a given test.

2. Authenticity

The study of authenticity in language testing has been carrying on for "the past quarter of a century (at least)" (Bachman, 1990, p.300) since its emergence in applied linguistics in the late 1970s when there was a prevailing interest in communicative methodology and teaching and testing real-life language and continues to be a major consideration in language testing.

The definition of authenticity has undergone three major modifications (Bachman, 1991, p.689). It is first defined as direct, in the sense of getting at the ability without going through a representation of the ability. In the second approach, authenticity is understood as similarity to real life. It is difficult and inefficient, if not impractical, to sample infinite real-life language uses in one single test. The third approach sees authenticity as equivalent of face validity, the problem of which lies in that it is too subjective on the part of evaluators.

3. Impact of testing on language teaching and learning

Testing is not an isolate issue from teaching and learning; it exerts influence on the two. The impact of testing on teaching is acknowledged as backwash. A test must try to obtain beneficial backwash, besides validity and reliability, in relation to language teaching and learning.

Beneficial backwash comes from the proper testing procedures that reflect the language construct that has been identified as the teaching objective of a particular curriculum. Also, "it should be supportive of good teaching and, where necessary, exert a corrective influence on bad teaching" (Hughes, 1989, p.2). If the test content and testing techniques are at variance with the objectives of the course, then there is likely to be harmful backwash (ibid: 1). In the framework of communicative language teaching, language testing has to have a corresponding communicative orientation.

In sum, the impact of testing on language teaching and learning needs "attention in the years to come" (Bachman, 1991, p. 679).

B.   Listening Comprehension Testing

Listening is an indispensable ability in language communication, especially that through aural-oral channel. On this account, listening comprehension testing is included in most major language testing batteries, and the research into testing listening ability is ever progressing.

1. Nature of listening comprehension

Listening has often been called a passive skill. This is misleading, because listening progress demands active involvement from the speaker. Littlewood (2000) defined the active nature listening comprehension as that "the nature of listening encouraged to engage in an active process of listening for meanings, using not only the linguistic cues but also his nonlinguistic knowledge" and "the active nature of listening means that the learner must be to motivated by a communicative purpose" (p.67).

In communicative listening test, which aims at testing students' communicative competence in real life, the tasks are constructed by the purpose of communication. Therefore, communicative listening tests reflect the active nature of listening comprehension perfectly.

2. Characteristics of communicative listening test

Communicative tests are concerned primarily (if not totally) with how language is used, in communication and tasks are approximate as closely as possible to those facing the students in real life. So communicative listening test, as one part of communicative test is also concerned real-life listening, i.e. what we call authenticity, which includes two aspects: 1) the choice of listening materials and 2) the construction of listening tasks.

C.   Response Type

1. Definition of response type

Many researchers have observed that testing method, including response type, is a factor intervening test performance. Response type is an important category of testing method, Bennet (1993, p.27) defines the response as "any physical activity on the part of the student in reaction to the stimulus materials".

Response type, test method in a broader sense, leads to the essential question of "validity", "reliability" and "authenticity" in communicative language testing (Bachman, 1990; McNamara, 2000), as it restricts and controls the

nature of test performance elicited from testees.

Response type is not a superficially formal concern, but is closely related to test validity. It is linked with test validity in that it "affects the meaning of test scores by restricting the nature of the content and processes that can be measured" (Bennet, 1993, p.6). It is like a filter through which their language proficiency is demonstrated. The effects of response type used in a given language test may "reduce the effect on test performance of the language abilities we want to measure, and hence the interpretability of test scores" (Bachman 1990, p.156).

Response type also interacts with language teaching and learning. As testing is embedded in the whole educational cycle, it is interlocked with teaching and learning. Testing can serve as a feedback to teaching and learning, which are, in turn, influenced by the tests that explore their effectiveness. In particular, response type, the way in which testees will be required to respond to the test content, which is subject-specific, and its correspondent test-taking techniques involved, can influence classroom practice.

2. Classification of response types

A review of literature on classification of response types unanimously suggests two broad categories. The first category is termed "multiple-choice" (Bachman 1990, p.117), or "selected response" (Bachman 1990, p.129), or "fixed-response" (Bennet, 1993, p.2), which testes have to select the answer from several alternatives that have been "anticipated" (Bennet, 1993, p.2). As this category "characterizes multiple-choice tests" (Bachman 1990, p.129), it will be termed directly as "multiple-choice response questions" (MC for short) in the following discussion.

The other category is termed "free" (Bachman 1990, p.117), or "constructed response" (Bachman 1990, p.129), which means testes need to produce an oral or written response on their part. The author will adopt the term "constructed response questions" (CR for short) in the following part.

3. Strengths and Weakness of two response types

A. Strengths and Weakness of MC Response Questions

MC response question is a wide-used response type in major testing batteries worldwide. It has been the "mainstay of standardized testing programs in the United States" (Bennet, 1993, p.ix).

The benefits of MC response questions are widely recognized as being objective, economical, able to incorporate more test items, and consequently highly reliable (Hughes, 1989, p.59-62). While Hughes argues that the weaknesses of MC response questions can be listed as follows:

(1) this response type tests only recognition knowledge. The performance of MC test may give a quite inadequate picture of testes' productive skills. MC response questions feature a gap to be bridged between knowledge and use; as use is what communicative tests are intended to assess, that gap means that test scores are at best giving incomplete information;

(2) guessing may have a considerable but unknowable effect on test scores. In score interpretation, one can never know what part of the score has come about through guessing;

(3) cheating may be facilitated. The responses to the MC questions (a, b, c, d) are so simple that it is easy to communicate to other testes nonverbally.

B. Strengths and Weakness of CR Questions

CR questions can better assess the ability to use the language in performing authentic tasks. As testees have to construct their own inferences, recognitions, comparisons and summarizations themselves instead of picking from given options, CR questions are suitable to assess high-level abilities to make inferences, to recognizing a sequence, to compare and establish the main idea of a text, and to relate sentences with other items which may be some distance away in the text.

Bennet (1993) voices concerns about reliability of CR questions: "these tasks by their very nature will produce less reliable scores." (p.9) It is true that as CR questions require testes to write other than to choose, the load of spelling and writing may interfere with the construct being tested. Another problem comes from rating. As CR questions are subjective in nature, it might need more considerations to ensure reliability in scoring than the MC questions.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to find out which type of answer could better reflect the language proficiency level, the researcher is conducting a test during the English major students. On this account, the material should contain both MC test and CR test, whose difficulty level is more or less the same. And also, the testing criterion should be settled down to judge the testees' language competence. The testing result should be compared with the criterion and tell which one is better.

A. Research Design

In order to clarify how the two different response types reflect the students' communicative ability, the researcher conducted a test. The study involves three sets of investigations:

(1) Exploring the subjects' listening comprehension performance in answering both MC and CR questions;

(2) Testing the authentic ability of the testes;

(3) Finding out which type of question would bring more beneficial effects to the development of students' communicative competence.

B. Subjects

The study was cited the experiment, which conducted among English major juniors in Shanxi Normal University. Totally, 184 students, 21 males and 163 females from six classes participated in the test. The test consisted of the following two parts: about thirty minutes' listening comprehension test, and a fifteen minutes' cloze test. During the test process, 160 students met all our sampling criteria and were selected as our subjects in the end.

C.   Materials

1. Listening test materials

There are three most popular tests for the English learners in China: TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) test, CET (College English Test), TEM (Test for English Majors) and IELTS (International English Language Testing System).

An eminent change in these major testing methods is the modification of response type to be used. TOEFL, a test dominantly using MC questions, will include more CR tasks. Listening materials used in communicative listening tests are spontaneous and authentic, even if not totally they should be approximate as close as possible to the real situation. CET and TEM both include two response types, while the former is applied for non English major learners; the latter is for English majors. As the testees are in the junior grade, have just taken the Test for English Majors-4 (TEM-4), they would have been familiar with the authentic listening test of TEM-4, materials should take other consideration.

"As with all IELTS tests, authentic and general contexts are a central feature of the Listening and Reading tests, and a range of native speaker accents are used to record the lectures and dialogues." (http://www.ielts.org/researchers/research/ielts_reading_and_listening_te.aspx). In this paper, the listening test of IELTS has been chosen as the material for the testing.

Besides, the listening part of IELTS composed of both selected questions and constructed questions. Moreover, it ensures the two types of questions are on the same level, the number of the questions is the same, which is convenient to calculate. So the researcher picked one listening test from the authorized IELTS test publisher, Cambridge IELTS IV. (Cambridge University Press, 2013).

2. Cloze test materials

The cloze test would be used as the testing criterion. As it was easy to construct, administer and score. Reports of early research seem to suggest that it mattered little that passage, were chosen or which words were deleted. The result would be reliable and valid test of candidates' underlying language ability (Hughes, 1989, p.65).

2.1 Related research on cloze test

Oller in his collection work "Issues in Language Research", published in 1983, reprinted four papers in part Ⅲ talking about the pros and cons on cloze testing. Oller (1983, p.48) commented Shohamy's thesis "Interrater and intrarater reliability of the oral interview and concurrent validity with clone procedure in Hebrew" as following: "Elana Shohamy presents a somewhat different perspective on cloze tests. Her results show substantial convergent validity for her application of cloze procedure, from which high reliability can be inferred as well". James Dean Brown also answered the questions of the validity and reliability on cloze test, which were given by Alderson, J. Charles (1995). There is a common understanding that the cloze test can be used to test the convergent language ability.

2.2 The advantages of cloze test

If taking cloze test as the testing criterion to the listening comprehension, there are two obvious advantages.

1) Easy to prepare and score

The cloze test seemed very attractive. Cloze tests were easy to construct, administer and score. Reports of early research seem to suggest that it mattered little that passage, were chosen or which words were deleted. The result would be reliable and valid rest of candidates' underlying language ability (Hughes, 1989, p.65). However, we still need to pat attention to the designing principles. The passage for a cloze test is simple to select and prepare in that we can delete every words. Then we can use the exact-word method to mark. Many people can be scorers. So the cloze test can be widely used in the classroom because it is easy to prepare and score.

2) Superior to discrete point

Item analysis of cloze tests generally indicates their superiority to discrete point. More over, cloze tests and other integrative tests seem to correlate better with each other. It seems that integrative tests are simple better windows through which to view language proficiency than are discrete point tests. Harmer (1983, p.166) mentioned the disadvantages of discrete points tests as that it has been suggested that in real life people do not have to make the same kind of choice, and that the choice actually causes more confusion than it helps students to understand.

Research with integrative testing procedure has suggested a way to operationally define the "efficiency of the internalized expectancy grammar" of a particular learner. While discrete point tests focused on the minute details revealed by the grammatical analyses, integrative tests seek an index of global proficiency. Such an index can be defined operationally by comparing nonnative performance against the criterion of native performance. Therefore, the integrative test, such as the cloze test and dictation, can be employed to test the convergent language ability. Therefore, the researcher are choosing cloze test as the testing criterion to the listening comprehension.

D.   Data Collection

The tests were managed in the multimedia classroom of Shanxi Normal University. The listening test lasted about 30 minutes. The cloze test lasted about 15 minutes. Altogether, there are 45 minutes. The listening teacher assisted in the

process to introduce the researcher and helped organize the class.

The following is a detailed description of the testing procedures.

1) Introduction

When the class began, the teacher introduced the researcher and told the students that they will do an English listening test. The purpose of the test was to find out their weak points in listening comprehension.

2) Before the test

The teacher played a piece of news to warm-up students, then handed out the testing paper and answering sheet to the students, asked them to fill in the blank all the information required on the answering sheet, including name, gender, age, the length of learning English.

3) On the test

The teacher started the central part of the test, strictly followed the instruction of IELTS test, the tape was played once only for the students. After about 30 minutes, the listening part finished. The teacher gave the students another 15 minutes to answer the following cloze test. In all, after 45 minutes, the teacher asked to collect all the test papers. The researcher was standing by and monitoring the whole process of the test.

4) After the test

After careful scoring of the test papers, the marks of the 160 test papers of the students who have taken part in all the tests were recorded.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Description of the Test Results

Previous explanation shows that cloze test could be used as the criteria for English proficiency level test. So if we could like to probe which response type could authentically reflect the person's English Language ability, we could keep an eye on which response type has closer relationship with cloze test.

The relationship between the performance on multiple choice test and cloze test and between the performance on constructed response test and cloze test taken by the same group of students could be described graphically with a scatter spot. Each point on the graph or plot represents a particular person's performance on the two separate tests.

The scatter plot will tell whether there is a positive relationship between the variable, if there is any, what kind it is. As shown in the following graph 4-1, we can not visualize the relationship that exists between the two variables because the plots disperse.
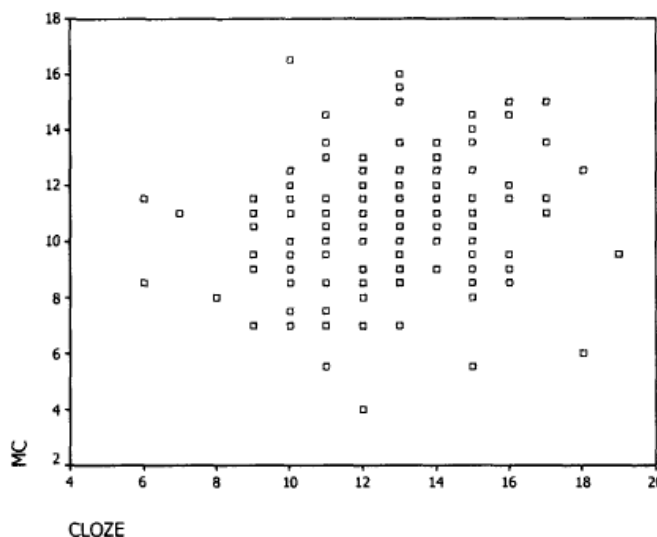
Graph 4-1 The Relationship Between Multiple Choice and Cloze Test Results

From following graph 4-2, it is clear that there is a positive linear relationship between the constructed response and cloze test answers, which mean students who scored high on the cloze test tended have high scores on constructed response test.
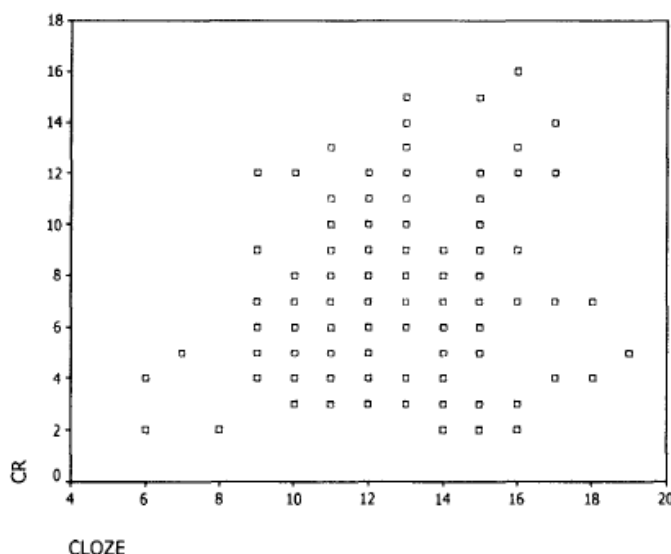
Graph 4-2 The Relationship Between Constructed Response and Cloze Test Results

It seems that there might be a positive relationship between constructed response test and cloze test. But it is not easy to tell the relationship between multiple choice test and cloze test. From the graph, the relationship between multiple-choice questions and cloze test does not present as clearly as that of constructed response and cloze test. In order to find out which result is closer to that of cloze test, in other words, which response type could reflect the language proficiency level of the testees more efficiently, what we are going to do is to analyze the correlations of the variables.

B.   Variables Correlation Analysis

Previous explanation shows that cloze test could be used as the criteria for English proficiency level test. Table 4-1 shows the correlations between the multiple choice, constructed response and cloze test. (Resulting from the Pearson product-moment correlation)

TABLE 4-1
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MC, CR AND CLOZE TEST

Question Type	Cloze Test
Multiple Choice	0.145
Constructed Response	0.310(**)

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

As for the correlation between MC and cloze test score, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is 0.145 for the association between scores on the MC test and the scores on the cloze test for the 160 subjects. While as for the correlation between CR and cloze test score, the Pearson correlation coefficient is 0.310 for the association between scores on the CR test and the scores on the cloze test for the 160 subjects. The correlation coefficient ranges from -1.0 ~ +1.0, while –0.3 ~ +0.3 means little or no correlation between the variables, and +0.3 ~ +0.7 stands for weak positive correlation. It is obvious that there is a significant positive correlation between the two sets of scores at the 1 percent significance level for a two-tailed test, for the computed value is marked by **.

The comparison above shows that if taking cloze test as the criterion, there is almost no or little correlation between MC and cloze test, while there is definitely correlation between CR and cloze test. Since the correlation is significant, it proves that the CR test could more effectively reflect the language proficiency level than MC test.

V.   CONCLUSIONS

The English testing aims to find the way that combines the qualities of validity, reliability and authenticity. From both theoretical and empirical probes, a conclusion can be drawn that CR questions enjoy higher validity. In the aspect of listening comprehension performance in answering both MC and CR questions, the subject who gets high score in MC test might not have high language proficiency level, while the subject who obtains the high score in CR test proves better language proficiency level. In other words, CR proves to possess these three qualities.

Therefore, the study suggests that, English listening tests should adopt a greater proportion of CR questions, enlarge the non-selected-response type.

In this paper, the author picks listening comprehension, an indispensable section in almost all the test batteries, as the research area. Since the time and material is limited, there must be some demerits of this study. And in the future, more

materials can be added. Moreover, other fields, like reading, speaking, and writing, may also display different effects of the response type variable.

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Paul Auster's *New York Trilogy* as "Historiographic Metafiction"

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Abstract—Seeking to free us from the clutches of our self-made rigid conventions, postmodernism criticizes the metanarratives of modern times, while metafiction seems a better spokesman of it. *New York Trilogy*, Paul Auster's debut composition and a meta-detective novel, has secured its fame in the postmodern fiction. It uses and abuses the conventions of detective novel, and lays bare the conventions of objective historiography. In doing this, Auster has given a self-reflective and equally historical dimension to his oeuvre through the technique of "historiographic metafiction". Linda Hutcheon sees "historiographic metafiction" as a way to rewrite history in postmodern fiction. Postmodernism seeks to embrace a plurality of truths, and history is no longer monolithic and objective. Hutcheon contends that the postmodernist fiction is characterized by intense self-reflexivity and overtly parodic intertextuality. Utilizing historical accounts as intertextual effects, the writers of postmodernist fiction distrust in history. The present article will attempt to analyze *New York Trilogy* as a "historiographic metafiction". Firstly, and insofar as it is within the scope of the article, it will attempt to offer a critical analysis of "postmodernism", "metafiction", and "metaphysical detective fiction". Then, it will examine Auster's novel as a "historiographic metafiction" in the light of Hutcheon's theories.

Index Terms—historiographic metafiction, Paul Auster, *New York Trilogy*, detective fiction, Linda Hutcheon

I. INTRODUCTION

The term "postmodernist" is used to describe the philosophy, art, literature, music, architecture, etc. produced in the contemporary eras which often want to reject some criteria of these disciplines produced in a previous historical period. In the fourth edition of *The Penguin Dictionary of Literary Terms and Literary Theory* (1998), A. J. Cuddon attempts to explain the intermixture of modernism and postmodernism in the contemporary times:

To talk of post-modernism is to imply that modernism is over and done with. This is not so. There never is a neat demarcation line. Originally, avant-garde (q.v.) movements in literature and the arts in general were modernist; avant-garde influences continue. It might be said that there is a new avant-garde. Besides, post-modernism is still happening. When something else develops from it or instead of it, it will, perhaps, be easier to identify, describe, and classify (p. 690).

Among all schools of thought, postmodernism is perhaps the most reluctant to be defined, while it has always been a matter of controversy. And it seems that Cuddon finds no neat demarcation line between modernism and postmodernism. Literary scholars often consider James Joyce's novels as modernist while his fiction clearly shares some attributes of the postmodernist era as well. For example, at the beginning of *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* Stephen Daedalus, the protagonist, searches for the meaning of his life not only in the "Class of Elements, Clongowes Wood College, Sallins, County Kildare, Ireland," but also in "Europe, The World, The Universe" (1996, p. 17). As Stephen searches to understand his connection to these and other facts of life such as the Irish church and nationalism, he attempts to solve his epistemological concern and realizes that in the realm of art he can pledge "himself to create the 'uncreated conscience' of his people" (Levin, 1960, p. 630). However, Joyce's novel can be regarded as postmodernist too, for it establishes what Jean-Francois Lyotard calls "incredulity toward metanarratives" (1984, p. 24). From Lyotard's eye, a "metanarrative" wants to present an absolute and monolithic account as to various historical events and experiences as well as the social and cultural phenomena which designate a tendency to the universal truth. Thus, he argues that the postmodern condition is characterized by a deeply felt skepticism towards authoritative metanarratives like nationalism and Christianity which try to suppress the other private and social voices. Joyce's protagonist, who is reluctant to pursue the monolithic voices of these power structures, seeks to abandon the application of their verdicts to his life and instead to lead his life on the basis of his own self-made theories and methodologies. This supports the assumption that Joyce's novel is postmodernist too, and perhaps that there is almost no clear line between modernism and postmodernism.

Also, Hutcheon defines postmodernism as basically double and paradoxical in nature, of which Auster's novel, with its capabilities of 'intertextual parody', is a better voice. She claims that

In the postmodern novel the conventions of both fiction and historiography are simultaneously used and abused, installed and subverted, asserted and denied. And the double (literary/historical) nature of this intertextual parody is one of the major means by which this paradoxical (and defining) nature of postmodernism is textually inscribed. Perhaps one of the reasons why there has been such heated debate on the definition of postmodernism recently is that the implication of the doubleness of this parodic process has not been fully examined (1989, p. 5).

In addition to fiction, critics are in accord about a salient role of historiography in the formation of the postmodern. It seems that an embodiment of this role is the postmodern architecture. Hans Bretens believes that the postmodern architecture "combines historicist awareness, a new representational impulse, and an ironic self-reflexivity" (2005, p. 66). For instance, the use of historical signifiers is abundant in it which can be taken as an intercession of the conscience of the past and present or the reformation of the historical consciousness in the modern. This is the model that Hutcheon has used in her theory of historiographic metafiction.

II. DISCUSSION

Postmodernism is amorphous in nature. Unlike modernism, which is characterized by epistemological quests and a series of post-war anxieties about the fate of man, the postmodernist discourse is typically often incoherent thematically as well as structurally. However, within its paradoxical environment we can detect the function of a number of discernable features. A feature of the postmodernist discourse is self-reflectivity. This trait is better illustrated perhaps in what W. H. Gass, an American experimental novelist, has originally called "metafiction". Metafiction is a literary subgenre which is self-reflective, self-criticizing, and inclined to address its readers that they are reading a work of art. In addition, Patricia Waugh defines it as a kind of inherent nature in all novels which "self-consciously and systematically draws attention to its status as an artifact in order to pose question about the relationship between fiction and reality" (1984, p. 2).

A second feature of the postmodern discourse like history, literature, and fiction is the way of its projection. It is projected in such a way that it no longer has a discernible boundary, for it can extend its frontiers from one discipline to another one to involve itself with problems of the new discipline also. This mode of extended involvement produces an interdisciplinary environment where the established monolithic truth or reality is often violated, undermined. In such a realm of disciplinary intermixture, meta-discourse is a partial consequence of an increased social and cultural self-consciousness. However, within the contemporary cultural function of language, it also reflects a greater awareness, in the sense that it constructs and maintains our sense of everyday reality.

Gone are the days of objective reflection of the world in language, that is, of faithful representation of reality in it. Thus, still another feature of the postmodern discourse is the unique role of its language. Its language is an opaque and multi-dimensional phenomenon which perpetually hides itself from the reader, and by doing this, always comes to the fore itself as a new enigma which he has to solve. However, it is also an independent and self-contained system which generates its own meaning. On the other hand, the relation of language to the phenomenal world is highly complex and problematic while language regulates its relations with the world often conventionally. As Waugh notes, "Metafiction sets up an "opposition, not to ostensibly 'objective' facts in the 'real' world, but to the language of the realistic novel which has sustained and endorsed such a view of reality" (1984, p. 11).

Consisting of *City of Glass* (1985), *Ghosts* (1986), and *Locked Room* (1986), *New York Trilogy* falls in the category of detective fiction, because reading it, one realizes that it uses and undermines the features of that genre. Under "detective fiction" there are a number of minor genres of which Auster's novel is an illustration. Merivale and Sweeney have sketched the characteristics of "metaphysical detective story". Their sketch include "the defeated sleuth, 'the world, city, or text as labyrinth', 'the purloined letter-embedded text, [and] mise en abyme', 'the ambiguity […] or sheer meaninglessness of clues and evidence', 'the missing person [and] the double', and 'the absence […] or self-defeating nature of any kind of closure to the investigation'" (1999, p. 8). In the representation of a labyrinthine postmodern New York in Auster's novel, the detectives are lost because at the end of each story they suddenly vanish and fail to know anything.

Historicism is among the integral issues of the postmodernist discourse. For example, the theorists of the postmodern architecture attempt to clarify how it is influenced by the modern architecture or the 17th-century baroque architecture. And Michel Foucault maintains that the postmodern art is a self-conscious art "within the archive," while the archive is "both historical and literary" (qtd. in Hutcheon, 1989, p. 4). Accordingly, in *New York Trilogy* Auster builds a world out of his imagination. "This 'world' has direct links to the world of empirical reality, but it is not itself that empirical reality" (Hutcheon, 1989, p. 4), the world in which the text situates itself is the world of intertextual discourses. This is the very nature of postmodernism which is characterized by self-reflexivity and parodic intertextuality. In order to distinguish "this paradoxical beast" from the traditional historical fiction, Hutcheon has coined the phrase "historiographic metafiction." According to her,

The term postmodernism, when used in fiction, should, by analogy, best be reserved to describe fiction that is at once metafictional *and* historical in its echoes of the texts and contexts of the past. In order to distinguish this paradoxical beast from traditional historical fiction, I would like to label it "historiographic metafiction." The category of novel I am thinking of includes *One Hundred Years of Solitude*, *Ragtime*, *The French Lieutenant's Woman*, and *The Name of the Rose* (1989, p. 3).

Literary historiography is an interfusion of history and fiction, in such a way that F. O. Matthiessen says they 'enrich' one another. He claims that in the "American Renaissance" of the 1980s and after, literary historiography has been more than a subgenre. To analyze the outcomes of the intermixture of these branches of knowledge, Matthiessen points to "the breaking down of arbitrary divisions between" (2004, p. 43) them which made it possible for the literary critic to benefit from history and for the historian to extend his consciousness to reach "general culture" through "politics". However, it seems that historiographic metafiction, which is quintessentially a postmodern art form, is considerably different from the literary historiography of the 1980 and after, because the main reliance of the postmodern historiography is upon parody, textual play, and other language techniques which it uses for the purpose of historical re-conceptualization. In the historiography which began in the 1980s, history was as a series of past realities which concretely existed not only out of imagination but out of language also. History and fiction were already there, and the historiographer would mix them to add to their capacities and produce a new genre. However, "historiographic metafiction" is a genre by which Hutcheon means "those well-known and popular novels which are both intensely self-reflexive and yet paradoxically also lay claim to historical events and personages (2004, p. 5). Here she is claiming that in historiographic metafiction, history is subjective and perspectival. In addition, it is a product of language, and is manufactured in the power-plant of our imagination.

This said, if we take language as a self-orienting and self-structuring phenomenon, the fiction-writer and historian write mainly to generate new ideas, new systems of thought. Looked from this perspective, history and fiction are the signs of only arbitrary connections with their referents, for they are ideological, opaque systems for whose characters and personages we can find almost no referents in the real life and history. To speak for Hutcheon again, the contradictoriness of historiographic metafiction makes it into a mode of writing which is simultaneously exhausting and formative, because as a form of metafiction, it searches "*within* conventions in order to subvert them" (2004, p. 5). On the one hand, it searches to annihilate the outmoded and trite discourses, while on the other hand, it grounds the formation of what Zavarzadeh has called new "frames of intelligibility in the postmodern fiction" (1985, p. 607). However, Zavarzadeh does not limit the productive power of metafiction to the literary narrative, but extends it to the other "modes of cultural (…) intelligibility" (1985, p. 611) also, by which he means both philosophical and scientific narratives. After briefly examining some traits of "historiographic metafiction," we will attempt to analyze Auster's *New York Trilogy* as a historiographic metafiction in the light of Hutcheon's theories. Three salient features of a typical historiographic metafiction are intertextuality, parody, and paratextuality.

A. Intertextuality

Any text naturally implies that it stands in relation to any other text in the lack of which it can be registered neither in the consciousness nor in the realm of signification. Accordingly, it is understandable why Roland Barthes should maintain that "any text is an intertext" (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 127). Barthes' "intertext" is a general and omnipresent text to which all texts are members and in the environment of which they are present. So, intertextuality is the meaning of texts as they are related to each other structurally and thematically. However, this general and omnipresent text is more than a simple coming together of a number of individual texts, because it affects how texts can and should be read. In the intertext, there are allusions which want the reader to participate in textual negotiations for better enlightenment, there are sounds which transfer him to the forgotten time periods for his remembrance and sympathies, there are devices which parody a previous system of signification for the replacement of new systems, etc. Therefore, intertextuality has it that a text should be read not as a divided block of writing but in the light of its relations to other texts. Barthes also claims that although in the heyday of New Criticism texts were regarded as "autonomous" artistic objects, but they were neither autonomous nor separated from other texts. The present readers find T. S. Eliot's "Tradition and Individual Talent", among other things, as the theory of a form of intertextuality, because his definition for "tradition" signifies the interconnection of literary texts in the whole history of their production. However, Hawthorn finds the theory of another form of intertextuality in the writings of Mikhail Bakhtim. Hawthorn mentions that "the DIALOGIC element in all UTTERANCES" (1992, p. 126) grounds a mode of intertextuality in the contemporary period, because dialogue excites a text to question about the existence, the function, and the meaning of any other text.

As well, speaking for Hutcheon, the writers of *A Reader's Guide to Contemporary Literary Theory* remind us that the paradox of postmodernism lies in its "use and abuse of history" (2005, p. 208). They believe that intertextuality is more than reproducing "the past in the form of a shallow and comprised nostalgia" (2005, p. 208), for it is also, they say, a possibility for "revealing its past construction in discourse and ideology (2005, p. 208). So, as the ground of interconnection of all texts, intertextuality explores the relationship between one literary text and other texts. In a field of intertextuality, which is pluralistic, one frees himself from the grips of any certain and unilateral work to employ the capacities of a number of texts. In this way, it is the revitalization of a long file of texts which come to the fore one by one with an aftermath of critical innovations. This mode of critical innovation seems to be in concord with not only the needs of the postmodern consciousness but also the complexities of the postmodern interdisciplinary discourse. In this sense, intertextuality is the solution of the contemporary intellectual reader who reads voraciously to know everything and be everywhere. It is the endearment of democracy through a revitalization, generalization, of textual relations through interpretive reading as social interaction.

In *New York Trilogy*, the reader is referred to a number of literary texts including *Marco Polo's Adventures*, *Don Quixote*, and *Walden*. In *City of Glass*, we see Quinn reading the first one while he is alone in his apartment and is

interrupted by an unexpected phone call (p. 3). Later in the story he visits Paul Auster the character who is in the middle of an imaginative reading of the text by Cervantes. In the second story it is the spirits of the American transcendentalists which are dominant.

F. O. Matthiessen has created his monumental *American Renaissance* (1941) mainly in the light of the works of a handful of literary giants: Emerson, Thoreau, Hawthorne, Melville, and Whitman. The works of these giants dominated the American literary landscape in the mid-19th century. Of these, Auster is funder of the work of transcendentalists. For example, in *New York Trilogy* we see Blue doing his tail job and realizing that Black is reading a copy of Thoreau's *Walden*. Later, when he meets Black in the disguise of Jimmy Rose, the latter tells him a story about Hawthorne who was "a good friend of Thoreau's, and probably the first real writer America ever had. After he graduated from college, he went back to his mother's house in Salem, shut himself up in his room, and didn't come out for twelve years" (2006, p. 172). When Black asks Jimmy what he did there, he says "He wrote stories" (2006, p. 172). The disguising name of Jimmy Rose is the eponym for the hero in a tale by Melville. In *Locked Room* (1986) which is the third story, Fanshaw is the title of Hawthorne's first novel. As inter-texts of history, these works provide a rich grounding for Auster's oeuvre, so that he can relate his story to other ones.

B. Parody

Describing a parody, M. H. Abrams says it

imitates the serious manner and characteristic features of a particular literary work, or the distinctive style of a particular author, or the typical stylistic and other features of a serious literary genre, and deflates the original by applying the imitation to a lowly or comically inappropriate subject (1999, p. 26).

It is said that the other literary genres (types) originate from parody. It imitates an original literary work of a previous time in a way that it preserves the form of the original work while its content it ridiculously belittles. The ridiculing approach of parody causes its content to be taken by the reader as far less valuable than that of the original work. Such a belittling way of analysis is also often for arousing the reader's sense of disliking toward (the subject matter of) the ridiculed work. To arouse his disliking, the parodist can use a handful of techniques including a file of dramatically sarcastic says, hyperbolic statements, or ugly gestures which the reader/onlooker cannot understand and which therefore show the hero or the subject matter of the original work worse than what they really are.

In this way, a parody works in an in-between situation, in a bipolar area on one end of which there is an original work of literature while on its other end there is a new work parodying the original one. This bipolarity is also the ground of a productive comparative study between the new and the original works to the blessing of which new literary experiences are generated. This bipolarity is significant from a further perspective also, for in a parody there is a surface level as well as an under-level. On the surface level, there may be the application of a series of downplaying techniques like joke, ridicule, lampoon, derision, even invective and sarcasm. On the other hand, in the under-level there is a conscious and goal-oriented literary criticism which is to help the reader to transcend his mentality and make himself accustomed to the new era, to the norms and standards of the new social strata. The formal similarity of the original and parodying works on the one hand, and the thematic difference of these works on the other makes the parody into a satirical imitation which guarantees the mental excitement of the reader. So, it is admitted that parody is an extended literary genre and a fertile field for productive literary negotiations. Meantime, a parody is naturally so subtle. In addition to its bipolarity just mentioned, its subtlety is rooted in the fact that the parodist should create a sense of equilibrium between similarity and difference, because the parody is, in form, similar to the original work, while in content it should be different from the original. This equilibrium renders parody faithful to its original work, while it projects the parody as a divided work also.

This policy of difference and/in sameness in parody is a genuine translation why the postmodern historiographic metafiction should be so interested in it. Metafiction is the program of a time situation when a literary genre or a system of codes should be neutralized, decoded, for the emergence of a new system, because the previous system is no longer functional, because, it means, it has gotten stale and therefore the new generation does not appreciate it. In the history of European culture, there are times when a previous ideology was neutralized to give way to a new one. For example, in "Preface to Lyrical Ballads, with Pastoral and Other Poems" (1802) William Wordsworth says "all good poetry is the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (598). For Wordsworth and other Romantic poets imagination was a "celestial power" that would make them related to eternity. Thus, they would search for the source of poetry mainly in human psychology which showed itself in the dynamic imagination of an exceptionally great poet as a "maker". Also they would consider a poem something like a wild stream, which intuitively projected itself to the poet while he had no control over it. Whatever the criteria of Romantic poetry was, it was evident that it could not take great social responsibilities, because the necessity of deep poetical considerations often caused the poet to go into absence from the practical social scenes to reside in his ivory tower of personal life and poetical meditation. However, men like Alfred Tennyson and Mathew Arnold in the Victorian Age composed a kind of poetry and/or literary criticism which was increasingly concerned with the problems of their own time and society. The radical reaction of these men against the personal seclusion of the Romantic poet would excite them to give their readers a sense of the past also. In such times of literary and cultural transition, parody is instrumental in the hand of the fiction-writer, because through a ridiculous imitation of an original work or the standards of a past literary period, it paves the way for the emergence of a new work or the formation of new tastes and values.

As a means of the postmodern fiction, parody is both for projection and cancellation, because as it wants to repeal a previous intelligibility, it also wants to propose a new mode of thought to make for the disintegration of the previous one. And a writer of historiographic metafiction uses parody to guarantee that the canonical works can and should be critically revised, re-evaluated, through a mechanism that puts a previous work, author, or ideology under consideration for the inauguration of new readings of history, for the proposition of new modes of cultural criticism. In the hands of the parodist, such works are imitated not only in their intentions but in their intertextuality also. In this regard, Linda Hutcheon notes that "parody is not to destroy the past; in fact, to parody is both to enshrine the past and to question it" (1989, p. 6).

In *City of Glass*, where Quinn investigates the facts about the Miltonic dissertation of Peter Stillman, Auster parodies the work of Milton. When he comes across an ancient account of Tower of Babel, he creates a historical figure named "Henry Dark" whom Stillman declares "the private secretary of John Milton—from 1669 until the poet's death five years later" (2006, p. 45). But when Quinn meets Stillman and introduces himself as Henry Dark, Stillman laughs and tells him that there is no Henry Dark:

"Hmmm. Yes, I see your point. It is true that two people sometimes have the same name. It's quite possible that your name is Henry Dark. But you're not *the* Henry Dark."

"Is he a friend of yours?"

Stillman laughed, as if at a good joke. "Not exactly," he said. "You see, there never was any such person as Henry Dark. I made him up. He's an invention" (2006, p. 78).

This is the moment when historiographic metafiction is used for parody. Auster challenges the traditional assumption of history as truthful, fabricates a historical figure, and in so doing crosses the lines of reality and fiction. In historiographic metafiction history loses "its privileged status as the purveyor of truth" (Hutcheon, 1989, p. 10).

Auster's fabrication of Henry Dark indicates that history is naturally not given but is constructional, perspectival, and uncertain. So it seems that by such fabrications he wants to undermine the simple notion of history as objective. If a monolithic view of history claims to embody the objective veracity of the past, this is incredulity toward history as monolithic. Hutcheon asserts that historiographic metafiction "offers a sense of the presence of the past, but this is a past that can only be known from its texts, its traces - be they literary or historical" (1989, p. 4). She argues that fiction and historiography are both prone to simultaneous use and abuse, assertion and denial. Accordingly, in Auster's book the detective conventions and traditional historical accounts are both drawn upon and undermined. Utilizing the detective traits, he constantly undermines the traditional assumption that we have in mind of the detective stories. In each story the result of detective efforts is but its own fragmented detection. As Lyotard believes, the nature of knowledge in postmodernism has changed. So, the detectives in Auster's world are doomed to discover only their problem of self-knowing. In other words, the pragmatic of detection in Auster's novel clearly is not similar to that of Sherlock Holmes-like stories in which the detectives decipher the mysterious murder cases after a long meticulous search. Instead, in metaphysical detective genre, any chase is eventually resulted in detective's own fragmented self-knowing.

Added to that, the invention of Henry Dark is a technique for re-writing history. As an example, using the historical events of "Tower of Babel," the author violates the traditionally supposed veracity of history by fictionalizing a real man of past eras like Milton as the material of his story. To speak for Laura Barrett, in this interfusion of history and fiction "reality, truth, and finally history are determined by perspective" (2000, p. 802). Elsewhere in the same study Barrett argues that the invention of narrative identities from history is a possibility of fitting them with the necessities of time and place as a style in which "history repeats itself in an endless cycle of destruction" (2000, p. 804).

It is also a possibility for narrative conventions to be simultaneously used and undermined. Each protagonist of the stories – Quinn, Blue, and the unnamed guy of *Locked Room*, who is seemingly a private eye-seeking after truth, finally realizes the truth about himself. In *City of Glass* we see Quinn writing a detective story which engages him in a game that leads to his own detection. Similarly, Blue in *Ghost* is hired to do a tailing job on Black, but in the end he understands that White and Black are in fact the same person who has been watching him all the time. Blue comprehends that this man has made him a subject rather than being an observer. In *Locked Room*, the unnamed character is hired by Sophie, Fanshaw's wife, to take care of the business of his disappeared husband and investigate the truth about him. But interestingly his pursuit leads him to knowledge about himself, and the unnamed character confesses the interconnectedness of the three stories. He declares that

The end, however, is clear to me. I have not forgotten it, and I feel lucky to have kept that much. The entire story comes down to what happened at the end, and without that end inside me now, I could not have started this book. The same holds for the two books that come before it, *City of Glass* and *Ghosts*. These three stories are finally the same story, but each one represents a different stage in my awareness of what it is about" (Auster, 2006, pp. 287-88).

Here the author turns the storytelling convention on its own head, and in so doing, undermines the framework of detective genre as well as his own authenticity. Although Auster's historiography shares the similar attributes of historiographic metafiction, his version of history, as Varvogli maintains, differs from those of "other American authors who may be more easily identified as exponents of this tendency" (2001, p. 118). In *The World that Is the Book: Paul Auster's Fiction* (2001), Varvogli argues that Coover's and Doctorow's historiographical styles have little in common with that of Auster. From his outlook, the writers of *The Public Burning* and *Ragtime* take use of fun and "political

history" to produce a genre of historiography in which the real and the unreal are integrally intersected, but the absence of "parodic intensions" in Auster's fiction leaves us in a reading space where the main concern is whether we are able to realize "the ultimate objects of history."

C. Paratextuality

A further device that historiographic metafiction uses is a self-conscious paratextuality, which is the use of external documents in fiction. Hutcheon affirms that in the postmodern novel paratextuality is characterized by the use of "footnotes, epigraphs, prefaces, and epilogues; sometimes they are parachuted directly into the fictive discourse" (2003, p. 92). These elements are not part of a main narrative, but they give a certain orientation to the reader's mind, which in turn grounds a certain mode of reading or a certain interpretive conduct. David Herman (2009) affirms that "paratextual materials afford resources for interpretation, allowing readers to channel and delimit their inferential activities by situating texts within generic (or TEXT-TYPE) categories, historical epochs, authors' oeuvres, sociopolitical controversies, and so on" (p. 190). Thus, it seems that the paratext is often for the creation of something like a protocol of reading which determines how the text should be read and appreciated. Such a protocol places the paratext in an intermediary position between the reader and the text and makes it possible for them to compromise. The paratext directs reading, grounds interpretation, expands the frontiers of the text, and provides ways of inferencing.

The author of *New York Trilogy* frequently uses paratextutal devices like illustration and historical movie to self-consciously transform historical documents into a fictive framework. The example in *City of Glass* is perhaps more telling. When Quinn realizes that Stillman has been spelling a weird shape with his course of walking through the city, he immediately draws some typographical views of Stillman's maze-like steps. Here the writer self-consciously uses external proofs to make his reader aware that he is reading a novel. At the same time, he undermines the conventional tradition of fiction writing. Finally, Quinn deciphers that labyrinthine paths are to be represented in the cryptic spelling of the phrase "TOWER OF BABEL"

Quinn then copied out the letters in order: OWEROFBAB. After fiddling with them for a quarter of an hour, switching them around, pulling them apart, rearranging the sequence, he returned to the original order and wrote them out in the following manner: OWER OF BAB. The solution seemed so grotesque that his nerve almost failed him. Making all due allowances for the fact that he had missed the first four days and that Stillman had not yet finished, the answer seemed inescapable: THE TOWER OF BABEL (Auster, 1990, p. 70).

Among other things, these alphabetical arrangements remind the reader that language is mainly a formal structure in the inside of which there is no ultimate meaning, but the elements of which can yet transfer meaning only when they stand in logical connection with each other. As John Scaggs argues, the importance of the phrase "The Tower of Babel" can be analyzed in two ways:

First, in its reference to 'the Biblical narrative of the fall into linguistic multiplicity' (Marcus, 2003, p. 260), it emphasizes not only the impossibility of a universal language, but more specifically, the impossibility of natural, unproblematic, and unmediated communication and interpretation. Secondly, Quinn's extraction of the letters OWEROBAB from Stillman's negotiation of the labyrinth of the city, and his interpretative leap to the phrase THE TOWER OF BABEL, reinforce at a metafictional level the limits that the fall of the biblical tower signifies in relation to the reader's engagement with Auster's novel itself, and with crime fiction in general (2005, p. 142).

The writer of historiographic metafiction can use the techniques of other media structures like the movie also. Another example is in *Ghosts*, when Auster sends Blue to watch the movie "Out of the Past." The movie is fabricated on the story of an ex-private eye who tries to build a new life for himself in a small town. A film noir in category, the movie is characterized by a dark and convoluted storyline and a dark cinematography. Through the use of paratextual effects of a noir film, here again the maker transfers the reader to "where another's consciousness can be represented" (Fludernik, 2007, p. 265). Fludernik argues that a major use of narrative is the fertilization of the reader's consciousness by making it possible for him to close his eyes on the familiar world and reside imaginatively in a wonderland little or nothing of which is already familiar to him. This world of "alterity" can primarily be dangerous or frightening to the reader. However, his residence there and his confrontation with its up-to-now unknown places and personages is a meaning of the extension of his consciousness, and the supposition that he will ultimately come to terms with the conditions of this new life. Now it suffices to note that the paratextual elements, to speak for Fludernik again, "ease the reader into or out of the text" (2007, p. 266), because they remind him of the storyline and help him differentiate between the world of the imaginary and his own world of reality.

However, paratextuality itself is a facade or possibility of metafiction. So, the remaining part of the present article will attempt to analyze the nature and function of metafiction in the postmodern literature and discuss some metafictional manifestations in Auster's novel. In *The Art of Fiction* (1992), David Lodge claims that "the grand[d]addy of all metafictional novels was *Tristram Shandy*" (1992, p. 206). To justify his claim, Lodge argues that realism was inclined to overlook the gap between life and art. For this purpose, it often pretended that literature was life, was faithful to life. Then he theorizes that, on the contrary to realism, *Tristram Shandy* highlighted the life-art gap in order for the reader to comprehend that story is not life but is a handful of language structures which only convey a sense of life to the reader. Lodge maintains that the pre-modern literature concealed this gap often through critiquing itself using "aside" and other techniques like structural analysis, character description, and thematic interpretation. Therefore, insofar the pre-modern fiction used such techniques for self-evaluation, it also stood in the position of metafiction.

But in the postmodern era metafiction is no longer a means for backgrounding the problems of realism. It is a mainstream of fiction on which great writers like Nabokov, Fowles, and Barth have worked as a major part of their literary concerns. And the purpose of the postmodernist metafiction writer is the creation of new experiences and the transcendence of literary and artistic discourses.

In "The Literature of Exhaustion" (1967), which was, in the time of its publication, an avant-gardist research, John Barth argues that in the first half of the 20th century the writers realized that literature was falling into a kind of pitfall, because whatever they might have written about had already been discussed by writers before them. Under the influence of this problem, Barth (and others) thought that literature had to start radically anew. For this purpose, he found himself concerned with the composition of a new kind of fiction which was no longer extrospective but was introspective, which was no longer externally directed but was internally directed. He thought that for the emergence of this kind of fiction the modernist literature had to make a turn inside, come circle, and then start zooming on its own finalities, problems, as its main themes and subjects. This vision, Barth materialized in the shape of a mobius strip which he introduced in "Frame Tale" as the first title in "Lost in the Funhouse."

Auster's rejection of detective genre is reinforced by exploiting the signifiers of a film noir. "Ghosts" and "Out of the Past" share a similar structure and plot. *Ghosts* is the account of Blue, an ex-private eye, who seeks a new detective game of hide and seek. But the result is disappointment and chagrin, and later at the end of the story he is turned to a puppet of Black who hires him and constantly spies on him. In a similar way, the film noir is the narrative of an ex-private eye who tries to start a new life but instead engages in some unexpected events which, in the end, lead to failure and dissatisfaction.

III. Conclusion

History and literature have always been intertwined, and both are inherent in the discourses of postmodernism. In the postmodern architecture this claim can be easily proved. It is also in line with Michel Foucault's assertion that postmodernism is self-consciously art within the archive. Historiographic metafiction is a quintessentially postmodern art form which affluently uses (literary) techniques like parody, paratextuality, and historical re-conceptualization.

In *New York Trilogy*, Paul Auster takes use of the advantages of historiographic metafiction like interdiscursivity and paratextualiry to distort our traditional perception of detective fiction, violate the relationship between the real and the imaginary, and add to the advantages of the postmodernist fiction. His interest in the discursiveness of the past places him within the context of historiographic metafiction. However, this does not mean that his version of history is similar to that of other postmodern writers like Robert Coover and E. L. Doctorow. Regarding the postmodernist view of history, there are similarities between Auster on the one hand and Coover and Doctorow on the other. However, whereas the two latter exploit parody for political ends, the former develops a stylized version of history which is subordinated to the aesthetic concerns of the text.

In his novel, Auster employs a number of narrative styles including intertextuality, parody, and paratextuality. Intertextuality is the embodiment of the institution of literature. It is the great text, the "intertext", to which all texts are members and in which they are all present. Also, it is the space where all texts are related to each other. In the postmodern era intertextuality seems to be a useful space for critical reading, because as the reader often wants to read voraciously to know everything, intertextuality can lead him from one text to another ad infinitum. However, it seems that "intertextuality" is too limited to explain the true nature of historiographic metafiction. Thus, it is not for nothing that Hutcheon proposes "interdiscursivity" as a more appropriate technique for the purpose, because it allows the postmodern novelist parodically to draw not only from literature and history, but from the movie, painting, and many other disciplines also. Parody is the imitation of an original literary work of a previous time in a way that the imitation preserves the form of the original work while the value of its meaning it minimizes. It is a style of metafictional writing where literature is engaged with itself. This is because through a ridicule of a previous work of grand literature, it creates a situation for critical evaluation by questioning the basic tenets of literary production. Paratext is the materials which make no part of a main text however come along it. In a literary text, it includes elements like the title, the preface, the epigram, and the afterword. These are other than a main narrative, but they play a role in the reader's appreciation of the narrative. Therefore, standing in a middle way between the text and the reader, they provide a certain mode of reading by orienting the reader's consciousness.

As a historiographic metafictionist, Auster experiments with history also. He uses history as a space of discursiveness, and in order to challenge the authenticity of objective facts and violate the boundary lines of fiction and reality. This he does mainly for achieving his philosophical ends among which are self-knowing and the problems of identity. The postmodern knowledge constantly changes. So, from Auster's perspective the rupture in detective genre indicates an impossibility to gain ultimate knowledge. His character Henry Dark testifies to the fabrication of historiographic metafiction in his work which both uses and repeals the veracity of history. It indicates that history is no longer the embodiment of truth about the past, but is constructional, subjective, and perspectival.

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Key Issues in Second Language Acquisition since the 1990s

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Abstract—**The research field of the second language acquisition has been increasingly widened in recent years, and emerged various kinds of new theories. This thesis summarizes foreign and domestic researches' key issues in this field since the 1990s according to theoretical framework of the second language research, then sorts out relative achievements from respective points of sociocutural theory; input, interaction and output in SLA; learner differences; external elements of learners, tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge and universal grammar and interlanguage representations, and looks into the future development, so as to make domestic learners better understand the current researches of this field and increase the general level of our foreign language education and teaching.**

Index Terms—**key issues, SLA, since the 1990s**

I. INTRODUCTION

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to a field of research which aims to make its own distinctive contribution to fundamental understandings and to study the workings of the human mind or the nature of language. It also has potential to inform the improvement of social practice in some other fields, most obviously in language learning and teaching. The second language acquisition research mainly focuses on the process and principles of second language acquisition after one has acquired the second language. Being an independent subject, the second language acquisition rises during the end of the 1960s and the beginning of the 1970s with the promotion of interlanguage theory, and boasts a history of more than 30 years. Ellis (1994) has categorized the research into four parts: what will second language learners get; how to acquire the second language; what the differences of this acquisition between different persons; how the class teaching influences the second language acquisition. On the broad sense this research covers not only the second language acquisition or the loss of children and adults in the natural or teaching environment, but it also covers dialect's acquisition and loss. And at the same time, they also believe the language learning is a very complex cognitive process which is unique to human being and this research can help to reveal the working principles of human's brain and characteristics of its intellectual activities. In recent years, its field has been constantly enlarged, emerged various theories and doctrines, and got more and more scientific and diversified research methods and means. Since we get the chance to view its developing process and current conditions again, it will be significant for us to not only deepen our recognition to the feature of this subject, but also scientifically analyze the problems encountered in the language teaching practice as well as make decisions.

II. KEY ISSUES

A. Studies on External Factors of Learners

External factors of learners mainly refer to the environment that can influence the second language learning. It includes the social environment, home environment, school environment, class environment, and so on. Siegel generalizes five kinds of social environment of second language learning: a. two language dominance (such as Turkish learn German in Germany); b. foreign language (such as Japanese learn English in Japan); c. multi-language existence (such as German learn French in Switzerland); d. institution (such as the use of English in India) e. minority language (such as English speakers learn Welsh). Researchers are interested in external factors and they want to dig out how the social environment influences the motivation of learners. In terms of teaching environment, Krashen's non-intervention position believes that the second language learning is an unconscious process. Formal teaching plays a limited role in second language learning, which just provides understandable language input.

In recent years, one of the heated topics that the researchers focus on is language socialization. This concept originated in the study on children language learning in the 1960s and 1970s. Language socialization regards language, cultural connotation and social behaviors as a three-in-one continuous process. Watson-Gegeo and Nielsen (2003) summarize the latest developments of language socialization since the 90's, such as theories and methods of language socialization, the phenomenon of language socialization and problems or shortcomings in these studies. Besides, they also look ahead the future of language socialization in 10 years.

At present, another tendency of second language learning is research on sociocultural theory, which is a theory about human cultural psychology and proposed by a psychologist named Vygosky of the former Soviet Union. Some scholars

such as Lantolf (2000) discuss the problem that the learners in the zone of proximal development through some auxiliary work such as scaffolding to learn language and develop cognition. Johnson (2004) believes that Vygotsky's social cultural theory provides theoretical support to widen the field of second language learning and he also believes that cognition and society construct the new mode for the second language learning.

B.   Sociocutural Theory

1. Mediation

The core concept of Vygotsky's sociocutural theory is that human's advanced cognitive function mediates the relationship between individuals and social material world by symbols which are products of social culture. The symbols include figures, computing system, music, artistic achievements as well as literary works, especially language. Through social interactions, the language symbols begin to play a role as mental tools in behaviors. Therefore, the sociocutural theory believes that the biological function that constitutes the basis of human thinking can not explain our ability about regulating of mental activities consciously. The gaining of this kind of ability is a product of cultural construction, especially a result of language internalization.

2. Internalization

Another core concept of sociocutural theory is internalization. Internalization refers to a process that social members transform the symbol products into mind products to mediate their own psychological activities. Therefore, the language symbols have double functions, which can be regarded as communication unit as well as thinking unit. On this point, humans' communication and thinking round completeness through language symbols.

Vygotsky believes that the form of internalization is through imitation mechanism. Vygotsky points out that the key point of internalization is to possess the ability of imitating intentional activities. However, the imitation here is not the same as the concept in behavioristic psychology and methodology. It emphasizes the reasoning process of transforming from outside psychological platform to inside psychological platform actively and creatively on the initial basis.

3. Object-regulation, other-regulation and self-regulation.

Regulation is a form of mediation. When the children learn a language, the function of words is not just to isolate the concrete objects and actions, but to blend the feelings of creatures into cultural feelings and concepts. The development of thinking and actions in early childhood depend on the language of adults. Children can learn their language to mediate their behaviors through taking part in adults' or elder children's communication activities. This kind of development has three stages: Object-regulation, other-regulation and self-regulation. Object-regulation means that the individuals are in the direct control and influence of surroundings. Other-regulation means that children's thinking and behaviors depend on adults' language. Self-regulation means that children's thinking and behaviors rely on their own language. The social culture believes that, children's development of cognition goes through 3 stages: Object-regulation, other-regulation and self-regulation. In these three stages, the function of language goes through social language, self-centered language, individual utterance and intrinsic spoken language.

4. The Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding

The Zone of Proximal Development plays an important role in the development of psychology, pedagogy, applied linguistics and second language learning. It refers to the gap between the ability of solving problems independently and the potential ability of solving problems with the instruct of adults or the cooperation with a good companion.

About 30 years ago, the school of Vygotsky, such as Jerome Bruner develops the concept of scaffolding. It refers to the cooperation with any adults and children, experts and new hands. Donato also proposed furtherly that scaffolding can also be found between companions, such as learners. It shares the same way with scaffolding between experts and new hands (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). According to sociocutural theory, we study on how the new language internalizes in the social interactions such as scaffolding. Though the conversation of scaffolding among native speakers, experts and companions, people can have a master of new content, which will expose the subtle variations of two language system of the learners.

At present, there are a lot of abstracts which introduces and comments about the sociocutural theory from the perspective of psychology and pedagogy, but there are few abstracts which study on sociocutural theory and two languages learning from the perspective of second language learning. The abstracts mainly focus on the introduction and comment about the theory. On one hand, they lack a systematic and comprehensive elaboration and reflection about the core concept, related concepts, methodology, empirical study and second language teaching. On the other hand, there are few related empirical studies. The sociocutural theory also makes influence on the domestic second language learning, which undoubtly will provide a new perspective for the researchers and educators to know and think the language learning phenomenon. However, just as professor Wen Qiufang said, "Society is a new format for second language learning. We shall not pursue for the new blindly because the choice of the format should based on the research purposes." (Wen Qiufang, 2008b, p.18-25). Therefore, firstly, we should have a comprehensive and deep understanding of the intrinsic nature about the relationship between sociocutural theory and second language learning. We should also be critical to understand the innovation and shortage. Then, the research purposes should follow, not precede, research format, or it will put the cart before the horse. At last, we should carry out some empirical and practical studies based on the characteristics of domestic second language learning.

C.   Input, Interaction and Output in SLA

Input refers to what is available to the learner, while intake refers to what is taken in by the learner. The precise developmental contribution of the language used to address L2 researchers on account of the Input Hypothesis which is proposed by Krashen. The Input Hypothesis holds the view that it is indeed necessary for the second language acquisition to exposure to comprehensible input. In early 1980s, Michael Long became the first person who proposed the theory. It is the Interaction Hypothesis. The Interaction Hypothesis is just an extension or supplement in the field of the second language acquisition as a part of the Input Hypothesis. Long's Interaction Hypothesis emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input but claims that it is most effective when it is modified through the negotiation of meanings (Ellis, 1994). In his view, Long holds that greater attention should be paid to the interaction in which learners are engaged so as to understand much more fully the nature and usefulness of input for second language acquisition. These interactions should not be seen simply as a one-directional source of target language input, feeding into the learner's presumed internal acquisition device. It has often been remarked that while the input is paraphrased, recycled and queried, input will have greater potential usefulness in its field (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Long places emphasis on the significance of the interactional modifications applied by both participants of the interaction, which he thinks promote the comprehension as well as the communication process. What's more, in his point of view, interactive input is more important than non-interactive input (Ellis, 1994). Michael Long's Interaction Hypothesis, which has advantages as well as disadvantages like most of the theories. Although the study of the Interaction Hypothesis has aroused mixed results and a large number of heated discussions, it is necessary for the researchers to make a comprehensive understanding and explore of its advantages, and evaluate its demerits carefully. If it is possible, then the researchers should make some possible improvements.

The Output Hypothesis, which is proposed by Swain (1998), makes a great number of claims that go beyond this "practice function of output, and which have to do with the development of the interlanguage system, and not only increased efficiency in using it." It appears that output in Swain's views is dynamic; Output not only refers to the language produced by the learners, but also the process of producing the target language. Swain (1998) advances three functions for learners' output:(1)the "noticing/triggering" function, or what might be referred to as the consciousness-raising role; (2)the hypothesis-testing function; and (3)the metalinguistic function, or what might be referred to as its "reflective role". Swain pays more attention to the "reflective" role of output, and she has concentrated largely on the possible contribution of metalinguistic talk between peers to L2 development. However, other researchers have concentrated largely to link learners' opportunities for output to L2 development. Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) made a small-scale study to make an investigation the effect of output in the development of English past tense. They spared no pains to encourage English L2 learners to modify their output relying on clarification requests (Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993). Izumi made a larger study to explore the potential of output in promoting English L2 students' learning of the counterfactual condition in English (Wen Qiufang, 2010).

The Input, Output and Interaction Hypothesis make the empirical research popular. However, each of them can't solve the difficulties alone.

The researchers should connect the three hypothesizes and intertwine with the development of more comprehensive models of the learner-internal L2 learning process.

D. Learner Differences

Second language acquisition research generally refers to learners who start to learn another language or the additional language, at least some years after they have started to acquire their first language. The learners may learn the additional language formally and systematically in a classroom setting; and the learner may learn the additional language through informal social contact, through migration, through their daily work or other social forces. Therefore, L2 learners may be children, or adults. They are likely to learn the target language in schooling; they are likely to pick it up in the playground or in the workplace. In the meanwhile, learning a highly localized language can help them to become insider in a local community and give them access to economic and public life. As a matter of fact, in the first part of the 21st century, English become the most important target language. It is commonly believed that there are about three hundred and seventy-five million individuals who regard English as their first language. On the other hand, there are billion or so people who use English as a second language.

As far as the factor of the learner is concerned, there are three main points of views among second language acquisition researchers: (1) the linguistic perspective, which is related to build language structures and process within learners' mind; (2) the social psychological perspective, which is involved with model individual differences among learners and the shortcomings of the learners' learning success; (3) the socio-cultural perspective, which is related to the learners who act as members of social groups and networks and social beings. However, there is some controversy among researchers on the question of age. For example, Do child and adult L2 learners learn in similar ways? Long (1990) proposed and explained the balance of evidence in favor of the existence of such a cut-off point. Singleton in 1999 proposed the idea that "younger = better in the long run". And many researchers agree with his idea.

The researchers will be easily aware that second language learners will show their performance that they will follow a common developmental route by the means of observation. Each of the L2 learners achieves different degree of success. Social psychologists have made it clear that learners have different learning outcomes because of individual differences among diverse learners.

E. Tacit Knowledge and Explicit Knowledge

Tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge have become the focus which scholars researched on in the past 30 years (Wen Qiufang, 2010). If learning is seen as a process, the result of learning is knowledge, which is stored in brain and is the part of memory. However, the implicit learning produces explicit knowledge, which is implicit memory in the brain (Wen Qiufang, 2010). Bialystok (1979) argues that the content of the explicit knowledge and implicit language knowledge is same, which refers to the target knowledge that learners should master, including pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary and other aspects. And the grammar knowledge is considered to be the most important part of language knowledge. Explicit knowledge is what the learners can realize and speak out; while tacit knowledge is intuition knowledge that learners can express. Studies have shown that second language proficiency mainly depends on tacit knowledge (Ellis, 2006). The theory of SLA has been trying to explain how learners develop their tacit knowledge, and even thinks second language proficiency refers to the development of tacit knowledge. So the idea that how explicit knowledge can be converted into tacit knowledge has arisen the researchers' attention. Researchers have put forward different or even opposite views, for example, non-interface position; strong-interface position; weak-interface position. On the other hand, many empirical studies have shown that learners' explicit knowledge is related to the scores of second language proficiency test. Knowledge of explicit and implicit grammar can predict the level of second language proficiency (Ellis, 2006). And it proves that explicit teaching is superior to tacit teaching in foreign language learning. In recent years, the study of the subject mainly focuses on the relationship between explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge, and especially focuses the discussion whether explicit knowledge could "convert" into tacit knowledge. The researchers also study the correlation between the implicit/explicit teaching and second language proficiency, but the study lacks empirical research on the application of the explicit grammar knowledge. Whether tacit knowledge is transformed from explicit knowledge, and how the explicit knowledge affects the path of the second language acquisition. All these questions are worth to be further studied and discussed.

F. Universal Grammar and Interlanguage Representations

In the early 70s and 80s, morpheme acquisition became the hot issue of second language acquisition research. The researcher investigated and analyzed the morpheme acquisition of learners in order to find the natural development paths of interlanguage representations. Dulay made a survey on morpheme acquisition, which triggered a series of related research (Dulay, 1974). Learners obeyed the natural order when they acquired the language structure. In the 1980s, the variability of universal grammar became a new hot spot. According to Chomsky's universal grammar theory, all the language all over the world had some common language principle and language parameter unvalued, which is the baby's initial state (Chomsky, 1965). In the 1980s and 1990s, most of the research about second language acquisition was based on the theory structure of universal grammar. It was the first time that the researchers combined the linguistic study and second language acquisition study, which became one of the most important fields of second language acquisition.

In the 1990's, the researchers began to study the property of interlanguage representations. There are two opposite views towards the problem of interlanguage representations' initial state. Schwartz and Sprouse were in favor of the Full Transfer Hypothesis, who held the standpoint that interlanguage representations corresponded to the character of natural language (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1996). On the contrary, Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1996), who supported the Minimal Trees Hypothesis, thought that interlanguage representations were different to natural language in some basic aspects. According to the Full Transfer Hypothesis, mother language grammar made up the initial state of interlanguage representations. But universal grammar restricted interlanguage representations. However, the Minimal Trees Hypothesis believed that there was big difference between interlanguage grammar and the grammar of adult native language. The initial state of interlanguage representations only exited in lexical category, for example, noun, verb and so on. And it was lack of functional category. As a result, according to the Minimal Trees Hypothesis interlanguage grammar existed great defects, which didn't restrict by universal grammar.

The study of interlanguage representations on the basis of universal grammar have become one of the major trends in studying second language acquisition. What's more, nowadays the study is ascendant. Just like what White said, universal grammar was not a kind of learning theory, which could explain the properties and characteristics of interlanguage representations only by combining with other theories (White, 2003). With the development of cognitive science and the perfection of research method, the researcher will have common view on role of the universal grammar playing in second language acquisition.

III. Conclusion

Second language acquisition has the prospect of multidisciplinary, which will deeply widen its cooperation with other areas. At present, the study of second language acquisition has much to do with philosophy, linguistics, psychology, pedagogy, sociology, cognitive psychology and so on. The visual angle of second language acquisition will further expand the scope of its research. The theory system and research method of second language acquisition plays an important role in second language teaching and learning. In addition, it is of great significance to second language reform. As a result, it is necessary for the researchers to study the key issues in second language acquisition. Researchers have a continuing responsibility to make their findings and their interpretations of SLA theories as

intelligible as possible to a much wider professional audience of language teachers. This thesis describes the main problems mainly from five perspectives since the 1990s, including sociocutural theory; input, interaction and output in SLA; learner differences; external elements of learners, tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge and universal grammar and interlanguage representations. This thesis puts forward drawbacks and looks into the future development. This thesis makes domestic learners better understand the current researches of this field and increase the general level of our foreign language education and teaching. For domestic scholars to better understand the social culture under the theory of second language acquisition research status play a guiding role, the overall level of China's foreign language education and teaching have bigger boost. At present, the study of second language acquisition theory is various, and its theory has different objectives, different fields theory paradox. Therefore, it is necessary to research on second language acquisition, to review and summarize the important problem to the significance of further researches.

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An Exploration into the Relationship between EFL Learners' Self-regulation and Willingness to Communicate

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Abstract—This study investigated the association between Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and Self-Regulation (SR) among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. In order to fulfill this purpose, male and female EFL learners (n = 520), between the ages of 19 and 34 (M_{age} = 26), majoring in English Language Teaching, English Translation, and English Literature at Islamic Azad University, Fars Province, were selected via random selection. These participants were asked to fill in two questionnaires: WTC Scale developed by McCroskey and Baer (1985) and SR Questionnaire developed by Brown, Miller, and Lawendowski (1999). The collected data were initially checked as to meeting the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Owing to the violation of the assumptions of linear correlation, Spearman's rank-order correlation was utilized to examine the way SR and WTC are associated. The analysis outcomes suggested a significant direct correlation between SR and WTC, ρ = .56, n = 520, p< .05, standing for a large effect size and a very small confidence interval. In addition, running a Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that there exists a statistically significant difference in WTC scores based on the level of SR, divided into three categories through employing the SD, $\chi^2(2)$ = 157.843, p = 0.000. Subsequently, a post-hoc comparison using the Dwass-Steel-Critchlow-Fligner test reflected significant differences among the three groups on WTC scores. The study concludes with a discussion on the results and making a number of suggestions for further research.

Index Terms— individual factors, self-regulation, willingness to communicate

I. INTRODUCTION

Research findings in the area of second language acquisition have emphasized the significant role that learners play in the process of languagelearning (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Zare, 2012). Most of the researchers have also gone through deliberate changes from focusing on teaching paradigms toward exploring individual characteristics (Carson & Longhini, 2002; Fahim & Zaker, 2014; Oxford & Anderson, 1995; Zaker, 2015). In the same vein, Dörnyei (2005) stresses the significance of studying and exploring the individual differences (e.g. creativity, autonomy, self-regulation, self-esteem, learning styles, and personality types) which are believed to play a major role in the process of language learning.

Self-Regulation (SR)

SR according toPintrich (2000) is "an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment" (p. 453). Moreover, from Zimmerman's (2000) broader viewpoint, the term "SR" is applied to "self-generated thought, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals" (p. 14).

Pertinent to the context of learning, some modern scholars define the concept of SR as an innate capacity that fuels learners' efforts for searching and applying personalized strategic mechanisms which might enhance the effectiveness of their Second Language (L2) learning process (Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006). SR is believed to enable learners to direct their own learning process (Tseng et al., 2006), set more relevant academic goals, learn more effectively, and achieve higher levels of success indifferent academic settings (Butter & Winne, 1995; Zimmerman & Risenberg, 1997). According to Schunk and Zimmerman (1998), learners with high levels of SR exhibit more active participation and lead a more efficient learning process in many different ways; this affects organizing and rehearsing the to-be-learned information, the impression they have about their own capacities and the value of learning, and many other relevant factors.

Boekaerts grouped the functions of SR into two categories with six elements, each representing one type of prior knowledge. In this model, the focus was on cognitive strategies in the research on self-regulated learning. Schunk (2001) formed a process model of SR that contains a three-phase cyclical nature of learning state as well as the accumulation of successive learning states regarding to the process. Each of these learning states contains three cyclical phases that

affect each other while causing an impact on the subsequent learning state. In the same vein, Heckhausen&Kuhl (1985) used labels for naming these phrases which are: pre-action phase, action phase, and post-action phase. Schmitz, Klug, and Schmidt (2011)argue that the pre-action phase can pave the way for learning.In this phase, the assigned task and the situation are the source from which the students set goals, develop different attitudes towards learning, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to teach, and develop self-efficacy for managing tasks (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

One of the important concepts that might seem related to learners' autonomous functioning is WTC (Yashima, 2002).The concept of WTC was first coined by McCroskey and his colleagues (McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990; Zakahi & McCroskey, 1989). Recently, WTC is emerging as a concept to account for individuals' L1 and L2 communication (Yashima, 2002). However, WTC in L2 was translated into a context-bound factor which refers to "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2"(MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clement, & Noels, 1998, p. 547).

Some researchers (e.g. MacIntyre et al., 1998) have favored the idea that promoting WTC in language learning should be considered a fundamental goal because of its facilitative role in supporting autonomous learning and real-world capacities. MacIntyre et al. (1998) further add that WTC in an L2 context is a multifaceted factor which is influenced by factors like one's personality (e.g. being extroverted or introverted), degree of self-confidence, enthusiasm for using the L2, and attitude toward the L2 culture and the communication context.

WTC in an L2 context is believed to assist language learning as it can increase the number of opportunities for using authentic L2 (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Conrod, 2001)which is a crucial element for language development (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011).Moreover, from a sociocultural perspective, it has been stated that WTC can assist the realization of language learning's social and political goals. As a result, promoting WTC should be regarded as one of the major goals of L2 education (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

Based on the points stated, there seems to be a theoretical association between SR and WTC which are believed to affect the process of learning. This point justifies the attempt to systematically investigate the interrelationship between these two factors. In order to accomplish this objective, the following research questions were posed:

Q_1: *Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' self-regulation and willingness to communicate?*
Q_2: *Do EFL learners' self-regulation levels have any significant effect on their willingness to communicate?*

II. METHOD

Participants

To fulfill the objective of this study, five hundred and twenty undergraduate males and females EFL learners with the age range of 19 to 34 years old ($M_{age} = 26$), who were randomly selected, participated in this study. They were majoring in English Translation, English Language Teaching and English Literature at Islamic Azad University, Fars Province.

Instrumentation

In order to accomplish the purpose of the study, the following two instruments were utilized:

Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ)

The SRQ was developed by Brown, Miller, and Lawendowski (1999). Based on the findings of Kanfer (1970a, 1970b), Miller and Brown (1991) formulated a seven-step model of SR as a) getting pertinent information, b) appraising the information and juxtaposing it with norms, c) beginning to make changes, d) looking for possible options, e) preparing a plan, f) executing the plan, and g) evaluating the efficacy of the plan.

The SRQ was developed as a first attempt to assess these seven sub–processes of SR, as articulated by Miller and Brown (1991), through self-report. The SRQ is a 63-item instrument whose items were developed to mark each of the seven sub–processes, forming seven rationally-derived subscales of the SRQ. Each subscale has 9 items, andit has been recommended to use the total sum score to estimate the SR capacity. The allocated time for answering the questionnaire is 65 minutes. The participants answer the items by indicating one of the five choices ranging from a score of 1 to a score of 5 on a Likert-type scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. It has been suggested that the scores above 239 demonstrate high level of SR, scores from 214 to 238 show intermediate level of SR, and scores less than 213 show low SR level.

According to Aubrey, Brown, and Miller (1994), the SRQ has a very high degree of reliability. They administered the SRQ twice among 83 individuals (the second administration after 48 hours).They found that that the test-retest reliability index for the SRQ was high ($r = .94$, $p < .0001$), supporting the reliability of the instrument. In this study, the reliability of the SRQ was estimated to be 0.85 using the Cronbach's alpha.

Willingness to Communicate (WTC) Scale

The WTC Scale, developed by McCroskey (1992), was utilized to gather the data on participants' WTC. The WTC scale is believed to directly measure one's predisposition toward welcoming or not welcoming the initiation of communication and interaction. This direct measurement is based on assuming a conscious awareness about tendencies on the side of test takers.

This scale has 20 items which can yield a total score of 20 to 100. The items are pertinent to dealing with strangers, acquaintances, and friends in four communication contexts (public speaking, meeting, group discussion, and interpersonal). Participants respond by determining the percentage of time they would choose to communicate with the

abovementioned interlocutors and situations. They choose options ranging from *never* (1 score) to *always* (5 scores). The allocated time for answering the questionnaire is 15 minutes.

Based on the studies conducted by McCroskey, the estimate of the internal reliability of the total scores on the WTC scale range from .86 to .95.McCroskey (1992) argued that reliability estimates using data collected in other cultural contexts have also confirmed the reliability of the scale. In this study, the estimated reliability index of the WTC scale was 0.84 using the Cronbach's alpha.

The results of the extensive research indicate the predictive validity of the instrument. Regarding the WTC scale, it seems reasonable to expect one's performance on the test to be related to their real communication behavior. Chan and McCroskey's (1987) study on three college classes revealed that there is a direct relationship between participants' WTC scores and their actual participation in the classrooms.

III. PROCEDURE

Before administrating the questionnaires, the original SR questionnaire was piloted. It was distributed among 30 students of the undergraduate males and females EFL learners. They were randomly selected and were majoring in English Translation, English Language Teaching and English Literature at Islamic Azad University, Fars Province. These preliminary participants found 15 items (1, 3, 6, 10, 12, 15, 19, 20, 22, 25, 26, 31, 34, 48, & 55) of the original version of the SR questionnaire difficult to answer and asked so many questions about the meaning of the items. Therefore, to avoid any misunderstanding regarding cultural differences and the lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, the researcher modified these 15 items and made them understandable for the participants. The initial participants of this study were800 male and female students majoring in English Translation, English Language Teaching and English Literature at Islamic Azad University, Fars Province. Before administrating the questionnaires, the participants were fully briefed on the process of completing the questionnaires. Then, the two questionnaires of SR and WTC were administrated to 800 participants. In every session of administration, a length of 80 minutes was devoted to administrating these questionnaires. Thence, the completed questionnaires were collected and scored. From the initial 800 administered questionnaires, a number of 520 sets, properly answered for the two questionnaires, were considered for statistical analyses pertinent to the stated research questions.

IV. CONCLUSION

Before discussing the results, the internal consistency of the two instruments was estimated at the outset of the statistical analyses. The following tables report the internal consistency of the utilized instruments.

TABLE 1:
THE INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF THE SELF-REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.850	.854	63

TABLE 2:
THE INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF THE WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE QUESTIONNAIRE

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.838	.845	20

As demonstrated above, the results indicated that the questionnaires of SR and WTC had high degrees of reliability as computed by Cronbach's alpha coefficient (0.85 & 0.84 respectively). Therefore, it was legitimate to subsequently explore other features of the data and take the next step.

Testing the PreliminaryAssumptions

In order to assess the normality of the distribution of scores, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run, results of which are presented in Tables 3 and 4.

TABLE 3:
TESTS OF NORMALITY OF TOTAL SCORES OF WTC AND SR

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
WTC	.089	520	.000	.971	520	.000
SR	.082	520	.000	.937	520	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

TABLE 4:
TESTS OF NORMALITY BASED ON SELF-REGULATION LEVELS

Tests of Normality							
		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	SR Level	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
WTC	1.00	.076	138	.050	.985	138	.145
	2.00	.071	230	.007	.979	230	.002
	3.00	.111	152	.000	.959	152	.000
SR	1.00	.243	138	.000	.726	138	.000
	2.00	.110	230	.000	.958	230	.000
	3.00	.234	152	.000	.829	152	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction							

As presented in Tables 3 and 4, the Sig. values of the scores are less than .05, except for one case. Therefore, the test suggests that the assumption of normality is violated. Due to the violation of the assumptions of normality of distribution, non-parametric formulas had to be employed in order to test the hypotheses. The following sections address this issue.

The First Research Question

As stated earlier, the first driving force behind conducting this study was to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' SR and WTC in a systematic fashion. Therefore, the first research question of the study was:

Q$_1$: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' self-regulation and willingness to communicate?

To answer this question, the data were analyzed using the Spearman's rank order coefficient of correlation. Table 5 shows the result of this analysis.

TABLE 5:
SPEARMAN'S CORRELATION BETWEEN SELF-REGULATION AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

Correlations			WTC	SR
Spearman's rho	WTC	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.564[**]
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	520	520
	SR	Correlation Coefficient	.564[**]	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	520	520

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results obtained showed a significant and positive correlation between the two variables, $\rho = .56$, $n = 520$, $p < .05$. This signified a large effect size supplemented by a very small confidence interval (0.503 – 0.619).

The Second Research Question

The second goal of this study was to inspect the way SR levels interact with and affect WTC among EFL learners. Therefore, the following question was posed as the second research question of this study:

Q$_2$: Do EFL learners' self-regulation levels have any significant effect on their willingness to communicate?

In order to answer this research question, a Kruskal-Wallis test was run. The results of this analysis are presented in Tables 6 and Table 7.

TABLE 6:
MEAN RANK SCORES OF WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE BASED ON SELF-REGULATION LEVELS

Ranks			
	SR Level	N	Mean Rank
WTC	Low	138	128.13
	Mid	230	286.64
	High	152	341.12
	Total	520	

TABLE 7:
KRUSKAL WALLIS TEST

Test Statistics[a,b]	
	WTC
Chi-Square	157.843
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: SR Level

As reported in Tables 6 and 7, there exists a statistically significant difference in WTC scores based on the level of SR, divided into three categories through employing the SD, $\chi^2(2) = 157.843$, $p = 0.000$. The mean rank scores of SR were 128.13 for the

low-SR level, 286.64 for the mid-SR level, and 341.12 for the high-SR level. Accordingly, the results suggest that high-SR group shows the highest mean rank score followed by mid- and low-SR groups.

The above-mentioned results confirmed that EFL learners' SR levels have a significant effect on their WTC. However, a post-hoc comparison test should be run to compare the groups two by two. This was achieved through running a Dwass-Steel-Critchlow-Fligner test. Table 8 shows the results.

TABLE 8:
DWASS-STEEL-CRITCHLOW-FLIGNER TEST FOR ALL PAIRWISE COMPARISONS

Group(i)	Group(j)	Statistic	p-Value
Low	Mid	38.668	0.000
Low	High	20.228	0.000
Mid	High	-14.344	0.000

According to the results reported in Table 8, it can be concluded that:

a. There was a significant difference between the low-SR group and mid-SR group on WTC scores (*Test statistic = 38.668, p = 0.0005*);

b. There was a significant difference between the low-SR group and high-SR group on WTC scores (*Test statistic = 20.228, p = 0.0005*); and

c. There was a significant difference between the mid-SR group and high-SR group on WTC scores (*Test statistic = -14.344, p = 0.0005*).

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The data analysis reported in this study attempted to investigate the possible relationship between EFL learners' SR and WTC. The obtained results suggested that there was a significant and positive relationship between SR and WTC. Moreover, it wasindicated that there were significant differences in WTC scores among the different levels of SR.

The results of the statistical analyses in the current study indicated that there is a significant correlation between the WTC and SR, $\rho = .56$, $n = 520$, $p < .05$, standing for a large effect size and a very small confidence interval. In addition, running a Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that there exists a statistically significant difference in WTC scores based on the level of SR, divided into three categories through employing the SD, $\chi^2(2) = 157.843$, $p = 0.000$. To come up with a plain idea and to provide pedagogical implications, the discussion of these results would be of use.

The significant observed correlation between WTC and SR scores is supported by the findings of Soureshjani (2013) who explored the effect of SR and the degree of WTC on EFL learners' oral presentation performance. The sample of the study consisted of 90 advanced-level EFL learners, and the obtained results indicated a strong and positive relationship between the SR of language learners and their WTC. However, Soureshjani (2013) reports a significant difference between SR and WTC in predicting their oral presentation performance, WTC as the better predictor in comparison with SR.

Regarding the fact that the sample pool of the present study was much bigger than the one employed in Soureshjani (2013), it might be argued that this positive relationship tends to be observed in other contexts and with other individuals. However, an important issue is the positive impact of the number of participants on the degree of observed correlation (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2010). As a result, results should be interpreted with caution.

Also, in a recent qualitative study, Riasati (2012) explored Iranian EFL learners' perception of factors influencing their willingness to speak in language classrooms. To this end, semi-structured interview classrooms were conducted with seven language learners learning English as a foreign language in a private language institute to discover such factors. The interview results showed that a number of factors such as task type, topic of discussion, interlocutor, teacher, class atmosphere, personality and self-perceived speaking ability contribute to willingness to speak. It was also found that students' fear of evaluation and fear of correctness of speech reduced their willingness to speak in class. These findings, especially the section dealing with individuals' self-perceived ability, seem to be pertinent to the findings of the present study.

The findings are also in line with that of Khaki (2013). Khaki (2013) investigated the relationship between learner autonomy, which is directly related to the components of SR (Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014, 2015), and WTC among Iranian EFL learners. Khaki (2013) found that there is a direct and strongly significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' WTC and learning autonomy ($r = .55$, $p = .025$). Therefore, it can be argued, although hypothetically, that SR and learning autonomy are interrelated and codependent. However, further systematic studies are required to confirm this notion.

Finally, running a Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that there exists a statistically significant difference in WTC scores based on the level of SR; high-SR group showed the highest mean rank score which was followed by mid- and low-SR groups. Observing this significant difference emphasizes the significant role of SR in predicting EFL learners' WTC.

The findings of this study are useful for EFL teachers to encourage their students and teach them to self-regulate themselves and improve their ways of learning. This can help teachers to reduce their workload and also can help learners to increase their involvement in classroom activities. At the same time, if a teacher pays attention to all members of the class, encourages everybody to take part in classroom debates and activities, and gives enough time to

students to participate, s/he can considerably enhance the students' WTC. Lisa (2006) argues that a student-centered approach is much more effective than a teacher-oriented one; while enhancing learners' WTC, the teacher's attitude and teaching style can dramatically influence learners' willingness to participate. With regard to the findings of the study, teachers can provide students with helpful guidelines to inform them of the ways through which WTC and SR can contribute to learning more independently, lastingly, and effectively. Moreover, another important role of the teacher in this regard is creating a situation in which everybody feels relaxed and expresses what they have in their minds. Making such a stress-free environment can considerably contribute to an increase in learners' degree of WTC (Sun, 2008).

Based on the fact that language learning is a multifaceted issue (Stebbins, 1995), "not only language teachers, but also language learners are required to play their roles properly in order to facilitate and optimize this complicated process" (Nosratinia, Saveiy, & Zaker, 2014, p. 1090). As a result, the findings of this study carry a number of implications for L2language learners. First of all, SR plays a salient role in the oral performance quality of language learners (Souresjani, 2013). So, improving WTC by the use of SR may have a great and significant role in helping learners to be autonomous language learners. Moreover, possessing higher levels of SR may enable learners to reflect on their language abilities and be more independent. Therefore, EFL learners should be looking for opportunities to monitor and assess their own progress and to focus on their own learning (Harris, 1997).

Classroom atmosphere can either facilitate or hinder learners' participation in class activities. Although, it is believed that it is the responsibility of the teacher to create a friendly and positive atmosphere, EFL learners should also attempt to contribute to creating such an atmosphere by being supportive, understanding, and friendly toward other learners and the teacher. Indeed, in such a learning environment students feel free to speak up, ask and answer questions, challenge the teacher and other classmates, and have a more active participation in class discussions. Creating a sense of cooperation rather than competition can ease using the language (Zou, 2004).

Syllabus designers as providers of a great portion of the language learning setting should take L2 learners' individual differences into consideration, especially their WTC and SR. L2 curriculum developers are recommended to engage in a cooperative process, involvingL2 teachers and learners, where it would be easier to promote WTC and SR through designing appropriate materials and activities. Moreover, when relevant training hints or motives regarding WTC and SR are appropriately added in different parts of the materials, L2 teachers would be supplied with strong tools for optimizing language learning tasks; moreover, L2 learners would benefit from participating in more learner-relevant tasks and activities.

The present study intended to answer two research questions regarding the relationship between EFL learners' SR and WTC. However, there were some limitations which could limit the generalizability of the findings. Taking into account these factors, the subsequent recommendations are presented for further research. Based on the existing difference amongst different age groups' mental and internal capacities (Nosratinia& Zaker, 2014), similar studies could be carried out among other age cohorts in order to inspect the generalizability of the findings of the present study. Language proficiency is another factor which can be included in further studies. Also, the same research can be carried out to assess the effect of WTC and SR on language skills and sub-skills. Furthermore, it is suggested to replicate this study in a way that the number of male and female participants is equal. Therefore, gender might not act as an intervening variable.

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A Coh-metrix Study of Writings by Majors of Mechanic Engineering in the Vocational College

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Abstract—Through Co-Metrix analyses of the writings of the mechanic vocational students, some findings are as follows: First, the students prefer to use more concrete and familiar content words. Second, they seldom use pronouns and parallel structures, as a result, the writing is not central to the main idea and not coherent enough. Third, those in favor of simple sentences tend to prefer similar sentence structures and repetitive tenses and aspects. Fourth, they prefer to use overlapping pronouns and content words. Finally, the students use hypernymous verbs can make the writing more diverse in sentence structure. In summarizing the findings, the paper also gives some suggestions on how to improve the writing proficiency of the students.

Index Terms—English exposition, corpus, Co-metrix, writing proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Coh-Metrix is a computational tool that produces indices of the linguistic and discourse representations of a text. Coh-Metrix was primarily used to improve reading comprehension in classrooms. Then it is used to calculate the coherence texts on many different measures and to study vocabulary (Graesser et al., 2004, 2011, 2013).

Duncan (2008) uses Coh-Metrix to provide a computational linguistic analysis of the English-language biomedical research abstracts and posit how these conventions differ among native and nonnatice speakers of English. Chen (2009) finds that, when writing on tasks with richer contextual features, students tended to better display their writing ability; test-takers who were more proficient tended to write more fluently, to use more complex syntactic structures, to demonstrate greater linguistic accuracy, to adapt to audience traits and expectations more sensffively, and to achieve their writing purpose more effectively; and more proficient students tended to be aware of the genre and the style of their writing.

Qin. & Gu (2011) finds that topic familiarity exerts no significant effect on the overall use of connectives, yet causes a significant difference in both referential indices measure and lexical repetition measure. Wang (2011) finds that textual features determines L2 writing professioncy with a percentile of 25.6 coefficient of determination.

Chen & Du (2012) finds postgraduates improved significantly in lexical difficulty degree, lexical chunks and complexity of sentences, but improved little in cohesion in their writings.

Li (2012) finds there is a relationship between discourse coherence and writing level for the Chinese university students, but there is no significant difference between high level group and low level group. Du & Cai (2013) reports a Coh-Metrix-based study of the linguistic features that influence the argumentative writing quality of English majors in China, and finds that readability lexical frequency and cohesion are correlated with the writing score to some degree.

He (2013) finds that high frequency words are used more often in TEM-8 than in IELTS, while low frequency words are less densely used in TEM-8 than in IELTS.

The literature review above shows that Coh-Metrix study in China is mainly focused on university undergraduates' and postgraduates' reading and writing. With regard to such a case, this study aims at China's vocational college students' writing, especially that of the mechanic engineering majors:

a) What linguistic features the English writings by China's vocational college students may display.

b) How those linguistic features contribute to the writing professioncy of the students.

c) Pedagogical implications of the findings.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Sampling: The corpora concerned are based on the 91 pieces of students' writings, randomly sampled among the 600 pieces of writings from the placement test for freshmen majors of printing mechanic engineering in Shanghai Publishing & Printing College in September of 2013. The topic of the writing is an expository composition on 'No Smoking in Public Places', with each student given a picture in which many people are smoking at a restaurant at the time. And the writing is required to be finished within half an hour.

B. Data processing: including scoring, concordancing, and editing, by using the software such as Coh-Metrix 3.0, SPSS 19, etc. Each piece of writing is scored through the scoring system provided by http://pigai.org/guest.php, just for reference.

C . Concepts concerned in data processing:

DESSC - Sentence count, number of sentences
DESWC - Word count, number of words
DESSL - Sentence length, number of words, mean
DESWLlt -Word length, number of letters, mean
DESWLltd - Word length, number of letters, standard deviation
PCNARp - Text Easability PC Narrativity, percentile
PCSYNp - Text Easability PC Syntactic simplicity, percentile
PCCNCp - Text Easability PC Word concreteness, percentile
CRFAO1 - Argument overlap, adjacent sentences, binary, mean
CRFAOa -Argument overlap, all sentences, binary, mean
CRFCWO1 - Content word overlap, adjacent sentences, proportional, mean
CRFANP1 - Anaphor overlap, adjacent sentences
CRFANPa - Anaphor overlap, all sentences
LDTTRc - Lexical diversity, type-token ratio, content word
LDTTRa - Lexical diversity, type-token ratio, all words
SMTEMP - Temporal cohesion, tense and aspect repetition, mean
SYNNP - Number of modifiers per noun phrase, mean
SYNSTRUTa - Sentence syntax similarity, adjacent sentences, mean
SYNSTRUTt - Sentence syntax similarity, all combinations, across paragraphs, mean
WRDFAMc - Familiarity for content words, mean
WRDCNCc - Concreteness for content words, mean
WRDHYPn - Hypernymy for nouns, mean
WRDHYPv - Hypernymy for verbs, mean
RDFRE - Flesch Reading Ease
RDFKGL - Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level
RDL2 –Coh-Metrix L2 Readability

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Descriptive Statistics

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
CRFCWO1	0.00	0.42	0.13	0.08	RDFKGL	2.34	33.89	5.37	3.38
SYNSTRUTt	0.00	0.27	0.15	0.05	WRDHYPn	3.01	6.63	5.68	0.58
SYNSTRUTa	0.00	0.29	0.16	0.05	DESSC	1.00	17.00	9.41	2.80
CRFANPa	0.00	0.67	0.17	0.14	DESSL	5.31	86.00	12.32	8.54
CRFANP1	0.00	1.00	0.32	0.21	RDL2	12.16	45.18	27.99	6.81
CRFAOa	0.00	0.82	0.41	0.18	PCCNCp	0.06	99.95	42.35	27.46
CRFAO1	0.00	1.00	0.44	0.23	Score	12.00	70.00	50.29	13.26
SYNNP	0.19	1.00	0.57	0.16	PCSYNp	0.00	99.51	75.61	23.54
LDTTRa	0.41	0.75	0.61	0.07	RDFRE	1.70	94.32	78.09	10.84
LDTTRc	0.48	0.89	0.73	0.09	PCNARp	15.87	99.63	79.87	16.47
SMTEMP	-2.00	1.00	0.77	0.31	DESWC	46.00	163.00	100.98	21.98
WRDHYPv	0.87	2.16	1.36	0.22	WRDCNCc	317.95	433.91	366.84	24.09
DESWLltd	1.67	2.78	2.10	0.20	WRDFAMc	573.35	603.38	592.13	5.56
DESWLlt	3.74	5.31	4.22	0.23					

Table 1 shows, the overall writing professioncy of the students is far from satisfactory, with a mean of 50.29, and a Std.Deviation of 13.26; that is, they are poor in English, especially at uneven levels (the lowest scoring 12 while the highest scoring 70). It may be a common tendency in China that the quality of college students, especially that of the vocational students is worsening. Table 1 further shows, for one thing, the 5 top linguistic components of the students' writings are: Familiarity for content words, Concreteness for content words, number of words, Text Easability PC Narrativity (percentile), and Flesch Reading Ease. This means that they prefer to use more concrete and familiar content words, which leads to the easiness of the writings. And the average number of words in a writing is 100.98, which is far below the lower standard of CET-4, college English test in China, with a 120-to-150-word writing within half an hour. For another, the 5 lowest linguistic components of the students' writings are: Content word overlap, Sentence syntax similarity both across paragraphs and in adjacent sentences, Anaphor overlap, and Argument overlap. This means they seldom use pronouns and parallel structures in their writing, thus the writing is not central to the main idea and not coherent enough.

B. Pearson Correlation

TABLE II
PEARSON CORRELATION FOR LINGUISTIC FEATURES AND WRITING PROFESSIONCY

DESSC	0.17	CRFAOa	0.06	SYNSTRUTt	-.241*
DESWC	.678**	CRFCWO1	-0.15	WRDFAMc	-.367**
DESSL	0.00	CRFANP1	0.18	WRDCNCc	0.10
DESWLlt	0.01	CRFANPa	0.02	WRDHYPn	.358**
DESWLltd	0.17	LDTTRc	0.17	WRDHYPv	-0.09
PCNARp	-0.08	LDTTRa	-0.03	RDFRE	0.00
PCSYNp	-0.13	SMTEMP	0.21	RDFKGL	0.00
PCCNCp	0.14	SYNNP	.230*	RDL2	-.210*
CRFAO1	0.06	SYNSTRUTa	-0.17		

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 2 shows the correlation between the score and the linguistic components of the students' writing. On the one hand, there are three components positively correlated with score: DESWC (with a Pearson correlational coefficient of.678**), WRDHYPn (.358**), and SYNNP (.230*). This means, the better English student writer can write greater number of words within a limited period of time, with more hypernymic nouns, and more noun phrases with modifiers. On the other hand, there are three components negatively correlated with score: WRDFAMc (-.367**), SYNSTRUTt (-.241*), and RDL2 (-.210*). This means, the worse English student writer tends to use more familiar content words and more similar sentence structures, which leads to lower readability of the writing.

TABLE III
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN LINGUISTIC FEATURES

	DESSC	DESWC	DESSL	DESWLlt	DESWLltd	PCNARp	PCSYNp	PCCNCp	CRFAO1	CRFAOa	CRFCWO1	CRFANP1	CRFANPa
DESSC	1.00	.468**	-.543**	-0.02	0.07	0.17	.583**	-.413**	-0.17	-.248*	-0.16	0.00	-0.16
DESWC	.468**	1.00	0.03	-.225*	-0.09	0.11	-0.11	-0.08	0.11	0.06	-0.08	0.19	0.02
DESSL	-.543**	0.03	1.00	0.00	0.00	-.364**	-.596**	.338**	-0.05	-0.07	-0.08	-0.09	-0.04
DESWLlt	-0.02	-.225*	0.00	1.00	.569**	-.420**	0.16	0.17	-0.12	-0.01	-0.15	-.386**	-.297**
DESWLltd	0.07	-0.09	0.00	.569**	1.00	-.334**	0.06	-0.15	-0.18	-0.14	-.238**	-0.10	-0.13
PCNARp	0.17	0.11	-.364**	-.420**	-.334**	1.00	0.20	-0.16	.440**	.478**	.503**	.522**	.505**
PCSYNp	.583**	-0.11	-.596**	0.16	0.06	0.20	1.00	-0.20	-.285**	-.234*	-0.11	-0.05	-0.16
PCCNCp	-.413**	-0.08	.338**	0.17	-0.15	-0.16	-0.20	1.00	0.02	0.11	-0.03	-0.13	-0.07
CRFAO1	-0.17	0.11	-0.05	-0.12	-0.18	.440**	-.285**	0.02	1.00	.782**	.790**	.352**	.481**
CRFAOa	-.248*	0.06	-0.07	-0.01	-0.14	.478**	-.234*	0.11	.782**	1.00	.645**	.358**	.523**
CRFCWO1	-0.16	-0.08	-0.08	-0.15	-.238**	.503**	-0.11	-0.03	.790**	.645**	1.00	.329**	.489**
CRFANP1	0.00	0.19	-0.09	-.386**	-0.10	.522**	-0.05	-0.13	.352**	.358**	.329**	1.00	.789**
CRFANPa	-0.16	0.02	-0.04	-.297**	-0.13	.505**	-0.16	-0.07	.481**	.523**	.489**	.789**	1.00
LDTTRc	-0.17	-0.12	0.05	0.06	0.21	-.432**	-0.14	0.19	-.403**	-.455**	-.576**	-0.02	-0.04
LDTTRa	-.249*	-.382**	0.05	.299**	.228*	-.552**	0.00	.222*	-.386**	-.447**	-.525**	-.251*	-.290**
SMTEMP	.345**	0.15	-.861**	-0.03	0.00	.352**	.249*	-0.21	.210*	.243*	0.16	0.14	0.09
SYNNP	-0.15	0.16	0.09	0.03	0.06	-.308**	-0.17	0.16	-0.11	-0.02	-0.19	-0.13	-0.17
SYNSTRUTa	.479**	-0.15	-.515**	0.03	0.03	0.20	.527**	-.299**	0.07	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.06
SYNSTRUTt	.568**	-0.17	-.571**	0.09	0.07	.223*	.669**	-.358**	-0.08	-0.08	0.02	0.05	-0.03
WRDFAMc	0.02	-0.09	0.00	-0.16	-.282**	.327**	0.10	-0.01	0.11	0.13	.310**	-0.01	-0.09
WRDCNCc	-0.14	-0.01	0.03	0.11	-0.09	-0.02	0.02	.742**	-0.06	0.03	-0.04	-0.20	-0.15
WRDHYPn	-0.09	0.16	0.00	-0.06	-0.08	-0.13	-0.02	0.18	0.10	0.07	0.09	-0.08	-0.07
WRDHYPv	-0.16	-0.07	0.08	0.03	0.01	0.11	-0.08	.212*	0.12	0.18	0.12	0.08	0.15
RDFRE	.472**	0.14	-.774**	-.462**	-.420**	.549**	.393**	-0.20	0.12	0.08	0.17	.227*	.208*
RDFKGL	-.546**	-0.04	.959**	.208*	0.19	-.473**	-.542**	.297**	-0.09	-0.08	-0.13	-0.16	-0.12
RDL2	0.15	-0.08	-.288*	-.251*	-.291*	.497**	0.13	-.240*	.551**	.390**	.746**	.321*	.356*

(TO BE CONTINUED)

	LDTTRc	LDTTRa	SMTEMP	SYNNP	SYNSTRUTa	SYNSTRUTt	WRDFAMc	WRDCNCc	WRDHYPn	WRDHYPv	RDFRE	RDFKGL	RDL2
DESSC	-0.17	-.25*	.345**	-0.15	.479**	.568**	0.02	-0.14	-0.09	-0.16	.472**	-.546**	0.15
DESWC	-0.12	-.38**	0.15	0.16	-0.15	-0.17	-0.09	-0.01	0.16	-0.07	0.14	-0.04	-0.08
DESSL	0.05	0.05	-.86**	0.09	-.515**	-.571**	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.08	-.774**	.959**	-.288**
DESWL1t	0.06	.299**	-0.03	0.03	0.03	0.09	-0.16	0.11	-0.06	0.03	-.462**	.208*	-.251*
DESWL1td	0.21	.228*	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.07	-.28**	-0.09	-0.08	0.01	-.420**	0.19	-.291**
PCNARp	-.43**	-.55**	.352**	-.31**	0.20	.223*	.327**	-0.02	-0.13	0.11	.549**	-.473**	.497**
PCSYNp	-0.14	0.00	.249*	-0.17	.527**	.669**	0.10	0.02	-0.02	-0.08	.393**	-.542**	0.13
PCCNCp	0.19	.222*	-0.21	0.16	-.299**	-.358**	-0.01	.742**	0.18	.212*	-0.20	.297**	-.240*
CRFAO1	-.40**	-.39**	.210*	-0.11	0.07	-0.08	0.11	-0.06	0.10	0.12	0.12	-0.09	.551**
CRFAOa	-.46**	-.45**	.243*	-0.02	0.00	-0.08	0.13	0.03	0.07	0.18	0.08	-0.08	.390**
CRFCWO1	-.576**	-.525**	0.16	-0.19	0.14	0.02	.310**	-0.04	0.09	0.12	0.17	-0.13	.746**
CRFANP1	-0.02	-.251*	0.14	-0.13	0.14	0.05	-0.01	-0.20	-0.08	0.08	.227*	-0.16	.321**
CRFANPa	-0.04	-.29**	0.09	-0.17	0.06	-0.03	-0.09	-0.15	-0.07	0.15	.208*	-0.12	.356**
LDTTRc	1.00	.789**	-0.05	0.17	-0.12	-0.15	-.58**	0.06	-0.07	0.02	-0.10	0.08	-.480**
LDTTRa	.789**	1.00	-0.12	0.10	-0.08	-0.09	-.33**	0.01	-0.06	-0.04	-.212*	0.13	-.411**
SMTEMP	-0.05	-0.12	1.00	0.02	.294**	.273**	-0.07	0.04	0.07	-0.02	.687**	-.834**	0.21
SYNNP	0.17	0.10	0.02	1.00	-0.12	-0.13	-0.17	0.19	.362**	-0.19	-0.12	0.11	-0.17
SYNSTRUTa	-0.12	-0.08	.294**	-0.12	1.00	.881**	0.13	-0.10	-0.03	-.215*	.362**	-.479**	.603**
SYNSTRUTt	-0.15	-0.09	.273**	-0.13	.881**	1.00	0.17	-0.09	-0.12	-.226*	.388**	-.526**	.438**
WRDFAMc	-.58**	-.33**	-0.07	-0.17	0.13	0.17	1.00	0.01	-0.07	-0.09	0.11	-0.05	.434**
WRDCNCc	0.06	0.01	0.04	0.19	-0.10	-0.09	0.01	1.00	.314**	0.16	0.06	-0.01	-0.19
WRDHYPn	-0.07	-0.06	0.07	.362**	-0.03	-0.12	-0.07	.314**	1.00	-0.10	0.00	0.00	0.01
WRDHYPv	0.02	-0.04	-0.02	-0.19	-.215*	-.226*	-0.09	0.16	-0.10	1.00	-0.05	0.07	-0.09
RDFRE	-0.10	-.212*	.687**	-0.12	.362**	.388**	0.11	0.06	0.00	-0.05	1.00	-.922**	.399**
RDFKGL	0.08	0.13	-.83**	0.11	-.479**	-.526**	-0.05	-0.01	0.00	0.07	-.922**	1.00	-.357**
RDL2	-.48**	-.41**	0.21	-0.17	.603**	.438**	.434**	-0.19	0.01	-0.09	.399**	-.357**	1.00

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 3 displays the pearson correlation between different linguistic features.

First, word length is positively correlated with LDTTRa (.299**) and CRFANPa (.208*), while it is negatively correlated with PCNARp(-.420**), RDFRE(-.462**),and RDFKGLRDL2(-.251*). This means, the student using longer words can use more pronouns and various lexemes, which makes the writing less easy to understand.

Second, sentence length is positively correlated with PCCNCp(.338**) and RDFKGL(.959**), while it is negatively correlated with PCNARp(-.364**), PCSYNp(-.596**), SMTEMP(-.861**), SYNSTRUTa(-.515**), SYNSTRUTt(-.571**), RDFRE(-.774**), and RDL2(-.288**). This indicates, the student using longer sentences tend to use more concrete words can get a higher score, but such a writing seems to be less narrative, more syntactically complex, less temorally cohesive, and more difficult to understand.

Third, Syntactic simplicity is positively correlated with SMTEMP(.249*), SYNSTRUTt(.669**), and SYNSTRUTa (.527**), and RDFRE (.393**), while negatively correlated with CRFAO1 (-.285**), CRFAOa (-.234*), and RDFKGL (-.542**). This suggests, the student who is in favor of simple sentences tends to prefer similar sentence structures and repetitive tenses and aspects; while doing so causes the writing' argument to be less overlapping and the writing to be of lower quality.

Fourth, word concreteness is positively correlated with CRFAO1(.440**), CRFAOa(.478**), CRFCWO1(.503**), CRFANP1(.522**), CRFANPa(.505**), SMTEMP(.352**), and SYNSTRUTt(.669**); while negatively correlated with DESSL(-.364**), LDTTRc(-.432**), LDTTRa(-.552**), and SYNNP(-.308**). This shows, on one hand, the student favors concrete words also prefer to use pronouns, tenses and aspects repetitively, which contributes to an overlapping argument. One the other hand, such a student seldom uses long sentences, diverse lexemes, and complex noun phrase structures.

Fifth, Argument overlap is positively correlated with PCNARp(.478**), CRFAO1(.782**), CRFCWO1(.645**), CRFANP1(.358**), and CRFANPa(.523**), while negatively correlated with PCSYNp(-.234*), LDTTRc(-.455**), and LDTTRa(-.447**). This means, the student prefers to use overlapping pronouns and content words can make the theme more focused. However, such a student tends to use less simple sentence structures, and less diverse lexemes.

Sixth, content word overlap is positively correlated with PCNARp(.503**), CRFAO1(.790**), CRFAOa(.645**), CRFANP1(.329**), CRFANPa(.489**), and WRDFAMc(.310**), while negatively correlated with DESWLltd(-.238*), LDTTRc(-.576**), and LDTTRa(-.525**). This indicates, those who prefer content words also like pronouns and concrete words better; neverthless, they seldom use diverse lexemes.

Seventh, anaphor overlap is positively correlated with PCNARp(.505**), CRFAO1(.481**), CRFAOa(.523**), CRFCWO1(.489**), CRFANP1(.789**), RDL2(.356**), and RDFRE(.208*), while negatively correlated with DESWLlt(-.297**), and LDTTRa(-.290**). This suggests, those who prefer pronouns can make the writings easier to read, but with less diverse lexemes.

Eighth, Lexical diversity are all negatively correlated with PCNARp(-.43**), CRFAO1(-.40**), CRFAOa(-.46**), CRFCWO1(-.576**), WRDFAMc(-.58**), and RDL2(-.48**). This shows, those who prefer diverse lexemes seldom use overlapping pronouns, and familiar content words, which makes the writings more difficult to understand.

Ninth, temporal cohesion is positively correlated with PCCNCp (.222*), and LDTTRc(.789**), while negatively correlated with PCNARp(-.55**), CRFAO1(-.39**), CRFAOa(-.45**), CRFCWO1(-.525**), CRFANP1(-.251*), CRFANPa(-.29**), WRDFAMc(-.33**), and RDL2(-.41**). This means, those who prefer the same tenses and aspects use diverse content words more often. However, they use pronouns and familiar content words less often, which makes the writings more difficult to understand.

Finally, sentence syntax similarity is positively correlated with PCNARp(.223*), PCSYNp(.669**), SMTEMP (.273**), and RDL2 (438**), while negatively correlated with WRDHYPv (-.226*), RDFKGL (-.526**), and PCCNCp (-.358**). This indicates, those who prefer the same sentence structures use the same tenses and apects more often, which makes the writings easier to understand; whereas, they use hypernymous nouns and concrete words less often. In addition, those who prefer to use hypernymous verbs can make the writing more diverse in sentence structure, SYNSTRUTt (-.226*).

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

From the above Co-Metrix analyses, some findings are concluded as follows:

First, the overall writing professioncy of the mechanic vocational students is far from satisfactory. Since the writing proficiency of the students in CET seems to be lowering in recent years, with an average score of 40 out of 100 for each student's writing (li, 2012), that of vocational students is no exception. And that of science majors of vocational students is even worse, for in general, the English professioncy of arts students is better than their science counterparts'. Therefore, it is a long way for the vocational college English teachers as for how to improve their students' English. Maybe, how to enhance their motivation to study is the primary issue.

Second, the students prefer to use more concrete and familiar content words, which leads to the easiness of the writings. As is often the case, some vocational college students tend to use some daily conversational words in their expository writings, which is not corresponding to the style of writing. As to this point, they should be taught with more knowledge on stylistics in class. In addition, it is essential to enlarge their vocabulary by urging them to do more readings.

Third, they seldom use pronouns and parallel structures in their writings, thus the writing is not central to the main idea and not coherent enough. In light of this aspect, the Chinese students may be influenced by their mother tongue, which is one negative transfer of mother language. As we know, Chinese is a language focusing more on meaning rather than on form, where it prefers repetions of nouns rather than pronouns. Therefore, coherence of a Chinese writing does not wholly depend upon its forms, but on its inner meaning. Hence, the Chinese students should be taught more knowledge on English theory of coherence.

Coherence is the quality of meaning unity and purpose perceived in discourse. It is not a property of linguistics forms in the text and their denotations, but of these forms and meanings interpreted by a receiver through knowledge and reasoning. As such, coherence is not an absolute quality of a text, but always relative to a particular receiver and context. Coherence is usually concerned with the links inferred between sentences or utterances. It is often contrasted with cohesion, which is the linguistic realization of such links (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Fourth, the student who is in favor of simple sentences tends to prefer similar sentence structures and repetitive tenses and aspects; while doing so causes the writing' argument to be less overlapping and the writing to be of lower quality. This may result from two points. One is also the negative transfer of Chinese, which lacks sheer restrictions of some grammatical categories such as tense and aspect; the other is due to the poorness of their English, in which they can only write simple sentences rather than more complex ones.

Fifth, the student prefers to use overlapping pronouns and content words can make the theme more focused. However, such a student tends to use less simple sentence structures, and less diverse lexemes. This seems to be rather conflicting, for generally, the top English writer should be skillful in using pronouns and complex sentence structures, but also in using diverse lexemes. Maybe, the answer lies in the command of too small a glossary of the students. Try to enlarge their vocabulary by pushing them to do more reading.

Finally, In addition, those students who prefer to use hypernymous verbs can make the writing more diverse in sentence structure. This is a good sign of bettering writing, for many Chinese students often feel perplexed at using English verbs properly. Maybe, English verbs are far more intricate than their Chinese counterparts in their changing forms.

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Ritual/Carnival Performance in Wole Soyinka's
The Road

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Abstract—**Wole Soyinka chooses theatre as a political art for the purpose of showing tradition and myth as the main political forces in the postcolonial situation of Africa. He uses Nigerian ritual performance to bring back the traditions which were neglected by the colonizers and dictators. Hence, Soyinka masterfully brings the African gods most notably Ogun on the stage in the most of his plays. This paper investigates Wole Soyinka's The Road as a political and artistic work and shows how he applies some of the ritualistic and theatrical devices like traditional dances, festivals, carnivals, and masks to approve his devotion to his homeland and tradition, and also to show the resistance in colonies.**

Index Terms—**ritual performance, carnival performance, Wole Soyinka, The Road**

I. Introduction

When the Second World War finished, the whole world witnessed a great change in geography of countries. The almost all of colonized lands gain their independence and were decolonized, most notably Africa was one of the greatest lands that was released. In fact, postcolonial texts are the evidence of recovery in these lands. Post-colonialism is the result of people's fears, hopes and dreams about their future and identities and also their cultural clashes with the conquering culture. How the colonized respond to changes in economic issues, morals, language, and race differences become the context for developing theories of post-colonialism. Several African playwrights, poets, and novelists in the early postcolonial era sought to strengthen national unity and consciousness by producing works which praised the past for the hope of a wonderful future. "Literary texts from Africa are seen by many critics as social documents concerned with the culture and politics of the continent" (Akingbe, 2013, p. 125).

Wole Soyinka, as the Bringer of Light to African Literatures, has put Nigerian literature on the world map. Since 1986 hundreds of Nigerians have proudly taken to studying Nigerian literature. Soyinka was famous as a political activist throughout the period of civil war. He tries to show the corruption of the political system in the newly created Nigerian government. In his novels, poetry and drama Soyinka criticized the influential groups of postcolonial Nigerian government. His aim was to recover tradition and insert it in modern and postcolonial Africa to facilitate transformative moral and political justice. Soyinka believed that African literature is "consciously guided by concepts of an ideological nature", the writer:

is far more pre-occupied with visionary projections of the nature of literature, or of any other medium of expression … the writer in our modern African society needs to be a visionary in his own times has, I find, been often interpreted as a declaration that this is the highest possible function for the contemporary African writer …. (Abiodun, 2006, p. 224)

He has been discussed in the various fields of studies and in different literary approaches especially in the political, colonial and postcolonial perspectives. Soyinka is best known as a playwright and dramatist. Although he has written commonly in all the genres of literature, he is more famous in drama than other genres. Wole Soyinka wrote *A Dance of the Forests, The Strong Breed, The Road, The Bacchae of Euripides, Death and the King's Horseman* to build on his theory and notion of tragedy. In fact his greatest success has come from his dramas. As dramatist he uses stage as a powerful resistance weapon to portray the black world of his colonized homeland which was occupied by colonizers and dictators. In his work, Soyinka criticizes the oppression by the dictators who governed Nigeria before and after colonialism. He wanted to show the disasters in Yoruba society, so he decided to challenge the current situation of the society.

II. Literature Review

Alain Séverac in a paper entitled "The Verse of Soyinka's Plays: 'A Dance of the Forests' (1992)" states that the verse occurs whenever the text adopts a ritual or mystical tone, and expresses man's attempt to establish a relationship

between himself and the cosmic forces or his actual possession by them. The writer states that like the drums, verse plays an essential role in producing the trance during which spirits come to visit the living. Soyinka's use of verse not only shows the communication is being established with the unknowable but also constitutes a medium that contributes both visually and spiritually to the spectator's grasp of the play's meaning. Soyinka tries to imbue his language with a faculty inherent in the tragic rites.

Another researcher, Diedre L. Badejo in an essay, "Unmasking the Gods: Of Egungun and Demagogues in Three Works by Wole Soyinka (1988)," investigates the deep roots of Yoruban myths that Soyinka applies them on stage. The egungun or the ancestors in Yoruba cosmology represent the spiritual links of living with dead, and the present with past. Soyinka demystifies the egungun in order to destroy 'the ambience of power' which surrounds these worldly Machiavellian elites. He uses them to emphasize the historical culpability of a corrupted power structure.

Samuel B. Olorounto, the author of "Modern Scheming Giants: Satire and the Trickster in Wole Soyinka's Drama (1999)", tries to show how trickster is an object of ridicule in the plays of Soyinka. This contention seems contrary to the high regard often accorded the trickster in traditional African narratives in which he is the powerless. In traditional conventions, we know that trickster is a clever, resourceful, quick-witted and vicious individual who plays tricks to deceive and take advantage of his opponents. In Soyinka's definition, a trickster who uses any means to take advantage of his opponents sometimes ignores and violates traditional and modern norms. He goes to metamorphose from them into new tricks that seem appropriate to modern conditions of politics, pursuits of power and rapacious desire for materialism.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study is based on a library research and tries to provide an analysis of the role of ritual elements in *The Road*. The complete procedure would consist of a number of phases. It necessitates an understanding of the role of ritual in the Black and Yoruba tragedy. Afterwards, this study is probing that how Soyinka uses ritualistic elements and mythological aspects in his tragedy, *The Road*, as powerful resisting devices to help the colonized to utilize their own myth and tradition in order to revive their vernacular values and resist the hegemonies. In this play, the application of festivals and carnival performances and also the role of Mask ritual is going to be studied.

IV. DISCUSSION

Soyinka compared the tragic modes of Western drama and theatre with some Yoruba gods (Ogun, Sango and Obatala), and sees tragedy as belongs to:

the Mysteries of Ogun and choric ecstasy of revelers,…Yoruba tragedy plunges straight into the 'chthonic realm', the seething cauldron of the dark world will and psyche, the transitional yet inchoate matrix of death and becoming … Tragedy, in Yoruba traditional drama, is the anguish of his severance, the fragmentation of essence from self …. (1990, p. 140)

In fact his philosophy was based on different Yoruba gods of African mythology. He searched out his origins in myth and history, applies them in his art, and thus revive identity for his people. In fact, he tries to bring back rituals to preserve vernacular values among his people. Soyinka masterfully applies performance as the best tool for depiction and applied drama to show his protest in postcolonial views. He believed that through the ritual drama African societies can establish social and moral standards and find harmony in their land. Soyinka expertly employs meta-theatre on setting. As a responsible dramatist and artist, Soyinka uses meta-theatrical devices like music, dance, costumes, song, color, ritualistic masks to catch his goals. In fact, Meta-theatre as specific aspect of drama is used for resisting in postcolonial discourse. Soyinka tries to apply mythology and ritual to make new world on stage; therefore, audiences are shown to a concrete reality in their own environment.

V. RITUALS IN THE BLACK WORLD AND YORUBA TRAGEDY

Ritual is the language of the mass. In Africa, rituals are important instances during which the human world interacts with the divine world. In fact, ritual drama and the power of divinity are correlated in black religion. So, ritual practices in Africa are central to religion. According to Benjamin C. Ray (2000):

Rituals are performed to cure illness, increase fertility, defeat enemies, change people's social status, remove impurity, and the future. At the same time ritual words and symbols also say important things about the nature of what is being done- for example how and why men communicate with the gods, expel illness, settle moral conflict, manipulate sacred power, make children into adults, control and renew the flow of time. (p. 78)

Soyinka's dramatic and theatrical vision is influenced by some factors such as: the Yoruba god of iron (Ògún), rituals and festivals; individual disposition to life; early contact with Western and Christian education; and religious, moral and economic problems. He believes that the main function of ritual drama is to control religious and social norms of people to keep their world and also to have a permanent communication with the divine. Within black religion, ritual theatre is always associated with social problems and moral conflict. In *Myth, Literature and African world,* Soyinka explores African world views and rituals and tries to show how they can help to make a true modern African drama. His conception of drama is revealed in the following terms:

Ritual theatre … aims to reflect through physical and symbolic means the archetypal struggle of the mortal being against exterior forces …, even the so-called realistic or literary drama can be interpreted as a mundane reflection of this essential struggle. Poetic drama especially may be regarded as a repository of this essential aspect of theatre; being largely metaphorical, it expands the immediate meaning and action of the protagonists into a world of nature forces and metaphysical conceptions. (p. 43)

The world view that dominates Soyinka's plays believes in the reality of the invisible world such as spirits, gods, the dead, the unborn, and the ancestors who affects the lives of humans. Soyinka recognizes that ritual ceremonies and festivals are an attempt to bring back the original oneness.

Soyinka delves into traditions of his homeland in order to find detailed and exact content for shaping his art. As the result, the Yoruba tragedy reveals as one of the most effective medium for expressing his Afrocentric dramatic art. The Yoruba tragedy is a pragmatic approach to drama in Africology. Orisa Ogun is one of the essential pillars of the Yoruba tragedy, who inspires the main themes of Soyinka's art. He is the first god of the Ifa Pantheon and also is equally known as the 'roof over the homeless', the 'protector of orphans', and the 'terrible guardian of the sacred oath'. Ogun is regarded as both the god of creativity and the god of death, iron and war. It is this multidimensional aspect of Ogun that impacts Soyinka's artistry. The violent and destructive aspect of Ogun's nature is explored in this play.

The ultimate aim of the Yoruba tragedy is to bring the protagonist to self-awareness at the end of his tragic experience. Therefore this self-awareness brings his people to a new state of consciousness. Jeyifo (2003) believes that "this Yoruba Tragedy reveals the playwright's strong will to stray away from Greek and Shakespearean tragedies and his determination to explore the depth of the fecund of his own Yoruba world in order to shape the genius of his play" (p, 134). He also relies on the effectiveness of the Yoruba worldview to restore balance, peace, and harmony in society. Soyinka made a concerted effort to bring theatre as a device to increase the consciousness of the people. He strongly believes in revolutionary function of drama to bring about change. Interestingly, he has a fascination for the West Africa traditions which is shaped by a history of resistance to colonial aggression.

VI. *THE ROAD* AS A RITUAL DRAMA

Reginad states that Soyinka builds his tragic theatre through the fourth stage that abundant rituals, tragic rituals music, tragic songs, and dances, all in a transition where "the past is the ancestors, the present belongs to the living, and the future to the unborn" (p. 195). In "The Fourth Stage" (1998) he sees drama "as integrating ritual in order to develop social wakefulness through the passage from one area of existence to another…or one level of awareness to another" (p. 6). *The Road is filled with rituals, tragic rituals music, tragic songs, and dances and also is an obvious* symbol of the paradoxical nature of progress. Before Nigeria's independence, the colonizers made roads in order to exploit Nigeria's natural resources of the country for their own gain. Now in independent Nigeria, the country's resources and people's welfare has engendered the corruption among officials. Moreover, individuals like the protagonist of the play, Professor, spend all his time to predatory activities.

The Road dramatizes the profound dislocating impact of the forces of technology and social and cultural change on the daily lives of the newly residential working poor of West African cities who try to make a living out of professions associated with the roads and the highways. Its dramatic action revolves around Professor, who plays the role of the main character. As a former churchman, he is engaged in an obsessive search for the meaning of the death. This play represents the destructive and the creative forces of its god Ogun that is the source of the many deaths that accident cause and is the result of the creativity which technology and progress have brought about. Professor's abuse of traditional rituals in the play made him a real danger to the community. Consequently, Soyinka suggests that there is a benefit in Professor's death. The road, as the representation of progress, remains the source of death that puts people's lives at risk. It is worth to mention that during the early sixties, Soyinka was forced to travel permanently on the dangerous road linking Lagos to Ibadan. Sometimes, he witnessed road accidents that caused him to fear for his own life. This is why he considered the road as the main cause of death.

In Yoruba drama, tragic protagonist should pass some phases such as isolation, suffering, and self-awareness. According to Soyinka's book, *Myth, Literature and African World* (1990), "the will is the only functioning faculty during the experience of the transitional gulf." In fact, "The existence of a gulf to be bridged is crucial to the Yoruba cosmic ordering. The gulf is what must be diminished by sacrifices, rituals, ceremonies of appeasement to the cosmic powers which lie guardian to the gulf" (p. 31). And "the ultimate one is sacrifice that its goal is to energize the community." (ibid, p.137). In Abimbola's words, sacrifice is a way to recognize the universe in favor of humans. Abimbola declares that African believe that verbalization is not enough in relationship of man with the supernatural. They believe "by making sacrifice, man send symbolic messages to the supernatural world which are often accompanied by verbalization" (p. 16). In *The Road,* Ogun as the god of the road, represents creativity and technology that causes the building of the road and at the same time embodies destruction with accident and death.

Professor's search for the meaning of death throughout the play shows a fundamental aspect of the Yoruba worldview according to which death makes the transition from one world to another. Opoko (1990) asserts that "for African people life will not come to the end by death because the ancestors continue to live with their family and community, and thus, they also have an effect on both" (p. 782). In fact, the annual Egungun festival that celebrates the

return of the ancestors to earth is "a metaphysical assertion of the continuity between life and death." (Soyinka, 1990, p. 109).

The opening lines of the 'Alagemo' poem help to show that this passage between death and the arrival in the other world is the subject which Soyinka explores in *The Road*:

I heard! I felt their reach

And heard my naming named.

The pit is there, the digger fell right through

My roots have come out in the other world. (p.150)

In *The Road*, Professor as a modernist man turns to traditional Yoruba religion in order to find out a satisfactory answer for the essence of death without dying himself: "I cannot yet believe that death's revelation is total, or not at all" (p. 226). He clearly believes that Murano is the only one who can help him with the reaching to the knowledge of death. Professor makes sure that Murano is "the one in this world in whom the word (death) responses" (p. 221). Murano is the character that is the typical example of the passage from the human to the divine as he performs the Ogiunnian ritual dance. His accident occurred at a time when he was possessed by Ogun. Eventually, it is Murano who got and understood the Word and the secret of death better than Professor, because he is somehow between two worlds.

VII. THE ROAD AND FESTIVAL / CARNIVAL PERFORMANCES

Helen Tiffin in her book, *Postcolonial Drama* (1996), states that "the performative elements of a society's secular festivals, like those of its religious rituals, provide an important archive for a postcolonial theatre praxis which aims to articulate the specificities of local experience" (p. 78). Such festivals come from pre-colonial traditions which have been changed as a reaction to changing conditions. Drama based on festival performances catches public attention of vernacular languages. Furthermore carnivals as well as festivals become vehicles for rebellion against colonial authority.

Within the Festival of Drivers, there is Egungun and then Agemo festivals. Interestingly, with these two festivals in the play, *The Road* is filled with the metaphysical and dramatic forms of Yoruba rituals. The Egungun festival is closely related to such themes as professor's long search for the meaning of death and birth in the Yoruba worldview. Throughout this festival, a special dance, which is called the dance of masquerade, is so significant. In the case of Professor, this traditional dance is to conceive and encounter death through the mask worn by anyone other than himself. Moreover, the Agemo festival which Soyinka represents as a process of flesh dissolution, is an attempt to describe how Murano has moved from human being to his present state of being. According to Jeyifo (2003):

As Professor moves serially through exploration and then disavowals of the liturgical rites, first theological beliefs of the Christian faith. And second, traditional African ritual beliefs and practices around institutions of spirit mediums and funerary cults, and finally his own private mysterious system compound out of cabalistic signs, numerology and necromancy that follow by these two paradoxical aspects which remain constant: a very materialistic, even opportunistic interest in the "spoils" of death on the roads and highways, and a radical spirituality which revolts against all the identity-forming institutions and practices of organized religion and foreign, which impose fear and terror on man especially the poor and the disenfranchised. (p. 148)

VIII. THE ROAD AND MASK RITUAL

While the mask conceals the face of the character, it shows the position of culture. In fact, the use of mask signifies a return to traditional value and a shift away from imperial hopes. It states that in spite of the influence of Christian missionaries, the traditional ritualized practices are still going to exist. Tiffin (1996) believes that "the effect of the mask play is to de-essentialize the construction of race, to set up a tension between the racial spirit and its performance that actors come to occupy allegorical roles rather than to create unified characters" (p. 154).

Masking in postcolonial drama often shows a spiritual and political theatre. Soyinka brings the mask ritual to reawaken the colonized people of their roots and origin. Ritual festivity reaches its peak in *The Road* in the time of the accident throughout the Drivers' Festival when Murano, masked as an ancestral Egungun spirit. The Egungun mask is the visually representation of transferring to the other world. In the closing scene Professor who constantly tries to find the essence of death in order to find a way to escape from it, finally meets death.

The mask still spinning, has continued to sink slowly until it appears to be nothing beyond a heap of cloth and raffia. Still upright in his chair, Professor's head falls forward, welling fully from the darkness falling around him, the dirge (p. 229).

IX. CONCLUSION

Confronting with dictators and Whites forced Soyinka develops his ideology by ritualistic gods and myth. To understand Soyinka's tragedy, one must study Yoruba's rituals of passage and transition, the performance modes of Ogun festival, and the theatrical effects of the total theatre idiom in the Yoruba festival/traditional theatre. Soyinka tries his best to represent the functional elements of theatre and performance like dance, music, mask and other ritualistic customs in his plays and especially *The Road* to help resistance. He shows how colonized people can bring back and preserve their own values against hegemony by their rituals and myths. Actually the ritual theatre is a cooperative

interaction between actors and audience. In fact, his ritual drama demonstrates how literature is associated in the process of transform. Like the religious rituals, theatrical performance involves collective experience that lead the audience to a state of spiritual insight. Opoku (1990) states that "rituals and festivals in African societies transfer religious ideas, and by them, one can learn about the relationship between humans and the spiritual and physical worlds" (p. 71). In *The Road* Soyinka takes the advantage of the traditional dances and festivals and the Yoruba gods Ogun to show his concern of Yoruba myths and the bound between ritual and culture and to approve his devotion to Africa. With the application of the Egungun and Agemo festivals, *The Road* is filled with the Yoruba rituals. Therefore, Soyinka made a new world on stage and the black audiences are shown a tangible reality in their own living conditions. The use of mask shows a return to traditional values and the colonized audiences are reawakened of their roots and origin. By employing the Yoruba metaphysic in this play, he tries to bring the people to a state of self-awareness and consciousness. Therefore, peace and harmony would be restored in postcolonial Nigerian societ, and a true modern drama and African world would be made.

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Comparative Research of the Publication of Chinese and Foreign Cyberliterature[*]

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Abstract—**Attention has been increasingly paid to cyberliterature which is a newly developmental type of literature. This paper aims at comparing the publication of Chinese and foreign cyberliterature. The research is carried out from the following two aspects: 1. The selection and improvement of publishing topics. 2. The selection of issuing modes and operating models. Through comparison the distinctive features of the Chinese and foreign cyberliterature in terms of publication are summarized. Through this paper people can understand the different features of the publication of Chinese and foreign cyberliterature more comprehensively and profoundly.**

Index Terms—**Chinese, foreign, cyberliterature, publication**

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years internet has developed rapidly all over the whole world, not only greatly influencing the social economic life, but also strongly hammering the traditional ideology and changing the working and living way of people. Literature appeared following the steps of human life, changed with the advent of human life on the internet and entered the time of internet to become cyberliterature. (Guo, 2013).

By the end of 20th century cyberliteratue has become a new member of Chinese and foreign literature. Studying the developmental states, different features and cultural backgrounds of cyberliterature and focusing on the technicality and innovation are the subjects of literary research.

Nowadays in a large number of monographs and articles cyberliterature is discussed and studied. Aarseth's book *Cybertext* initiated the discussion of definition and features of cyberliterature in the West. Many foreign scholars participated in the discussion. Domestically a great many academic institutions and scholars are engaged in the research of cyberliterature. The teachers headed by Ouyang Youquan in Central South University published the monograph *An Outline of the Network Literature* and *Professor Forum of Network Literature*, established the first research institute of cyberliterature and built the website *Research of Online Culture*.

Cyberliterature in China and the West will be studied in the perspective of comparative literature. Chinese and foreign societies have different developmental histories, are pregnant with different cultural spirit and manifest different realistic cultural contexts and own distinct literary traditions. These cultural factors impact Chinese and foreign cyberliterature directly and indirectly. (Wang, 2011).

Chinese and foreign cyberliterature has different traditional spirit and realistic social circumstance. Popular literature has greatly influenced the development and genres of cyberliterature in China and the West. Foreign industrial system and online publishing develop rapidly. Internet becomes the free space for the contemporary young people in China. Those factors contribute to the difference of cultural backgrounds between Chinese and foreign cyberliterature.

The native Chinese cyberliterature emerged in the late 90s of the 20th century. For the past decade, cyberliterature – the new thing, has developed much more rapidly than all the people had anticipated and its influence has extended to the fields of publication of books, film and television, animation, games and so on. Up to date the number of influential literary websites, forums and reading channels is more than 100; there are 240 million literary netizens, 20 million registered authors, 2 million writers who have been contracted to write; literary websites are browsed by 4 billion people per day and 200 million bytes of online works are updated per day. So the cyberliterature in China has become an industrial model far beyond the spiritual and cultural level, which makes the publication of cyberliterature possible and therefore cyberliterature is favored by people consciously.

In fact, internet and digital technology and even the creation of cyberliterature all originated from the West; while because of the cultural difference between China and the West, different market conditions and consuming habits and so on, the publication of cyberliterature in different countries displays its distinctive pattern. Cyberliterature in the West develops most rapidly and becomes the most representative one. This paper aims at analyzing the publication of Chinese and foreign cyberliterature comparatively, which helps us master the developmental state and trend of the cyberliterature in the world, promotes the healthy development of Chinese cyberliterature and therefore has the practical significance.

II. THE SELECTION AND IMPROVEMENT OF PUBLISHING TOPICS

Publication is the activity to edit, duplicate and issue the works publicly. Editing is the beginning of the publishing activity and includes selection, plan, organization, examination and improvement of the content of the works.

A. The Chief Content of the Publication of Chinese Cyberliterature

The chief content of the publication of Chinese cyberliterature is extensive and it has developed into different patterns based on the reading habits and likings of the netizens during the developing process. The number of literary netizens is enormous and the publication of reader-centered cyberliterature has evolved into various types. Take the example of novels in the publication of cyberliterature and the following are the main selecting sources of its content: love, history, urban youth, officialdom, job market, competitive games, horror, new military affairs, martial-arts and so on. The above main sources attract groups of stable and numerous readers.

Love is a universal topic, so it's also the chief content of Chinese literature. From Murong Xuecun's *Chengdu Tonight, Please Forget me* and Annie baobei's *Severn Years* to Xing Yusen's *Live Like an Individual* and Ning Caishen's *Numerous intimate contact*, and then to Mu Zimei's love diary in the internet forum, love becomes the main type of Chinese cyberliterature

Chengdu Tonight, Please Forget me shows a kind of bitter love, which is the mutual feature of Chinese online love novels. In this work love becomes the tramp who has no place to live. Besides the sex drive one day after another, the broken youth memory is the only left thing. Just in the broken bitterness, contemporary young men contemplate love, sex and life. Loss of true love, indulgence of lust and painful sadness are the chief tone of Chinese online love novels.

In a certain period of time, one type may win more favor of the readers; while in the long run, all the types develop well together and they make different readers satisfied.

Many scholars in China tend to analyze cyberliterature from the literary perspective. Some believe cyberliterature is the work written and read by netizens; some believe cyberliterature is a new pattern accompanying the emergence of modern computers and especially the digital online technology; some believe the traditional literature develops well and the prosperity of cyberliterature can't represent the literary developmental direction. The editors of literary publication online help the writers make their works known by people and get paid on the internet, while these writers or works have probably been rejected by the traditional publication for some reason. Therefore the publication of cyberliterature in China is regarded as the improvement and development of the traditional literature. Therefore literature is the first priority that people pay attention to, while the internet is not as important as literature in terms of the content of cyberliterature. When editors select, examine, edit and organize one work, text is part and parcel, the only consideration. Technology gives way to words or to literature in Chinese people's hearts. Internet is considered to be a carrier and a way of transmission.

B. The Main Selecting Content of the Western Literature Online

The internet originated form America, so did online writing. However the fixed pattern which is called cyberliterature in China hasn't developed well in the European countries and America and even the scholars' understanding in the west is wide and casual, so there's no unified trend in the academic circle. The American professors represented by Noah Wardrip-Friun define this kind of literature based on internet as digital literature which is created by the digital technology and the literary work, only existing in the digital environment. Electronic Literature Organization tends to entitle cyberliterature electronic literature. Professor Hayles, one of the representatives explains in the work "Electronic Literature" electronic literature doesn't include literature on the paper and is the digital work created and read via the media of computers. Researchers in German University of Siegen define literature via the media of computer as net literature, including all the works on the internet and computer. Some scholars extend the definition to hypertext literature and cybertext. Besides that, there are some other English expressions of cyberliterature, such as hypertext, digital poetry, interfictions, literature in electronic space, new media art, literature online and so on.

C. The Main Selecting Content of Japanese and Korean Cyberliterature

If the cultural advantages of three countries in Southeast Asia are compared, Japan is famous for cartoons; however South Korea is good at computer games and China excels in cyberliterature. This is the extremely high appraisal to Chinese cyberliterature. In fact, Chinese, Japanese and Korean cyberliterature nearly emerged at the same time and they have developed into their own distinctive systems.

Cyberliterature in Japan is called "online novels" or "novels on the internet". From that we can judge the main type of cyberliterature is novels, so is Chinese cyberliterature. The selecting content of Japanese cyberliterature is comparatively comprehensive, because Japanese study persistently and pursue innovative and creative spirit and the cultural industry in Japan develops from all the aspects. Currently mobile phone novels are the most important publishing form of Japanese cyberliterature. The selecting content of novels is wide, from historical to detective fiction, such as the urban novel in love and affective novel Densha Otoko. Meanwhile Japan lays emphasis on adopting the excellent content to strengthen the publication of cyberliterature. For example, in 2009 one of Japanese websites of mobile phone adopted the hot Chinese cyberliteratue novel *candle in the tomb* to extend its space of selecting content.

The development of Korean cyberliterature is the same as that of China. There are some very influential works in South Korea, such as *My Sassy Girl*, *The guy was gorgeous*, *Wolf's Temptation* and so on. While in terms of content,

those movies are similar. Compared with the diversified development of Chinese cyberliterature, Korean cyberliterature is dominated by the novels of youth and the theme is young men's love, fashionable, romantic and a little bit moving. The internet novels in South Korea are different from those of other countries. Writers don't follow the rigid rules of written language, but adopt a great deal of network language which facilitates the expression of characters' ideas and thoughts and appeals to the public readers. Dialogues occupy the novels filled with emoticons and the plots of the stories are almost the same: Cinderella and Prince Charming get together and separate. Because Korean young men adore entertainment and fashion, so the internet novels are mainly about love. By comparison, the content of Chinese cyberliterature is more diverse.

One thing can not be ignored: because the internet is endlessly open and comparatively free, numerous cyberliterature works of the whole world are full of pornography and violence. That is the factor that hinders the profound development of cyberliterature.

III.　THE SELECTION OF ISSUING MODES AND OPERATING MODELS

Publication is the main element in the publishing activity and its chief task is to spread the works to the consumers. During the whole process, there are two kinds of publication which exist widely in cyberliterature. One is commercial and profitable, and the other is for the public-spirited purpose. Analyzing Chinese and foreign publishing practice, we find the publication of genuinely influential cyberliterature is for the profitable purpose. As the cultural industry develops rapidly and becomes the focus of competition around the whole world at present, if the publication of cyberliterature can be independent and stronger and stronger, it has to occupy a space on the road of industry. However due to the difference of social economy and cultural conditions, the issuing modes and profitable models of the publication of cyberliterature vary greatly in different countries.

A.　The Issuing Modes and Operating Models of the Publication of Chinese Cyberliterature

The literary websites are the most successful and influential publishing force in the publication of Chinese cyberliterature. Reading and transmission online become the main issuing mode of Chinese cyberliterature. With more abundant content, Chinese cyberliterature is seeking for the appropriate operating model continuously for its further development.

The earliest Chinese literary websites, including the overseas Chinese ones, are not commercial, but a simple way of entertainment. The first website that charged fees was Ming Yang Reading Network and one of its initiators Yang Zhonghua wrote an online novel "Zhong Hua Zai Qi" which was popular around China and created a new online literary historical genre. In order to maintain the operation of the website and inspire Yang Zhonghua's writing motivation, another initiator Su Mingpu initiated a system that reading one thousand words was charged 2 cents and writers and the website were paid according to a certain proportion. A single spark can start a prairie fire. Soon after that, Chinese Website: *Huan Jian Shu Meng, The Sky of Dragon* got their own operating patterns. Up to now, *Ming Yang Reading Network* has disappeared completely, while its charging pattern per word has become the chief way for the websites to make profits in the past decade and it will be kept for a long time. At the moment that the literary websites have begun to operate steadily, competing with all kinds of penetrating piracy, *Sheng Da*, becoming prosperous by selling computer games, has taken over the comparatively influential literary websites, depending on its incomparable advantage of wealth. It resembles a series of takeover in the foreign publishing industry, with the force to rule the whole country. Of course, many independent literary websites own their positions in the publishing market of cyberlitrature, due to its low threshold and diverse operating ways. Therefore, the diversity of the publication of literary websites is maintained. Some websites, such as Chinese Online and 17K Literature, encountering rampant online piracy, abandon the reading pattern that readers are charged online, adopt free reading to attract readers and then succeed making people read and pay on the cell phone. Zong Heng Chinese Network firstly adopts the system that writers that sign a contract are used to draw readers' attention. In this way writers are paid and readers have sufficient freedom to choose. The commercial patterns are established, such as charged online reading, copyright operation, film and television, adaption of online games, overseas station and so on. The charged reading on the cell phone, as the representative pattern and a new growth point of the online literary industry in the recent years, is becoming the focus of the industry.

B.　The Issuing Modes and Operating Models of the Western Cyberliterature

The chief types of American and European literary websites are literary blog, self made online literary magazines, online library. There are small literary parts in the forum of the community and few websites of online serial stories. There's no formal literary website that pays attention to the managing content and profits. Firstly because in the American and European countries, the threshold of the traditional publication is as low as that of the online publication, there is no need to release the enthusiasm of creation only via internet. Secondly, the American and European countries have long thought highly of the protection of copyright and have an effective system to protect it. Readers and writers are used to the free wonderful works. Thirdly, as mentioned above, the understanding of cyberliterature varies in China and the west. The American and European countries pay attention to the technology and cyberliterature is also imprinted with games. The fixed charging pattern is difficult to come into being, such as hypertext fiction, novels created by computers software, collaborative fiction and so on. Although there are a large number of foreign literary websites, their

development is slow.

Self-publishing, a new way, makes cyberliterature hot and popular around America and Europe and extends to the other part of the world, occupying the publishing vacancy of the literary websites. The prototype of self-publishing has long existed in the West and a great many well-renowned writers and works that were first ignored by the publishers turn to self-publishing, such Mark Twain, "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland", "chicken soup for the soul" and so on. Self-publishing is the active and positive choice of the writers, in order to gain more room for the writers to show their talent and gain the economic payoffs. Self-publishing means books or other kind of publications are published by the writer himself without the involvement of the publishers. In the whole process, writing, editing, design, decoration, price, marketing modes and so on are all implemented by the writer himself. The writer can do it by himself or hire other related companies to finish it. If the works of self-publishing spread via the internet, it belongs to the discussion of online literary publication, which is very common and ubiquitous. The British female writer J. K. Rowling sold the electrical version of Harry Potter series directly on her own website. From 2010 Conrat has been trying uploading his novels to the online bookstores of amazon, earns 4000 $ every day and gets 70% of the royalty of each book.

The works of rookie writers Amanda Hocking and John Rock ranked among the top 100 of the bestselling books of amazon via self-publishing. In August, 2011, 7 novels written by 4 writers of self-publishing were on the list of bestselling e-books of New York Times. The issuing ways of the new self-publishing mainly include self-made websites and electrical platform like the online bookstores of amazon. Accordingly the two ways vary to a certain degree. It's more difficult for the former one to operate and it suits the writers with reputation more, but the publisher can have the most profits; while the latter one is like this: writers sign contracts with the online bookstores away from the publishing house, getting the royalty based on a certain percentage. In the second case, writers play a leading role. Writers and middlemen cooperate with each other.

C. The Issuing Modes and Operating Models of Japanese and Korean Cyberliterature

The Japanese online novels originated from its own country and it took a long time to explore the issuing modes and operating models of Japanese cyberliterature. At first Japanese amateur writers who were not accepted by the traditional publishing house tried submitting their works to all kinds of websites of novels. Some of the excellent novels drew the attention of the traditional publication and film and TV circles. In order to have more channels and profitable sources, some online websites adopted the pattern of online order and then sent the paper books to the readers based on their orders. Writer Cun Shanglong's online novel *Symbiotic Insect* was just one example. It is like POD in terms of technology, while its content is inferior to POD, so it has disappeared for a long time.

It is the publishing mode of cell phone novels that helps Japanese cyberliterature develop rapidly. The network of 3G in Japan has the lead compared with the other countries. Cell phone novels have actually penetrated into the development of literature. Strictly speaking cell phone novels are different from internet novels, but cell phone transmits information via the internet, so it's perfectly logical and reasonable to regard cell phone novels as part of cyberliterature. Thanks to the development of Japanese cultural industry, the profitable mode of cell phone novels in Japan is very flexible, extending from the single paid reading to publishing the paper books and entering the film and TV circles. Websites and writers are paid according to a certain proportion. Take the example of Japanese writer Mika's autobiography *Koizora* in 2007. All together 12 million readers downloaded the reading and the paper books were published over 2.7million copies. With the sold copyright it was made into a movie, which took 4 billion yen at the box office and the relevant musical works performed impressively too.

Korean cyberliterature emerged in the 80s of 20th century. It is very popular among the youth and large groups of literary young men participate in the writing of cyberliterature. The websites of cyberliterature and the internet writers' society have been established; numerous online literary journals appeared. Computers are the carrier and most of the writers publish works on the internet with pen names, so it is strongly anonymous. Writers can see readers' comment on their works at any time and they are able to rewrite and edit at once. For the serial works writers can continue the following part based on the readers' interests and desires.

IV. CONCLUSION

Cyberliterature which combines modern technology and traditional expressing way is a comparatively new industry. It plays a more and more important role in the worlds of publication and internet with its own special advantage in the different countries and areas from the perspectives of issuing ways and operating modes. The different features have developed further through learning and mixing, with the continuous economic and cultural communication of the whole world.

A. The Appropriate Evaluation System of the Selecting Content

From the above analysis which is about the selecting content in the publication, we can see although Chinese and foreign cyberliterature is different, they have the same idea that is to embody the fascinating part on the internet as much as possible. The number of Chinese literary websites is large and their states of development are complicated, so there are no definite unified rules for the evaluation system of the specific content. They both survive depending on the clicking rates and have demands on the publishing speed. About 10000 words are updated and the frequency is the

content is updated twice or three times each day, which makes it impossible for the editors to polish the thoughts and language. At the same time, the literary quality and creative attitude of online writers are uneven, therefore numerous bad and poor works pour into the internet. The success of self-publishing in the foreign countries can't be separated from the good quality of the works. Certainly the whole industry should dedicate to cultivating the reading level and appreciating ability of the readers, so the awful works will perish, rejected by the high-quality readers. In the due course, we can learn from the foreigners to lay emphasis on the online technology, making full use of the new technology to create new online literary patterns, to develop the developmental space of the cyberliterature.

B.   The Excellent System of Intellectual Property Rights Protection

The law of intellectual property rights protection has a long history in the foreign countries and the earliest one could date back to *Statute of Anne* in 1709 in Britain. Although China also had the relevant law before the liberation, the social environment at that time was special, so there was no due development. Until 1990 new China began to have the law *Copyright Law*. The gap of time of hundreds of years between China and the west directly leads to disparity of law of intellectual property rights and citizens' awareness of law. The arrival of the internet era makes newer and higher demands on the systems of intellectual property rights protection all over the whole world. *Digital Millennium Copyright Act* was enacted in America in 1998, which protects the intellectual property rights of internet companies. According to that law, common people are involved. The violators may attract civil liability and criminal responsibility for copyright infringement, so it provides strong protection for copyright holders to spread their works online. The comprehensive protective measures and strong determination should be adopted by Chinese law. At the same time, we need foster the citizens' awareness of intellectual copyright from the perspective of publishers, authors and readers. Self-publishing in the foreign countries develops fast, which is closely related to citizens' strong awareness of intellectual copyright. So there are well-renowned authors in the team of foreign self-publishing, while in China the noted authors would rather trust the publishing house and many of them turn to the publishing house.

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A Bakhtinian Perspective on the Nineteenth Century Chronotope: Charlotte Brontës *Jane Eyre* as a Chronotopic Counterpart for Gustave Flaubert's *Madame Bovary*

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Abstract—This paper revisits *Jane Eyre* and *Madame Bovary* in the light of Mikhail Bakhtin's theory of literary chronotope, highlighting the importance of time and space; it aims to suggest that that despite living in different times and spaces, both protagonists eventually approximate similar catastrophic ends as manifest in Emma's literal and Jane's symbolic deaths. Jane seems to be a historical counterpart for the French Madame Bovary – as both women seem to share a highly romanticized view of the world, unconsciously craving prosperity, passion, and high society. On the other hand, however, both women are oddities in their respective historical contexts, struggling for an idealized life beyond the norms of the nineteenth-century society. This paper suggests that despite living in different times and spaces, both character dynamics tend to eventually approximate similar catastrophic endpoints.

Index Terms—*Jane Eyre*, *Madame Bovary*, Mikhail Bakhtin, Chronotope (Time-Space), narrative, characterization, setting

I. Introduction

A classic romance featuring the characteristic happy ending of the romance genre, *Jane Eyre* is often remembered for the way things turn out for its Madonna-figure protagonist. This paper aims to depict how Bakhtin's theory of the literary chronotope explains the importance of time and space in the narratives, characterizations, and settings in *Jane Eyre* and *Madame Bovary*, and how the similar functions of the two seemingly different chronotopes can lead these two figures to their grievous destinies. Hence Jane may inevitably encounter the challenges Emma could not resolve: time and space – and all the alternative chances they provide for the protagonists – may bring Jane the same disastrous fate and the unhappy post-marriage life which Emma Bovary suffered and could only resolve by terminating her life. If we are to let the novel *Jane Eyre* continue itself in the chronotope matrix, we may decide that as a determined but stubborn woman, Jane may eventually be deeply dissatisfied with the kind of living she once regarded as idyllic. Jane tends to turn a blind eye to the fact that her ambitions are not *really* fulfilled as she had originally anticipated. Unlike Madame Bovary, Jane makes every attempt to adjust herself to the codes of Victorian society, but a chronotopic vista to her life reveals that this cannot be a romance at all. In effect, neither woman can ever evade the dominant hegemony of time–space.

II. The Literary Chronotope

Mikhail Bakhtin, a philosopher of language and a student of German phenomenology, adjusted various twentieth-century ideas to his own purpose, although he seldom applied these ideas in any depth to works of literature. Some of his major ideas such as dialogue, carnival, and his version of the time–space matrix (or the chronotope), have become classic tools in literary criticism. The term chronotope derives from a 1925 lecture given by the physiologist Aleksei Ukhtomskii attended also by Bakhtin, yet the specific usage of the concept was to a large extent based on Cassire's analysis of space and time intuitions as represented in language and myth. Bakhtin argues that the term chronotope (space-time), which was introduced as part of Einstein's Theory of Relativity, is borrowed for literary criticism "almost as a metaphor" (Morris, 2003, p. 184) to express the inseparability of space and time. In *The Dialogic Imagination*, Bakhtin defines the literary Chronotope as follows:

In the literary artistic chronotope, spatial and temporal indicators are fused into one carefully thought-out, concrete whole. Time, as it were, thickens, takes on flesh, becomes artistically visible; likewise, space becomes charged and responsive to the movements of time, plot and history. This intersection of axes and fusion of indicators characterizes the artistic chronotope. (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 84)

This paper aims to suggest that time and space are key concepts (as well as major forces) in the development and formation of the identity of the two protagonists of *Jane Eyre* and *Madame Bovary*. On the other hand, neither character can help but surrender to the dominance of their corresponding chronotopes. While the notions of love, marriage, social connections, individuals' integrity, choice and loss may change a character, occurring within the boundaries of a certain time and space (Bakhtin's chronotope) also shapes a character's destiny. In this sense, a synthesis of the 'artistically visible' time and space may result in a fresh perspective to the destiny of Charlotte Bront ёs best loved heroine.

III. NARRATIVE

Narrative is defined as a series of occurrences or events told in a specific order. In a narrative, not only the sequence of events matters, but also – ideally – events are of a cause-and-effect nature. According to Bennett & Royle, narrative is "a series of events [told] in a specific order – with a beginning, a middle and an end" (Bennette and Royle, 1999, p.55). In addition to this linearity, the relation between the teller and the listener/reader is of considerable importance. In effect, the notion of the sequence of events is as important as our understanding of the concept of the narrative as "someone [...] telling someone else that something has happened"(Barbara Herrnstein Smith, qtd. in Bennette and Royle, 1999, p.55).

David Herman believes that "narrative is a basic human strategy for coming to terms with time, process, and change" (Herman, 2007, p. 28). Teresa Bridgeman argues that narratives "unfold in time, and the past, present, and future of a given event or action affect our interpretation of that action" (Bridgeman, 2007, p. 52). She also maintains that,

The point in the story at which a narrative begins and ends can have a considerable effect on the reader [...] Beginnings are where we first encounter the narrative world and establish its key characteristics. And endings are where we move towards our final interpretation of the narrative. (Bridgeman, 2007, p. 57)

Beginning is where the reader/listener encounters the narrative territory for the first time to establish its main characteristics, whereas ending is where the reader/listener is able to move towards the ultimate interpretation of the narrative. In spite of their essentiality to our understanding of narratives, temporal and spatial relationships are more than background elements in a narrative; they are indispensable to its structure, affecting our critical appreciation of a narrative and strongly influence the way in which we construct mental images of what we read.To fill the gaps of what happens in the story world, the evaluative and emotional coloring of the facts must be taken into account. As Abbott suggests,

This is because the narration is inflected everywhere by our sense of who is narrating. We offset for perceived biases – self-interest, love, hatred, envy, fondness, immaturity, personal agenda – that may affect the reliability of the narration, not so often regarding the facts, which we usually (though not invariably) accept, but frequently regarding the emotional and evaluative coloring of those facts (Abbott, 2007: p. 45).

To Bakhtin, the significance of all the chronotopes lies in their meanings for the narratives. In fact, chronotopes are the unifying centers for the essential narrative events of a novel. The chronotope is the point in which the knots of narrative are tied. Bringing together elements of time and space, the chronotope emerges as an axis for concretizing representation – a force which gives body to the entire novel.

Realist narratives characteristically follow a clear-cut storyline, which keeps out too many complications and while containing all the necessary information, tries to avoid narrative deception or suspense. Similarly, plots of nineteenth-century novels seem to be rather static and mostly lacking unexpected or spectacular turns. These narratives also involve various distortions of the linear time-sequence including: anachronisms, prolepses, the slowing down and speeding up of events.

In the first chapter of the realistic novel *Madame Bovary,* there is a first person narrator, who is almost entirely overshadowed throughout the rest of the book by a third person omniscient narrator. The narrator of *Madame Bovary* is a provincial chronicler of provincial life; he does not let the reader fully sympathize with Emma, who has been detached from the narrator himself and the reader. On the other hand, *Madame Bovary* opens with a scene of schoolroom ridicule, not in Emma's life, but in that of her husband, Charles. It ends, not with her death, nor even with that of Charles, but with the award to the local pharmacist, Homais. Such a beginning and ending to the novel could initially encourage the reader to start sideline Emma as the eponymous main protagonist. Comparatively, the retrospective first-person narration in *Jane Eyre*, whose narrator is a mistreated orphan, stimulates the readers' sympathy from the very beginning.Like Emma, Jane is excluded as her story opens with the child being mistreated at Gateshead, although she is adversely at the center of attention. Moreover, the novel's vague ending is more than a compromise as it is idealistic, fanciful, and left to the reader's imagination.

Temporal patterns in the nineteenth-century novels move towards a defined and anticipated ending, but the three main areas of "order", "duration," and "frequency" generate the gaps between story time and discourse time that leads the reader toward "suspense", "curiosity", and "surprise" in order to define narrativity. Along with various dimensions of narrative worlds, we can "conceive of plot as a metaphorical network of paths, which either converge or diverge, of goals which are either reached or blocked. "We can conceive of plot as a metaphorical network of paths, which either converge or diverge, of goals which are either reached or blocked. More literally, our image of a work can involve the paths of the protagonists around their world, bringing together time and space to shape a plot" (Herman, 2007, p. 55). In this sense, Flaubert's *Madame Bovary* presents a fairly straightforward chronological sequence of events in a disastrous

marriage. The point is that Emma's story does follow a path, but it is hardly the path of a pilgrim to salvation, as it concludes with Emma's suicide. Moreover, Emma feels trapped because the farthest she can escape from Yonville is to the county town of Rouen while she dreams of Paris, Switzerland, and Italy. Furthermore, Flaubert makes two major exceptions to this linear construction: first, he frames Emma's story with accounts of Charles's childhood and of his decline, and second, he interrupts his story often but briefly to report his characters' fragmentary memories, daydreams, and schemes.

Flaubert divided his text into three parts containing nine, fifteen, and ten chapters, respectively. This lack of symmetry among these numbers shows that even the beginning and ending of the protagonist's life is turned over by the second part being introduced to the reader. That is the part focusing on Emma's post-marriage life. In other words, given the outcome, suicide, Flaubert's three parts implicitly correlate adultery with a fall, but through a narrative structure that highly depends on the interplay between progress and delay. At each step within the plot, Emma succeeds, fails, or returns to some starting point, enlightened by experience; each time, however, she succeeds only in doing something self-destructive.

Similarly, while *Jane Eyre* has a linear plot on the surface, Brontë's radical use of a first-person, retrospective narrator in the novel undermines the idea of linearity of the narrative, opposing her progressive spiritual journey from location to location. Accordingly, the motif of feminine enclosure – the irresolvable feminine problem of exclusion – is established by a series of disturbing returns. Moreover, since the story is narrated through the adult Jane, the heroine's lack of fair-mindedness overshadows almost all the values through the book which tempts the reader to stop trusting her decisions.

Jane's story consists of 38 chapters including five locations as separated episodes, rather than being connected with evident progress or change. The plot of *Jane Eyre* is also replete with returns that symbolically reveal the drama of "enclosure and escape" which is an accurate description of Jane's jerky progress. "Her movement through the novel," as Annette Federico interprets, "can best be seen as a seesaw rather than a linear progression towards maturity through her shifts in time and space and the original scene in the red room and its strange repetitions throughout Jane's story" (Federico, 2009, p.109). The ending of Jane's story is more than a compromise, for it is "utopian, unworldly, and shaded in ambiguity" (ibid.).

IV. CHARACTERIZATION

In *Speech Genres and Other Late Essays* Bakhtin classifies the novel genre based on "how the image of the main hero is constructed" (Bakhtin, 1986, p.10). The chronotope as a formally constitutive category determines that the man's image is constantly and inherently chronotopic. As Bakhtin formulates, "all subcategories of the biographical construction typically have a number of extremely important features, including the most primitive type, which is constructed as an enumeration of successes and failures in life" (Bakhtin, 1986, p.17). In the same book, defining five types for the novel of emergence, Bakhtin argues that,

The fifth and last type of novel of emergence is the most significant one. In it man's individual emergence is inseparably linked to historical emergence. Man's emergence is accomplished in real historical time, with all of its necessity, its fullness, its future, and its profoundly chronotopic nature. […] Understandably, in such a novel of emergence, problems of relative and man's potential, problems of freedom and necessity, and the problem of creative initiative rise to their full height. The image of the emerging man begins to surmount its private nature (within certainlimits, of course) and enters into a completely new, spatial sphere of historical existence. Such is the last, realistic type of novel of emergence (Bakhtin, 1986, pp. 22 & 24).

Both Jane and Emma are novices in a changing society whose cultural basics are still predominant. Both characters challenge the restrictive boundaries, but little achievement is obtained. The characters change, but it is not a progressive one. Their resignation may occur in either a deep sense of frustration or an ultimate surrendering to a monotonous domestic life. On the other hand, in maintaining close interaction with the fictional world, the protagonists gradually undergo a genuine evolution, but their changes are not simply the revelation of qualities given from the start; the key plot events, including the choices characters make, irreversibly leave their marks on their gradual evolution; little by little, every single event changes, reshapes, and remakes them. Nevertheless, protagonists preserve a certain capacity to surprise, which ensures change and thus evolution of the fictional world at hand.

A. Madame Bovary

The first sign of Emma's presence is shaded by the details indicating the wealth of a Normandy farmer but the reader may also get the impression that this is the setting for a fairy tale. Emma's unusual elegance establishes this country girl as the ultimate narcissist who cannot help but compulsively believe in the fantastic worlds as portrayed in novels; nevertheless, the problem is that the world in which Emma lives and the one she dreams about in her imagination hardly match. Emma has an unrealistic and radically romantic conception of life, love, and marriage. The radical difference between the worlds she sees through her rose-colored glasses and the actual one she lives in makes her increasingly more of a cynical person, though not necessarily wiser in the course of time.

Emma's 'space' consists of her readings and the consequent dreams that they bring about. When Emma experiences the real luxury at La Vaubyessard on their invitation to the annual ball of the Marquis, she is convinced that a world like

the one she read about in novels really exists. As a result, she is disturbed by the consistency of the married life. But as it later turns out, she could never have been happy, regardless of whom she was married to, or where she lived. Obsessed and failed by society, she compensates herself for the sacrifice with her first purchases. This is followed by an attempt to enjoy the life as she becomes an enthusiastic mistress first to Rodolphe and then to Léon. But extramarital affairs are never eternal since passion will ultimately fade with time. Love and marriage will not guarantee the possession of a lasting 'difference' that Emma was after all her life, but they are only a continuous return of the same. In other words, Emma remains a pure, absolute figure of desire whose persistent aspirations afflict her to such an extent that she is kept in a permanent state of dissatisfaction. At this point, the writer seems to mock his main female character. In order to illustrate the invisible path to failure, Flaubert conveys something of the feminine approach to everyday life, by creating an enormous gap between the traditional living with its everyday life, average people and routinized behaviors on the one hand, and the heroine's remarkable personality and mindset on the other.

Emma's perceptions are also distorted. Thus the analysis of the variation of the perception of time and space by Emma is possible according to her mental state concerned with two kinds of duration in the novel. First is the duration of Emma's secluded boredom when time slows down and space shrinks repeatedly through the novel. Second is the duration of the perfect moment of bliss, when emptiness is replaced by fulfillment and instead of disappearing, Emma seems to expand around herself in a kind of moment of eternity.

In this respect, when Madame Bovary comes back from a visit to her former lover Rodolphe, in a last desperate attempt to find the money which could save her from ruin and shame, Emma's perceptions of space and time are completely altered as she is on the verge of collapse and madness. This demonstrates the explosion of mental inner space and time into an outer space which has become strangely unfamiliar to her. Emma is never capable of regaining a sound perception of space and time; therefore, she commits suicide. Hence the traditional fairy-tale ending of 'they married and lived happily ever after' is by no means applicable to her story. Emma Bovary cannot escape her circumstances, and there is no exit other than death, hence a chronotopic restraint.

B. Jane Eyre

Not only a love story, *Jane Eyre* is also a plea for the recognition of the individual's worth. But in practice, Brontë's story is a repetitive fantasy rather than a progressive movement towards a predetermined goal. In Chapter 1, we first meet Jane enclosed in a window seat. This enclosure does prepare the reader as it gives an idea of the image of the later Jane. From this beginning, Jane is uncertain whether she should protect herself, and the heroine's fundamental problem as an anomalous orphan within a society in which she has no place is illustrated implicitly. Jane's childhood in Gateshead and later in Lowood asylum is replete with her natural element of rebellion, revenge, and rage. Even after she achieves a stable status in the asylum as a teacher, on Mrs. Temple's departure, Jane's mind puts off all it had borrowed of her, and she begins to feel the stirring of old emotions, and wishes for a complete change, or a long-desired liberty.

Later in Chapter 12, when she finally gets the job in Thornfield, Jane feels relieved but at the same time discontent. It is in the second half of the chapter that Jane's first meeting with her enigmatic master is marked with changing her "monotonous life" (Brontë, 2003, p. 117). Her plea for liberty is answered with the appearance of a dark, Byronic hero. Despite the novel's games of equality, Jane's lack of volition in her relationship with her master makes her being caught within her own patterns of desire as well as the patriarchal structures. Once more, as the novel progresses, Jane loves Rochester the man, but has doubts about Rochester the husband. She seems to fear the loss of herself and her possessiveness. Therefore, Jane's actions denote a strange stop-start movement that veers between paternal authority and romantic love. She fears the vulnerability, possession, degradation, male intrusion and control that her engagement to Rochester may bring along. She is consciously unable to comprehend the full meaning of the achieved freedom. Living in Ferndean, a remote forest far from the crowd, is what Jane, the personification of an unregenerate and undisciplined spirit in a hierarchal society, achieves.

The idea of change in the character is debatable by the connection between patriarchal enclosure and love and Jane's restlessness along with the desire for freedom. The desires, identifications, and fears attached to the male figures make Jane perpetuate her enclosure. Moreover, lack of casual acquaintanceships and ordinary daily contacts in the *Jane Eyre* world clarify the heroine's psychic isolation, conveying her unresolvable problem of exclusion. The all-or-nothing feeling towards most of the subsidiary characters also shows that her feelings are mostly mixed but seldom moderate. And while dealing with her hunger, rebellion, and anger, Jane's resignation is highlighted by accepting the norms of society.

After inheriting a substantial amount of money, she is free to go wherever she wishes, but Jane also knows that it is improbable to find a better husband than Mr. Rochester. The fear of loneliness and a hunger for having a real family encourages Jane to first share her wealth with her newly found relatives, and then marry a man who is desperately needed. There was no adventure in marrying Rochester at this point; in fact, this was more of a beneficial contract. Jane enjoys the support of a male figure as well as saving her strong sense of dominance in exchange for her care of Rochester in the shade of love. Jane's desire for a "power of vision" to "overpass" bounding "limits" (Brontë, 2003, p. 110) results in a viewless retirement, in a Bluebeard castle, deep in a "gloomy wood" with "no opening anywhere" – all hinting at Jane's symbolic death.

V. Setting

As Michael Holquist observes, "In the analyses of ancient texts, Bakhtin uses chronotope as a unit of narrative analysis, a time/space figure that is typical of certain types of historically instanced plots. At this level, the chronotope would seem to be a recurring "structure," differing very little from the kind of technical feature of literary texts which the Russian Formalists called a 'device'" (Holquist, 2002, p. 108). In *Dialogism: Bakhtin and his World*, Holquist also conceptualizes that chronotopes, "as formally constitutive category of literature … are not mere devices. ... In literary texts they are not cut off from the cultural environments in which they arise" (ibid.). In fact, chronotopes provide a means to explore the complex, indirect, and always mediated relation "between art and life, between literature and lived experience" (Holquist, 2002, p. 113).

A. Madame Bovary

Madame Bovary's action begins in 1830, the time of the "July Monarchy" in northwestern France in the real city of Rouen and the fictional towns of Yonville and Tostes. The setting of the novel is particularly remarkable as a social commentary, because it not only accentuates Flaubert's realist style, but also relates to the novel's protagonist. *Madame Bovary* is planted firmly in these French provinces and the (anti)heroine spends much of her time stuck in the sleepy little towns she hates. This is the fact which makes her feel even more trapped and unhappy in her marriage.

The novel is deliberately limited to a particular age and social range. It is divided into three parts to follow the biographical line of the main character, Emma Rouault, a young woman living in the country, in Normandy, in the 1840s. Flaubert successfully radicalizes the problematic social self by taking a woman as the focus-figure of his story to illustrate what women's condition was like, and show how they were oppressed by the masculine power during times such as July Monarchy and the next régime. He also focuses on the specific issues of religion, education, technological changes and marriage to highlight what was then called *Bovarysme*– which in turn best describes the protagonist's closed context.

As for religion, nineteenth-century France was a dualistic ideological world with reactionary Roman Catholicism on the one hand, and the more enlightened free thinkers outside the Church on the other. Moreover, in the domain of education "British authors frequently portrayed French girls and young women in ways that highlighted the general laxness of French girls' education" (Rogers, 2005, p. 2), which resulted in the emergence of the women who were "prone to ostentation and subterfuge" (ibid.).

An insight to the education of girls can help us understand the fashioning of French women's identity in the nineteenth century. In other words, to be *unebourgeoise* the "would emphasize motherhood and domesticity", and the "*la bourgeoise* was located in the home as a wife and a mother" (Rogers, 2005, p. 3). Clearly, education was increasingly a way for nineteenth-century "girls to stake out new individual identities at odds with the dictates of domesticity" (Rogers, 2005, p. 13).

As a technological change, the developments in the publishing industry served the increase in untutored female reading and its subsequent problems. The problem was defined not only in terms of what the new readers read, but also in terms of how they read. They would read too much, too indiscriminately, too subversively, too unwisely and hence unable to distinguish reason from falsehood, or truth from fantasy.

After all, Emma Bovary was an archetype reader who crystallized the problems of *bovarysme*. As a social problem, it was a form of escapism, but this escapism was a sign that women refused to be constrained by their allotted roles as mothers, housekeepers and dutiful daughters. In the convent school in Rouen, education was poorly prepared "for the expected duties of a provincial middle-class woman, and it certainly contributed to leading Emma astray" (Rogers, 2005, p. 1). In the convent school she learnt about the magic of religion, but its doctrine was left untold, and this was what the French educating system lacked as compared to the English version. Having been "initially seduced by the mystical languor of Catholic liturgy", Madame Bovary "quickly received more openly erotic stimulation through the laundress" (ibid.). Her readings of romantic content and her unwatched relation to literature seems to chronotopically separate her from her real environment.

Marriage is another issue that makes it possible to delve more into the real time and space of *Madame Bovary*. Indeed, in the Victorian age, marriage was not fairytale-like or romanticized as it is portrayed in the novels of the time. In the Napoleonic order, women's place was made explicitly a subordinate one. The right to divorce with a great many restrictions was introduced by a new divorce law of 1803, and its specific grounds were reduced to just three: degrading criminal sentences, adultery and physical abuse. Considering such rigid conception on nineteenth-century France womanhood, Emma Bovary was depicted quite the opposite by Flaubert. Not only she anticipated marriage as an elevated romance, but also she imagined herself being in love with the married Charles, as soon as she had the chance to meet him. She approached the issue of marriage as a loophole, and the tactless Charles was her prince charming, who turned to be her main source of misery.

B. Jane Eyre

Jane Eyre's story is set in the northern England in the early nineteenth century; this is a period in which the most popular literary form is the novel, and *Jane Eyre* illustrates many of its defining characteristics. *Jane Eyre* is also indebted to earlier Gothic novels, while Victorian themes and motifs also feature in her autobiography as she matures.

The novel is mostly known as a coming-of-age story, in which the protagonist has various conflicts with the norms and conventions of her society. Like many other Victorian novels, *Jane Eyre* demonstrates a social panorama in which the characters represent various economic and social classes, as well as gender differences. The appearance of the word 'class' was linked to fundamental changes in the economy and to their effects on social relations that led to divisions in society, or what is called social conflict. Brontë addresses the consequences of class boundaries in individuals' relations in the vast social landscape of her novel. Nevertheless, Jane's social mobility is bounding since there has been a gap between Jane and her real world as she always hid herself behind the curtains to save her inevitable privacy. As a result, this austere, stubborn girl can never melt into the higher society. Only when she is financially independent (and Rochester dependent), she fashions herself as a woman who has all her dreams fulfilled.

Charlotte Brontë artistically appeals to various genres (Romance, Gothic, Mystery, and Realist) and their elements, in the line between autobiography and fiction, and attests several settings through factual as well as fictional chronotopes, to challenge the major theme of personal progress and to express what was hidden in the lives of nineteenth-century English Victorian women. However, perhaps the most striking feature of the history of response to Brontë's novel is a persistent concern with biographical background – the Brontë story. Admittedly, the novel is an autobiography, not in its facts and circumstances, but in the actual suffering and experience that significantly affects our interpretations of the novel.

As a young woman, Jane struggles to maintain her identity and independence under the strict expectations of her contemporary culture. Every setting and situation confronted by Jane is a different phase that prepares her for the next experience. However, the problem is that, similar to Emma Bovary who experiences various successes, failures, or returns to some starting point at each step within her story, the settings and situations in Jane's story do not seem to be progressive in real sense. The linear organization of Jane's maturation process is attributable to the viewpoint of the narrator who recounts her story as wife and mother. Here the only difference is that unlike Emma, Jane's actions are not regarded as self-destructive.

In order to delve more into the setting of the novel chronotopically, it is necessary to mention that while the feminist movement was going on, women were still rubbed of their social roles. It was at this age of transition that Charlotte Brontë touched on four areas of social concern in *Jane Eyre*: education, women's employment, marriage, and religion; each and every of these areas had a crucial effect on every stage of Jane's life-travel.

In the first half of nineteenth century in England the education of middle-class girls was regarded as their so-called 'accomplishments,' the aim of which was "to render them hardy, patient, and self-denying" (Brontë, 2003, p. 63). On the other hand, work opportunities for middle-class women were limited to sewing, washing, being a governess or, less commonly, teaching in a school. In this respect, Jane may be considered as an atypical governess in the household at Thornfield, since she benefited more liberties than what was traditionally common; however, despite all these liberties, much of her confusion about her identity at Thornfield was rooted in her contradictory role as a governess.

During the period, those who did not achieve married status became, 'redundant' (Ingham, 2006, p. 53); however, when women did achieve what seemed to be their main purpose, i.e. marriage, they became no first-class persons but nonpersons. In Brontë's lifetime, women were second-class people, hardly regarded as citizens within the crippling circumstances. Marriage is what *Jane Eyre* suggests as a happy, typically Victorian solution to Jane's problems, but such a conclusion does not address the intricacies that Jane would encounter in defining her identity as a woman within nineteenth-century constraints. This was a very modern fear, practically unheard of in Charlotte Brontë's times. Moreover, "for many of the population, as for Brontë, religion and its implications for the afterlife were living issues which colored individual attitudes, decisions, and behavior" (Ingham, 2006, p. 60). In *Jane Eyre*, Brontë explores areas of human conduct partly in terms of her own religious views. Earlier in the novel, Jane had declared that "St. John Rivers had not yet found that peace of God" (Brontë, 2003, p. 357). When St. John insisted on their marriage and departure to India, she sincerely confesses to the reader that:

I had silently feared St. John till now, because I had not understood him. He had held me in awe, because he had held me in doubt. How much of him was saint, how much mortal, I could not heretofore tell: but revelations were being made in this conference: the analysis of his nature was proceeding before my eyes. (Brontë, 2003, p. 412)

Finally, she concludes her story with St. John's last letter in which he "anticipated his sure reward, his incorruptible crown" (Brontë, 2003, p. 459). By parroting St. John's last words, Jane implicitly confesses her own as well.

VI. CONCLUSION

Although Jane Eyre eventually adapts to the ideal, established Victorian universe when she marries Mr. Rochester, this seems to be more of a fancy marriage in which the protagonist is doomed to undermine and sacrifice her true potentials, freedom and creative initiative. Madame Bovary, on the other hand, is unable to adapt to the ideals appropriate to her chronotopic matrix. Understandably, the latter finds it impossible to acknowledge or surrender to the existing laws of her social context. Both Jane and Emma are character dynamics who are essentially at odds with the norms of the society, yet despite their different choices neither can elude the powerful grasp of time and space. Their various lifetime struggles are the futile attempts of a novice in a changing society. Under the chronotopic hegemony, cultural basics are often predominant. Both protagonists challenge the restraining boundaries, but little achievement is

obtained. The characters change, but their lives are hardly progressive. The ultimate resignation may occur in either attempting suicide or choosing a solitude way of living.

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Eugene O'Neill's Blackness in *The Emperor Jones*

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Abstract—**In modern American Drama, the playwrights seemingly have not been studying racial representations enough. Therefore this paper explores the black representation of Eugene O'Neill, attempting to help make up for this literature regret. *The Emperor Jones* of the playwright reveals his intimate involvement with his racial counterpart, who appears in play after play. This paper proves the United States to be a post-colonial society through critical analysis by borrowing current theories of race (blackness and whiteness) and post-colonial theory.**

Index Terms—**Eugene O'Neill, blackness, *The Emperor Jones*, racialism post-colonialism**

I. Eugene O'Neill's Historical Position in American Drama

In order to study in depth Eugene O'Neill's approach to blackness it is more than necessary to first historically position the playwright and his work. As T. S. Eliot argues in his influential essay "Tradition and the Individual Talent," all writers partake in tradition, and O'Neill is no exception. As he has left his lasting mark on American drama, he also was shaped himself by prior traditions of American literature and, more specifically, of American theatre. These literary traditions mainly relied on stereotypes in their depiction of non-whites such as Sambo and Uncle Tom. Such stereotypes mainly served a sociopolitical objective: they reflected and confirmed the Anglo-American image of the Afro-American.

Eugene O'Neill occupies a distinctive place in American drama. As an Irish-American, his concern for the black American may be considered unusual. Yet some scholars cite his cultural identity as a valid reason for his interest. According to Virginia Floyd's *Eugene O'Neill at Work* (1981), the playwright, motivated by the discrimination against his Irish-American family by "wealthy Yankee New Londoners," determined to explore and to expose injustice, especially against nonwhites (p. x v iii). Deborah Wood Holton (1995) is one of many scholars to point out the links between O'Neill's writings and his travels, especially to the rain forests of Honduras in 1909, his experience as a reporter for the New London Telegraph, and his friendships with black Americans, especially with Joe Smith (p.32). Smith, the model for some of O'Neill's black characters, was a black gambler whom O'Neill met in 1915 at the Hell Hole, an Irish saloon in Greenwich Village. Virginia Floyd (1981), notes that they were close friends for almost twenty years (p. x v iii). Louis Sheaffer(1968) describes Joe Smith as "a quiet good-natured Negro gambler" (p.424) who was also "an authority on the Negro community of Greenwich Village"(p.425). O'Neill believed Smith's experiences reflected black life in America and relied on Smith's stories for his plays and black characters. This exposure to black life made the dramatist "particularly aware of and sympathetic to the problems of blacks. As a result of his own experiences and those of his friends, he became a champion of victims of discrimination, the outcasts of society" (Floyd, 1981, p. 521).

There is no doubt that Eugene O'Neill was genuinely concerned about the fate of the black American. While his black representations began with minor West Indian characters, as in *Thirst* (1913) and *The Moon of the Carabbees* (1917), his later plays focused more directly on African-Americans, their fates, and interactions with white society. His last one-act with black characters, *The Dreamy Kid* (1918) was indeed an all-black play bringing to life O'Neill's first black American characters. His most controversial "black play" (and his most complex one) remains *The Emperor Jones* (1920) with its atavistic black protagonist, Brutus Jones. Eugene O'Neill was drawn throughout his career to investigating the fate and psyche of blacks. How successful was O'Neill in his depiction of blackness? The question should, in part, be considered in terms of the obstacles the dramatist had to contend with. First, O'Neill, as a white American, had to transcend the "barrier" of his own skin color and to identify with a group of people he was not too familiar with. Jordan Miller and Winifred Frazer (1991), direct our attention to the same complication: "As a northerner with no experience in the mixed society of the South, O'Neill had small acquaintance with the black psyche and the deeper conflicts of racial antagonism and southern segregation" (p. 252). O'Neill succeeded in seeing through and surpassing these racial myths.

Euro-American critics have not hesitated to speak highly of O'Neill's efforts and achievement. On the other hand, although African--American criticism, too, commend O'Neill for being one of the first white American playwrights to

treat black characters with seriousness and sympathy, he is criticized by many for being unable to avoid black stereotypes in his plays. Sterling Brown (1993) may be among the very few black critics to praise O'Neill for transcending these stereotypes and introducing "a tragic Negro to Broadway" (p. 201). More representative of current black critical attitudes is Deborah Wood Holton (1995) who criticizes the "blind spot" of O'Neill regarding black culture (p. 33) and his "inadequacy at interpreting black life" (p. 38). The racial debate surrounding O'Neill's plays continues today. In the next part "The Emperor Jones", I will respond to these evaluations of O'Neill's black characters. Were they stereotypical, yet well-intentioned, responses to blackness or did O'Neill surpass his predecessors and contemporaries in his understanding and portrayal of the black experience?

II. *THE EMPEROR JONES*

The obvious shift in Eugene O' Neill's black portraiture occurred in 1918 with T*he Dreamy Kid* as he began to focus on black characters who had lives and voices separate from those of his white characters. These African-Americans began to dictate the plot and the content of the play, thereby signifying a crucial modification in the dramatist's attitude. Building upon the foundation of *the Dreamy Kid*, *The Emperor Jones* (1920) presented American audiences with a strong, unconventional, and controversial black character, which also resulted in the fame of Charles Gilpin and Paul Robeson as dazzling actors. Although the play has introduced a new phase on the American stage, *The Emperor Jones* has met, since its debut, both open hostility (usually from African- American scholars) and lavish praise (usually from Euro-American critics) for the depiction of its protagonist, Brutus Jones. One explanation for the dispute lies in O'Neill's complex vision in this work; the main character and the play itself are so multi-layered that clashing interpretations can comfortably coexists.

Brutus Jones, a black American from Harlem, is a self-proclaimed Emperor on a small island in the West Indies where the play is set. In American, he has first killed a black man, Jeff, for cheating at craps and later in prison, he has killed the white guard, broken out of prison and fled the United States. On this West Indian island, he works for a white Cockney trader, Smithers, and later promotes himself to the position of Emperor by deceiving the natives into believing that he is more or less beatable and can only be destroyed with a silver bullet, a metal the West Indians do not possess. "And dere all dem fool bush niggers was kneelin 'down and bumpin' their heads on de ground like I was a miracle out o'de Bible. Oh Lawd, from dat time on I has them all eatin's out of my hand. I cracks de whip and dey jumps through" (O'Neill, 1988, p. 1036). Meanwhile, Jones knows that his reign as Emperor is limited and is soon coming to an end.

At the outset of *The Emperor Jones*, it is this image, one of an invincible ruler that we receive of Brutus Jones. His maid, the old native woman, begs Smithers in "frantic terror", "No tell him! No tell him, Mister!" the big secret that Jones's subjects have deserted him (O'Neill, 1988, p.1032). The woman is clearly both terrified of the Emperor and is in awe of the "Great Father", as she calls him (p. 1032). However, her assumed respect for the Emperor clashes with Smithers's irreverence for Jones when Smiters discovers the natives are planning a revolution to depose the Emperor: "Serve' im right! Puttin' on airs, the stinkin' nigger! 'Is Majesty! Gawd blimey!" (p. 1033). Smithers, the only white man on the West Indian island and in the play, resents Brutus Jones's transgression of his social status as a black man by seizing power. O'Neill thus begins his fascinating analysis of the oppressed black psyche in relation to whiteness.

Before I offer a close reading of the protagonist, another character deserves some attention. Smithers, the embodiment of whiteness in this play, is the very first character to appear on stage, and the playwright describes his expression as being "one of unscrupulous meanness, cowardly and dangerous" (p. 1031). He possesses no admirable traits and remains throughout the play a mean character. While O'Neill's lack of regard for his character may in part be understood as the result of O'Neill's cultural bias as an Irish-American towards the English, it marks an unusual authorial decision by a white writer to represent his own racial group. His arrogance towards Jones derives from a racist outlook on life, which carries through to his dealings with the natives. For example, he readily accuses the fearful old woman of having stolen something, and when she denies the charge, calls her "Bloody Liar!" (p. 1032). Yet another one of his accusations, "You blacks are up to some devilment," reveals how he has intellectually distanced himself from the black population of the island (p. 1032). "You blacks" signals the arbitrary distinction between "us white" and "you blacks," a superb example of the Othering mechanism. In his blatant racism, he dismisses the old woman as "yer black cow," a colonialist humiliating expression for dehumanized black subjects. It is mainly on these elements of racial loathing that Smithers's disgust with Brutus Jones is built, whereas he also fears him because of the latter's physical strength and authority.

Opposed to this mean emblem of whiteness, Emperor Jones provides a welcome relief despite his many flaws. In his often-detailed stage directions, O'Neill emphasizes that Jones has "an underlying strength of will, a hardy, self-reliant confidence in himself that inspires respect," and respect he inspires because of his grandeur on stage (p. 1033). The most innovative and puzzling element in O'Neill's depiction of this black character is the dual role Jones occupies: the colonized in America and the imperialist on the West Indian island. O'Neill successfully and slowly reveals, decades prior to Frantz Fanon's theories on the effects of colonization on the colonizer and the colonized, how Jones's identity has been forged by this binary existence: "From stowaway to Emperor in two years! Dat's goin' some!" (p. 1035). Having suffered at the hands of his white oppressors in the United States, Jones excels by learning the art of government from them. From the site of the colonized, Jones has proceeded to that of the colonizer as he masters the power game of whites. Jones owes his superiority over his black subjects to the white man's strategies. The black man

whose ancestors were the slaves of white men now takes advantage of his own kind, "savages" living on this island in the West Indies.

Both Frantz Fanon and Albert Memmi have convincingly shown in their work that the colonized group, constantly undermined by their oppressor with an ill-supported assertion of their inferiority, seek self-esteem by identifying themselves with their "superiors," those guilty of instilling in them this inferiority complex in the first place.

Because no other solution is left it, the racialized social group tires to imitate the oppressor and thereby to deracialize itself. The "inferior race" denies itself as different race. It shares with the "superior race" the convictions, doctrines, and other attitudes concerning it.

Having witnessed the liquidation of its systems of reference, the collapse of its cultural patterns, the native can only recognize with the occupant that "God is not on his side." The processor, through the inclusive and frightening character of his authority, manages to impose on the native new ways of seeing, and in particular a pejorative judgment with respect to his original forms of existing.

This event, which is commonly designated as alienation, is naturally very important. It is found in the official texts under the name of assimilation. (Fanon, 1967, African Revolution p. 38)

Fanon's theory of assimilation applies to Brutus Jones to a considerable extent. Jones is deracialized in the colonial values and strategies he has grasped and the colonial role he has appropriated. He is also alienated from his own racial group in that he has chosen to exploit them. However, Jones's alienation is not so devastating because he does not go so far as to deny his blackness. Therefore, the white mask Brutus Jones wears is not a perfect fit.

The Emperor Jones also sheds light on colonial strategies. Jones's conversation with Smithers in Scene 1 is revealing in many respects, because the two men, knowing each other's schemes, can be open and honest with each other in a way they can't be with the natives. In this scene, Jones explains to the Cockney trader, for instance, that he has put on a show of royalty for the natives only to pull the wool over their eyes in order to attain his own goals: "De fuss and glory part of it, dat's only to turn de heads o'de lowflung, bush niggers dat's here. Dey wants de big circus show for deir money, I gives it to 'em an' I gits de money" (O'Neill, 1988, p. 1035). Usually, colonizers take advantage of natives also by burdening them with taxes, something Jones has already done, according to Smithers: "Look at the taxes you've put on'em! Blimey! You've squeezed 'em dry!" (p. 1035). Brutus Jones has also studied the natives' language so as to be able to exploit them even better. "And ain't I got to learn deir lingo and teach some of dem English befo' I kin talk to 'em? Ain't dat wuk?" (p. 1036). Linguistic knowledge for Jones is merely an implement for power, and he uses it to further his colonial interests. Finally, O'Neill comments on the role religion plays in colonialism. When Smithers blames Jones for adopting the natives' religion and forsaking Christianity, Jones explains that is part of his game:

SMITHERS—Ho! You' aven't give much 'eed to your Baptist Church since you been down 'ere! I've 'eard myself you 'ad turned yer coat an' was takin' up with their blarsted witchdoctors, or whatever the 'ell yer call the swine.

JONES—(vehemently) I pretends to! Sho' I pretends! Dat's part o' my game from de fust. If I finds out dem niggers believes dat black is white, den I yells it out louder'n deir loudest. It don't git me nothin' to do missionary work for de Baptist Church. I'se after de coin, an' I lays my Jesus on de shelf for de time bein'. (p.1042)

O'Neill thus exposes not only Jones's scheme but also the colonial scheme in general. Jones's success is built on these tactics, but it does not come without a certain loss, either. As Peter Saiz (1993) points out, Jones's "tragedy lies in his succumbing to recreating the oppression of the Whites on his own people. Jones, who has the potential to be a liberator, is, after all, just another enslaver" (p. 36). Jones has sold his soul for money, and rather than decolonizing himself or others, he colonizes an innocent group of people and is himself locked into a cruel role.

In order to function truly and successfully as a colonizer, Jones has to ingest the Manichean thinking colonization dictates. Jones's contact with the white culture has taught him to despise blackness. Consequently, the Emperor has no respect for the natives of the island over which he rules. His self-satisfaction with having taken advantage of the "stupidity" of the "bush niggers," whom he also describes as "low-flung" and "trash," discloses his own ingestion of Euro-American values. Indeed, Jones's approach to the West Indies, unfortunately, replicated the Western attitude to Africa Fanon (1968) discusses in *The Wretched of the Earth*: "For colonialism, this vast continent was the haunt of savages, a country riddled with superstitions and fanaticism, destined for contempt, weighed down by the curse of God, a country of cannibals"(p. 211). Jones, likewise, wholeheartedly believes in his own myth that the natives are his inferiors and, therefore, deserve to be poorly treated. In *The Colonizer and the Colonized,* Albert Memmi (1965) explains very well why the colonizer who accepts his role has to construct and rely on such myths:

With all his power he must disown the colonized while their existence is indispensable to his own…Having become aware to the unjust relationship which ties him to the colonized, he must continually attempt to absolve himself. He never forgets to make a public show of his own virtues, and will argue with vehemence to appear heroic and great. At the same time his privileges arise just as much from his glory as from degrading the colonized. He will persist in degrading them, using the darkest colors to depict them. (p.54)

As a colonizer, in order to survive and succeed in this capacity, Brutus Jones has to separate himself from his subjects. It is no wonder that Jones downplays a possible racial identification with the natives and instead highlights his difference form them. He tells Smithers, "Think dese ign'rent bush niggers dat ain't got brains enuff to know deir own names even can catch Brutus Jones?" (O'Neill, 1988, p. 1040). Jones sees his civilized nature and his intellect as the basis of his superiority to the natives: "Is you civilized, or is you like dese ign'rent black niggers heah?" (p. 1049).

Brutus Jones believes he has the right to reign over the natives because he himself has learned to improve on his blackness by identifying himself with whiteness and the civilization it signifies. O'Neill's comprehension about colonialism differ markedly form other similar literary accounts since his protagonist is black rather than the more common one of the white colonizer. O'Neill thus also shows at work the mind of a racist black man who despises the "blackness" of his colonial subjects: hence unwittingly himself.

Jones personifies Eugene O'Neill's critique of both colonization and capitalism. More Specifically, Edwin Engel (1953) states that "Jones is the embodiment of white American materialism" (p. 50).

Ain't I de Emperor? De laws don't go for him… Dere's little stealin' like you does, and dere's big stealin' like I dose. For de little stealin' dey gits you in jail soon or late. For de big stealin' dey makes you Emperor and puts you in de Hall o'Fame when you croaks. (reminiscently) If dey's one thing I learns in ten years on de Pullman ca's listenin' to de white quality talk, it's dat same fact. And when I gits a chance to use it I winds up Emperor in two years. (O'Neill,1988, p. 1035)

In his cynical advice to Smithers, Jones reveals how his role models have been the "white quality" he met during his days as a Pullman porter in the United States. He has learned the rules of the game from those higher on the social ladder of America: white businessmen. While Jones willingly submits to the authority of these "quality" white men, he scorns Smithers : "Talk polite, white man! Talk polite, you heah me! I'm boss heah now, is you fergettin?" (p. 1034). Thomas Pawley (1992) explains Jones's contempt for Smithers as a direct result of his assimilation of white American middle-class values by whose standards Smithers is "trash" (p. 144).

Of course, Jones has successfully ingested white values and practices because of his smartness and cunning, two traits Eugene O'Neill emphasized in his protagonist from the start: "His eyes are alive with a keen, cunning intelligence. In manner he is shrewd, suspicious, evasive" (O'Neill, 1988, p. 1033). Jones's cunning intelligence is proven, first and foremost, by his self-generated myth of the silver bullet, the only means, he insists to kill him. Jones owes his empire to this myth which has frightened the natives into complying with his wishes. When Smithers argues it was luck that secured Jones's conquest, the Emperor responds, "I got brains and I uses 'em quick. Dat ain't luck" (p. 1036). His alertness in anticipating the natives' revolution also proves that he can usually predict human behavior and prepares himself for the consequences well in advance:

Look-a-heah, white man! Does you think I'se a natural bo'n fool? Give me credit fo' havin'some sense, fo' Lawd's sake! Don't you s'pose I'se looked ahead and made sho' of all de chances? I'se gone out in dat big forest, pretendin' to hunt, so many times dat I knows it high an'low like a book. (p. 1040)

When he realized, though, that he has not foreseen the forthcoming revolution, he admits, "I overplays my hand dis once!" (p. 1039).

At the end of Scene 1, Brutus Jones leaves his palace to escape to safety. However, the journey he undertakes, while appearing on the surface to be to the other side of the island, is psychological as well as literal: unknowingly, Jones goes in pursuit of his racial self and his identity. While not denying his blackness, by adopting the white way of social success and material gain, he has forsaken his black identity and assumed instead a white mask, representative of the immoral, exploitative, sly side of whiteness. Jones's appropriation of the colonizer role, a role usually associated with whiteness, requires him to abandon his racial identity and assumed to be something he is not. One of the prominent symbols in the play, the overt color contrast of Jones's white palace and the darkness of the forest, corresponds to the tension between these two identities: his white mask and his black skin underneath. Brutus Jones, hoping for social accomplishment, has rejected his blackness in favor of whiteness, but his journey now demands of him to face up to his betrayal. Another symbol for Brutus's transformation is his dressing down and out of his white clothes of colonizers in the dark forest, as the play progresses: "Look at you now. Emperor, you'se gittin' mighty low!" (p. 1052). From the very start, Jones resists and consequently fails at this psychic journey towards the Self. The black Little Formless Fears in Scene 2 are, for example, his own fears, and when he dispels them with a gunshot, he thinks they were only "little wild pigs" (p. 1046). Jones's self-ignorance is highlighted several other times in the play. In fact, in the following scenes Jones confronts, unsuccessfully people and events from his own past and that of his black ancestors: his gambling partner Jeff, the chain gang, the auction block, the Middle Passage, and the Congo witch-doctor and the Crocodile God. *The Emperor Jones*, beginning with Scene 3, is the story of Jones' hounding not by the natives but by his private and racial Self. I agree with Doris Falk (1982) who says, "Jones's hopeless fight through the forest is not from the natives at all, but from himself…" (p. 67)

One of the main attractions and pioneering qualities of *The Emperor Jones* lies in its expressionistic format; Jordan Miller and Winifred Frazer (1991), for example, have labeled it "the first important American expressionistic play" (p. 55). Brutus Jones's journey through the forest has often been read by critics as a psychological journey occurring in the protagonist's mind. Expressionism, born in Europe, was a nonrealistic movement concerned with arriving at new and better means of representing the inner life of humans. It emphasized emotions and thoughts and sought alternative ways of bringing to life such experiences on stage by manipulating the actor's movement, lighting, props, etc. Given that *The Emperor Jones* is one of the ultimate American examples of dramatic expressionism, the scenes portraying Jones in the forest are not realistic, but symbolic of the events and persons from his past that he remembers and has to confront. The West Indian jungle he steps into is the jungle of his mind and of his memories. As a result, Jones's attempt to deal with the "ha'nts" from his past with real bullets becomes an ironic act doomed to failure.

Gabriele Poople (1994) contends in her article "'Blarsted Niggers!': *The Emperor Jones* and Modernism's Encounter with Africa" that the white world of the play is "governed by rationality, individualism and the ability to exert physical violence," and the black one by "'superstitions,' irrationality, dreaming and the unconscious" (p. 26). If we maintain this traditional dichotomy of white rationality and black superstition Jones, faced with the "ha'nts" in the forest, clearly approaches his experiences with white rationality, thus further demonstrating the extent of his assimilation. For instance, he explains the visions he sees as the effect of his hunger. Consequently, Gabriele Poole (1994) argues that Jones fails at his journey because he is no longer equipped to contend with his blackness: "the black world of the forest cannot be mapped out and fixed on a page since it is not ordered according to the rational rules that Jones is familiar with" (p. 26).The Emperor has been so removed from his racial identity that he cannot comprehend, let alone deal with his emerging black unconscious.

Jones's retrogression into his racial past scene after scene has raised heated debates among O'Neill scholars, many of whom interpret these scenes as atavistic and, therefore, derogatory. It is undeniable that O'Neill associate blackness, at least on some level, with the jungle and witch-doctor and imposes on his protagonist the racial journey Jones would rather to carry out. Jones appears trapped in the blackness of the jungle, a space he enters on his own initiative but with different expectations. O'Neill, on the other hand, asks of him that he faces his own truth. Jones is thus required to undergo a transforming experience (recognize and maybe return to his so-called "black" and primitive roots represented in the end by the witch-doctor and the African Crocodile God rather than "whiteness") and fails at it.

However, these scenes are also noteworthy in underlining the oppression African-Americans have suffered at the hands of Euro-Americans, thus, rendering the colonizer Brutus Jones a more sympathetic character. Especially the scenes at the auction block and the slave ship reveal, as Barrett Clark (1929) calls it, a kind of unfolding , in reverse order, of the tragic epic of the American negro" (p. 104). To the auctioneer Jones cries, "And you sells me? And you buys me? I shows you I se a free nigger, damn yo' souls!" (O'Neill, 1988, p. 1054). In the slave ship, Jones joins in with the other slaves, and "His voice reaches the highest pitch of sorrow, of desolation" (p. 1056). John Orr (1981) maintains the same opinion:

The murder of his gambling partner, his escape from a chain gang, the auction of slaves, and finally the witch-doctor and the crocodile-God, represent a backward chronological descent into the horror of suffering and of origin. It is a mimed wordless history which, specific to the descendants of black slaves, has a remarkable universality. The nightmares actually redeem Jones as he moves inexorably towards his tragic doom, for they remind us what, in his wish for absolute power, he has tried to escape from. (p. 172)

What scholars and critics of O'Neill refuse to see is that most of these "nightmares" hint at the crimes of whites. O'Neill seems more intent in this play on bringing to his audience's attention how withes have abused and exploited blacks rather than criticizing Jones for becoming like one of his oppressors. In short, O'Neill condemns whiteness, not blackness.

I have been emphasizing form the start that Jones fails at his psychological quest. Ruby Cohn's argument that "The play is a chronicle of Brutus Jones' progress from a false white surface to his authentic black roots is invalid due to the lack of progress in the end (Cohn, 1971, p. 13). By the time he is killed by the natives, Jones has attained neither self-understanding nor a different identity. For instance, he cannot recognize his fears shaping up in front of him as the "Little Formless Fears" in Scene 2 and calls out to them "What's dat? Who's dar? What is you?" and finally shoots at them while trying to reassure himself that "Dey was only little animals—little wild pigs, I reckon" (O'Neill,1988, p.1046). When in Scene 3, he sees Jeff, his gambling partner whom he has killed, he shoots at him again, determined to get rid of his "ha'nt." His second victim in the United States, the white prison guard, appears in Scene 4, and Jones takes aim at him, too, saying, "I kills you, you white debil, if it's de last thing I even does! Ghost or debil kill you again!"(p. 1051). In the next scene, Jones is forced to stand at the auction block while white Southerners bid on him in mime:

Jones has been seized by the courage of desperation. He dares to look down and around him. Over his face abject terror gives way to mystification, to gradual realization—stutteringly) What you all doin', white folks? What's all dis? What you all lookin' at me fo'? what you doin'wid me, anyhow? (p.1053)

As he finally recognizes the auction block, he uses his last bullet but one and ends the fearful scene and recollection. Regressing further in time, the following scene places Brutus Jones at the Middle Passage with other African slaves. "*Jones starts, looks up, sees the figures, and throws himself down again to shut out the sight*" (p. 1055). But he soon joins his fellowmen in a wail of sorrow; when the images disappear on their own (the first time Jones does not have to seek refuge in his gun), he runs off once more (1056). The last scene where he is seen alive implies an African space and ritual. Jones looks around him and

Passes his hand over his head with a vague gesture of puzzled bewilderment. Then, as if in obedience to some obscure impulse, he sinks into a kneeling, devotional posture before the altar. Then he seems to come to himself partly, to have an uncertain realization of what he is doing, for he straightens up and stares about him horrifiedly. (p. 1057)

Although calling upon Christ, Jones yields to the witch-doctor and participates in his ritualistic dance, but the threat of being sacrificed to the Crocodile God sparks the survival instinct in Jones again, and he fires at the African God with his silver bullet. For the most part, then, Jones can either not recognize, at least easily, these representative scenes from his personal and collective past, or when he does, he usually dissociates himself from them by means of his gun, the

symbol of the West's violent physical intervention. But by the end, he is a lost man (both physically and mentally) since he cannot successfully deal with his past and can attain neither self-knowledge nor enlightenment.

This ending to the play with Jones's inability to return to his "racial roots" should undermine any criticism regarding his atavism. O'Neill does place his protagonist in these atavistic scenes, but if atavism requires that Jones, as a member of his race, has to "revert to the features and life styles of their [his] ancestors," in the words of John Cooley (1982), the fact that he does not should prevent us from judging him as primitive or atavistic ("Harlem Renaissance" p. 78). Brutus Jones's response to being situated in primitivistic scenes is one of confusion and defiance as he aims to put an end to them with the bullets of the white civilization he has adopted.

Because of its complexity and controversial nature, *The Emperor Jones* has been branded nothing short of a racist play. J·L·Styan (1981), for example, asserts, "the play is rarely played [today] because its stereotype of the Negro is unacceptable." (p. 103). In his book *Savages and Naturals*, when John Cooley distinguishes between these two trends in primitivistic black portraiture, he claims that *The Emperor Jones* belongs in the second category, the "savage" portrayals. Cooley maintains, for instance, that the name of the protagonist—Brutus—implies the brute nature of the hero. Richard Long (1987) reminds us as well that the writers writing about blacks during the Harlem Renaissance were aiming at a white audience (p. 48). Richard Delgado and Jean Stefancic (1997) remark that even though their intentions might not have been objectionable, the Harlem Renaissance artist "perpetuated views of African-Americans as the exotic other" (p. 172). Rather than an exotic Other, Jones is all too human in his ambition, in his desire to transcend the menial status allowed him by the American society.

The natives, on the other hand, since they remain in the background, cannot hold up to any in-depth study for the most part. The natives don't make an appearance until the final scene of the play, with the one exception of Jones's maid who stands primarily for the fearful colonized subject. It is true that in Lem, the leader of the revolution, and his followers, we discover the primitive African: *"Lem is a heavy-set, ape-faced old savage of the extreme African type, dressed only in a loin cloth…His soldiers are in different degrees of rag-concealed nakedness"* (O'Neill, 1988, p. 1066). These characters' single connection to the "civilized" world is the guns they are carrying, and their primitiveness is also made more deliberate by their pidgin English. Regrettably, O'Neill has not made much progress in his understanding of West Indians, who are as stereotypical as they were in his earlier plays. The same is equally true of Africans; O'Neill's witch-doctor, whose body is painted, adorned with antelope horns, an animal fur, glass beads, and much more, is as unreal and exotic as an African Other might be. In comparison, O'Neill's African-American characters are more realistic.

One major accomplishment of the Irish-American writer in these portraits, despite these shortcomings, is his depiction of the West Indians as less-than-happy colonized natives who finally determine to oust their emperor. Of course, such representation plays an integral role in O'Neill overt criticism of Western imperialism in this play. John Cooley (1982) argues, however, that the criticism is not focused on either capitalism or colonizlism but on aspiring blacks *(Savages* p. 71-72).

Even though O'Neill establishes Jones as an individual with a particular past and a distinct personality, the tone of his portrait is pejorative. The Emperor Jones is more clown than hero, ultimately a laughable pretender to be pitied and dismissed. O'Neill's bias reveals itself as the play progresses, presenting the defeat not of white colonialism and free enterprise, as some critics would have it, but of an "uppity" black man who presumed to model himself after successful white exploiters. The revenge of the play is complete as Jones reverts to a savage and is defeated, then killed by his own people. (Cooley, 1974, "Harlem Renaissance" p. 77)

Cooley (1974) bases his theory in part on O'Neill's initial description of Jones: *"Yet there is something not altogether ridiculous about his grandeur. He has a way of carrying it off"* (p. 1033). This passage commenting on Jones's outfit is not racially coded; O'Neill never makes any connection between Jones's "ridiculousness" and his skin color. More than likely, he would have commented in similar terms on a white character dressed alike since his target is imperialism and whoever exercises it, not aspiring blacks. Moreover, O'Neill states that Jones inspires awe and respect among the other characters and manages to carry off the "ridiculousness" of imperialism's manifestation and goals. Last but not least, the view that Jones is an "uppity black man" is only voiced in the play by Smithers, a clearly repulsive character, and therefore, has little validity. Jones is no clown even if he is no hero either. He is, most of all, a tragic character. He contends with the forces in his life in the only way he knows, and the white way, because it is wrong, brings about his fall.

In addition to the essential questions it raises about racial relations and colonialism, *The Emperor Jones* is also significant in black theatre history. As John Cooley (1974) himself admits, *The Emperor Jones* was a "'breakthrough' play in American theater" because it was "the first American play to employ black actors and develop a major black portrait" ("Harlem Renaissance" p. 73). The presence of a black protagonist offered the first major role to be played by an African-American actor and consequently furthered the dramatic careers of both Charles Gilpin and Paul Roberson. Richard Long (1987) underlines the importance of the role for African-American actors at the time and for American drama in general:

The role is virtually a monologue. The performance requires a *tour de force* of the actor, serving to indicate the high caliber of black dramatic talent. Secondly Brutus Jones is a highly complex character capable of considerable introspection, and this seemed to be an improvement on the black-as-buffoon. (p. 44)

Roger Oliver points to the positive aspects of O'Neill's black protagonist by noting how until the end "Brutus Jones maintains his dignity and strength as the first great black American dramatic character." (p. 58).

Even nine decades after its premiere, *The Emperor Jones* remains, in some ways, the most controversial and complicated play about blackness by O'Neill. Because of these qualities, it has troubled scholars who endeavor to create coherent interpretations of its disparate elements. Essentially, we need to remember that the play is a landmark in the playwright's slow but steady maturation toward understanding blackness or rather African-Americans. His depiction of the African-American psyche, experience, and fate evolved over time, leaving a legacy of more realistic, sympathetic, and tragic black figures to American theatre. *The Emperor Jones* is a milestone American play in its harsh condemns of whiteness and of the abuse whites impose on non-whites for materialistic gain: empires, gold, land, and money. Jones is a tragic character not only because he has been personally persecuted by whites as a black man, or because he dies having failed at self-knowledge, but also because he has chosen to become a puppet in the hands of the white socioeconomic structure, which has exploited him and his own people in the past. Hoping to change his tragic destiny, he assimilates and imposes it on others like him, the West Indians. Because he has been harmed by whiteness, he adopts a white mask and strives to "pass" among other blacks, but thus trapped in a vicious circle, he ends up promoting, rather than terminating, the very white heritage which has destroyed him.

III. Conclusion: O'Neill and His Racial Other

O'Neill's black characters present a bewildering heterogeneity to scholars. Especially his earliest attempts at depicting blackness promote some of the contemporary racial stereotypes; hence, the association of blackness with the jungle, cannibalism, and primitivism. While *The Emperor Jones* made a striking break in Eugene O'Neill's approach toward his Racial Other as he shifted his focus from the exotic West Indians to the burdensome fates of black Americans. Form this point on, while he might have occasionally reverted to stereotypes, in general his writings began not only to dispute but also to debunk politically-motivated racial myths.

How did O'Neill manage to disown the privileged white perspective? I am not sure one can provide a definitive answer to that question. Nevertheless, it is obvious that O'Neill the man as well as O'Neill the dramatist befriended the downtrodden: sailors and prostitutes, for example. Maybe because of his sympathy for the underdog, Eugene O'Neill was able to see, more often than not, African-Americans as human beings, not as people with a skin color darker than his. His work draws attention to the economic, social, and political injustices affecting them while highlighting their following psychological and mental anguish.

Eugene O'Neill grew up in the theatre world of his father reigned over by melodrama, which emphasized stereotypical plots and characters repeated from one play to the next with minor alterations. Normand Berlin (1982) explains in his "Eugene O'Neill": "The son distanced himself from the father's legacy early on as it was in contention with his own world view. O'Neill appears to have found the stylistic correspondence of his tragic vision in realism and naturalism, both of which, targeting a faithful representation of reality, accentuate individual characters and the specific forces that shape their lives" (p. 6).

Eugene O'Neill occupies a central place in this study because he was the first major Anglo-American playwright to consistently investigate racial problems, consequently discovering in the Negro a tragic character rather than an entertainer. His use of occasional stereotypes may be explained by his insufficient exposure to black people. Yet O'Neill's shortcomings are balanced by his fearlessness in probing into socially threatening issues, like racial antagonism. Maybe Jim Harris best sums up O'Neill's essential view of humanity: " We're all the same—equally just—under the sky—under the sun—sailing over the sea—to the other side of the world—the kind side that takes count of the soul."

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A Critical Meta-analytic Exploration of Birth Order Effect on L1 Onset Time of Speaking and Language Development Progression; Is the Pointer towards First or Later Borns?

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Abstract—Among the various underlying issues behind First Language (L1) acquisition processes, child Birth Order (BO) effect is one of the recent revitalized enquires of research of the 1900s but is confounding with many contradictory results in the literature. In this research, the intention was to elucidate if first-born or later-born children typically outperform in their language development processes. To this end, a systematic meta-analytic examination of child BO from 1970 to 2014 was undertaken in major related databases including TIRF, CHILDES, John Wiley, Taylor & Francis, PubMed and Science Direct. Studies in which language development had been mapped on BO effect and published from 1970 were included and the rest excluded from initial data collection. Finally, the research outcomes in which BO effects had been claimed to have caused delayed language development among either of the groups mentioned above have been discussed critically to explicate the existing contradictory findings.

Index Terms—birth order, onset time of speaking, L1, child-directed speech, parental speech

I. INTRODUCTION

After going through broad and inevitable developmental processes like crying, babbling and first word stages within the first year of life, nearly any healthy kid will go through later combinations of multi-word stages until by around five years of age typically any normal kid will be using his/her first language in nearly as much complex as any mature native speaker (Cattel, 2007). It seems that the timeline is the same for all children but the stages at which the language variants emerge are accomplished unevenly and thus has been the target of various research studies within L1 domains. In this respect, one non-linguistic aspect of L1 being considered by L1 scholars as a key issue in such variability among children learning their native language has been the child's Birth Order (BO) of life, an issue which has formally been raised in the 1900s by Alfred Adler, the founder of Individual Psychology.

In essence, BO or *'family constellation'* refers to a person's place or rank in the family. Undeniably, BO effects denote that due to the presence of older siblings, both the quantity and quality of Child-Directed Speech (CDS) by the parents reduce to a lesser extent for the later borns compared with first- born or only children (Jones & Adamson, 1987; Rothbart, 1971; Wellen, 1985 & Woollett, 1986). BO and its possible consequences were more formally investigated in the early 20th century with some disparate studies in the databases like West (1871) or Galton (1874) cited in Ogden (2013). Specifically, West, (1871) also cited in Hellal and Lorch (2005) has apparently been one of the pioneers to identify individual differences concerning language acquisition patterns due to BO.

A. Context of the Problem

Fundamentally, the basic controversy among scientists regarding BO effect on L1 development has long been that people's place within the family may have a subtle impact in their tendency to exhibit a variety of characteristics. Such characteristics have long been explored ranging from body shape and intelligence to disease susceptibility and even sexuality tendencies (Ogden, 2013). After comparing the BO effects among both animals and human beings, Ogden reminded us of our distinct abilities and characteristics which must be deemed pertinent as far as our place in the family is concerned:

… BO may subtly influence our physical and mental health, our opportunities for education, and our careers. Not all younger siblings will be spoiled and allergy-free, not all middle-borns will be social butterflies, and not all older siblings will be tall, intelligent, responsible leaders, but our place in parity provides fascinating insights into the complexity that makes each of us unique. (p.43)

Generally speaking, two opposing viewpoints on the probable effects of child BO on delayed language development within L1 acquisition milieu exist in the L1 literature. There are some scholars believing that first-born children are in a better situation for developing their L1 elements (Afaghi, Mehri, Soleymani, Jalaie, and Azizi Zalani, 2013; Bornstein, Leach and Haynes, 2004; Fenson, Reznick, Bates, Thal, & Pethick, 1994; Goldfield and Reznik, 1996; Hart and Risley,1995; Hoff, 2003; Jones and Adamson, 1987; Kowalski, Wyver, Masselos, & De Lacey, (2004); Leman, 2009; Parada, 2013; Pine, 1995; Price, 2000, 2008, 2013; Rodgers, Cleveland, Van Den Oord, and Rowe, (2000); Sulloway, 2001; Wellen, 1985; Woollett, 1986; Zyrianova, Chertkova Yu, and Pankratova, 2013; Zambrana, Ystrom, & Pons, 2012). Adversely, there are some having claimed that later-born children could develop their L1 via overhearing which moved them more forward in developing language skills by putting them in an enhanced situation compared with the first borns (Barton & Tomasello ,1991; Bornstein, et al., 2004). For example, Barton and Tomasello (1991) brought an example of pronoun usage internalization for first vs. second person pronoun referencing in overheard speech which had been proven to be beneficiary among some 19 later-born children; a situation that had not benefited the children with first birth rank. On the other hand, some researchers had claimed fewer opportunities for hearing parental speech and CDS to the later-born children which this could lead to fewer opportunities for them that might be disadvantageous in their language learning experiences (McCarthy, 1954; Wellen, 1985). In this status quo, there were also some researches in which there were no claimed effects for BO (Berkowitz, 2000; Skeat, J., Wake, M., Reilly, S., Eadie, P., Bretherton, L., Bavin, EL., and Ukoumunne, OC., 2010; Tomblin, JB., 1990). Berkowitz (2000) asserted that while BO, laziness, and bilingualism were all "commonly believed to lead to speech and language delay, their contributory role has never been proved" (p. 55). In skeat et al, (2010) it was declared that precocity or early language development was not strongly influenced by the examined variables in their study comprising gender, birth order, birth weight, non-English speaking background, socioeconomic status (SES), maternal age, maternal mental health scores, and vocabulary and educational attainment of parents. No BO effect for language impairment was also reported by Tomblin, (1990) saying that the distribution of birth ranks of all language-impaired children within the sibships had not been found to show any evidence in favor of the conflicted children either with early or later born birth ranks. As clear, many claims and counterclaims existed in L1 literature for BO effect which brought an imperative puzzling question to us as to what probable factors might be involved in this complex web or matrix regarding their research methodologies that have possibly led to such variability from biological sciences to social arts and humanities.

B. Significance of the Study

Unfortunately, the research studies investigating BO effect on language development are rather few in number and inconsistent in terms of the reported results in the existing literature. Moreover, the due advantages of BO for first-born compared with later-born children have been investigated mostly as a subsidiary variable along with various other psychological aspects like personality, anxiety level, self-respect, identity, and occupational achievements, as well as educational attainment, but concerning BO in language development, scant attention has been paid by the scholars in the field (Kowalski, et al., 2004). This has been one of the main motives behind doing the present investigation. Thus, closely at issue here was examining the changing patterns of parents' exchange of information towards their children which have been at times sought in the linguistic environment as a pertinent factor and is allegedly said to influence the quality of language development progression and also Onset Time of speaking (OTS) among the target group above. Technically speaking, OTS refers to the development of expressive and communicative behavior from early infancy to the initiation of single-word utterances by the children (Masataka, 2003).

Therefore, the underlying assumption behind doing the present research was that the crucial individual characteristics of the different participants involved in various studies in terms of a comprehensive meta-analytic approach over the years might reveal some hidden aspects in this regard. Thus, the questions that were specifically addressed in the present investigation were:

1. What possible linguistic variability could be found in the L1 literature among the speech of first-born vs. later-born that justly and thus validly characterized BO effects on delayed language development among either first or later-born children?

2. Do finally first-born or later-born children take over in their OTS and successive language progression rate?

II. METHODOLOGY

In this review survey, the researchers tried to analytically audit the previous research undertakings in which BO had been focused as a fundamental topic for diffusion of language data for a kid concerning his/her first words. In clear terms, the main intention was to make it clear through a systematic meta-analytic examination if children's BO is claimed by the majority of the L1 researchers to have any specific effect on the first-born children compared with later-born children regarding their OTS or not. Many other effects of BO on other child-related aspects of life were retrieved including the impact of BO on the children stunting, language stuttering onset time, mortality rate, handedness, and psychological effects for BO like attachment security, Theory of Mind (Tom) and aggression along with many others which were excluded from the initial data collection phase. Below, the strategies in retrieving the essential data for our meta-analysis is first described.

Data collection procedures

An examination of child BO from 1970 to 2014 was undertaken over major databases on both applied and pure linguistics including Science Direct (SD), John Wiley, Pubmed, Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES), Taylor & Francis (TF), and The International Research Foundation for English Language Education (TRIF). The major applied search terms were mainly "birth order", "BO effect", "L1 and BO", "first language development" along many others pertained to BO. Meanwhile, those researches in which BO effect was not directly related to children's' linguistic achievement were excluded in the data collection stage. Accordingly, to verify the retrieved research data, the information behind each article proposing any claims for or against BO effect and language development were mapped over similar undertakings in other databases and parallel disciplines in order to depict maximum comparability of results. Explicitly, we were seeking to find ample evidence and facts in the above-cited databases in order to provide substantial facts so as to see if later-born children (second or third) have their first stage OTS sooner than their first-born siblings or lag behind and what processes have been pondered about by the L1 scholars in this precedence among the target group.

III. REVIEW RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As shown in Table 1 below, the results of major, relevant journal articles and books regarding BO effect has been first depicted. For brevity purposes, the most prominent ones in which BO effect had been addressed as the major and not controlling variable have been classified chronologically from 1973 till 2013.

TABLE 1.
A SAMPLE OF RETRIEVED RESEARCH ARTICLES ON BO EFFECT BRIEFING THE EXPLORED THEMES AND THEIR RESULTS

No.	The retrieved sources	Results obtained for BO effect
1	Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics/Linguistics and Language/ Julia Falk, 1973	She discovered that her daughter who couldn't say the word spoon, after being reminded some similar combinations like "sun" or "pun", couldn't understand what she was being told. She probably knew the word "spoon" but she couldn't just pronounce or articulate it.
2	Quantitative review of the only child literature: research evidence and theory development/Psychological Bulletin/Falbo & Polit, 1986	Firstborns, only children, and children with one other sibling scored higher on tests of verbal ability than later borns and children with multiple siblings.
3	Everyday experiences of first-and later born infants. Minneapolis/Poster presented at the 11th biennial meeting of the International Society for the Study of Behavioral Development/ Leyendecker,1991	First-born children experience more dyadic interaction with their parents. Younger siblings have more sophisticated conversational skills.
4	Convention and contrast in the acquisition of verbs./Clark, Neel-Gordon, & Johnson, 1993	The practicing kid had given clear evidence of a vocabulary spurt just prior to her first production of two-word combinations, while the non-practicing one had shown no signs of a spurt but demonstrated steady acquisition of new words and produced word combinations early, within a few weeks after production of his first word.
5	Variability in early communicative development/Monographs of the Society of Research in Child Development,/Fenson et. al., 1994	Small but reliable negative correlation was found between some lexical elements of language as to breadth and depth ok knowledge that favored first-borns.
6	Measuring the vocabulary spurt: A reply to Mervis & Bertrand/ Journal of Child Language /Goldfield and Reznick,1996	First-born children showing more probability towards producing a spurt compared with second-borns
7	Birth order effects on early language development: Do second born children learn from overheard speech?/Child development/Oshima-Takane, Goodz & Derevensky, 1996	In pronoun production and not overall language development, second born children conquered over the first-borns at both ages.
8	The relation of birth order and SES to children's language experience and language development/Applied Psycholinguistics/Hoff, 1998	1. First-born children were identified as more advanced in lexical and grammatical development than later-born. 2. Later-borns were more advanced in conversational skills. 3. High SES showed more advanced lexical development than mid SES.
9	Resolving the debate over birth order, family size, and intelligence/ The American Psychologist /Rodgers, et al., 2000	No relationship was found between BO and intelligence, let alone the verbal skill sub-assets of the IQ test.
10	Birth Order, Sibling Competition, and Human Behavior/ Conceptual Challenges in Evolutionary Psychology: Innovative Research Strategies: Dordrecht and Boston: Kluwer / Sulloway, F.J. 2001	Firstborns are more conscientious, more socially dominant, less agreeable, and less open to new ideas compared to later-borns.
11	The specificity of environmental influence. Socio-economic status affects early vocabulary development via maternal speech/Child Development /Hoff, 2003	1. Mean birth order of the higher SES children was higher than that of mid SES children. 2. Gender had no effect.
12	Toddlers' emerging symbolic play: a first-born advantage? / Early Child Development and Care/ Kowalski et al., 2004	A relationship may exist between birth order and the frequency of symbolic imagination reflected in language in mixed-age play.
13	Parent-child quality time: does birth order matter?/Human Resources/Price, 2008	Compared with the second-born children, the first-borns received 20 more minutes of quality time from father and 25 minutes from mother. Such quality time increased for families of higher SES.
14	In conversation with children / First language acquisition/ Clark, Eve. V., 2009	An early vocabulary spurt reflects changes in children's skill at producing words. This might indicate advances in articulatory motor skill rather than insight into the symbolic value of words. But he gives more prominence to the practice rate of children.
15	Defusing the childhood vocabulary explosion/Science/McMurray, 2007	Understanding BO effect in word spurts is a complicated issue confounded with various factors.
16	Why You Are the Way You Are". / The Birth Order, New York: Dell Publishing/ Leman, 2009	A brief review: If spacing between the first and later children is more than five years in age, BO characteristics may not apply. Spending more quality with parents and undiluted or pure resources are mentioned for such effect.
17	Birth Order Position and Pro-social Tendencies. /Schwär & Mahony, 2012	Although no definitive relationship was found between prosaically tendencies and BO, only between middle-borns and last-borns was the BO effect significant. As to altruism, Middle-borns had scored higher in their pro-social tendencies.
18	Early vocabulary and gestures in Estonian children/ Journal of child development/ Schults, Tulvist & Konstabel, 2012	First-born children had an advantage over later-born children in the production of common nouns.
19	Sibling Variation and Family Language Policy: The Role of Birth Order in the Spanish Proficiency and First Names of Second-Generation Latino/Language, Identity & Education/Parada, 2013	1. As to the CDS language variant -Spanish vs. English, (72) % of the minority language speaking families in the US regarded the firstborn as speaking the "best" Spanish, with far fewer (23%) mothers reporting that the second-born child was the most skilled in this respect. 2. Interestingly, the first-born were also most often selected (at 67%) as the most proficient speakers of English.
20	Rehabilitation College, Tehran University of Medical Sciences/ Afaghi, et. al., (2013)	There was a significant relationship among the ability of comprehending passive sentences and age, birth order and parents education. Just correlational reports are given but any indication of what mechanisms might be involved as to BO effect for comprehending passive sentences is missing in this study.

As the table designates and in line with the proposed questions, two major aspects of L1 language development for BO effect were found to be more conspicuous in the literature; namely, a) *lexical knowledge* and b) *conversational skills*. Below, each will be examined in the light of the retrieved studies respectively.

A. BO Effect and L1 Lexical Knowledge Progress

The BO effect on the vocabulary knowledge which, by way of experiments, due to its tangible nature, received lots of attention by the L1 investigators is first open folded.

In the studies cited, lots of word-related aspects of language development had been considered and across various languages. concerning the BO effect and developing L1 lexical knowledge rate and quality, two aspects of vocabulary knowledge including 1) depth and breadth of L1 vocabulary and 2) word spurts were found more fixated in the eyes of the L1 scholars, which are reviewed one by one in the following sections.

1. The depth and breadth of L1 vocabulary knowledge among the first vs. later borns

Concerning the depth of L1 vocabulary knowledge and BO effect, one can mention the researches made by some recent scholars like (Berglund, et al., 2005; Bornstein, et al., 2004; Fenson, 1994 et al., & Hoff-Ginsberg, 1998 & Schults et al, 2012).

Fenson et al. (1994, p. 84), for example, found that concerning word combining and the Mean Length of Utterance (MLU), a 'small but reliable negative correlation' could be found between these elements of language that favored first borns. Bornstein, et al., (2004) found that mothers reported larger receptive and expressive vocabularies in their first borns. Berglund, et al. (2005), on the other hand, found some counter evidence saying that first-born children just reached the 50-word milestone earlier than later-born children, then after that stage there are no differences in vocabulary production between first and later-born children. This had also been verified by Pine (1995) explicating that first borns had reached the 50-word milestone, on average, one month earlier than their younger siblings—indicating a 'small but significant birth-order effect' (p. 272). Berglund et al. (2005) then concluded that:

"…it seems that the BO effect is limited just to the OTS not to the overall attainment rate". (p. 490)

According to Berglund, it seemed then that in the long run BO effect couldn't be thought to bring about any significant differences among first vs. later borns. This was rejected by Schults et al (2012) though. In their study, regarding comprehension and production of common nouns among girls and boys of different BO ranks, they found that first-born children had an advantage over later-born children and this effect was more conspicuous among girls esp. at social terms and expressions.

Another aspect pertained to the children's lexical development under the influence of BO on OTS was 'word spurts'. Below, the retrieved data on word spurt will be explicated.

2. Word Spurts and BO

Technically, the term 'Word spurt' refers to the abrupt onset of language that most children achieve around 18 months or so. As to the interactive effect of BO and word spurts, i.e. the production of first words by the children not at a steady pace but unexpectedly, Goldfield and Reznick (1990, 1996) explored the correlations between the presence or absence of a word spurt and BO. Their results pointed to the fact that apparently, first-born children were slightly more likely to show a spurt in production compared with second borns. Conversely, Clark (2009) brought another evidence to the study by Goldfield and Reznick (1990, 1996) suggesting that an early vocabulary spurt that reflected changes in children's skill at producing words might indicate advances in articulatory motor skill rather than insights into the symbolic value of words but it gave prominence to the practice rate of children. In his study, he brought an example on comparing two such children-both first-borns (Clark et al., 1993). Apparently, the practicing kid had given clear evidence of a vocabulary spurt just prior to her first production of two-word combinations, while the non-practicing one had shown no signs of a spurt but demonstrated steady acquisition of new words and produced word combinations early, within a few weeks after production of his first word. This issue had also been raised and approved by Dromi (1987). Accordingly, receiving the symbolic value of words alongside practice effects had been associated with developing motor skills in children since it involved production assets with itself. He added that some vocabulary spurts couldn't be considered spurts at all since words were outlined along various levels of difficulty; when a child learnt a new lexical item, s/he was, in fact, adding the word to a repertoire of a larger vocabulary stock that might or might not have helped in understanding the meaning of the word along with having the necessary motor skills for producing that word for us to consider the utterances produced as such by the children as a word spurt.

Goldfield (1996), in reply to Mervis & Bertrand, worked on the probable correlations between the presence or absence of a word spurt and BO. Their results indicated that first-born children again showed more probability towards producing a spurt compared with second borns. However, no account of how it was managed was reported but Clark (2009). He brought a counter argument which was in direct opposition to the gained result in Goldfield's study. He asserted that an early vocabulary spurt could reflect changes in children's skill at producing words and this might indicate advances in articulatory motor skills rather than insight into the symbolic value of words. He gave more prominence to the practice rate of children, though. Accordingly, Clark presented the complex task of researchers to identify word spurts themselves in understanding the BO effect. In a rather recent work by McMurray (2007), cited in Clark (2009) a computational modeling of the above-mentioned factors was presented showing that a vocabulary spurt is simply the natural product of parallel learning combined with variations in difficulty that complicated the BO effect

in developing the children' lexical items. In the same vein, some other scholars had also mentioned the same findings (Anisfeld, Rosenberg, Hoberman, & Gasparini, 1998; Redford & Miikkulainen, 2007).

B. The Impact of BO and Developing Conversational Skills

The other identified and mostly focused aspect of L1 acquisition as to BO effect in the selected databases was that of conversational skills. Among some influential papers investigating BO and conversational skills, we found Clark, (2009), Evans, Maxwell, & Hart, (1999), Hoff-Ginsberg (1998) and Jacobs, & Moss, (1976). In Hoff-Ginsberg's study, first-born and later-born children in higher SES vs. middle SES families were compared by studying the language addressed to children and their rates of language development. By age, later borns were found more advanced in conversational skills. Interestingly, the pointer now was moving gradually to the later borns, though again, as expected, inconsistencies in the results were also common in the literature. Regarding the verbal skill prominence as to BO effect, Falbo and Polit (1986), for instance, had found that first borns, only children, and children with one other sibling scored higher on tests of verbal ability than later borns and children with multiple siblings. This was also in line with Jacobs and Moss' study (1976) in which it had been claimed that mothers' higher interaction behavior with their first-born children had caused second borns to lag behind in their language development processes compared with first born chidren. In by Rodgers et al., (2000), the predominance of first borns in verbal skills of IQ tests was disputed via a comprehensive meta-analysis. They had retrieved the relevant data from National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) of USA, by examining a large randomly selected sample of US families. Their sample included children whose academic performance had been reviewed multiple times throughout their academic careers. In this study, no relationship was found between BO and intelligence, let alone the verbal skill sub-assets of the IQ test. This study was not in Line with a previous similar investigation by Cropley and Ahlers (1975) on IQ and BO for verbal skills. In this study, sixty only boys who had no siblings had been compared with sixty-four fisrt0born children at two age levels. The results showed the outperformance of First borns compared with the only kids which indicated development of verbal abilities had been mainly facilitated by contact with parental models of language behavior.

Concerning developing more conversational skills, some other scholars like Leyendecker (1991) raised BO matter as a factor by suggesting that overhearing and participating in conversations with older siblings had helped a later-born younger child to develop language by being provided with a more varied and sophisticated model of conversation among the family. The complexity of individuals in speaking with other members of the family might be attributed to some psychological effects that provoke the later-borns to experience more quality talks compared with their older siblings. Schwär and Mahony (2012), for instance, examined the link between psychological birth order position and different types and levels of pro-social tendencies. By pro-social tendencies, it was meant the likelihood that an individual engages in '*voluntary actions for helping other groups of individuals*'. Then, although no definitive relationship was found between pro-social tendencies and BO, only between middle-borns and last-borns was the BO effect found significant. As to altruism, Middle-borns had scored higher in their pro-social tendencies which implied that middle-borns were more altruistic than last-borns. As stated later in this research, such effect for BO on the altruism subscale were explained by the sociability factor of the NEO Five-Factor Inventory and agreeableness measures (Beck, Burnet, & Vosper, 2006 and Paulhus, Trapnell, & Chen, 1999, all cited in Schwär and Mahony 2012). Tendency among the middle-borns to experience more conversational skills was claimed among them to exist due to some perceived self-worth in terms of interpersonal acceptance and evaluation from their company in Kalkan, (2008) cited in Schwär and Mahony, (2012) which provoked them towards more sophisticated conversational skills.

In Evan's et al., study (1999), the number of people living in the house and the amount of parent-child speech were surveyed. It was found that adults in crowded homes spoke to their children in less sophisticated ways than adults in less-crowded homes. And adults in more crowded settings were less responsive verbally to their children. This finding was independent of SES but since there were more crowding in lower SES homes, this was likely to impact lower SES children more than the ones with higher SES. In other words, the children in lower SES families were less likely to produce more sophisticated language in communicating with others. This fact had been pondered by some other scholars like Farran and Ramey (1980) and Savaú (2006) as true. They claimed that in lower SES families, apart from lower size of sophisticated language directed to children, the quality of more sophisticated language, even if directed to the children couldn't generally be warranted. In Farran and Ramey's study, it was found that mothers with medium level of education and income had gradually more time to take care of their babies at the age of 6 to 20 months, while mothers with lower educational levels and income had even less. Moreover, mothers at the first group had played with their children two times more than the mothers in the second group. The contribution of the above-cited to language development is made more obvious when we consider the fact that language development depends on the frequency and quality of mutual communication interactions between the child and his/her environment. Savaú, (2006), cited in Sevinç and Önkol, (2009) also reported that language development is slow in children of mothers in the second group described above. In a recent comprehensive study by Price (2008), the amount of parental quality time for the first vs. second borns was examined. By way of calculation, he estimated that among two-child families, on average, the first borns daily received twenty more minutes of quality time from father and twenty-five minutes from mother compared with the second-born children. Such quality time increased for families of higher SES because the first borns had experienced repeated periods of higher quality parental exposure (Price, 2000, cited in Bonesrønning, & Massih, (2011). Such impact had been thought by some scholars as long-lasting in the children' course of life. In this regard, it's been claimed

that the children in lower SES homes cannot compensate the inadequacy of the talk s/he has heard. This issue had been raised by Hart & Risley (1995) in that the effects of SES, IQ and children's language production in terms of both amount and quality had all been associated with progress in elementary school. In other words, the more language data the children had had during their earlier stages of life, the better results they achieved in their achievement levels on some standardized tests. Walker, Greenwood, Hart, & Carta, (1994) had come up with the same results among some five to ten year-old subjects.

Regarding the interactional patterns that are directly influenced by BO, Dunn's study (1983) was very interesting. In this study, Dunn had noted that for later-borns, the direction of interaction was usually towards siblings not the parents as experienced with first-borns. Concerning sibling interaction, it was mentioned that since communication is mainly nonverbal, older siblings' talk towards their younger siblings mainly consisted of 'prohibition' and 'directives'. In this situation, such statements generally included a high proportion of pronouns and pro-forms and were highly repetitive. The same finding pertained with pronoun production predominance were gained some years later by Oshima-Tkane et al., (1996) through investigating second-born children's overheard speech. Overall, some distinguishing features for the predominance of later-borns over their older siblings in other investigated conversational aspects in other studies like Gleason, (1973), cited in McCabe, (1989) showed the same results. In Mc Cabe's study, it was also noted that the force by the older siblings on their beginning language learning younger siblings to use social expressions was clearly detectable, like "please" and "thank you," expressions which were already demanded by the parents to be used by the first-borns (p.11). McCabe classified children in two dimensions characterized by two learning styles termed as 'reverential' versus 'expressive'. In reverential styles, the more conspicuous features are the predominance of common nouns, slower rate of speech but faster language learning stages. On the other hand, expressive style stands itself out by a predominance of pronouns rather than nouns, slower vocabulary development, language use mainly for social interaction using formulaic structures and slower language development. After describing the two variants for L1, McCabe argued that later-borns were more expressive-oriented compared with the first borns with reference to conversational skills.

All in all, claims and counter claims were abundant in this line of enquiry and lots of ideas and their opposing counterclaims puzzled us to a great extent.

IV. Conclusion

In the present meta-analytic study, the researchers tried to bring to the readers' mind what had been done on BO effect over OTS and language progression among first vs. later-born (second and more) children in the existing literature from 1970 till 2013.

To reiterate the proposed questions, in this study, the intention was to specify what possible linguistic variability could be found in the literature that justly characterized BO effects on probable delayed language development among children? As the review results showed and in line with the first research question, two lines of research were conspicuous in this regard, namely lexical knowledge and conversational skills. Obviously many research data had brought evidence in favor of first borns concerning these two lines of enquiry (Afaghi, et al, 2013; Bornstein, et al., 2004; Falbo and Polit, 1986; Fenson et al., 1994; Goldfield and Reznik, 1996; Hart & Risley ,1995; Hoff, 2003; Jones & Adamson, 1987; Kowalski, et al., 2004; Leman, 2009; Parada, 2013; Pine, 1995; Price, 2000, 2008; Redgers, et al, (2000); Sulloway, 2001; Wellen, 1985 & Woollett, 1986). Now, we wondered why the scale of language development was more weighted for the first borns in many linguistic aspects compared with the later borns.

Researchers' claimed reasons for the outperformance of first borns

In line with the second research question the present review, though inconclusive in its final results, found more research findings favoring first-born children in both their OTs and overall language development practices. Generally speaking, four main underlying reasons were mostly found in action favoring first-born children; namely, 1) more access and quality time with parents, 2) SES effects, 3) practicing effects along with 4) some psychological characteristics in favor of the first borns which are explicated with evidence-based results, below.

In Kowalski et al., (2004) in which the influence of older peers on younger children's emerging symbolic imagination for vocabulary knowledge was examined, a relationship was thought to exist between BO and the frequency of symbolic imagination reflected in language in mixed-age play. It was thought that first-borns may have had more access and quality time with parents accordingly they have outperformed the later borns in this regard. As we saw, having more quality time with parents on the part of the first borns and only child had also been engrossed in many other research data above (Hart & Risley, 1995; Jones & Adamson, 1987; Leman, 2009; Leyendecker, 1991; Price, 2000; Wellen, 1985 &Woollett, 1986). Regarding linguistic background, due to variant environments for first vs. later-born children, Leyendecker (1991), for instance, reported the same effects saying that first-born children spend significantly more time with their caregivers in activities that come up with dyadic interaction compared with later-born children. Accordingly, first-born children may benefit from more face-to-face attention from their caregivers that involves one-to one interaction. In other words, later-born children are believed to generally spend more time in multi-speaker contexts not in dyadic contexts as happens more to the first-borns. Apart from the nature of interaction, hitherto, the amount of CDS in later borns is also lessened, though it's to the maximum for the first children. Overall, the distinguishing features of exposure typology for the first borns are then more CDS extent with more quality time that is

prone for developing first words sooner. This status quo is, by nature, different for the later borns in the sense that the CDS typology changes more into multi-party exchange of information that is likely to improve other aspects of language development in future stages of life for the children involved.

Apart from quality time, other researchers had sought the effect of SES favoring again the first borns that had received more quality time compared with their younger siblings. Hoff (2003) had investigated this line of research by surveying the BO with SES effects of early vocabulary development via maternal speech. The higher mean birth order of the higher SES children favoring the first borns over that of mid-SES children was associated with different properties of maternal speech as a function of SES.

Still, another claimed underlying reason by some scholars in favor of first borns was practicing effect. As to practice effect and BO concerning word spurts, for example, Clark et al., (1993) examined two first-born children with practicing and non-practicing modes of some vocabulary items. He indicated that the practicing kid had given clear evidence of a vocabulary spurt just prior to her first production of two-word combinations, while the non-practicing one had shown no signs of a spurt but demonstrated steady acquisition of new words and thus had produced word combinations earlier, within a few weeks after production of his first word i.e., the effect of practice rate along with promoting symbolic value of words had been mentioned to work alongside one another not in isolation. This aspect of word spurt was frowned on by McMurray (2009), though. He proposed a very interesting interactive model that indicated the complexity involved in associating the outperformance of the first over the later borns concerning word spurt and practicing effect. He believed that a vocabulary spurt was simply the natural product of parallel learning combined with variations in difficulty that complicated the BO effect in developing the children' lexical items.

Paralleled psychological and biological characteristics with BO effect in favor of first borns was also deemed probable in the examined data. In Sulloway's work, (2001) regarding the BO effect on promoting five personality factors, first borns were found to be more successful since they were considered as more conscientious and more socially dominant. Although being less agreeable and less open to new ideas compared to later-borns, they were albeit deemed as more successful communication partners. Here, among the traits, the first two traits including conscience and social dominance was justified by this researcher as highly helping the first-borns to overcome the later borns in taking turns and contributing to a full-fledged conversation compared with their younger sisters or brothers. In clear terms, BO has long been considered as a crucial underlying factor in promoting five personality factors including openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Sulloway, 2001). But, in the existing literature, it's not clear how these five personality traits which are highly relevant to a successful communication on the part of the first borns, in effect, why the later-borns prove to be more successful? Sulloway argued that first borns are more conscientious, more socially dominant, less agreeable, and less open to new ideas compared to later borns. Among the traits, the first two traits can highly help the first borns overcome the later borns in taking turns and contributing to a full-fledged conversation compared with their younger sisters or brothers. The previous researchers all related the more successful conversational skills of the later borns to overhearing that had happened more to them and not to any embodied psychological effects (Goodz, 1994; Hoff-Ginsberg & Kruger, 1991; Mannle, Barton, & Tomasello, 1991, all cited in Oshima-Takane et al., 1996). Quite recently, Harris (2006) criticized Sulloway's ideas for some conflicting findings. As Lamb and Smith (1982) had already indicated, BO could possibly be eliminated, reinforced, or likely altered by later experiences of the children in life. "…*development is continuous, with individuals continually adjusting to the competing demands of socialization agents and biological tendencies"*. This was congruent with the same interpretation that was developed a decade later by Hart & Risley (1995) above. Regarding paralleled confounding factors with BO which worked in favor of first borns, the study by Zambrana et al (2012) was prominent. Doing a longitudinal exploration on the impact of birth order, child gender, maternal education, and language comprehension, they found out that between 18 and 36 months of age, first-born girls of mothers with high educational attainment had the highest increase in their language comprehension skills at 36 month of age. Accordingly, being firstborn or having a highly educated mother had not been claimed to compensate for the lower performance of first-born boys compared with girls.

In a nutshell, this has admittedly led more scientists not to support the claims made in the studies which solely rely on BO effects without considering other confounding variables like family size, SES assets, ,biological factors, personality aspects, etc. For example, in those large families which are more likely to be from a lower SES than smaller families, are the children more affected by coming from larger and thus poorer families or having a particular trait? Is it due to birth order, to family size, or to any number of other variables? Such confounding variables, in effect, might have led to some inconsistent results in the literature.

To cut a long story short, overall, lots of criticisms could be raised concerning the methodological flaws for both campaigns like the incompetency of experimentations arising from comparisons between natural settings of the children and the modeling experiments. Providing the exact relevant natural setting for the experimental vs. control groups is a far-reaching task since the complex evolving process that swiftly changes over the child's mind, admittedly, calls for various simulated case studies that take into account life trajectories through pervasive observation methods and across different socio-cultural settings for the children rather than controlled experimental conditions that probably narrows the realities involved. Prompted by many critical researchers, the complexity of L1 acquisition mechanism of each child should thus be pictured in more fully-functioning research designs (Oshima-Takane, et al., 1996).

Finally it's interesting to note that concerning BO effects, existing meta-analytic researches in the databases, which were very few in numbers, were also diverse in reporting and mostly inconclusive like the one by Ernst and Angst (1983). After reviewing all the research data published between 1946 and 1980, they found no substantial effects for BO and concluded that birth order research was inconclusive in nature. In a recent meta-analytic survey by Chairmay and Thinkhamrop, (2006), it was concluded that in contrast with inconsistencies reported for BO effect, both Perinatal factors like antenatal care along with postnatal factors like birth order, parental education, environmental factors, gender of the children, and family history with specific language impairment can influence language development. The debate still continues. Maybe further researches can clarify this interesting line of research with more scrutiny in near future.

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Review on Frontier Poetry Research

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Abstract—This Essay reviews the research on the concept of Frontier Poetry since 1980s, and the researches on the origin development, poet writings, and aesthetic characteristics of Frontier Poetry. Three propositions are put forward based on these reviews: firstly, frontier poetry needs to be defined scientifically and accurately so that further researches can be carried out. Secondly, the origin of frontier poetry needs to be differentiated scientifically. Lastly, more attention needs to be put on the research on frontier poetry as a unique style of poetry. Poetry researches should not be restricted to Tang Dynasty. Fore and aft, transverse researches and interdiscipline researches on frontier poetry need to be carried out.

Index Terms—frontier poetry, origin development, poet writings, aesthetic characteristics

I. INTRODUCTION

There are many styles of Chinese ancient poetry. For example, pastoral poetry, love poetry, praise poetry, and frontier poetry. Frontier poetry has a long history, and becomes an important component of Chinese ancient poetry. Different from other poetry styles, frontier poetry expresses the political life of the individuals, the political relations and actions of the countries and political groups. In addition, frontier poetry has an obvious frontier region characteristic as it takes frontier as the main object. Xu Zong writes in The History of Tang Poems: Frontier Poetry is the outcome of the culture of a special region. (*The History of Tang Poems,* 1994, P496). As a result, from the perspective of reflecting lives, frontier poetry is an irreplaceable poetry style. On the other hand, frontier poetry has rich national culture elements. It shows how nomadism culture conflicts and mixes with farming culture while expressing the civilization process of different nationalities and different times. Hence, frontier poetry bears strong national feelings, foreign customs, and grand aesthetical pictures. These illustrate that frontier poetry is a unique poetry style and hence occupies important position in Chinese ancient poems and has a significant value. For a long time, frontier poetry is frequently mentioned in the poetry research articles. Nevertheless, there is no unified definition for frontier poetry. A specific definition for frontier poetry is needed if accurate and further assessment should be pursued. Therefore, it is significant to make research in the areas of the definition, scope, and history of frontier poetry.

II. DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF FRONTIER POETRY

What is frontier poetry? What are the requirements on content, format, and style of frontier poetry? There are many arguments on these questions, but frontier poetry is still an ambiguous poetry concept until now. The arguments on frontier poetry can be divided into two groups. One group is narrow sense and another is broad sense. Scholars support narrow sense believe that the geographic range is limited in the frontiers, which is along the Great Wall, and reaches the Four An Xi Towns[1] in the northwest. And the time is limited in the prosperous and middle Tang Dynasty. (*Selected Articles on Tang Dynasty Frontier Poetry Research,* 1988, P357) This group of scholars think that frontier poetry are the poems written by Gao Shi 高适 and Cen Shen 岑参, and focus on departures. They believe this definition is generally agreed since Ming and Qing Dynasty and cannot be expanded boundlessly. Another group of scholars think the content of frontier poetry is quite broad. Those poems concerning the life of frontier region, and those have direct or indirect connections with frontier life, can be part of frontier poetry. In addition, the time is not limited in prosperous and middle Tang Dynasty, but can be expanded boundlessly. This group supports the broad sense.

Now how can we define Frontier Poetry? We believe neither the broad sense group nor the narrow sense group give a clear definition to frontier poetry. Both groups have not located frontier poetry clearly in Chinese ancient poetry system. Therefore further scientific research on frontier poetry cannot be carried out smoothly.

In 1990s, Yan Fuling gives a definition to frontier poetry, which is quite typical. Yan believes that frontier poetry has its own content and aesthetical style and is different from scenery poetry, love poetry, pastoral poetry, and meditation poetry. He gives examples on how the word frontier is defined in Chinese documents. The word Frontier in Chinese can be divided into two parts. One part refers to the border area, and another part refers to the fortress. The word frontier represents the border area and the area where the force reside. Hence, Yan Fuling gives the following definition to Frontier Poetry: "Frontier Poetry takes Frontier and defense as its background, and its content is focused on the different topics of frontier. (Yan Fuling, 1999). This article agrees and supports this definition.

Firstly, it is not reasonable to support the narrow sense group to define the "frontier" as the region along the Great Wall. Take the poems of Tang Dynasty as an example, it is not right if only those concerning northwestern Great Wall

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[1] The Four An Xi Towns refer to the four military towns set up by Tang Dynasty in the north west.

wars are included in the frontier poetry definition, and those concerning Tubo[2] 吐蕃 and Nanzhao[3] 南诏 wars are all excluded. Therefore, frontier poetry includes all the poems concerning the war in the east, south, west, and north frontiers, and the time should not be limited in Tang Dynasty. In fact, where there are countries, there are wars, and every dynasty has its own frontier poems. Secondly, Yan Fuling puts forwards the idea that frontier poetry takes frontier and defense as the background, and this is a necessary set point. The broad sense group supports the definition that all poems that have direct or indirect connections with frontier life are frontier poetry, and this definition is not rigorous enough. This article supports the idea that any frontier poem that writes about frontier scenery, vegetation, products, and customs, should have connections with frontier and defense if it should be defined as frontier poetry. If it has no such connection, it cannot be defined as frontier poetry but border area poetry.

Thus, frontier poetry should have the following characteristics: firstly it has a frontier characteristic and always writes about the frontier region. The frontier region is different from the inner region in the senses that its weather is more adverse, its location is dangerously steep and desolate, and its foreign customs are more peculiar. The frontier poems usually write about the great, dangerous, hard and cold environment of the frontier region, and show a great scenery which is totally different from the scenes in inner part of China. Secondly, frontier poetry has political characteristic. Comparing with other poetries such as scenery poetry, love poetry and history poetry, frontier poetry has a political characteristic because it reflects the true political life in writing about the fights between the different countries and political groups. Thirdly, frontier poetry has a temporal spirit. Different times have different boundaries and different social customs. Therefore frontier poetry shows about different geographic sceneries and spiritual features in different times.

III.   REVIEW ON FRONTIER POETRY RESEARCH HISTORY

A.   Research on Origins of Frontier Poetry

The process of making researches on the origin of frontier poetry is a breeding and accumulating process to study its nature and essential characteristic. Most scholars take Tang Dynasty as the basic point when making research on its origin, and also put much importance on Tang Dynasty.

Previous researches on Origin of Frontier Poetry focus on the following three aspects: one aspect is on the origin of frontier poetry. Most scholars believe frontier poetry is originated from Shi Jing.[4] Some scholars even puts forward that the poems writing about wars in Shi Jing have significant influence on frontier poetry (Wei Lingna, 1998). The present academic circle has reached an agreement on the origin of frontier poetry. It is believed that the writings in Shi Jing on wars are the origin of Chinese ancient frontier poetry, and these writings have settled foundation for the later frontier poetry in the areas of themes, artistic expressions, and aesthetical styles.

The other aspect concerns the research on the fastigium of frontier poetry development—researches on Tang dynasty frontier poetry. There are many achievements in this aspect, and these researches are comparatively more thorough. Before 1980s, these researches focused more on the poets and their writings during the prosperous Tang Dynasty. After 1980s, the academic circle began to notice those poets and writing in early and late Tang Dynasty. For example, Jin Taoshen (1985) proposes that "Four Outstanding Poets in Early Tang Dynasty[5]" "初唐四杰" and Chen Ziang directed the poems to Cold Frontier, expanded the styles of poetry, and led a vigorous and fresh artistic style. On the other hand, Zhou Xiaoli (1988) puts forward that the Middle Tang Dynasty frontier poetry surpasses the Prosperous Tang Dynasty frontier poetry in the perspect of the numbers of poets and poems. The Middle Tang Dynasty frontier poetry recorded the important historical changes in the content, inherited and developed the styles of Prosperous Tang Dynasty frontier poetry, and deepened the realistic spirit.

The third aspect refers to the academic circle's interest in researches on the changes of frontier poetry in the Dynasties of Song, Yuan, Ming and Qing. Zeng Xiansen (1997) systematically analyzes the achievements of minority frontier poetry in Yuan Dynasty in the four aspects of the frontier poetry prosperity reasons, themes, artistic styles and unique achievement. Starting from the origins of themes, Yan Fuling (1998) discusses the characteristics of Yuan Dynasty frontier poetry in the three areas of themes, styles and forms. The academic circle has noticed the unique characteristics of frontier poetry of Yuan Dynasty. As to Ming Dynasty Frontier Poetry, Yang Fuxue (1995) expounds its historic position in the three aspects of fantastic west border scenery, colorful customs, and solemn and stirring patriotic poems. With regard to Qing Dynasty frontier poetry, Huang Gang gives discussion in On Characteristics of West Border Frontier Poetry in Qing Dynasty (1996). In addition, Xue Zongzheng makes detailed comment the poets represented by Ji Yun. Until now, the academic circle focuses research in the areas of themes and artistic styles when discussing frontier poetry after Tang Dynasty.

In the recent 30 years, the academic circle has made outstanding achievement on the research of origins of frontier

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[2] Tubo dynasty (618AD—842AD) is the first have a clear historical records in Tibetan history.
[3] Nanzhao dynasty (738AD—902AD) is the ancient kingdom of rise of the eighth century in Yungui plateau.
[4] Shi Jing 诗经，Shi Jing is the first collection of poems in China. It recorded a total of 305 poems created over a period of 500 years or so, from the early Western Zhou Dynasty 西周 to the middle of the Spring and Autumn Period 春秋时期.
[5] "Four Outstanding Poets in Early Tang Dynasty", "初唐四杰"，refer to the four famous poets in the Early Tang Dynasty. They are Wang Bo 王勃 (650AD—676AD), Yang Jiong 杨炯 (650AD—693AD), Lu Zhaolin 卢照邻 (637AD—689AD), Luo Binwang 骆宾王 (640AD—684AD).

poetry. Researches on Frontier poetry not only focuses on Tang Dynasty poetry, but also on the ancient frontier poetry history. Although views of the researchers have been broadened, there are some aspects that can be improved. The first aspect is the research on the origin of frontier poetry. It is not appropriate for some scholars to deem that the research can trace back to Shi Jing, and it is also not appropriate for another group of scholars to include those writing about wars in Shi Jing directly in frontier poetry. In the previous pages we define frontier poetry as the poems which write obviously about border area. Most poems in Shi Jing writing about wars have no such characteristic. The second aspect is the focus of research. Most researches focus on Tang Dynasty. The researches on the periods before and after Tang Dynasty need to be advanced. The third aspect is the discussion on the frontier poetry. Most discussions are on individual poems, and few give systematic and profound discussions on the whole frontier poetry. As researches on frontier poetry is developing, the researches on the periods before and after Tang Dynasty need to be strengthened

B. Researches on Poets and Poems

In 1980s researches on frontier poetry were deepened. Main achievements on research were in the areas of documentation, analyzing on poets and poem from many dimensions. Some researches even brought new meteorology to frontier poetry research by discussing the creation personalities of the poets and the poem styles from the perspectives of aesthetics and art.

Researches on individual poets of Tang Dynasty Frontier poets focus mainly on these poets such as Cen Shen 岑参 (715AD—770AD), Gao Shi 高适 (704AD—765AD), Wang Changling 王昌龄 (698AD—756AD) and Cui Hao 崔颢 (704AD—754AD). At the same time, researches on the poets such as Luo Bingwang 骆宾王 (619AD—?), Chen Ziang 陈子昂 (661AD—702AD), Li Bai 李白 (701AD—762AD) and Du Fu 杜甫 (712AD—770AD) have also carried out. Researches on the poets before Tang Dynasty focus on Cao Zhi 曹植[6] (192AD—232AD), Bao Zhao 鲍照 [7] (415AD—466AD), and Xiao Gang 萧纲[8] (503AD—551AD), and on the poets after Tang Dynasty focus on Mei Yaochen 梅尧臣(1002AD—1060AD), Su Shunqin 苏舜钦 (1008AD—1048AD) of Song Dynasty, Ye Lvzhu 耶律铸 (1221AD—1285AD) of Yuan Dynasty, and Weng Wanda 翁万达 (1498AD—1552AD), Chen Cheng 陈诚 (1365AD—1457AD) of Ming Dynasty.

Secondly, researches on the poets and the comparison of their writings have been carried out. Examples can be seen in the researches on the comparison of the writings of Gao Shi 高适 (704AD—765AD) and Cen Shen 岑参 (715AD—770AD) in Tang Dynasty. These two poets can fully represent the prosperous Tang Dynasty frontier poets. Wang Weikang (1995) puts forward that rooting from different life experiences, living areas and writing psychologies, the writings of these two poets are totally different. Gao Shi's 高适 (704AD—765AD) writings are full of deep realistic flavor, and Cen Shen's 岑参 (715AD—770AD) writings are rich of bold and unconstrained romantic color.

Thirdly, researches on the inheriting relationships of frontier poets have been carried out. Frontier Poetry development has its origins, and its development will not stop abruptly. Therefore, many scholars now devote in the research of the inheriting relationships. Some scholars think the optimistic spirit of Jian An Poems contributes to the active and enterprising features of Tang Dynasty frontier poetry (Zheng Hongni, 2000). Wang Zhiqing (1994) discusses the relationships between Bao Zhao 鲍照 (415AD—466AD) and Wang Wei 王维 (701AD—761AD) from the perspectives of inheriting and development. He puts forward that Wang Wei 王维 (701AD—761AD) inherits Bao Zhao 鲍照 (415AD—466AD) in the senses of style and writing skills.

We agree that researches on frontier poetry are much less than the researches on other poetries such as scenery poetry. Transverse research has just started, and interdiscipline research is almost a blank space. We need to carry out concrete and indepth research in the areas of its unique image induction, the poets' modes of thinking, and summarization on the art styles of the writings.

C. Research on Aesthetic Characteristics of Frontier Poetry

After 1980s, influenced by academic ideological trend of the time, social critiques on frontier poetry began to decline, and researches on aesthetics began to prosper. Researchers started from the poems, reviewed the aesthetic character of frontier poetry, and summarized its artistic achievements. On one hand, most researches on aesthetic characteristics of frontier poetry focus on Tang Dynasty. For example, Cao Libo (1991) analyzes the poetry images full of northwestern border characteristics, and explains its cultural aesthetics. Li Binghai (1998(1)) considers that the writings of frontier poets on the sceneries of the war places reflect the cultural accumulation of national fusion in different aspects.

Wang Kaiyuan, Xue Songhua (2000(5)) discuss the influence of western border music and dances on frontier poetry of Tang Dynasty from the aspects of themes and forms. Cui Yue (1999(3)) takes the ancient Pi Pa Art development in the poems of Tang and Song Dynasty as the clue, and makes comments on the musical factor of frontier poetry in prosperous Tang Dynasty period. Liu Zhenlun (1992(4)) analyzes the constituting factors of geology, society, and time from the perspective of literature and sociology, and attaches importance to the geological characteristics of frontier

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[6] Cao Zhi 曹植 (192—232) is a famous poet in the Three Kingdoms of China.
[7] Bao Zhao 鲍照(415—466) is a famous poet in Wei Jin Southern and Northern Dynasties of China.
[8] Xiao Gang 萧纲(503—551) is a famous poet in Liang Dynasty of China.

poetry. On the other hand, other researchers also explore the aesthetic characteristics of other Dynasties. For example, Huang Gang publishes Discussion on Characteristics of Western Border Frontier Poetry of Qing Dynasty, Yan Fu publishes Discussion on Writings and Characteristics of Yuan Dynasty Frontier Poetry (1996(1)). These two essays are important in the discussion of artistic characteristics of Frontier Poetry in Yuan and Qing Dynasties.

From these researches we can see that generally, researches on frontier poetry focus on Tang Dynasty. Frontier poetry has not been considered as a unique poetry. Systematic researches on frontier poetry under the broad view of poetry history have not been carried out. Therefore, discussions on its aesthetic characteristics are based on individual dynasties, and focus mainly on Tang Dynasty.

IV. CONCLUSION

The reviews on the definition and history of frontier poetry concern mainly the following aspects: origin, writings and aesthetic characteristics, and these reviews summarize the present research situations of frontier poetry. Generally speaking, researches on frontier poetry have achieved much achievement in recent 30 years. First and foremost, frontier poetry needs to be cognized and defined scientifically. In the process of making research on frontier poetry, many scholars have realized that the definition of frontier poetry is ambiguous. This reflects the weakness of the research. In order to deepen research on frontier poetry, we need to define its connotation and extension scientifically and strictly. At the same time, as further researches on frontier poetry is carrying out, the academic circle has realized that frontier poetry has its own unique taste and artistic value, and it should not be restricted as one group of Tang Dynasty poetries. Thus, scholars represented by Yan Fuling give a more scientific definition to frontier poetry. It could be argued that the scientific cognition and strict definition on frontier poetry have contributed to the scientific, regulatory, and prosperous development of its research. In addition, more and more articles and books argue the content and artistic presentation of frontier poetry, either before Tang Dynasty or after Tang Dynasty. These articles and books give a picture of the frontier poetry development in the context of Chinese ancient poetry. The lengthways perspective on frontier poetry is not only taken in the poetry history research, but also in inheriting relationship research. Finally, before 1980s, the academic circle focused the research on social critics, and deviated from the literature appreciation direction. The deviation slowed the research development to some extent. In recent 30 years, affected by academic trends, many scholars start to discuss the aesthetic characteristics of frontier poetry and summarize its unique artistic achievements on the basis of the western literature and aesthetic theory and the nature of the poems.

Although there is no argument on the definition of frontier poetry in narrow or broad senses. Nevertheless, there are still some incomplete aspects: firstly, the definition of frontier poetry is much ambiguous in perspectives of connotation and extension, and this brings difficulties to the further researchers. Secondly, the research on the origin of frontier poetry is still not clear. Some researchers believe frontier poetry originates from Shi Jing, and others point out that there are frontier poetry in Shi Jing. Thirdly, research on frontier poetry is limited in Tang Dynasty for a long time. Compared with other poetry styles such as scenery poetry, frontier poetry is not considered as a unique poetry style. Hence, research on frontier poetry is still insufficient. To sum up, we suggest: firstly, a scientific and accurate definition needs to be given to frontier poetry. This is the most important matter in deepening research on frontier poetry. Secondly, the origin of frontier poetry needs to be discriminated on the basis of accurate definition. Thirdly, much importance needs to be attached to the research of frontier poetry as a unique poetry style. Researches should not be limited in Tang Dynasty. However, longitudinal, transverse, and interdisciplinary researches on frontier poetry need to be strengthened.

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